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Idioms As Expressive Means Of Linguistic Identity Of A Speaker (On The Basis Of The Tatar and Kazakh Languages)

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Abstract
Phraseology is a unique phenomenon in any language. Kazakh and Tatar have accumulated an enormous amount of idioms. Originally, they are used in fiction prose that is the foundation for the development of a literary language: gradually these occasional word combinations and set expressions gain a firm and stable position in oral and written language use. As is well-known, idioms count centuries-long use and have never failed to attach expressivity and flamboyancy to oral texts. Once uttered by biys or akyns (poets), they disseminated and spread widely among common people. Their popularity accounts for the fact that they enable a speaker to put expressivity and force into the message conveyed. This research paper studies Tatar and Kazakh idioms that share a lot of common features in representing culture and national mentality of people. It views the national linguistic identity as a crucial factor in providing old and newly coined idioms with a firm and stable position in language. The theories applied in the research are those developed in Russian, Tatar and Kazakh linguistics on phraseological stability and on the role of phraseology in the representation of national mentality. The artistic thinking of Kazakhs and Tatars is shaped by the lifestyle of people; the sense of freedom provided by a vast steppe with its amazing nature evokes most romantic and elevated feelings in a human being. That is why, in metaphorical terms, the Kazakh and Tatar linguistic identity is more likely to be compared to a large-scale picture decorated with vivid expressions and metaphors.

Introduction
Our paper focuses on delineation of various factors that lead to the stability of set expressions in language. An important parameter that affects the formation of phraseological units and provides their stability in language is linguistic identity of a native speaker, one of the central concepts in our study.
The data for the research are idioms selected from various sources including oratorical verses produced by akyns (poets and narrators), famous biys (public judges), and sages, whose eloquent texts reflect the spirit of the Kazakh and Tatar people; creative expressions from lyric epics, fairy tales, historical epics; set expressions used in modern media texts and natural speech.

The purpose of this study is to reveal common and specific features of idioms in the Tatar and Kazakh languages, as expressive means of a speaker’s linguistic identity.

Research methods
The methodological basis of the research is a combination of general scientific and special linguistic methods that include continuous data collection techniques, methods of a) lexical-semantic, b) component, c) semantic, d) comparative analyses, and a descriptive method.


Results
Members of a certain language and culture community have their own view of the world: in this respect, illustrative are Tatar and Kazakh set expressions that originate from different sources:

a) from the war epics:
batir keshe bakir uzer (Tatar) – literally: ‘batyr (a word used in Tatar and Kazakh to refer to a fearless warrior) tears copper’;
kabaginan kar jauip, кірпігінө мұз тамған (Kazakh) – literally: ‘to snow from eyebrows, to ice from lashes’;
astingi erni jer tirep, ustingi erni kok tirep (Kazakh) – literally: ‘the lower lip rests on the ground, the upper one supports the sky’
which create an image of a warrior based on the meaning of ‘a severe, wrathful man’;

b) from fairy tales:
tup bashina utirtu (Tatar) – literally ‘to leave (somebody) sitting on a stub’;
kekre kayinga teretu (Tatar) – literally ‘to prop (somebody) against a gnarly birch-tree’;
kозіне топырақ шашу (Kazakh) – literally ‘to throw dust into one’s eyes’;
muzga otyrgizip ketu (Kazakh) – literally ‘to leave (somebody) sitting on the ice’
that convey the phraseological meaning of ‘to deceive a person.’
c) from historical sources:
batir uz khalkin yakliy (Tatar) – literally ‘a warrior defends his people’;
kilishtin juzimen, nayzanin ushimen (Kazakh) – literally ‘by sword, by point of the spear’
whose meaning is ‘to show one’s force, demonstrate one’s power’;
d) from a well-known epos:
Leyle belen Medznun kuk (Tatar) – literally ‘like Layla and Majnun’;
Kyz Jibek pen Tolegendey (from the Kazakh epos of “Kyz Zhibek”) – literally ‘like Kyz Jibek and Tolegen’
which gives the meaning of ‘fidelity in love’: these personal names are similar to Shakespeare’s ‘Romeo and Juliet’;
e) from literary works by famous poets and writers:
tegermechene tayak tigu (Tatar) – literally ‘to put sticks into somebody’s wheels’;
kiska kunde kirik jerge koyma koyu (Kazakh) – literally ‘in a short time to set up warehouses in forty places’
(an expression comes from Abay, the Kazakh poet and philosopher)
which give the meaning of ‘to build obstacles by tricks and meanness’;
f) set expressions created by biys and sages who became famous among Tatars and Kazakhs for their
rhetoric and oratory art:
avizinda kosh uyntata (Tatar) – literally ‘to make a bird play in one’s mouth’;
auzimen kus tistegen (Kazakh) – literally ‘has bitten a bird with one’s mouth’ (which has two meanings: 1)
‘fast’ (about a horse), 2) ‘sage, orator’;
kara kildi kamshi kilgan (Kazakh) – literally ‘has turned a black mane hair into a whip’
– all of them have the meaning of ‘a skillful, resourceful and eloquent speaker.’
Now that written literature has at its disposal a rich variety of techniques, figurative means and
metaphors that make it possible to express any advanced thoughts and ideas, the fate of the original
national phraseology is at stake and provokes questions like: a) How sustainable is the bulk of Kazakh
and Tatar phraseology? And b) Will new set expressions get a permanent position in language?
The creative discourse of poets and writers, well-known journalists, publicists, satirists who use language
as a powerful means of communication comes into the focus of our research as they provide the data
necessary for the description of the Kazakh and Tatar linguistic identity. It is these members of a language community who contribute much to the enrichment of the lexical and phraseological stock of a language and, thus, are the driving force for the national language development. Their persuasive and creative texts influence the formation of the national public identity that integrates peculiarities of their social and philosophical worldview. In the concept of ‘linguistic identity’ – crucial for this research, the core lexical unit is ‘identity.’ Linguistic identity is directly related to such three aspects of communication and mutual understanding as ‘speech activity’, ‘language system’ and ‘linguistic facts’. The term ‘linguistic identity’ came into being in anthropological linguistics in the 80-ies. The extensive investigation, firstly, of the human factor paved the way for new research in psycho- and sociolinguistics whose findings and achievements served as a foundation for a poly-paradigmatic approach to the study of linguistic identity.

Yuriy N. Karaulov distinguishes three levels of language proficiency significant for identifying one’s linguistic identity: semantic, linguistic and cognitive, motivational and pragmatic [Karaulov Y.N., 2010]. The semantic, or zero level, deals with words and expressions acquired by the speaker due to his/her natural speech abilities. In other words, it is correct use of lexical items, whereas grammar rules may be sometimes deviated.

The linguistic and cognitive level is associated with the level of human cognitive activity. In the stage of perception development, each speaker builds up one’s own hierarchical system on the basis of socially shared cultural values, their evaluation, and social experience. This is manifest in the manner and content of speech, individual use of words, which can serve as the key to revealing the identity of a speaker (for instance, sadness in Abay’s poetry, inspiration and passion in Makhambet’s poems).

The pragmatic level is determined by the speaker’s communicative objectives and conditions of a communicative situation. This dimension is the major one in identifying one’s identity and takes into consideration individual logical reasoning, knowledge and emotional state of a person. Individual linguistic consciousness cannot develop in isolation since any member of a language community acquires the skill of verbal art from preceding generations.

It would be an exaggeration to say that every native speaker is possessive of a linguistic identity. Firstly, a person is to be highly intelligent and, above all, to represent and reproduce in his/her texts national and cultural values of his/her people: in Kazakh and Tatar cultures these people are, to name just a few,
Abay, A. Baytursynov, K. Zhubanov, Sh. Marjani, K. Nasiri, G. Tukay, G. Ibrakhimov. Therefore, the concept of ‘linguistic identity’ is inseparable from those of ‘national identity’ and ‘social identity’ and should be considered within this trinity.

Thus, it is the combination of profound knowledge and cognitive ability to artistic thinking, ability to enhance the level of national and social consciousness that provides a person with the status of a linguistic identity.

The above mentioned names, revered in the Kazakh and Tatar societies, refer to experts of verbal art distinguished by their ability to choose and skilfully use language resources, which can be called artistry inherent in a linguistic identity. Moreover, they go beyond the level of efficient and artistic language use creating new expressions and metaphors that turn from features of one’s individual language into a part of the national wordstock.

To illustrate, our study of Abay’s language makes it possible to classify idioms used by the poet into two groups:

1. Those created by the poet himself:
   - *basina is tusu* – ‘to face problems and difficulties’;
   - *jalga juru* – ‘to work for someone’;
   - *zakon ustau* – ‘to follow the law, follow the rules’;
   - *at minip aksha ustau* – ‘to live well, be successful’.

2. Those borrowed from the national language:
   - *baska shauyp, tosk e orleu* – ‘to be stubborn, pushy, conceited’;
   - *tabaninan tausilu* – ‘to be tired and exhausted’.

His unique style manifest in his individual phraseological units and figurative expressions can be found now in the works created by other Kazakh poets and writers either in their original or new, modified forms. These expressions are certainly an inexhaustible source of enrichment of the Kazakh phraseology.

The stock of modern Kazakh and Tatar phraseology is enriched by the resources of written literature, folklore and epic stories. And yet it highlights another issue: Why are there few expressions that reflect current countless changes in the cultural life of the people?
If we consider cultural features encoded in previously formed idioms, the thematic framework of Kazakh and Tatar phraseology can be described according to metaphors associated with different domains of social life:

bolganchik yillar (Tatar) – literally ‘muddy years’, kirik kun kirgin, min kun surgin (Kazakh) – literally ‘forty days of slaughter, a thousand days of persecution’, i.e. the time of war, turmoil and confusion;
kun de beyrem, kun de tuy (Tatar) – literally ‘everyday a holiday, everyday a wedding’, kaganagi kark, saganagi sark (Kazakh) i.e. carefree days;
tele telgä yokmiy (Tatar) – literally ‘a tongue does not stick to a tongue’, sildir komey, jez tanday (Kazakh) – literally ‘ringing larynx, copper palate’, i.e. an eloquent man, orator;
kolach dze yip karshi alu (Tatar) – literally ‘to meet somebody with welcoming embrace’, at mingizip, ton kigyzu (Kazakh) – literally ‘to give sb. a horse and a fur coat as a gift’, i.e. to welcome and honour somebody;
tewekkel tau yiga (Tatar) – literally ‘a risky person will bring down a mountain’, jilki minezdi adam (Kazakh) – literally ‘a person of a horse temper’, i.e. a person of a violent, quarrelsome nature (paradoxically, the second example also has the meaning of ‘a patient person’);
ere beringe ashagan (Tatar) – literally ‘has eaten a big potato’, kanga salem bermeu (Kazakh) – literally ‘not to greet the khan (the term used in old times to refer to the ruler)’, i.e. to be arrogant and haughty;
kodani khoday kusha, dusni fireshte kusha (Tatar) – literally ‘an in-law/matchmaker is appointed by God, a friend – by an angel’, kuyrik bauyr jesip, kuda bolu (Kazakh) – literally ‘to taste liver with fat and become matchmakers/in-laws’, i.e. become matchmakers/in-laws (the latter expression comes from the Kazakh custom to treat matchmakers to boiled sheep liver).

The above shown ethnophraseologisms reflect traditions and customs of the people and are linguistic manifestations of a national and cultural identity.

At the same time, new expressions that refer to contemporary cultural phenomena appear in language and tend to gain a strong position in language. For example:

kesese kalin (Tatar) – literally ‘a thick pocket’, kalıtsı kalınsı (Kazakh) – literally ‘a thick pocket’, i.e. rich;
isep-khisap aldan yuri (Tatar) – literally ‘calculation goes first’, aksha soylegen zamanı (Kazakh) – literally ‘it is the time when money speaks’, i.e. the time of the wealthy;
til ashar jasau (Kazakh) – literally ‘to mark the beginning of speech’, i.e. a feast to celebrate the child’s becoming a schoolpupil;
uzeng utirgan botakni kisu (Tatar) – literally ‘to cut off the branch you are sitting on’, oz japiragin ozi julu (Kazakh) – literally ‘to pick off one’s own leaves’, i.e. to create problems for oneself;
bette-kitte (Tatar) – literally ‘it's over, it's gone’, eyttem-bette (Tatar) ‘I’ve said it and it’s over’, bazaar jok (Kazakh) – literally ‘there is no bazaar, no trade’, i.e. to come to an agreement.

Discussion
The twentieth century witnessed enormous changes in Kazakhs and Tatars’ cultural life that resulted in the changing of the national spirit. These changes had a largely beneficial effect on the life of people, on arts and education, but turned out to be destructive to language and mentality. At present, it is mainly the responsibility of poets, writers, and journalists to deploy the national language resources. Wisdom of the past embedded in proverbs and idioms is gradually disappearing since this part of language stock is disregarded by native speakers in communication. And the questions concerning the wide use of culture specific idioms and what kind of national mentality the Kazakhs and Tatars will be left with in the current century still remain open.

Conclusions
The national spirit and culture of the people find their manifestation, most vividly of all, in idioms. Colourful and expressive idioms were widely used in old times by experts of rhetoric and oratory art to sound persuasive, convincing and eloquent.

Tatar and Kazakh idioms analysed in our research display a lot of commonalities in their meaning and sometimes in the use of the same lexemes in conveying information. These similarities speak of common cultural roots, traditions, lifestyle and historical background of the two Turkic-speaking nations.

Idioms that date back to earlier periods of the national history still preserve the tendency to be frequently used for different communicative purposes in a rich variety of sources including modern mass media texts.

As the research findings display, the most significant factor in providing a stable and firm position in language for expressions in question is the authority of the so called linguistic identity, a notion
indivisible from the concepts of national and social identities. The status of linguistic identity is accessible to members of a language community who are distinguished by intellect, profound knowledge and cognitive ability to artistic thinking, contribution to the development of national and cultural values. This group includes, first of all, poets, writers, mass media workers, playwrights whose creative approach contributes to the development of a literary language and strengthens the position of idioms, metaphors and other evidence of verbal art that come as a cultural heritage from preceding generations. The analysis of natural speech shows, however, that native speakers of Modern Tatar and Kazakh resort more frequently to newly formed idioms rather than to those that have been codified in dictionaries and have a long history of use. Moreover, the number of these newly coined idioms is far from being sufficient to represent all changes taking place in people’s culture and lifestyle. The situation highlights a lot of significant issues: among these are the ways to keep the position of phraseology, old and new, strong enough to resist the modern tendency to disregard this part of word stock by a greater part of a community and, consequently, to prevent national mentality and national culture from being completely changed and distorted. The search of solutions presents a challenge to all native speakers including language researchers.

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References


Difficulty In English Reading Texts Comprehension

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Abstract
The article presents the results of the research into reading comprehension difficulties in high school, determined by both subjective and objective factors. The complexity and difficulty of school English coursebook reading texts were analysed with the help of computer-based online programmes; Flesch Reading Ease and Flesch-Kincaid formulae. According to the research results, it is important to select educational texts paying attention to their quantitative parameters, difficulty and complexity, which must be increasing gradually. This disciplines, motivates and helps to develop cognitive abilities of students, thus improving reading comprehension. The obtained results were proved by the experiment aimed at determining the difficulty of school reading text perception, which indicated that difficulty of the text depends not only on its complexity, but also on the reader’s preparedness.

Keywords: text complexity/difficulty, readability formulae, educational texts, reading comprehension, cognitive abilities, motivation

Introduction
As communication presents a form of a text, the latter becomes one of the main means of communicative competence development. It is the basic language component of foreign languages curriculum content, because it provides an opportunity to learn the language in the complex interaction of all speech activity types. That is, understanding text as the main communicative unit, we can interpret the practical goal of teaching English as the acquisition of the skills to perceive texts and work with them. Despite the variety of reading materials methodologists offer to teachers, selection of the most suitable materials for a particular group of students remains a very important component of the teaching process. One of the basic requirements for reading texts is their simplicity and accessibility of new information [1]. Incorrect choice of texts can seriously deteriorate the quality and speed of training. Often educational materials are selected solely on the basis of subjective, independent or collective evaluations of teachers without the use of any particular techniques. However, only the analysis of each student’s level of knowledge at the end of the course allows us to truly assess the effectiveness of the selected texts. Yet, there are also objective methods that can help select educational texts basing on the properties of the text itself, which will enhance the effectiveness of teaching and accelerate the process of educational material acquisition [2, 3]. Carefully selected textual material will help motivate students and stimulate their cognitive interest.

The purpose of our research is to determine the system in the educational texts offered in the senior classes by Russian methodologists and, as a result, their relevance in terms of the effectiveness of their use; as well as to use the obtained results to develop some possible adjustments aimed at forming the reading skill [4]. Bringing the level of complexity and difficulty of the text in line with the level of
preparation of the readership for which it was designed will undoubtedly enhance students’ cognitive abilities.

The theoretical and methodological basis of the study includes the works by such scholars as G.S. Kostyuk, A.A. Smirnov, N.A. Menchinskaya, I.V. Karpov, A.N. Sokolov, A.A. Brudny, L.P. Doblaev, M.I. Solnyshkina, etc. We also considered the studies devoted to text complexity carried out by Russian and foreign scholars (N.K. Krioni, M.S. Matskovsky, Y.A. Mikk, A.D. Nikin, I.V. Oborneva, E.S. Pushkin, M.I. Solnyshkina, A.V. Filippov, S.A. Crossley, R. Flesch, A.C. Graesser, J.P. Kincaid, D.S. McNamara, P.M. McCarthy, etc.).

The analysis of problems of text understanding in the light of linguistic and extralinguistic factors became possible due to the emergence of psycholinguistics, the foundations of which were laid down in the works of Russian psychologists (L.S. Vygotsky, A.R. Luria, N.I. Zhinkin, S.L. Rubinshtein, A.N. Leontiev, etc.) and linguists (A.A. Potebnya, L.V. Shcherba, A.A. Leontiev, A.E. Suprun, etc.).

Abroad, the issue of accessibility was tackled by R. Flech, I. Lorge, E. Dale, E. Colman, J. Choll, E. Fry, who developed readability formulae predicting the difficulty of a text for a certain category of readers.

Methods and materials

The following methods were used in the research: analysis of theoretical literature on the research issue, synthesis of theoretical and empirical material, modeling method, analysis of pedagogical documentation and teaching experience, critical analysis of school English coursebooks used in Russia, mathematical and statistical texts analysis, and the experiment.

The experiment enabled us to discover the objective psycholinguistic criteria that determine the difficulty of text perception. The material for the experiment comprised 30 reading texts brought from school coursebooks Spotlight-10 and Spotlight-11; testing and assessment materials of the Unified State Exam in English [5, 6, 7]. The study involved 52 tenth- and eleventh-graders of the Secondary General School 55 with advanced study of individual subjects of Moskovsky District, Kazan.
## Results.

### Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text 1</th>
<th>Text 2</th>
<th>Text 3</th>
<th>Text 4</th>
<th>Text 5</th>
<th>Text 6</th>
<th>Text 7</th>
<th>Text 8</th>
<th>Text 9</th>
<th>Text 10</th>
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<td>6</td>
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#### Spotlight 10

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<th>Text 6</th>
<th>Text 7</th>
<th>Text 8</th>
<th>Text 9</th>
<th>Text 10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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#### Spotlight 11

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<th>Text 6</th>
<th>Text 7</th>
<th>Text 8</th>
<th>Text 9</th>
<th>Text 10</th>
</tr>
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<td>55.7</td>
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<td>16.9</td>
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### Unified State Exam texts

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<th>Text 6</th>
<th>Text 7</th>
<th>Text 8</th>
<th>Text 9</th>
<th>Text 10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>College Graduate and above</td>
<td>College</td>
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<td>11</td>
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<td>Text №</td>
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<td>Assignment</td>
<td>Number of correct answers</td>
<td>% correct answers</td>
<td>Students without the answer</td>
<td>% students without the answer</td>
<td>Average time spent on the task (min)</td>
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</tr>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
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Table 3.

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<tr>
<th>Text No.</th>
<th>Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level</th>
<th>Assignment</th>
<th>Number of correct answers</th>
<th>% correct answers</th>
<th>Students without the answer</th>
<th>% students without the answer</th>
<th>Average time spent on the task (min)</th>
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</tr>
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<td>24</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>0%</td>
<td>5.6</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>94%</td>
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<td>2%</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td>3.B</td>
<td>50</td>
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<td>0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>52</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Seventh grade</td>
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<td>27</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>26</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td>4.C</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>0</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>21%</td>
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Table 4.

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<th>Assignment</th>
<th>Number of correct answers</th>
<th>% correct answers</th>
<th>Students without the answer</th>
<th>% students without the answer</th>
<th>Average time spent on the task (min)</th>
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<td>4</td>
<td>8%</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Ninth grade</td>
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<td>0%</td>
<td>11.1</td>
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<td></td>
<td>2.B</td>
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<td>19%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>4%</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>0%</td>
<td>14.1</td>
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<td></td>
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Discussion
At the first stage of the experiment, a computer-based online programme [8, 9] was used to discover the nature of the interrelationships and to identify the degree of the impact of various factors on the difficulty of educational material perception. It allows one to assess the complexity and difficulty of texts by certain quantitative parameters (the number of words and the sentences in the text, the average number of words in a sentence and syllables in a word) [10]. Moreover, we applied the formulae of readability: Flesch Reading Ease formula, which allows predicting the degree of difficulty of the text, and Flesch-Kincaid Formula, convenient for showing the necessary level of education for reading the text being studied. Both formulas include two variables: the average sentence length and the average number of syllables in a word [19, 20]. Obviously, the smaller number of syllables a word has, as a rule, the less informative it is. The smaller number of words in the sentence in its turn has a smaller number of connections between words and sentences. It is the ratio of these characteristics that is closely related to the level of students’ understanding of a text [21]. The data are presented in Table 1.

The conclusion on the results of the study proves that the texts proposed by the methodologists of the teaching materials is not systematic and does not correspond to the level of complexity of the USE texts, i.e. they are not designed to prepare students for the unified state examination. Students understand the text differently and can get various forms of information, which depends on their level of competence, their knowledge, age and gender.

At the second stage of the practical experiment on the students’ perception of English texts, first of all, it was necessary to choose an objective method for assessing the difficulty of reading the texts. The extension of the concept of “difficulty of the text” is formed not only from objective (textual) parameters, but also from subjective (dependent on the reader’s perception such as age, background knowledge, education, social status, gender, absence/presence of diseases, place of residence, etc.) parameters. Thus, the difficulty of the text depends not only on its complexity, but also on the reader’s preparedness [4, 11, 17]. The same text can be easy for one reader and difficult for another. And the difficulty of the text is determined by the results of understanding the text, that is, experimentally. The following methods were used:
1. **The method of posing questions on the content of the text.** The percentage of incorrect answers to questions and the percentage of questions left unanswered are the characteristics of the difficulty of understanding the text.
2. **Method of filling in gaps.** The gaps in the texts had been numbered and the time was recorded.
3. **Method of subjective evaluation of the difficulty of the text.** (1 – an ultra easy text, 2 – a very easy text, 3 – an easy text, 4 – a text of medium difficulty, 5 – a difficult text, 6 – a very difficult text, 7 – a super-difficult text) [15, 16, 6].

To exclude students’ superficial acquaintance with the text, which would distort the results in assessing its difficulty, the students were asked to write down a few key words and express the main content of the passage with one simple sentence before judging the difficulty of the text on the scale. These measures forced the students to study the texts more thoroughly. Pupils did not limit themselves in time, but fixed the time spent on each text (it was taken into account as a supplementary method). We analyzed all the texts with the fixed answers. The results of this study are summarized in Table 2.

In the second week, the students completed assignments (four texts from Spotlight-11; one from the USE materials). The results are also presented in Table 3.
The results of the experiment demonstrate the students' low motivation: the texts with a complexity level of Grade 2-3 according to the Flesch-Kincaid Formula are clearly out of the picture, like the USE materials or the materials for senior school. The students spent little time on doing the tasks for the second texts, in comparison with other points. Obviously, these materials were too easy for the students of Grade 10 (this is indicated by the average time spent on them and, in addition, the number of correct answers and the percentage of questions left unanswered). In this case students lose interest in the educational process, but also because it affects the decrease in motivation when reading other texts. The percentage of skipped questions is especially eloquent when the texts are taken from the USE control and measurement materials. Lack of motivation and even moral willingness to do tasks of this level is absolutely obvious. This happens due to the lack of experience, which cannot help but influence the difficulty of the text. In our opinion, the use of text materials offered in modern textbooks is not effective enough. Thus, to make the text material more understandable for students we suggest selecting the texts, basing on their complexity, increasing it gradually.

We hypothesized that student comprehension abilities would develop and learners would benefit from the texts, the level of complexity\difficulty of which is constantly increasing. Moreover, understanding the processes involved in learning from texts, disciplines and stimulates students. The basic didactic principle of Komensky (from simple to complex) and constant interest of students in the process of learning the language allows them to achieve better results in learning and make complex texts more comprehensible [2]. Next, learners were offered the texts with gradually increasing the level of the text materials; also number of tasks of the same type as those used in the previous experiment with the same students to obtain a more objective result were compiled. The practical stage was held in five steps, within two weeks. At each stage, participants received two texts and three assignments to them; time was employed as an additional method of assessing the difficulty of textual materials and text comprehension. It was substantiated empirically and the results are presented in Table 4.

Conclusions

Based on these data, we came to the conclusion that:
• despite the complexity of tasks, the total number of correct answers increased throughout the whole experiment and, ultimately, instead of 30%, we got more than half of the correctly performed tasks;
• time taken to perform increases very slightly and on some days even decreases somewhat;
• the number of questions left unanswered is reduced to zero.

Thus, the research and the obtained data showed that the systematization of textual material by the principle of complication really improves the perception of reading materials developing effective means of formation of students’ foreign language competence. Students gradually overcome their fears, leave comfort zones; and consequently, motivation and enthusiasm are growing. Either too easy or too difficult texts in terms of Flesch Reading Ease and Flesch-Kincaid Formula makes reading difficult for students and do not improve student comprehension abilities and performance. Selection of texts of appropriate complexity for each grade and level can force learners to process the text more actively. Learners set the right priorities and goals; they are motivated to deal with complex reading tasks and be able to achieve better outcomes. Clearly, the results of the third stage of the experiment demonstrate that English-language educational texts have become much more understandable and comprehensible for students.

Acknowledgements
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References
Linguistic Characteristics Of Tatar Tea-Drinking(On The Example Of Names Of Tableware And Meals)

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Annotation
In the lexical system of each language, there are elements that reflect traditions, people's occupations, economic structure, features of thinking, and so on. Many lexical units store the centuries-old history and culture of the people. Studying them we can discover some historical facts, define the importance of surrounding objects and the phenomena in the life of people. There are the national originality, the national advantage, the ethnic identity in household items, elements of different national traditions and customs. This article is devoted to the consideration of some features of the Tatar tea drinking, in particular the tea table, which are reflected in the names of tableware and national meals. These lexemes have a long history in the language and are inextricably linked with the material culture of the Tatars. Description of lexemes is based on materials of phraseological, paremiological, explanatory and bilingual dictionaries of the Tatar language. For the purpose of studying these lexemes, the descriptive method and the method of continuous sampling are used to collect and systematize the materials; lexico-semantic method introduced in the analysis of factual material; methods of linguocultural, component and semantic analysis were used to highlight the cognitive features of the functioning of linguistic units; comparative and comparative methods were used in the review of translations. Review and analysis of factual material confirms that the vocabulary reflects the features of the household and the attitude of the people to their ethno-cultural values. The material will serve as a model and a source for studying other layers of the Tatar language vocabulary and for creating an integral picture of the material culture of the Turkic peoples.

Key words: Tatar language, vocabulary, material culture, Tatars, tea drinking, names of tableware, traditional culture of Tatars.

Introduction
Every national cuisine consists of many kinds of dishes and drinks, which play an important role in the life support of people as thirsting, improving appetite, medical, etc. facilities. Tatar cuisine is also no exception.

«For many centuries in the Tatar cuisine a variety of drinks developed. There are traces of the influence of local natural and climatic, social and economic conditions, national traditions and tastes, also the twist with other peoples: neighboring – the Chuvash and the Bashkirs, the Mordovians and the Mari, the Udmurts and the Russians, Central Asia – the Uzbeks and the Tajiks» [Bushkov R.A., Mazitova F.G., 1993].

Among numerous beverages, tea has a special place the Tatars. Without it, there can be no celebration, no week-days; it is known and esteemed by adults and children; It is used in all seasons - in winter and in summer, in autumn and in spring; without a cup of this drink it is impossible to imagine...
neither breakfast, nor a break in the workplace, nor a friendly meeting or a meeting with relatives. Tea is an amazing drink, which is considered truly popular among the Tatars.

The purpose of this article is description of some features of the Tatar tea drinking, which are expressed in the vocabulary of the language, in particular in the names of tableware and meals.

Recently, various researchers – ethnographers, linguists, culturologists, historians, etc., have paid special attention to the ethnic characteristics of peoples [Ethnic and Cultural Dictionary, 2015]; [Nurmukhametova R.S. et al., 2014], to expressing them in the lexical system of language [Galiullina G.R., Yusupova A.Sh., 2014]; [Islamova E.A. et al., 2014]. This is also expressed in the study of food culture, food predilections, food history, and so on [Gabdrakhmanova F.H. et al., 2016]. Since tea has been and remains the favorite drink of many peoples for several millennia, they pay special attention to it. Many nations created their tea drinking rules in the course of history, some of them it turned even a kind of ceremony.

Methods

Based on the purpose and objectives, in this study were used the following methods and techniques of analysis: the descriptive method and the method of continuous sampling were used to collect and systematize materials on the research topic; a systematic analysis of the lexical material was carried out of using the lexical-semantic method; methods of linguocultural, component and semantic analysis were used to highlight the cognitive features of the functioning of linguistic units; comparative and comparative methods were used to study the translation of selected units. From the point of view of the theory of scientific research, the chosen methods are the best.

Results

Tea is the most common drink in the world. Tatars are famous lovers of this drink, and the tea tradition is an integral part of their national culture. Tea drinking Tatars called «chey echy» (drinking tea). However, in this process there is something more than just drinking a cup of this drink. «Invite to tea / for a cup of tea» means «invite guests», and only close relatives, friends, good acquaintances to communicate, discuss forthcoming matters, etc. are asked over. The Tatar tea time helps to convergence people together, create a comfortable, informal atmosphere, it has to talk and join together the people gathered at the tea table, because it lasts long enough. Tea drinking is a way of life of Tatars, a feature of national character, a symbol of hospitality.

The history of tea drinking of the Tatars is inseparably linked with the history of tea in Russia. According to some information, tea appeared in Russia in 1683. He quickly got itself, first among the rich, and then among the entire population. In the XIX century tea drinking firmly entered every Tatar house. The first researcher of the life of the Kazan Tatars K. Fuchs wrote: «... a table with china cups and a samovar at the stove were typical in the house of a Tatar petty bourgeois of those years» [Fuks K., 1991].

The tea table of the Tatars has some peculiarities. This is expressed in the serving of the tea table, reflected in the dishes served for tea.

Previously, the Tatars brewed takta chey (tile tea). Later, there were seylun chey (Ceylon tea), khind cheye (Indian tea), and others. In Tartars, tea is usually taken with milk (sutly chey), with lemon (limonly chey) and dried fruits (dzimeshly chey), with a sliced apple (almaly chey), a pastila (kakly chey).

For a good tea drinking, in addition to the tea, requires a suitable tea utensils. Traditionally it includes teapots and direct utensils for tea – the so-called tea pairs (cup and saucer). However, according to the
functional purpose, utensils, including tea, are usually divided into dishes, a) intended for cooking, b) for keeping and storing, and c) for feeding food and drinks to the table (for serving) [Zamaletdinov R.R., Khusnullina G.N., 2014].

But the ceremony of Tatar tea drinking and the Tatar house as a whole cannot be imagined without a samovar. The samovar was used not only for direct purposes, i.e. for boiling water, but was an indicator of the material wealth of the family. A special role in the interior was played by a copper or brass samovar decorated with chasing, which was always displayed on the table or on the stove. This subject and its name is borrowed from the Russian language for a long time and through a spoken language, therefore the word underwent some phonetic changes: in the Tatar language it sounds like samawyr or samawar.

Examples of the using of individual lexemes in phraseology and paremias shows their definite place in the Tatar language picture of the world. However, in spite of the fact that Tatars were very fond of and like to drink tea, the name of the main subject of this samawyr is presented to a lesser degree than other tableware names intended for tea drinking. Here are some phraseological units and proverbs with a component samovar: samawyr kainarlyk vakyrt (verbatim: the time for which the samovar can boil) – about a quarter of an hour; piyala samawyr (verbatim: glass samovar) – a bottle of vodka; samawyr bashynda sandugach sajaqny (verbatim: the nightingale does not sing at the top of the samovar); samawyr tatarny kulderer, kesesen bulderer (verbatim: samovar will mock the Tatar, ruin his pocket); samawyr kaynyi dzide segat, kunak kute sige segat (a samovar boils for seven hours, the guest waits for eight hours).

Samovars were large and small; their size was measured by buckets: holding one, two, three vedro. Previously, the Tatars had large families, and they lived in clans, usually a lot of guests gathered on holidays and so samovar of a rather large size was needed, because every man at the table drank several cups of tea: «Tea cups-three, and power for three» says Tatar wisdom.

Samovar (samawyr) with a teapot (chey cheynegy) on the burner always decorated the table both on holidays and on weekdays. But now, not every Tatar family will see a cleaned samovar to shine, if there is one, then the majority is electric, convenient to use: does not «make», does not need fuel, etc. And samovars holding one or two vedro in general become a rarity, they can be seen either in museums or on large national holidays as an ornament and symbol of Tatar hospitality.

Particular attention was paid to the dishes when serving tea. As D. Suleymanova notes, «one of the ceremonial elements in the interior was tea utensils, placed on a table or in a buffet» [Suleymanova D.N., 2010]. Wealthy Tatars drank tea from china, which was of Chinese or German origin. Chinese porcelain has always enjoyed special respect among our people. This is evidenced by the name of tea cups – chinayak (chin – China, ayak – dishes, hence «Chinese dishes»), we can find out the country from which these dishes were brought.

The tablewares in which tea is poured, the Tatars call in different ways: chokyr (from the word «chokyr» – pit, i.e. deep dishes with a rounded bottom), cheshke (a modified form of the word «cup»), kase, kese (deep ceramic bowl, a cup), peyala (pialo, porcelain cup), yomry (in dialects: a tea cup without a saucer), dzan (in dialects: cup).

Another feature of Tatar tea drinking: many Tatars prefer to drink tea from saucers – chinayak asty (verbatim: under cup), chinayak telinkese (plate for a cup), in some dialects are used forms as dzeylew, dzephek, tabacha. Tatars use it not to cool tea, but not to get burned.

Balkashik, balkalak, bal kasygy (verbatim: a spoon for honey), chey kasygy (a teaspoon) were served directly for the purpose, i.e. for honey, because the Tatars liked to drink tea with honey. Later and in our time there are different kinds of jam (kajnatma), for which it is necessary a small (dessert) spoon too.
In addition to cups, individual plates (telinke), the objects of the tea table are shiker sawity (sugar bowl), sut sawity (milk can), chey cheynyyg (teapot), etc.

Tea dishes of Tatar national cuisine are good for tea – flour baked products with stuffing and without filling, sweet and unsweetened, so the tea table abounds with such dishes. This is another specificity of Tatar tea drinking. First President of the Republic of Tatarstan M.Sh. Shaimiev in one interview said: «We do not even think about it, but our popular culinary delights, pastries and sweets – they are all preparing for tea. This has already become our national tradition» [Kozlovskiy M., 2004].

Thus, chey echy turns out to be a full-fledged breakfast, lunch or dinner for Tatars, because there is not always enough time to cook something, and baking is always available. It was so many years ago and this feature has survived to our times. Not without reason Tatars call bakery cakes differently chey ashlary (tea dishes), or kory ash (verbatim: «dry dishes»), which were always supposed to be consumed with some kind of drink), sometimes tabla ashlary (flour products cooked in a frying pan), mich ashlary (baked dishes from flour – echpochmak, belish, pies etc.).

Tatar national pastries for tea can be conditionally divided into the following subgroups:

1. Sweet dishes without a filling: baursk (buttery flour in the form of balls fried in oil), bohar kelevese (a kind of chak-chak), gulbenuk (confectionery product in the form as a flower), kak-tush (as chak-chak, closed from the top with a thin layer of pastille ), kosh tuly (verbatim: bird tongues, rhomboid thin slices of dough, fried in oil), kubek (meringue – a special dish of beaten egg whites), pehlev (flour, sprinkled with sugar, pounded nuts and honey spread on top layered national dish), talkysh keleve (national product of flour, honey and butter), tush (small flour balls), urama (national flour product in the form of rolled up ribbons of buttery dough, fried in oil), chekchek or chek-chek (chak-chak: festive flour product in the form of beads the size of a hazelnut or noodles, fried in oil and poured with boiled honey), chelpik (thin fried in butter cake from buttery dough), yuacha (kind of butter beads, flat cakes, fried in oil, gingerbread) etc.

2. Dishes with sweet stuffing: levesh (flat, round pies with pastille or jam), pashtet (open pie with any fruit puree), different closed pies with fruit filling – with apples (alma beleshe), with viburnum (balan beleshe), with prunes (kara dzimesh beleshe), gubediya (a large pie filled with raisins, eggs, meat or dried cottage cheese, which are put in layers) etc.

3. Not sweet dishes without stuffing: belen (pancakes), dzejme (thin flat cake), dzey ikmek (kind of pancakes), yauly ikmek (big flat cake, toasted in oil), kabartma (national dish like donut), koymek (small pancakes), kuzikmek (thin pancakes baked in a frying pan), tebikmek (thin bread from sour dough baked in a frying pan), yuka (thin flat cake) etc.

4. Dishes with savory stuffing: belesh (national food stuffed with potatoes, onions and various kinds of meat), bukken (pie with different fillings – with cabbage, with pumpkin, with green onions and eggs etc.), wak belesh (small round baked patties with minced meat and rice), dewetleme (kind of food prepared from cereals and cottage cheese), duchmak / duruchmak (flour dish, likes a cheesecake with cottage cheese, mashed potatoes, eggs etc.), kystybye (a kind of pie with open, unshielded edges, stuffed with a thin layer of porridge or mashed potatoes), uchpuchmak (pie in the form of a triangle with stuffing from potatoes, onions and finely chopped meat), peremech (fried in butter round pies of dough and minced meat), sumsa (pie with a crescent-shaped filling), shenge (baking as a jamper with potatoes), shodzyk (boiled meat with fat, wrapped in thin cakes) etc.

The above dishes are only part of a huge number of national dishes. On them, you can imagine the diversity and richness of the Tatar culinary art.
Another feature of the Tatar tea-drinking refers to the order of tea: in some places tea with numerous baked products begins the ritual of guests’ entertainment, and only then serves the first and second dishes. In other areas, on the contrary, the tea table completes the treat.

Discussion
The study showed that tea is not just a drink for the Tatars. The formation of the Tatar tea ceremony was influenced by such factors as climate, geographical location, economic structure, the main occupation of the people, the influence of neighbors etc. Tea drinking is associated with a huge number of traditions, the meaning of which many, especially the younger generation sometimes does not understand, but still follows them.

Prospects for further research of the names of kitchen utensils and national dishes of the Tatar language we see in a more detailed study of the whole system of vocabulary of material culture in interrelation. Today, it becomes urgent to study and preserve historically conditioned national uniqueness, national dignity, ethnic identity, which, undoubtedly, are reflected in everyday objects, elements of different folk traditions, customs. Language, as a way of reflecting culture, is also its keeper. By studying vocabulary, one can learn the history and culture of the people more; determine the significance of individual objects and phenomena in lives of people.

Conclusions
In view of the fact that the culture of each people is constantly developing, it is considered unacceptable to neglect cultural values and forget their roots, so the preservation of memory for traditions will be strengthened by studying and reviving ethno-cultural elements as evidence of strengthening the cultural identity of the people. Research ethnocultural vocabulary will create a unique, vivid model of the national language picture of the world.

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Tatar Language Testing: Requirement, Structure And Assessment( Elementary Level)

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Abstract
The Tatar language tests developed on CEFR ideas is a relatively new phenomenon. The article is devoted to the study of linguistic peculiarities of organization and conduct of language certification on the Tatar language: the description of the general requirements of proficiency on the elementary level and structure of control and measuring materials on the Tatar language. The relevance of this topic due to the necessity of generalization of teaching experience to enhance learning of the Tatar language and the definition of forms and methods of work for the further development of the linguistic abilities of the students. Based on ranking of level in this case the impact of these tests on language education in the Republic of Tatarstan and their function to serve as a tool to maintain a language and transfer cultural values have a great importance. The Tatar language testing must lead to changes in the language material selection both for teaching and testing so that the learners needs and expectations would be adequately met and the domains where Tatar is used extended. This article is focused on linguistic features of the organization of language certification on the Tatar language for the elementary level (A 1).

Key words: language testing, certification, CEFR, tests for adults, the Tatar language.

Introduction
The reform of the education system with the aim of improving its efficiency is today one of the priorities of the government of the Russian Federation. The need for change due to the inclusion of Russia in the world educational space. The most important component of the reform is the establishment of an independent system of state certification and quality control of education as the main tool of public administration education, successful functioning of which is currently impossible without the use of achievements of the theory of educational measurement and modern test technology.

Improving the quality of Humanities education involves the introduction of innovative forms of work not only in the content of language teaching, but in the control system of the linguistic abilities of students, providing timely feedback between students and teacher. The materials on assessing the level on the Tatar language were developed in accordance with the international standards of linguistic competence, as well as the control is one of the most integral component of all educational process. Its main function is to diagnose speech and language competencies formed among learners in studying the Tatar language. As noted in modern linguistic literature, “testing as a method of educational measurement allows to obtain quantitative characteristics and it is based on the special scales to assess and compare: the level and quality of training within the same educational program; quality of different educational programmes in the same subject area; quality of teaching” [Kabanova, T. A., 2008: 18].

Methods of teaching the Tatar language and the study of the organization of the testing in the Tatar language has some kind of experience. It should be noted that the studies of K.S. Fathkullova, M.I.Solnyshkina are devoted to the description of the educational model of the learning of the Tatar language to different categories of students on short courses and the consideration of linguistic features
of the use of new textbooks in the process of language education of adults and the study of linguistic peculiarities of organizing and conducting testing in the Tatar language learners [Fathullova K. S., 2014, 2015] and testing the student's communicative competence during the study of the Tatar language [Guseynova G. A., K. S. Fathullova, Denmuhame tova E. N., 2015]. In the works of M. I. Solnyshkina addresses to the general issues of language testing, the organization of certified foreign language exam (English language), the parameters of complexity of the examination texts [Solnyshkina M. I., 2015], as well as a comparative analysis of reading texts [Solnyshkina M. I., 2014].

The purpose of the research is to study the general requirements of the ownership and structure of control and Tatar language assessment, a generalization of positive experience in using the testing technology to assess the Tatar language level of adults learners.

Materials and Methods

The main methods have been used in conducting this research: descriptive method, comparative method, analytical method and method of synthesis.

With regard to effective research uses a set of existing basic research methods: descriptive (techniques of observation, comparison, generalization of matching material), comparative, techniques of partial and continuous sampling of the material. The main research method is descriptive method with its main components - observation, comparison, generalization, and typology of matching material. The study also is also connected with analytical method and method of synthesis.

Results

The way of expanding public functions of the Tatar language, improving its importance, necessity and all-round development is the effective implementation of language learning, determining the quality requirements of training, organization of self-learning process of the language users and the ongoing monitoring of its results. Training and assessment of proficiency in the Tatar language aimed the determining the levels of spoken and written language, formal and informal communication.

Requirements for the language certification of the Tatar language are realistic and can be clearly traced in all the test tasks. The test examines verbal abilities and language skills, reflecting the notion of communicative competence, and meets the proficiency requirements of the Tatar language for general purposes in level A1.

The basis of the ranking of the level of knowledge is connected with “European Common Framework of Reference for Languages” (CEFR). It is a unified system and an international standard for describing language ability.

Discussion

The beginning of the XXI century is the period of acute issues of validating the knowledge, ascertaining the effectiveness of the learning of the language. The first test on the Tatar language are based on the Unified State Examination (EGE), which serves both school-leaving exam and entrance exam. The Tatar version of this exam receives as Unified Republic Examination (URE) as the Unified National Exam since 2005 and it was optional. Unified Republic Examination became compulsory in 2014. URE was designed as a test based on the level system to validate the knowledge of the Tatar language on the 9th form graduates. Tatar language Testing Centre was created in the same year.
According to the Decree of the Cabinet of Ministers of the Republic of Tatarstan “On approval of the Regulations on training courses for the study and improvement of knowledge in Tatar language as the state language of the Republic of Tatarstan and the Procedure for the assessment of the level of development of the Tatar language” [Resolution of the Cabinet of Ministers of the Republic of Tatarstan, 2016], the assessment of language knowledge determines knowledge of the Tatar language at six levels: A1–C2. For a full understanding of the testing process, compliance with the common requirements according to the processes of multilingualism and preservation of language, Kazan Federal University has become an affiliate member of the leading national certification centre - The Association of Language Testers in Europe) since 2015.

Tatar language Testing Centre has developed 4 levels of tests on the Tatar language for adults (16+), where the key issues are communication activities, ability and willingness to implement Tatar as a foreign language in interpersonal and intercultural communication with native speakers. These tests have become popular both among those interested in Tatar as a foreign language and Tatars who, living in Tatarstan, do not know the native language for various reasons, as well as among the Tatars-repatriates. Tests levels A1-B2 are annually updated, changed and improved for all four activities. Along with the communicative task the issues related to the validity, reliability, and objectivity of the test programmes have been under the consideration.

This research is devoted to Level A1 (Breakthrough) and it is considered the lowest level of generative language use – the point at which the learner can interact in a simple way, ask and answer simple questions about themselves, where they live, people they know, and things they have, initiate and respond to simple statements in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics, rather than relying purely on a very finite rehearsed, lexically organised repertoire of situation-specific phrases [Common European Framework of Reference for Languages https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages].

Due to European Common Framework of Reference for Languages in the elementary level (A1) of proficiency in the Tatar language, language learners should have a limited volume of ordinary communicative competence in everyday situations. User of the language should be able to:
- use familiar phrases and expressions necessary to perform specific tasks;
- to introduce himself and others, ask and answer questions about place of residence, friends, property. Language learners must understand not fast, but clear speech of the interlocutor, engage in exchange with cues and provide the necessary assistance.

User of the language to solve certain communicative tasks should be able to include:
- to communicate, to get acquainted with someone, to introduce yourself or to introduce another person, to greet, to say goodbye, to interact, to thank, to apologize, to respond to thanks and apologize, to ask or repeat;
- to ask questions and to report any fact or event, the person, the subject, the presence or absence of a person or item, the quality, accessories object, event, action, time and place of the action, the cause;
- to express a wish, request, offer, invitation, agreement or disagreement, a failure.
- to express their attitude to assess a person, an object, a fact, an action.

The situations and themes of communication are suggested:
- Acquaintance (Meeting family and friends. The profession). The language learner must be able to greet, to ask about mood, weather, etc. He should also know the related names, talk about his family, about friends and briefly describe their appearance and character, talk about their profession.
- Hobbies (Daily care. Free time). The language learner must be able to talk about daily routine, about the occupations at leisure; to ask about the mode of the day, leisure; to talk about day, weekend, and actions.

- Time (Weather forecast. Times of the year). The language learner must be able to speak about the weather, the seasons, to talk about favorite season, the reason for this choice, on the each season; to ask about the weather, about the favorite time of year.

- Environment (Apartment. The city. Transport. In the store). The language learner must be able to describe a room, apartment. Language learner must be able to say about the location of certain objects in space to ask about the house, the location, etc.

Language learners must be able to communicate/ask to what e is interested or e needed; about the cost of the ticket; ask about departure time of the transport. They also should communicate/ask about what he must buy, the color, the size, to indicate likes and dislikes; ask to see a particular thing, to ask about its price, etc.

Demands to speech competence:
1. Listening (about 25 min., 5 parts, 25 questions) contains short exchanges of replicas, and longer dialogues. The assessment involves the candidate’s ability to understand Dialogic speech (style from informal to neutral) on daily themes.

2. Reading and writing (30 min, 6 parts, 40 questions). The task of finding matching, multiple choice, fill in the blanks with 1-2 words, an expression of agreement / disagreement with the information given. Validates the skills to understand written language at the level of word, phrase, sentence, paragraph, and linked text. Evaluates the ability of a correct spelling of the word based on the text; writing Yes / No, to express agreement / disagreement.

3. Speaking (10 min, 4 parts). The language user needs to be able to ask short questions on familiar topics and answer these questions: to understand a simple wish in the fail address; construct sentences about people, location; should be able to describe yourself, place of residence, place of work: process based to answer clear questions about his life. The language user must be able to describe himself, place of work, place of residence.

Discussion
It should be noted that testing requirements are realistic and can be clearly traced in all the test tasks. The test examines abilities and language skills, reflecting to the communicative competence, and meets the proficiency requirements of the Tatar language for general purposes for level A1. The test for A1 assesses skills that are important for further life of subjects, including cognitive skills. The procedures that underlie all stages of the assessment cycle, elaborate, practical and, taken together, form a coherent and logical monitoring and evaluation system.

The test tasks are in the correct proportion and cover all the significant skills and knowledge of the Tatar language. The tests include only the most important basic knowledge, which expresses the essence of the content, laws and regularities of the phenomena under consideration. The basic terms of all the analyzed test items are clearly defined. The terminology used is not beyond the scope specified in the booklets and regulatory documents.

Test tasks formulated in the form of rolled brief instructions. All available in test tasks of the user define a list of actions of the candidate in the testing ‘indicate the correct answer (answers)’, ‘select...
appropriate answer’, ‘identify the correct sequence’, ‘write the correct answer.’ The average number of words in the instructions to the test tasks does not exceed 10-12 words in the elementary level.

Evaluation criteria of the content of the task includes the following: the importance of the task; the perceived complexity of the task (according to A1 level); the estimated time to complete the tasks candidates with an average training; the evaluation of the task and its quality.

Criteria for assessing the content of the test is completeness of requirements to the level of the candidates; the correct proportions of the test content, its balance; the content compliance test specification.

Summary

The test is a brief standardized task to obtain the most significant information about the characteristics of this particular object in a short period of time. The task is to determine the achieved a level of knowledge, abilities and skills of the examinee required for the successful implementation of their abilities, the demand in a certain area, and hence competitiveness.

As well as the common reference levels, the CEFR provides a ‘Descriptive Scheme’ of definitions, categories and examples that language professionals can use to better understand and communicate the aims and objectives. The basis of the ranking of the level of the Tatar language is related to the European standard extensive system for foreign language proficiency. This unified system of evaluation, the system language levels is used in the countries of the Bologna process, which main goal is to provide a method of evaluation and training. The Tatar language testing must lead to changes in the language material selection both for teaching and testing so that the learners needs and expectations would be adequately met and the domains where Tatar is used extended.

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References

1. Common European Framework of Reference for Languages


Mother Tongue: The Role It Plays In Teaching And Learning Foreign Languages

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Abstract
The role of mother tongue in teaching and learning foreign languages is emphasized by both Russian and foreign researchers who deal with foreign language teaching methodology. At present, when in Russia the issue of the preservation of native languages is being widely discussed, the problem of teaching and learning foreign languages through their comparison has become especially true.

In this paper, there is presented an original approach to teaching English in EFL class. The authors propose a comparative approach which involves comparing mother tongue with the target language. This approach allows drawing lingual and paralingual parallels, which result in the conscious and effective assimilation of the language phenomena by English learners in EFL class.

To empirically confirm their hypothesis, the researchers conducted a pedagogical experiment. The experiment allowed the authors to come to the conclusion that a comparative approach to teaching English in EFL class greatly facilitates the process of language acquisition, increases the amount of digested educational materials; moreover, it contributes to improving students’ native language knowledge and enhancing their learning motivation.

The results of the study can serve as guidelines for English teachers and for English learners.

Keywords: comparative approach, conscious assimilation, foreign language teaching methodology, learning motivation, lingual and paralingual parallels, mother tongue

Introduction
Russian and foreign researchers and educators’ attention has always been drawn to the role students’ mother tongue plays in teaching and learning foreign languages. Moreover, the role of learners’ first language has been a hotly debated issue. Prodromou [1] refers to the mother tongue as a ‘skeleton in the closet’, while Gabrielatos [2] calls it a ‘bone of contention’. Such views reflect different methodological shifts in teaching foreign languages, which have brought about new and different outlooks on the role of the mother tongue [3].

In this paper, the researchers advocate the use of students’ mother tongue in the EFL classroom as a tool of comparing it with the target language. The comparative approach to teaching English in EFL class equips students with the skill of performing lingual and paralingual parallels, which, in its turn, allows students to consciously comprehend the language phenomena of both mother tongue and the foreign language.

The pedagogical experiment conducted in this study resulted in the conclusion that teaching English in EFL class on the base of the comparative approach significantly improves students’ language knowledge. The authors conclude that teaching English comparatively is effective and efficient in many other respects, as well.

The findings contribute to ever-lasting discussions on the use of students’ mother tongue in the foreign language classroom. The paper discusses issues and practices on the topic and offers general
recommendations for university and school teachers of the English language. These materials can also be used in teaching practice of pre-service teachers.
Metods And Materials

Research Site
Kazan High school # 122 was founded in 1958. In 2001, it got the status of Gymnasium # 122. The number of students is 1200. Gymnasium # 122 is ranked among 100 best schools of Russia. The priority direction in work of the gymnasium is the formation of the intellectual, moral and creative personality, freely adaptable in modern society.

Students’ Background
Number, age and gender characteristics: 42 students, 13-15 years old, mixed who made up two groups: group A – control, group B – experimental.
Students’ status: students of the 7th grade.

Study objective
In this study, there was set an objective: to prove that a comparative approach to teaching foreign languages on the base of the comparison of students’ mother tongue (L1) with their target (English) language (L2) eases the process of the foreign language acquisition, increases the amount of the materials offered in the foreign language classroom, perfects students’ L1 knowledge and intensifies their learning motivation.

Study instrument
In accordance with the set objective of the study, the experiment was conducted for students of the 7th grade during four months: January 2017 to April 2017.
The experiment consisted of three stages:
- Ascertaining experiment.
- Forming experiment.
- Control experiment.

I. At the ascertaining stage, a test was offered to the students of both groups (control and experimental) with the use of the comparative approach to reveal the initial index of their knowledge in L2. A comparison of L2 and L1 can be a very enriching experience. In fact, discovering the similarities and differences of both languages can enhance acquisition [4]. This comparison was done at different levels:
  - Vocabulary – exploring the nuances of vocabulary items in both languages. Students tried to build bilingual semantic maps.
  - Grammar – a comparison between L1 grammar and L2 grammar yields interesting results. Translation exercises, for example, were the perfect practice when there is a grammar point that causes trouble to students.
  - Culture – language is a vehicle for cultural aspects [4]. Cultural differences and similarities can be highlighted to help learners accept and tolerate differences while at the same time preserve their cultural uniqueness. This was done through various activities where L1 plays an important role.

II. A further investigation of the problem was carried on at the formative stage of the experiment where different exercises were implemented to boost consolidation of speech and grammar patterns in EFL class based on two languages: L1 and L2. The following tasks were used by the students of the experimental group in EFL class:

Proverbs
English learners were given a set of proverbs in L2 and were asked to find the corresponding ones in their L1 if they exist. If not, they tried to translate the proverbs into their native language.

**Idiomatic Expressions**

The task asked to find the corresponding idioms or a translation of L2 idioms that were very helpful to spot cultural differences or similarities.

**Songs**

The translation of lyrics from students’ favorite songs was a motivating activity.

**Jokes**

Entertaining L2 activities were built on jokes. Students translated, told or dramatized jokes to create an environment where there was no stress.

**20 minute activities**

**Conversation Starters.** School students were offered to choose an article from a newspaper in L1 and to explain what it was about in English. Depending on the difficulty of the text, this generated vocabulary work as the students worked on communicating key points of the text to the teacher.

**Dubbing.** School students were shown a short clip of a popular L1 TV program that they had to dub into L2, for example, for school television. It was definitely challenging and, at the same time, motivating because the best version would get the contract. The students worked on translating the script and taking on the roles of the actors and literally dubbing with TV sound off.

**10 minute activity**

**Broken telephone.** A teacher devised a sentence difficult for translation into students’ L1 and whispered it to the first student in L2. The first student translated it into L1 and whispered it to the second student, who translated it back into L2 and whispered it to the third. At the end of the activity, students compared the final version in L2 with the original one in L1.

III. The control experiment was carried out to assess the effectiveness of the implementation of the comparative approach in teaching a foreign language as a means of students’ foreign language awareness and development. The updated diagnostic test was aimed at revealing students’ knowledge on the above mentioned issues.

**Results**

The results of the ascertaining test in the control and experimental groups are shown in Fig. 1.
Fig 1. The results of the ascertaining test in the control and experimental groups
The results of the updated diagnostic test in the control and experimental groups are shown in Fig. 2.

Fig 2. The results of the diagnostic test in the control and experimental groups
Comparing the results of both (ascertaining and control) stages, we obtained discrepant results. Overall, they confirmed the positive trend in the improvement of students’ language assimilation and increased motivation via implementing a comparative approach in teaching L2. Significantly, the quality of students’ knowledge in L2 increased that, to some respect, can prove the formation of educational abilities and skills.

The overall results show the correct answers given by the students of the control and experimental groups. As can be seen from the diagrams, it proves that less than half of the students are unaware of their level of knowledge in English, mostly in the proper usage of grammar and lexical material.

Discussion

There have always been two opposite points of view on the role of the use of students’ mother tongue in teaching and learning foreign languages: some scholars and practitioners recognize its great role; others either deny or belittle its role. Let us reconsider this issue.

Atkinson [5] advocates the restricted and principled use of students’ mother tongue mainly in accuracy-oriented tasks. His views, however, are reflections of his own personal experience as a teacher and not the result of measures of comparative achievements of students taught in different ways or of perception-based surveys [3].

According to Pavlova [6], students’ mother tongue is often used while instructing so that to have students understand the task and in this way to spark students’ interest in the in-class activities. Moreover, the researcher identifies six functions of students’ mother tongue that can be carried out in the process of teaching English.

Voicu writes: “… many teachers believe that the use of L1 in EFL class must be discouraged because of many reasons:

1. Use of L1 may become a habit that both learners and teachers may resort to whenever a difficulty is encountered.
2. The use of L1 in EFL classes hinders the provision of enough comprehensible input, a prerequisite for acquiring any language” [4: 213]. The researcher [4] calls for a balanced and flexible view of the use of students’ mother tongue.

Bruen and Kelly [7, 8] support the judicious use of students’ mother tongue in limited instances, particularly where it can facilitate a reduction in cognitive overload and learner anxiety by, for example, the explanation of complex terminology, concepts and grammatical structures, as well as aiding in the creation of a relaxed classroom environment.

Osintseva-Raevskaya [9] claims that addressing the native language is methodologically justified in the process of learning the target language if it helps to increase the efficiency of the training process.

In Tekeeva’s viewpoint [10], teaching the target language implies learning both a foreign language and your own language through finding similarities and differences in the compared languages and cultures.

Drawing on literature of teaching and learning EFL as well as personal teaching experience, Yerokhina [11] states the great role of the use of students’ native language in teaching and learning English in EFL class.

Eskhag [12] recommends creating new methods of teaching foreign languages which should be based on the use of the native language so that the rivalry of the two languages would help students to deeply understand the new (foreign) language.
Nowadays with the issue of the preservation of native languages being publicly discussed in Russia, the problem of teaching and learning foreign languages through their comparison has become an up-to-date topic. In this study, the authors considered this problem from a new angle so that to define how comparing and contrasting students’ mother tongue with the target language:

- assist the process of language learning,
- expand the body of knowledge,
- promote to improve students’ native language knowledge,
- increase students’ educational motivation.

Drawing on authoritative researchers’ opinions and personal teaching experiences, the authors consider the use of students’ mother tongue in the process of teaching and learning foreign languages to be methodologically justified for it proves to be efficient.

Conclusion

The debate over the use of L1 in foreign language teaching has not been settled yet. There are teachers who reject the use of L1 or fail to recognize any significant potential in it, others massively overuse it, and the third manage to balance the usage of L1 and L2.

The authors of this paper share Tong’s opinion [13] that our mother tongue is the language which can open the door for us to other languages. It is the first language that we learn in our life and the language that we use to symbolize everyday objects and ideas, and the language in which we think, communicate, dream and feel emotions.

This study was focused on the effectiveness of the comparative approach used by the teachers in the foreign language classroom to improve language skills and abilities. This is confirmed by the results obtained from both ascertaining and control stages of the experiment. The findings proved the hypothesis of our study that a comparative approach in teaching and learning L2 increases grammar and vocabulary repertoire, language knowledge assimilation and L2 learners’ motivation.

Acknowledgments

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http://www.teachenglishworldwide.com/Articles/Ferrer_mother%20tongue%20in%20the%20classroom.pdf


Linguistic and Cultural Research of Paroemiological and Phraseological Units with the Colorman “Yellow” in German and Russian

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Abstract
This article covers a comparative study of paroemiological and phraseological units with colorname yellow based on the material of German and Russian. Each culture has its own linguistic colorimage of the world. Color is a capacious cultural code, the knowledge of which can contribute to overcoming “culturological color blindness” in the interaction of different peoples. The authors conduct a linguistic and cultural analysis of language units using the method of modern corpus technologies and attempt to establish the symbolic significance of the colorname желтый (yellow) / gelb. In the system of color designations of the German and the Russian languages there have been found a number of universal features. In both languages, there have been revealed the symbolic meanings of ‘deceitful’, ‘young, inexperienced’, ‘rich’, ‘sickly look, physical and mental illness’ of the colorname желтый (yellow) / gelb. In German and Russian journalistic texts, the colorname желтый (yellow) / gelb as part of set combinations is often used in the metaphorical sense ‘first, leading’. A group of phraseological and paroemiological units with the colorname gelb in the meaning of ‘inexperienced’ is the most numerous. The symbolic meaning ‘rich, luxurious, material well-being’ takes the second place. As a result of the analysis of phraseological and paroemiological units, the differences in the perception of yellow by the representatives of different cultures have been singled out. Due to its brightness and positive meaning, the colorname gelb is often used in slogans.

Keywords: linguocultural studies, colorman, paroemiological unit, phraseological unit, German, Russian.

Introduction
The foundations of the linguistic and philosophical study of the language in indissoluble connection with the ethnos and national thinking were laid first of all in the works of W. von Humboldt, who created the original concept of the integrity of the language, which subsequently had a huge influence on the views of E. Sapir, B. Whorf, J.L. Weisgerber, A.A. Potebya, I.A. Baudouin de Courtenay and other researchers. According to the concept of W. von Humboldt, the reflection of the world is based on the categories of linguistic perception of the world. At the same time, the scholar paid special attention to the comparative study of languages as the most important method of linguistic research [1]. He rightly pointed out that no other else is capable of approximating to the solution of the mystery of man and the character of peoples but their language. Phraseological and paroemiological units (hereinafter PhU and PU) are carriers of information about the mentality of the people, a significant contribution to the study of which was made by R. A. Ayupova [2], D.O. Dobrovolsky [3], M.A. Kulkova [4], N.N. Fattakhova [5]. The characteristic features of the outlook of the studied language community are illustrated by the examples with a component of color designation.
Color symbolism clearly reveals itself in PhU and PU, ceremonies, myths and religious rituals. To date, there is an extensive information on color symbolism. There is a traditional classification of colors, proposed by optics and experimental psychology, according to which colors are divided into two groups: warm, “stimulating”, and cold [6]. Color designation becomes an object of study of psycholinguistics [7], cognitive linguistics [8], cultural linguistics [9]. Special attention is paid to the comparative study of phraseological units with the colorname component [10, etc.]. At the same time, the symbolic meaning of colors is thoroughly analyzed in detail.

Methods
The material for the study was PhU and PU with the color component желтый (yellow) / gelb in German and Russian, which were collected by the method of continuous sampling from the phraseological, etymological, explanatory dictionaries of both languages. 102 PhU and PU with the component yellow, including 99 PhE and PE in German and 13 in Russian underwent the analysis. The examples with colorname yellow, taken from the DWDS (http://www.dwds.de/) and National Corpus of the Russian Language (http://www.ruscorpora.ru/) was also used.

Results
The dictionary of modern German «Wörterbuch der deutschen Gegenwartssprache» treats gelb as «Farbe des Sonnenspektrums zwischen Orange und Grün» ('the color placed between orange and green'), the dictionary Wahrig defines it as «zwischen orange und grün» ('between orange and green') [11]. Gelb ('yellow') goes back to Indo-European root *gel(ə)- with the meaning ‘glänzen, schimmern ‘блестеть, сверкать’ / shine, glitter [12]. The words such as Galle ('желчь'/bile), Gold ('золото'/gold), Glanz ('блеск, сияние'/glance), Glas ('стекло'/glass), gleiten ('блестеть, сверкать'/glitter, glare), glimmern ('блестеть'/gleam), glühen ('пылать, гореть'/glow), glatt ('гладкий, скользкий'/slick) have the same origin as the colorname gelb.

In the Russian-language dictionary entries the adjective желтый (yellow) is defined as «цвет солнца или золота, различной яркости и оттенков» [13] / “the color of the sun or gold, of different brightness and shades”, «имеющий цвет яичного желтка, спелых злаков, золота (один из семи цветов спектра, располагающийся между оранжевым и зеленым)» [14] / “having the color of egg yolk, ripe cereals, gold (one of the seven colors of the spectrum, placed between orange and green)”. When analyzing, one should take into account the changes of color meanings that occur over time. Analyzing the sources concerning coloristics, it can be noted that in the era of the early European Middle Ages, yellow was perceived positively, as it was associated with sunlight and gold. But in the 12th-13th centuries the colorname takes on negative symbolic meanings. Yellow becomes the color of treason, sin, venality. The reason for such negative evaluation was the fact that the yellow color of the apocalyptic horse from the Revelation of John the Theologian pointed to death, envy (Offenbarung 2,18.19). The color of the horse is represented by the adjective chlaurus, which was translated as ‘fahl’ (бледный/pale), but can be rendered by the colorname зелено-желтый/green-yellow [15]. The yellow color is associated with the sin of Judas, who betrayed Jesus Christ for 30 pieces of silver. Because of this event, Judas and his tribesmen began to be depicted in yellow clothes [16]. «... I. Itten, a specialist in coloristics, gives his view on the symbolism of this color in this way: “… The meaning of the opaque yellow is envy, betrayal, lies, doubts, mistrust and insanity” [17].
The pejorative meaning of the color name gelb can be traced in the proverb "Es sind gelbe Geschichten" [18] and "He sprekt so giàl" [18], in which gelb acquires the symbolic meaning of 'lying, dirty'. In the color name gelb in the structure of the phraseological unit gelbe Presse (calque from English Yellowpress), one can reveal the lexical-semantic variant of 'lying, sensational'. After analyzing the examples from the National Corpus of the Russian language, we found new combinations with color name желтый жижа on the meaning of 'low-grade': «Если власть не будет мало-мальски фильтровать потоки информационного товара, то "желтая жижа" затопит всё общество» (V. Plotnikov, Media without censorship, dictatorship of hack-work, // "Sovetskaya Rossiya", 2003.08.19). / "If the authorities do not filter the streams of the information goods in a little way, then the "yellow liquid" will flood the whole society". Newspapers and low-quality magazines focused on highlighting false sensational events are called yellow hack-work: Газеты, журналы низкого качества, сосредоточенные на освещении ложных сенсационных событий, названы желтой халтурой: «Желтая халтура», эксплуатирующая инстинкты, диктует спрос, диктует вкус, диктует моду» (ibid). / "Yellow hack-work, exploiting instincts, dictates demand, dictates taste, dictates fashion". The phraseological unit geele Schlang ("falsche" Frau) has been preserved in the Palatinate dialect, in the color name gelb the pejorative meaning "lying, two-faced" is traced [19]. One should highlight the symbolic meaning 'shame' in the phraseological unit den gelben Abschied bekommen (schweiz.) [20]. There is no common opinion about the origin of this phraseological unit. There is a version that the document on resignation, dismissal was printed on a paper of yellow color. In his work Ch. Wanzeck notes the skeptical attitude of some linguists to this opinion. Also it should be noted that gelb acquires a negative meaning 'disgraceful, shameless, dirty' in the combination ein gelbes brudlein darübermachen [18]. In combination gelb sprechen, the color name gelb is used in the symbolic meaning 'dirty', it is supposed that he sprekt so giàl is an abridged version of hespräkt so giàl Zoten ('to tell obscene jokes'). The Low German dialect has preserved the expression gel lachen, in which the color name gelb is represented in the meaning 'ironic, mocking, sarcastic'. The color name gelb denotes a yellowish cast of complexion of a sick man. This fact is reflected in the proverb Braun üngeel (gelb) wie Müüse-meschine ('ungewöhnlicher Tod') [18], Wer die Gelbsucht hat, dem scheint alles gelb [17], gelb is used in them with the symbolic meaning 'sickly look'. Gelber Zettel means sick-list, which was written on yellow leaf [19]. In Russian signs, yellow means misfortune, illness or death: if anyone sees a yellow butterfly in the spring, he will be unhappy and have tender health this year [22]. Yellow is associated with wilting, aging, loss of vitality and energy. With strong emotional experiences, some people could lose their reason. In the phraseological unit желтый дом (yellow house) (obsolete common contempt), one can trace the symbolic meaning 'insane'. One can encounter the combinations like посадить в желтый дом (to put sb to yellow house) [24]. Next example of pejorative meaning of the color name gelb is the phraseological unit ein Gelbhorn führen (‘to be unfaithful to spouse’). The first component of the composite Gelbhorn points to a symbolic meaning of ‘unfaithfulness, infidelity’. ("Sa femme le pas-sait en jaune de la tete aux pieds"). As S. Eisenstein notes in the article “Vertical Installation”, in Paris argot yellow color was the color of deceived husbands. For example, the expression “the wife painted him yellow from top to toe” ("Sa femme le pas-sait en jaune de la tete aux pieds") means that his wife was cheating on him [Eisenstein: online-resource]. PhU and PU with color name gelb in the meaning ‘young, inexperienced’ constitute the most numerous group: Er hat das Gelbe hinter den Ohren noch nicht verloren [18], Er mag sich erst das Gelbe vom Schnabel wischen [18]. The meaning was changed due to the yellow color of the beak’s skin of chicks, who were not
yet able to self-extract their food, take care of themselves, so Gelbschnabel began to designate inexperienced (yellow-beaked) youths.

The yellow color also has a positive symbolism, as it accompanies all living things. The sun itself is colored yellow. In ancient India, yellow was almost the most valuable, because it was associated with gold. According to poet Asvagoshe, Buddha was born with a golden body and after birth he immediately took 10 steps, and yellow flowers rose in his footprints. In the culture of Islam, yellow is the color of the sacred cow, the first victim of people to Allah [16].

Positive meanings of the color name gelb are reflected in the PhU and PU of the German language: Das ist (ja) nicht (gerade) das Gelbe vom Ei [20], Das ist das Gelbe von der Sache [18]. Gelb is used in the symbolic meaning 'the best', as it is an essential part of the egg. Das ist (ja) das Gelbe vom Ei is often used in the articles of publicistic style, for example, «Seine Leistungen waren zuerst nicht das Gelbe vom Ei, er gab aber nie auf, das imponiert den Briten» (Die Zeit, 17.02.2014). This phraseological unit is a slogan for construction company AGRA.

Thanks to its intensity and brightness the color name gelb can be used as warning: Jem. die gelbe Karte zeigen [20]. The phraseological unit Jem. die gelbe Karte zeigen that has entered into the vocabulary as sport term is used today not only in the sphere of sport, but in the political sphere as well: «Wie will die Regierung in Kiew der prorussischen Separatisten in der Ostukraine Herr werden? Die EU-Außenminister helfen der Ukraine mit einer Milliarde Euro – und zeigen Moskau erneut die gelbe Karte» (Die Zeit, 14.04.2014).

Considering the fact that gold is yellow, the color name gelb acquires the symbolic meaning ‘money, material well-being’, which is reflected in PhU and PU. Wer die Gelbsucht (Dukatsucht) hat, ist schwer zu heilen [18]. The proverb Des Judentheftels Farbstift gelb refers to the historical facts, namely: Jewry were successful in trading, that is why the category of money was last but not least in their lives [18]. In the dictionary Röhrich, we have found the phraseological unit gelbe Suppe [26]. It used to designate a life of luxury. The combination gele hirsenbrei (‘густой суп’/ ‘thick soup’) has the synonymous meaning. The synonymous meaning is comprehended in the following fixed combination, such as gelbe Ostersuppe.

Wanzeck notes in his encyclopedic work that in 15th-16th centuries the phraseological unit gelbe Suppe used to denote festive meal. It is noteworthy that during christening children gelbe Suppe (‘мясной суп с шафраном’) was made. The yellow color of the soup pointed to high-fat soup, including saffron tinctured the soup yellow [19]. The comparison of the name of color gelb with saffron can be found in other sources as well: Gelb wie Safran [18], in the songs for children: milch und mehl, safran, macht die kuchen geel. [27]. The color name gelb in the combinations gelbe Suppe, gele hirsenbrei acquires metaphorical meaning ‘luxurious, sumptuous’.

As a result of the analysis there have been singled out 10 groups of PhU and PU. Similarities and differences of the symbolic meaning of the color names gelb/желтый in the PhU and the PU are illustrated in Table 1.
Table 1. Comparative Table of Phraseological and Paroemological Units with the Coloroname in German and Russian

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The symbolic meaning of colors</th>
<th>German</th>
<th>Russian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>false, sensational</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Es sind gelbe Geschichten</td>
<td>желтая пресса</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>gelbe Presse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lying, two-faced</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>geele Schlang</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the first, dominant, stand-out from other leadership qualities</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>das gelbeTrikot</td>
<td>желтая майка</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shameful</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>den gelben Abschied bekommen</td>
<td>желтый билет</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ironic, mocking, sarcastic</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>gel lachen</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>painful, disease (physical and mental)</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Braun üngeel (gelb) wi a Müßeschine (ungewöhnlicher Tod)</td>
<td>желтый дом</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wer die Gelbsucht hat, dem scheint alles gelb</td>
<td>посадить в желтый дом</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>young, inexperienced</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Das Gelbe vom Schnabel wischen</td>
<td>желторотый юнец</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the best</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Das ist (ja) nicht (gerade) das Gelbe vom Ei</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>warning</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jem. die gelbe Karte zeigen</td>
<td>желтая карточка</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>luxurious, rich</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>gelbe Suppe</td>
<td>желтый дьявол</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wer die Gelbsucht (Dukatsuch) hat, ist schwer zu heilen</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion
In both languages, the prototypical referents of the color (A.Wierzbicka’s terminology) are the names of living and inanimate nature: sun, light, fruit (lemon), egg yolk. The group of PhU and PU with the coloroname *gelb* in the sense of ‘inexperienced’ proved to be the most numerous (13 units). The second place is taken by the symbolic meaning of “rich, luxurious, material well-being” (Fig. 3).
In both languages, we have found the symbolic meaning of the coloroname желтый (yellow) / gelb ‘a sickly look, physical and mental illness’. The change of meaning stemmed from the color of skin of the diseased. The cause of the unhappy state of mind could be the color of the walls of the Obukhov hospital. Among the pejorative meanings, one can distinguish the meaning of ‘shame’, being present in German and Russian. The symbolic meaning of ‘rich, luxurious, material well-being’ was reflected in both languages. In German and Russian proverbial and phraseological images of the world, yellow is associated with lies, sensational messages, sometimes “dirty” news. In German and Russian journalistic texts, the coloroname желтый (yellow) / gelb as a part of set combinations is often used in the metaphorical meaning “first, leading”. Young and inexperienced people are described by Germans and Russians with PhU and PU containing the component желтый(yellow) / gelb. Due to its brightness and positive meaning, the coloroname gelb is often used in slogans (das Gelbe vom Ei).

Conclusion
As a result of comparing the PhU and PU with the component желтый / yellow / gelb we can conclude the following. Firstly, this coloroname in German and Russian can acquire both pejorative and meliorative meanings. Secondly, we have revealed similarities and differences in the perception of yellow with representatives of different cultures. Thirdly, the study of PhU and PU with the component gelb in the corpus of the German language makes it possible to assume that the meliorative meaning of the coloroname allows its use in modern slogans.

Acknowledgements
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Linguistic Peculiarities Of Incantations Of The Tatar Language

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Abstract
Incantations to which magical power is attributed are an ancient genre of the literary word, they comprehend the historical linguistic features of the people. The texts of the incantations are considered as an object of linguistic research; phonetic, morphological, lexical features of the words used in the texts of incantations are described. The use of the comparative historical method, the methods of structural-morphological, contextual and historical-etymological analyses contribute to the achievement of the objective of the research. It has been revealed that at the phonetic and grammatical levels the features inherent in the ancient Turkic literary tradition are preserved. Thematic groups of words, figurative and expressive means, historical and genetic layers of the lexicon of Tatar incantations have been determined.

The texts mainly contain the thematic groups of nouns, verbs and numerals. Among the most commonly used designations for the names of parts of human body, animals, birds, the names of plants. It has been revealed that the incantations are closely connected with the customs of the people, they are important components of the spiritual culture of the Tatar people. In modern linguistics, the texts of incantations “им-том” are an object of study of various linguistic areas.

Key Words and Phrases: the Tatar language; incantations; phonetics, morphology, vocabulary

Introduction
The incantations “им-том” are the ancient unique works of spiritual culture of the Tatar people, which contain a pragmatic attitude - to influence nature, person via words. “Incantation is a verbal formula that, according to superstitious ideas, has a magical power” [1]. Many researchers of different peoples believe that the magical power is contained in the very texts, individual scholars attribute it to the supernatural magical forces of people who practice incantations. From the variety of existing definitions of the genre “им-том” we have synthesized a general explanation, incantation is an organized verbal formula capable of producing the expected results.

Materials and Methods
The solution of the research problems and, consequently, the attainment of the object of the investigation are furthered by the application of several complementary methods for analyzing various aspects of such complex subject of study as folklore text: comparative-historical, methods of structural-morphological, contextual and historical-etymological analyses. The main methods of work are the hypothetical-inductive method within the framework of the system-functional approach. The object of our study are the samples of the texts of incantations on the work of M. I. Akhmetzyanov “Татар халкының борынгы ырым-арбаулары һәм төрле фалнамәләре” [2].
Results

The original texts of incantations store rich linguistic material, as well as multi-aspect information of social, psychological, historical, ethical nature [3]. Owing to their practical orientation, they are closely related to the customs and traditions of the people. [5]. They comprehend the information about the old way of life of the Tatar people, important aspects of their life. The power of magic of spells extends to household work, interpersonal relations. Requests, wishes related to life, expressions of gratitude to the gods or spirits, moral values of the community are the main themes. Incantations refer to the pagan beliefs of the Tatars, in spite of the fact that the very beliefs were superseded, their elements now occupy a peculiar place among the other oral folk arts. It should be noted that the representatives of the Muslim cult are also involved in this sphere, which is the specificity of Tatar Islam. [6]. Thus, many spells begin with the sentence Бисмилля ар-рахман ар-рахим! [2: 63]. The extracts from prayers are also used. For example, the prayer “Иман калимасе”Лә иләнә иләланә Мохәммәд рәсүл Алләнә Саиүлла ғағийисәләм бәрәл мин аттым! [2: 57], or the prayer “Аят Эл-корси”: Биях әңә ж-сирател-мәсталыйым, сирател-дүң эң-нүгемәт ғағийим гайрә эл-мәгъүр.[2: 60].

Incantations as one of the genres of folklore have been existing in every nation. They are also widespread among the Bashkirs, the Chuvashes, the Azerbaijani, the Kirghiz and other Turkic peoples, they have not lost their significance, they have been used by various layers of the population to this day, as evidenced by the samples collected and published during the expeditions to the places of residence of the Tatars[2; 4];[7];[8];[9]. In linguistic terms, the texts of Tatar incantations have been monographically studied by R. Gilmindinova [4].

There are different classifications of Tatar incantations [2: 34-37], the classification of M. Kh. Bakirov, subdivided into three groups, is generally recognized, proceeding from pragmatic goals:

1. The incantations, intended for curing people, animals. For example, for the deseases such as сары′jaundice′, арпа′sty′, чуан′furuncules′, бүсеp′hermia′,forthe evil eye, for jinx. The incantation for sty: (Фәләсә) аршыккәп.Минапычыларласыңымым. Бер, ике, оч, дурт, биш, алты, жиңе, сизе,тъеге.[10: 286-287];
2. Household incantations that bring good, rise, connected with cattle-breeding, bee-keeping, and soon. For example, Шылчылыккынын (юкемер) панырынчайчындачаинчынкортаишәптерсә, шулчактабурсыңынколлыйбенаишәптерсәn![10: 360].
3. The incantations that change interpersonal relations (break a hex spell orbedevil). For example, Елнебелтәккаптапуйләнлән, (Буфалләнр)ошнәптуазульбүйлән. Мәчә белән тыйын күтә булуәнда, (Бу фәләр) шүүдә түп бүлән. [10: 372].

As you can see from the examples, the content of the texts consists of the alleged actions and movements of the characters, provided that the tasks that are difficult to fulfill are performed. The samples are evidence of the skillfulness of the authors that incantation skill was developed among the Tatar population. The text of the incantations reflects the adherence to the traditions of the written literary language, the desire to develop and observe a special exquisite ritual language.

The analysis of phonetic peculiarities of the vocabulary of incantations has shown that they mirror the features of the ancient Turkic literary tradition [13]. Traditional and new vowels in the words of incantations can function in parallel: бән ~ мин ~ литт. мнән′бу бәне телем алатын йөзәкәр, бә дәм бу мәнен телем көмө шикичыр!′ Этнең мол язык, как золотой замок, и этот мой язык – как серебряный ключ′(This my tongue is like a golden lock, and this my tongue is like a silver key)[2: 21]. The following ancient Turkic literary traditions are preserved in the phonetic form:
The preservation of the ancient Turkic *ъ: бен* ←literaryумен*ь*': Бү бенем телем — будут кълымдыр! Бү бенем телем алын ыозактыв ʽЭтот мой язык — как каменный меч! Этот мой язык — как золотой замок!ʼ (This my tongue is like a stone sword! This my tongue is like a golden lock!) [2: 21];

The preservation of the ancient Turkic *ъ: тоо: Zu* ←literaryууз: девятиъ*': Ике укыб, ыа ун укыб, ыа токуз мартлык укыб армок кырк ʽда раза прочитав, или десять раз прочитав, или девятъ раз прочитав надо подумать (having read twice, having read or ten times, or having read nine times is necessary to blow) [2: 59].

Labial concord is preserved: булы — literary булысъ ʽпусты будемʼ, тorkук — лип. топыръ ʽразныйʼ: Ыптимеш итим топыркып, ыа ным дыркылар, ыа ным шайтанлар ыа ным ным топыркы парлык булысъ. ʽПусты будем семьдесят семь разных перь, и шайтаны, и черти и другие злые духиʼ (Let there be seventy-seven different peris, and Shaylans, and devils and other evil spirits) [2: 22].

On the whole, the traditional archaic spelling in inlaut and auslaut is survived ←алтылы← lit. алыты 'название'(name), олуг ←lit. олы 'великий'(great): Ул Укыйан алыгы олууг динесинен уртасынан ак утьап. ʽВ этом великом месте по называнию Укыйан в середине лежит белый островʼ (In this great sea by the name of Укыйан in the middle there lies a white island) [2: 24]; сык гы — lit. сыкь 'корова'(cow): Ак сык ыг артындыв ичил улайй ўрсэн, глеме упкылча айрылмасун. ʽТакже как и белая корова поется за своим белым буреком, пусть и этот некто также ходит за мной, и никогда не разлучится со мной.ʼ (Just like a white cow follows its white tail) [2: 44].

As F.S. Nurieva argues, the use of auslaut -yand -g is observed in the language of the monuments of the period of the Golden Horde, that is, the traditional archaic spelling is survived [14; 14].

The traditional archaic spelling of the words is preserved: алыт ←litалъ 'перед'(before), алытун← lit. алытун 'золото'(gold), сач ←lit. сач 'волосъ'(hair): Алтыныздагы кара таш сикерб тай башындан тубан йырэг тосеб. ʽЧерный камень перед Вами прокосся из вершинь горы упав вниз на землюʼ (The black stone slipping down from before you from the top of the mountain fell down to the ground) [2: 41]; сачы ←чачо 'волосъ'(hair): Сачо көөш теше алытун. ʽВолосъ — серебряные, зубы — золотыеʼ (Hair — silver, teeth — gold) [2: 40] and others.

There is a devoicing in the interval position: тирнакъ ←lit. тирнакъ 'войть'; итим ←lit. жиде 'семь': Ыптимеш диизез артында кызылы бар, борны көөш, тирнакъ алытун! ʽЗа семь морей есть черный ворон, нос — серебряный, ногти — золотыеʼ (The other side of the seven seas there is a black raven, a nose is silver, nails are golden!); Ыптимеш диизез артында кызылы йылдан бар! ʽЗа семь морей есть звезда с черной головойʼ (The other side of the seven seas there is a snake with a black head) [2: 39] and others.

The morphological structure of the words is close to the modern literary language, but there are certain features related to the preservation of the Turkic literary tradition. [21].

In the declension of nouns, Tatar incantations basically preserved the modern literary form, only the suffix -ин, characteristic of the Karakhanid-Uyghur tradition, is used in the original case. Compare: Ул қозымны көйш бозын, боому адаса, бу кешене ул чактый бозын! ʽЕсли этого ворона человек заколдует, и сможет заколдовать, пусть этот человека тоже заколдуетʼ (If this raven man bewitches, and be able to spell, let this man be enchanted too) [2: 25]; Ыбдул ўрлер, ишкендин кызылы тюп капкаларга керелем. ʽБуду ходить из дома в дом, выйду из двери и зайду через крепкие воротаʼ (I will walk from house to house, I will go out through the door and I will come in through the strong gate) [2: 24].

In the texts of conspiracies, the following ancient forms of affixes are preserved.

The imperative mood of the second person singular is formed with the affixes-гыл/-гел. For example: алыл ←lit. алы ʽвойтьʼ, укылгыл ←lit. укы ʽчитатьʼ: Эгер миёрбанд қайылынды дисэт, турт таш алыл! ʽЕсли
In the texts the there are affixes -айин/-ага of the first person singular of optative mood. For example, өдәр маажабат, миңербән ыялайын дисан. 'Если хочешь восстановить любовь, его милость.' (If you want to renew love, his mercy)[2: 64].

In the participles of the present tense the archaic form -суг/-сүч is used. Белугчесен-лит. белуче/энчаций (knowing), күрүчесен-лит. күрүч/видящий”'(seer): И бар ходайа, инандым берсән өг барсына мотоаррыйдән. Шәрикән мөңүләсен белегчесә өг күрүчесән. 'О мой Бог, я уверовал ты без сомнения всеобъемлющий и всесознающий' (Oh my God, I believe you are without a doubt all-seeing and all-knowing)[2: 18]. The indicated ancient forms function in the language of the written monuments of the period of the Golden Horde as well [17].

The lexemes from the names of the parts of the human body are fixed. For example, Багладум 'рука'(hand), тел 'рукә'(body), чөң 'глаз'(eye), иң 'сердце'(heart), бәвир 'печень'(liver), кул 'рука'(hand), жән 'душа'(soul), аяқ 'нога'(foot) and others: Баглалдың башыны, мәндән үзгәгә ыялмасун. / Багламуд ике күзене, мәндән үзгәгә харасүн / Багламуд ике коланыны, мәндән үзгәгә сузене тәшләмасүн / Багламуд телене, мәндән үзгәгә сузләмән. [9: 107].

The names of animals and birds are often used in the texts of incantations for constellation, bedeviling, jinx: төлөк 'лиса'(fox), ырдәк 'упка'(duck), өлән 'змея'(snake) арысылап 'ләв'(lion), әләк 'веде'(bear), көнгәз 'бәбер'(heaven) and others: ۆлы Идел, ۆлы Идел өнчән дәл ким, олы кима өнчән кече кима өнчән кече үрдәк, кече үрдәк өнчән алтыны йөркәләр. [2: 24].

The lexemes from the terms denoting kinship are used in the utterances of incantations ана 'отец'(father), ана 'мать'(mother), үйлә 'сын'(son), өлән 'жена'(wife), кыз 'дүйән'(grandfather) and others: Әдәм илы йынне кат күрән кечән күк берлә атыйп үңгәрсә, тимер миңа анда утсен! Әдәм илы йынне кат күк кечән күк берлә атыйп үңгәрсә, тимер миңа анда утсен! [2: 27].

The ancient Turkic verbs are mainly used in the texts of incantations: бөяр 'испортиров'(spoil), алыр 'возьмет'(take), кылар 'уйдут'(leave), төрөр 'стой'(stand), кылар 'примет'(come), йөрөр 'ходили'(go).

For example, Ыйннеше йынне кат күк эспендә айдары ыялна төрөр! За сәйедөстем сель пластиев над небом стоит змея-дракон. 'Over seventy-seven layers above the sky is a dragon snake') [2: 19].
The following numbers are used from the numerals: ике ‘два’ (two), биш ‘пять’ (five), жиё ‘семь’ (seven), дурт ‘четыре’ (four), тугыз ‘девять’ (nine), утыз ‘тридцать’ (thirty), жицме ’седьмдесят’ (seventy). For example, йитмеш ике торлук мииллят. ‘Семьдесят две разных национальностей.’ (Seventy two different nationalities) [2: 45]; Ул аг имен нец йитмеш жите тамырлары бар. ‘У этого белого дуба есть семьдесят семь корня.’ (This white oak has seventy-seven roots) [2: 23].
Discussion

Intermsoflinguistics, ofinterestarethelexical features of the Tatar incantations. The incantations are built according to the principle of situational comparison. For example, Алтын кзылда алтын кичиga′ На золотом столбе золотой ястреб′ (On the golden pillar there is the golden hawk) [2: 34]; Алтын тауда – алтын ой. Золотая гора. На золотой горе - золотой дом.′(The Golden Mountain. On the golden mountain there is the golden house) [2: 34] andsoon.

The investigated incantations are also rich in hyperbolas. The most typical exaggerations are connected with the quantity of conditions and time period for the realization of the mentioned actions:Кук болып кырында кук тээна / Кук болып кырында кук тээна / Кары болып кырында кары тээна.′ (White sheep next to white clouds / Heavenly sheep next to blue clouds / Black sheep next to black clouds )[2: 66].

A hyperbolical situation in the incantations may include two or more exaggerated conditions: Ыйте кат ырпес артъяна ыйтмеш Ыйте порядъ алтын сари кыз бардыр.′ За семи слоев земли есть семьдесят семь разных золотых дворцов.′(The other side of the seven layers of the earth there are seventy-seven different golden palaces) [2: 26].

Summary

Tatar folklore has a centuries-old history of collecting and studying, as evidenced by the texts of the preserved incantations. The texts of incantations, being an archaic and developed genre of oral folk art, have been actively existing at the present time. As the material shows, the choice of phonetic, lexical, grammatical indicators plays a huge role in the texts of incantations, the word with its power of influence has the ability to thrill and fear. This is facilitated by the preservation of the traditional-archaic language features of the people. Knowing the exact text was an important attribute, even a slight error in rearranging the sounds, words in the text of the spell could prevent the expected result, so the most important component of the ritual, along with the incantation, is the text itself. In the semantic structure of the Tatar spells it was possible to reveal an incantation of the name of diseases, natural phenomena, magical actions and so on, the names of magical assistants. In the texts of incantations, the verbs have a conspicuousplace, they denote the way and direction of movement. The stylistic feature of the names of numerals in incantations is related to the magic function of the number. The definition of lexical features of the incantations has shown a significant predominance of expressive means in them in comparison with figurative ones, which is connected with the oral form of their appearance and further existence.
Conclusion
In the course of the conducted research it was found out that incantations are an amazing phenomenon of folk culture, representing interest in historical, literary and linguistic aspects. On the one hand, these are the original monuments, reflecting various aspects of the economic and spiritual life of the people, the uniqueness of dispositions and customs of the Tatar people. On the other hand, these are the original works of oral folk art, which are a magical way to solve the pressing problems.

Acknowledgements
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References

Abstract

In this paper we study the linguistic phenomenon of language code switching in bi- and multilingually
spaces on the basis of material obtained in the course of the experiment among 50 students wishing to
study foreign languages. For the study the second- and third-year students of linguistic specializations
with a high level of proficiency were drawn. In the process of identifying structural and sociopragmatics
functions and characteristics of code switching the following research methods were used: method of
comparative analysis, the analytical description, applications, component analysis. Experimental results
and comparative analysis allowed us to determine the percentage of students who use code switching in
learning and to highlight the most common sociopragmatic functions of such switches. It turned out that
the students do not consider switching codes to be a negative phenomenon. However, in some situations,
the switching of codes may worsen communication than improve it. In particular, switching from English
to the native, dominant language, may have a negative effect on learning associated with purely English
phenomena. Job prospects point to a further, deeper study of the shift codes with the extension of the
research and the study of other social and age groups.

Introduction

The development of the modern world leads to the expansion and integration of different cultures,
Nations and languages. Nowadays the study and research of the Russian bilingualism and its special
characteristics - the phenomenon of switching codes is of particular need.

The Russian language is the official language of the Russian Federation, dominant almost throughout the
state. The Tatar language is the mother tongue of 56% of the population of the Republic of Tatarstan, in
addition the Tatar diaspora exists all over the world. The English language unites almost the whole
world, as a kind of lingua franca for economic, political, cultural, computer ecosystems on the planet. In
this study, we covered all three languages, trying to study the phenomenon of code switching in the
conjunction of these languages.

Today, there is a relatively small number of works in Russian linguistics devoted to the study of linguistic
phenomena such as language contacts, switching codes, the mixing of codes, the interference in the space
of a bilingual society. The scientific treatment of the problem of universal and differential switching of
codes in different linguistic cultures is not subjected to detailed analysis.

Of particular interest is the fact that the phenomenon of switching codes is characteristic of oral speech
and the speech of the younger generation. In connection with this specific phenomenon, we conducted a
study on the switching of codes in academic discourse, analyzing the mechanisms of switching,
sociolinguistic, structural and pragmatic features and functions of switching codes.

Materials and methods
The materials for the research were fragments of speech with switching codes to students whose level of English is not below Upper-Intermediate, studying at the linguistic departments, a questionnaire survey results (100 respondents) and interviews (52 participants) with students and teachers of Kazan Federal University and Kazan scientific research technological University.

With the aim of developing the scientific basis of the experiment a comprehensive analysis of the existing classifications and typologies of switching codes in bilingual space was conducted and definitions that reveal the essence of the categories of switching codes and most universal cases of the phenomenon of switching codes, terms, and motivation shift were analyzed. In this study, we examined the pragmatic aspect switching codes, taking into account such components of communication as the addressee and sender, the characteristics of their relationship, a situation in which there is communication, the theme of the speech process.

The study was built on the oral communication of second- and third-year students of linguistic departments: conversations between students at the University, conversations of students out of the educational process. In addition, we also focused on the speech of students in social networks: Vkontakte, WhatsApp.

The experiment took place in three stages. In the first stage the observation method to record the cases of switching codes in oral and written speech of students was used. In the second stage the obtained in the first phase results were systematized by the method of comparative analysis and analytical descriptions. The material obtained in the second phase, was drawn up the questionnaire (table 1) and a questionnaire survey to determine the relationship of students to switch codes and to identify the level of awareness of this phenomenon in their speech was conducted. The survey was conducted among the second- and third-year students, and it was completed by 100 students whose level of language proficiency is not below Upper-Intermediate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The reason for switching codes. &quot;I switch from English to their native language when...&quot;</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Difficult answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I don't have enough vocabulary</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I want to explain a phenomenon inherent in the native language</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. see, what I am not understood</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I cannot understand what I am said</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I am &quot;overwhelmed with emotion&quot;</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I need to hide the meaning from anyone who is not familiar with the language</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. communicate with my family, friends</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Switching from English to the native language helps me to understand the complex phenomenon of the English language</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. The motivation of switching.
The last stage included the process of generalization and comprehensive analysis of the obtained results.
Results
The results obtained in the course of the experiment showed that the vast majority of students often switch from English language into their native language when they need to explain the phenomenon (linguistic or extra-linguistic) inherent in the native culture, their native language. In this case, students prefer to switch to the language with which this phenomenon is connected. Similarly, 90% of respondents said that it is easier to explain the phenomena associated with England (and any other English speaking country) and English in the English language.

During the study it became apparent that the vast majority of students in the process of speech switch from target language to the dominant, when they find it difficult to choose the appropriate equivalent to either find a synonym in the English language, which is quite typical for people learning foreign languages. Another situation with switching from English to Russian is one in which the speaker becomes conscious that he did not understand or when he cannot properly express the idea. Due to the fact that such a situation may violate an adequate communication process, speaking student in order to restore it, switches to the dominant language.

On the other hand, as shown by a survey, when a student is the recipient of information, it is necessary for the teacher to use the switch codes in the explanation of complex phenomena and concepts. The switching of codes in this case promotes the formation of stronger conceptual connections and helps to consolidate new information.

It should be noted that the native language (the dominant language) is cognitively associated with concepts such as proximity, solidarity, peace, affection. In contrast with the studied language, which is perceived as more prestigious and accepted, especially in a formal setting. Switching codes, therefore, are more characteristic of free, informal and unprepared speech, often happening in the conditions of daily life.

During the research it is established that the switching of codes, as a rule, occurs in conditions of informality. In our view, these cases are due to a number of reasons, among which we highlight the following:
1) special marking of speech (of course, only the situations where this phenomenon can be understood and seen are taken into consideration);
2) brightness, expressiveness of foreign words or phrases in contrast to their synonym in the target language;
3) lack of a semantically vivid equivalent in the native language.

The situation of switching from one supplementary language to another are also of interest. This phenomenon also occurs in the informal communication or during a class held in a pleasant, friendly atmosphere. However, here we should distinguish intentional from unintentional switching (when the student is tired, his attention is weakened, he does not have time to switch from one language to another after classes). Intentional switching between more languages has greater brightness and effect, especially in the right situation and the proper environment.

Discussion
The analysis of the collected results revealed the following regularities of the phenomenon of code switching in the speech of students:
1) many students had difficulty trying to describe the process of switching from one linguistic code to another, due to the "elusiveness" of the process;
2) knowledge of the language does not guarantee the ability to switch from code to code. Switching codes is a poorly understood area of linguistics in which a special interest is attracted to the cognitive side, the "mechanism" of switching;

3) switching from Tatar into Russian and vice versa, takes place at the students easier, more spontaneously and naturally than from English into Russian and Vice versa. This is explained by the fact that for the majority of respondents Tatar and Russian are the dominant languages;

4) Students understand that the English explanation of the phenomena in Russian or Tatar language entails securing specific to native language mental images. Students, as the survey showed, understand the need of the English communication in the course of studying the complex phenomena of in the English language: in this case, you can look at the studied phenomenon through the prism of the English language without the interference of the Russian definitions and the usual way of thinking.

Consider some of the linguistic and pragmatic features and functions of switching codes identified in the study.

1. Subject function.
As has already been established, switching codes are used to change the topic of conversation, speech situation, the direction of communication and – as comments, insertions, oral footnotes, observations, clarifications.

Student reading assignment: Read, translate and analyse. Тәржемә итмәж ярый мы соң?
In the example, the switching of codes performs a pragmatic function of clarifying comment. The student in this case switches from English into Tatar, not because he doesn’t know terms, but to attract the attention of the teacher and other students with language change.

2. The function of filling lexical gaps.
Switching codes is used in the absence of certain concepts in the language. In this case, many students use other known languages.

Фильм был просто awesome! The movie was just awesome!
Там необходимо находиться 24/7 (twenty four/seven) You must be there 24/7 (twenty four/seven)
In the above examples, the students found it easier to use the known words in other languages, than to find the equivalent.

3. Address function
Shift codes can be used for specifying the recipient to which the statement is addressed.

Вот так, нужно лист сложить пополам. Не так! Менә, кара монда. Посмотрите, я правильно делаю? Алайга борма, бу якка яса. Oh, just give it to me! (So, you need a sheet folded in half. Not so! Менә, кара монда. Look, am I doing it right? Алайга борма, бу якка яса. Oh, just give it to me!)
The situation occurred in the classroom, devoted to the talents of the students, when one student explained her neighbor how to fold a boat out of paper. Knowing that she understands Russian, Tatar and English equally well, the student switched from one language to another.

4. The function of identity.
Switch codes can be used by the speaker as a way to show that he speaks a particular language.

Теперь читаем текст. (Now, read the text.)И да, мин татарча да ичүйм.
The teacher, in whose presence students spoke Tatar, considering that she doesn’t know Tatar, wants to show that she understands them and knows Tatar, using code switching.

5. The esoteric function
Switching codes is used in cases when the speaker wants to hide some information from prying listeners.
The conversation was in the company of students, where was an American student named Brad, which rhymes with the English “bread”. Students called him "Bread" for him to have no idea of their speech, what exactly they say about him.

6. Citation function
Switching codes is used for quotations, introductory phrases, inclusions, aphorisms and idioms in the speech.

Контрольная в 8 утра. Вот уж точно “Highway to Hell” завтра утром будет. (The test is at 8 am. That is certainly “Highway to Hell” tomorrow morning). Students use the name of the song, known to all of them to succinctly and accurately describe their emotions.

Jesus Christ! Эта книга когда-нибудь закончится? (Jesus Christ! Will this book ever end?) (Using English expressions in class to enhance the emotional aspect of the utterance)

7. Compensatory function
Shift codes can function as a subsidiary inclusions in case of insufficient language skills.

Альбина is absent, she is sick. She has a... растяжение связки. (Albina is absent, she is sick. She has a... stretching of the ligaments.)
The student does not know the medical term, so resorts to his native language.

Студент 1: Как будет скалка?
Студент 2: Я не знаю, эм… To roll testo?
(Student 1: What is the English for «скалка»?
Student 2: I don't know, um... To roll testo?)

In this example, there is not only a compensatory function (the student does not know what is the “rolling pin” in English so tries to explain the word in English), but also humorous function. Discourse markers are also used to change the theme of the narrative, or to plan the next joke, but sometimes they can be incorporated into the performance as indicators of the attitude of the narrator to his own words (Gilmudtina A. R, Biktemirova E. I., 2016)

8. The function of saving language means
Switching codes is used to express any concept with fewer language signs.

Я более чем excited перед каникулами! (I am more than excited before the holiday!)

English lexical unit "excited" reflects the emotions of a student more clearly and is more compact to use than the Russian equivalent of "to be in anticipation of something".

Switching codes can be used for emotional appraisal of anything.

Just go иди! (The student shows his annoyance by resorting to the Tatar inclusion)

10. Affective function (forcing function) and attraction function (the function of attracting attention)
The use of switching codes for speech influence on the addressee, attracting his attention.

And as Clegg went out... Эй, вы меня слушаете? Кемег сыйлим соң мин моны? So, Clegg went out, and Miranda...(And as Clegg went out... Hey, are you listening to me? Кемег сыйлим соң мин моны? So, Clegg went out, and Miranda:...)

Switching from one language to another, involuntarily attracts the attention of others, forcing them, as recipients and participants of the communicative process, also to switch from one code to another.

Insights
In our work we investigated the phenomenon of bilingualism and the associated phenomenon of switching codes characteristic of bilingual communities. In the research process, we found that switching codes may occur with students both spontaneously and deliberately.

We have studied sociopragmatics functions of switching codes, identified, described and illustrated ten of the most common.

In the study, we also described the reasons for switching codes. We have found that when switching "from Russian – into Tatar" students are not always aware of the switching process and its causes, whereas in the case of English language switching occurs more consciously. We attribute the reason to the level of proficiency, as for the vast majority of students Tatar and Russian are native languages, while their English bilingualism is artificial, or acquired. In addition, we noted that very often in students' speech the situations with switching codes happen due to lack of linguistic competence, lack of necessary vocabulary in matrix language, situations that require economy of language efforts through the use of smaller language units and the need for reviews and comments in the process of communication.

The use of obtained results for the development of effective methods and techniques of the English language teaching in the conditions of Russian-Tatar bilingualism using this language situation as an aid in language learning is promising.

**Conclusion**

Shift codes are a unique linguistic phenomenon inherent in bilingual and multilingualism language communities. Despite the fact that for a long time linguists took the switch codes as a negative phenomenon, arguing that switching codes, as well as the bilingualism, is a testament to and a consequence of low language competence/Today, switching codes is a topic of interest to a wide circle of linguists. The analysis of the switching codes in the institutional context allows us to understand that the investigated phenomenon is an inevitable process that should be considered as a significant tool in the assimilation of a foreign language.

**Literature**

The Expression Of The Ethical Estimation In Proverbs And Sayings (On The Material Of English, Russian And Tatar Languages)

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Abstract
Comparative study of proverb picture of the world in different languages is intensive and diverse and attracts the attention of modern linguists in connection with the importance of identifying common and specific features in this area. This article is devoted to the study of proverbs and sayings, which include ethical evaluation in English, Russian and Tatar languages. Analysis of the linguistic data showed that proverbial expressions contain ethical norms adopted by society. Ethical evaluation is not just an arbitrary approval or condemnation of the act, a determination of the right or wrong, moral or immoral, virtuous or vicious human behavior. The authors discuss ethical evaluation in proverbs and sayings as the pursuit to a standard, as guidance to humans. Proverbial expressions of different languages can express both the universal laws and rules of behavior, and their national symbols of normative character.

Key words: ethical evaluation, moral norm, Proverbs, sayings, English, Russian, Tatar.

Introduction
One of the most important and topical problems of modern linguistic research is the study of the semantics of proverbs and sayings. The study of proverbs has quite a long tradition going back to the works of such linguists as E. A. Lacki, A. A. Potebnya, I. M. Snegirev, F. I. Buslaev, V. I. Dal, etc. In the works of these scientists a lot of valuable observations on the origin, the meaning and cognitive value of proverbs can be discovered. The main thoughts about life, national stereotypes, and norms of behavior were passed from generation to generation by them [1]. They are useful in any situation in connection with a high content of everyday life experience [2; 3].

The opportunity to observe the reflection of the moral norms in proverbial fund in various languages, which involves the study of moral principles of man's relationship with the world and other people, the relation of man to nature, issues of life and death, issues of your own personality and others is quite interesting.

The purpose of this article is to identify ethical assessment in the proverbs and sayings in English, Russian and Tatar languages. The theme seemed to be relevant as a comparative study of ethical judgment in small folk forms of languages of different structures has not been given the necessary attention. The study of the evaluation of the semantics is carried out on the semantic and communicative levels, because on the one hand, evaluation is a component of the connotative value of language units, on the other hand, the rating is an indicator of pragmatic value [4, p. 207].

Proverb is not "just a saying. It expresses the opinion of the people. It is the evaluation of life" [5]. Following the concept of most scientists regarding the understanding of evaluation in linguistics, we believe that "evaluation is the objective-subjective status: its objectivity is reflected in the fact that it to some extent reflects the system of accepted norms in society, and subjectivity is in the expression of opinion of the subject about the referent" [6, p. 16].
Evaluation categorization is determined by the system of preferences of the society. This characteristic of evaluative categorization is directly related to Proverbs and sayings, which on the one hand, is descriptive, due to the reference to the real world, on the other - the evaluation determines that the reference point is man and his value system.

The evaluation status in proverbs and sayings is determined by the difference from other nominative units of the language. If the primary function of words is the nomination of objects and phenomena of reality, proverbs performed a different function in the language: they do not nominate only the specific situation, the expression also estimates the relationship through a recommendation to act in accordance with common sense and public fixed regulations. Paremia is supposed to denote special nominative units existing in the language for expression of value relations which is realized through the category of "necessary", "proper", "good", "bad". In our work, the analysis of proverbs and sayings is based on general concepts of ethical rating of "good" and "bad" associated primarily with traditional folk morality, stereotyped moral and ethical norms accepted in the society [7]. A rating is "good means corresponding to the idealized model of macro - or microcosm, bad means not corresponding to this model by one of the inherent parameters" [8, p. 182]. This definition seems the most adequate to the essence of the phenomenon of evaluation.

Materials and methods
The materials for study are proverbs and sayings in English, Russian and Tatar languages with the ethical evaluation in quantities of 500, selected by continuous sampling from the dictionaries of proverbs and sayings in English, Russian and Tatar languages.


When identifying ethical judgment encoded in the Proverbs and sayings we used a definitional analysis, descriptive and comparative methods, elements of the quantitative analysis for the reliability of the results.

Results and discussion
The analysis of the semantic content of English, Russian and Tatar Proverbs and sayings helped to see the similarities in the philosophical understanding of human life, in the moral guidelines and ethical assessments of such diverse peoples:

1. The recognition of the transience of life and the irreversible flow of time: English. Times change; One cannot put back the clock; The mill cannot grind with the water that is past; Rus. Воду в реке не остановить (The water in the river does not stop); Чего прошло, того не догонишь (What is past will never catch up); tat. Узган кайтмас; Уткəн өгөөр – иккен су, etc.

2. Understanding of the value of words: English. A word spoken is past recalling; The tongue is not steel, yet it cuts; The pen is mightier than the sword; rus. Слово не воробей, вылетит – не поймаешь; Сорвалось с языка – досталось всему миру; Сказанное слово – выпущенная стрела; Пуля сразит одного, слово – десятерых (The word is not a sparrow, if it flies away you cannot catch it; The word slipped out of the tongue and went...
around the world; Spoken word is like a released arrow, The bullet will strike one person, the word - ten; tat. әйткен сүз – атпак үсү; бийкәләк бар, кәйтмак юк; Суңен комең булса, эндәшмәкә алтың ич. A positive assessment of the work as one of the life goals, ideal is a hardworking person: eng. Don't put off till tomorrow what you can do today; If a thing is worth doing it is worth doing well; Never do things by halves; Rus. Дело и труд все перетрут; Труд и терпение превращаются в золото; Без труда нет и покоя; Без труда не вытянешь и рыбку из пруда; У кого умелье руки – тот и мед есть (Business and a little effort make perfect; Hard work and patience turn into gold; No work, no peace; Without difficulty you cannot catch a fish from the pond; Who has skillful hands – eats the honey); tat. Күнүңде эш булса, эң пышарга бәкүү юк; Эшкә батыр, төшкө матүр; Ага чыгылы мәләл, адәм эле мәләл; Ңанәр – ирңен қанаты; etc. Protest against theft, injustice, wealth, and the power of money: English. Muck and money go together; Lightly come, lightly go; Rus. За знатным сплетником, за богатым – грязь; Без труда нажитое добро через двери войдет, через окно выйдет (The noble person has gossips behind, the rich one has dirt; Easily acquired good through will enter through the door and will go the window); tat. Бүр бүләй – һир бүләй; Көчегә нәрәкәп өглө; Акчасызның күлйе кыска; Акчасы үн, акылы юк; Ир булсаң үрлышыма, үз халының хөрлүтпә (The effect of money on people’s friendships is noted: eng. A full purse never wanted a friend; When I lent I had a friend when I asked he was unkind; Rus. Я богат, и друг мне рад. Где должок? А он – мокчок (I'm rich and my friend is glad to see me. “Where is the payback?” - I ask and he is silent; tat. Акча патшаны булса, ярмасыз бөлөм; Ай бөгөрөн, бай бөгөрөн, мәлән бөткөч юк кәдерен; Бай белән бай берүүгөн. A great opportunity that the possession of money gives people is established: eng. A golden key opens every door; Rus. Көмө отцд с материю, за денеги ве күпшиң (You can buy everything for the money except mother and father); tat. Акча патышың жөнгө, Алың өйкөөн анардагы ёлак юк) etc. We believe that being created in different historical conditions, English, Russian and Tatar examples of paremia in most cases, are not absolute equivalents, they reflect different social patterns and lifestyle, different history, religion, customs, principles of morality, psychology, etc. in the analysis of paremiological units we follow R. R. Zamaletdinov and assume the following settings: 1) recognition of the paremiological fund of the national language as the most important means of accumulation and transmission of cultural experience of the people; 2) recognition of the conceptual unity of the paremiological space of language as the field of verbalization of the most important sections of the national language picture of the world; 3) recognition of the importance of proverbs to discover specifics of the values of the national language picture of the world [13, p. 65]. Proverbs, indeed, create a special national image of the world. The “national specificity of folklore expresses not some sort of exclusivity of a nation, but represents the result of the historical destiny of individual people, the result of its ethnic and cultural development” [14, p. 9]. For example, the analysis of the paremiological fund of the three languages showed that the rate of ethical review in phrase-building is higher and more active in the English language higher, than in Russian or Tatar: 1. Privacy, independence, bordering with the weakening of family ties, individualism, secluded life: English [15]. An Englishman’s house is his castle; Love your neighbor, yet pull not down your fence; A constant guest is never welcome; Do not wear out your welcome; Let the world wag, and take mine ease in my inn. 2. Stubborn rationalism, moderation, tact, diligence, equanimity: It is ill to waken sleeping dogs; Let sleeping dogs lie; Put not your hand between the bark and the tree; Look before you leap; Discretion is the better part of valour; Don’t put all your eggs in one basket; Don’t rise the high course; There is a time to speak and time to be
silent; A place for everything and everything in its place; Safety lies in the middle course; Little and often fills the purse; Many a little, makes a ruckle etc.

3. Freedom, independence: The best things in life are free; Money makes a man free everywhere; Thought is free; Who loses his liberty loses all; Who receives a gift, sells his liberty; Paddle your own canoe; If you want a thing well done, do it yourself etc.

4. Restraint in speech, emotions and actions [16]: Pigs grunt about everything and nothing; think First, then speak; Fair words fill not the belly; Least said, soonest mended etc.

In the informative part of the Russian paremiology the following value concepts take significantly larger space:

1. Seeking truth, justice: За правду Бог и добрые люди; Не в силе Бог, а в правде; Правда – свет разума; Кто за правду горой, тот истинный герой; На правду нет суда (God and good people stand for the truth; The God is not in the power, but in truth; The Truth – the light of reason; He, who stands for the truth firmly is the true hero; the truth needs no judgment), etc.

2. Tolerance and endurance: За терпенье даёт Бог спасенье; Век живи, век надейся; Терпи, казак, атаманом будешь; Подождём, а своё возьмём; Терпенье и труд всё перетрут (For the patience God gives salvation; Live and hope; Be patient Cossack you’ll become a chieftain; Wait, and take it; With patience and a little effort you can overcome everything; Beginning of science is mind, the beginning of mind is patience, etc.

3. Collegiality, teamwork, social cooperation: Семеро одного не ждут; Один в поле не воин; Один цветок лета не делает; Из капель образуется озеро; Один поможет – ты вдвое сильнее, двое помогут – в сто раз сильнее; С миром по нитке – гольому рубашка; Не имей сто рублей, а имей сто друзей; Кто не с людьми, тот словно и не родился; С миром по нитке (Seven people do not wait for one person; One person is a not warrior; One flower doesn't make a summer; the drops formed a lake; One person will help – you're twice as strong, two people will help – you are a hundred times stronger; Is everyone gives a piece of cloth a poor person will get a shirt; do not have a hundred rubles, have a hundred friends; He, who is not with people, wasn’t born at all; Among the people it is good even to die).

4. Hospitality, neighborliness, high sense of friendship, generosity of soul: Пища без воды и еда без соседа – грехи; Будь ласков с родителями, уживчив с соседями и приютлив с гостем; Просим на избу: красному гостю красное место; Хорошему гостю хозяйка в почет; Гость на гостью гостинец радость; Гость в дом, а Бог в доме; Хоть не богат, а гостям рад; Не будь гостю запасен, а будь ему рад (Food without water and food, without the neighbor are a sin; Be gentle with parents, good-natured with neighbors and friendly with the guest; We invite you to our house and give the best place for the guest; a good guest honors the host; A guest and a guest the host is joyful; When there is a guest in the house, the God is in the house, Though I am not rich, I am happy to have guests in my house; Don’t be greedy for the guest, be glad to see him, etc.

5. Respect to poor people, disrespect of property rights: С милым и в шалаше рай; Не жили богато – ничего и начинать; Не до барыша – быть бы съесть хорошо; Бедность – не порок; Сыта не сыта, а всегда весела (With a beloved you can live happily in bad conditions; we have never lived lavishly – no need to start; Do not think about the profits because clear conscience is more important; Poverty is not a vice; It doesn’t matter if you are full or not - always be cheerful).

Among the cultural foundations of the Tatar people, a special role belongs to the religion, Islam, which is a battery of national traditions and customs, namely:
Following ancestors’ traditions being respectful to parents (especially to father): Атаң барда ир таты, носелен барда ыл таты; Ата ңоңаре – баллыа мирас; Атаңалар сүзө – акылыны узе; Атаң күрөң үк кнөр, ана күрөң түн пекчөр; Атапысы болын атмасыныңыңыз баллыы болын атмасы. It is interesting to mention the peculiarities of the family and household relations in a Tatar family. The family is monogamous and based on patriarchal principles. The main of which is the division of sexes according to their social and socio-psychological functions: Уллы уткөң нячылык, кылыс сүең нячылык, Ир-егет ата-анасың ташлыкыс; Илкен энг ир күлнды, иркен энг ил судунда; Хатың кеше – ий фәрәштөсө.

In proverbs of the Tatar people there is always a clear, sometimes even categorical, view on the family: Ир акылылы булса, хатың күндөм булла; Ир – баш, хатың – мүң; Ирлор ойда уткөң да, күңелге тышты; хатың-кызы тышты йөрөс до, күңелге ойдо. In many proverbs, for example, positive relations of the son-in-law and mother-in-law are clearly expressed, but the daughter-in-law and her mother-in-law usually have bad relations: Кыңу үзебезеке, геп иткөң; Көлө кытык, кылыны кытык көкөн белен кызыма, язган кытык, ярк кашкы – киленем белен үлымы; Килен кеше – кым кеше; Килен салмасы үккөк; Килен булдым кайнимасы ярмадым, кайнима бүлдым, киленег ярмадым; Шапшак киленең сөберкесе чүт астында бүлөр ичтө ичтө болуң ичтө болуң.

2. Deep feelings for the native country, region and language. Native country is the aim that the person follows through all his life: Ил яхшылыкшы өнүңүм; Ир-егет узе очен түң, иле очен үл; Атаң-анаң жир-сүүн беркөңчөн дүл өңүңүм; Ватан – икенче анаң; Түлөң жир-рөң – түңүң мүңфөрөңүм; Жүрөңөңөң үз иле гилиз; Уз үлөм – алыңың биешек, кеше иле – ую тишөң; Илен уткөң көйсө дө, ожымаехал кызы; Иңат татлы төл – түңүң төл, анам сөйлөң төрөң төл; Илө барның төлө бөр; Аңа төлө бер бүлөр; Түлөң жир – халык йөрөң; Ватансың кеше – бакчасың сөнөңүм, ичтө ичтө болуң.

3. High ethical evaluation of creative work and the results of it (such attitude to work is brought up since early childhood); endurance and tolerance of hard (physical) work: Дөрөнчө, өзөөт юк, өзөөт итмө, хормөт юк; Тирлөп эллылык, яркы шылык дө төлөкө; Микатьң кызы булса, кылыңың татлы бүлөр; Тырындан табар, таңкы кадак кагар; Айыр элкө белен бөр, кылы элкө йөрөк бөр; Эң ярпакан – уңап, ярпакан – түңөң; Эң батыры – ил батыры, ичтө ичтө болуң, ичтө ичтө болуң.

4. The kinship of a man with the surrounding world, the worship of objects and phenomena of the world as a manifestation of feelings of gratitude to nature: Ут – кыныңык жөмөнче; Яңыр бүлсөн дө шифарлы бүлсөн; Утка пөкөрөң, алыңың күтөрөң; Сүү белен уйнама – батарсың, ут белен уйнама – ханарсың; Колиндың тары сиң жөкөң дө, синең кылын ана жөмөнчө ичтө. In the Tatar language there are many proverbs and sayings about wild and domestic animals, birds, fish. Special attitude of the Tatars is given to the horses; this can be explained by the fact that they were used both in agriculture and in the quality of the vehicle, as well as hunting: Аякке йөкөң көргөң, Аксас бүлсөн да уз атың; Ир көлдөңө – ат; Яхчы ат иркен дөңүң чөңөргөң ичтө ичтө болуң.

5. Patience (but not passivity), modesty, a negative attitude towards ostentation and arrogance: Сабыр иткөң мөрдөңүк жөмөнче, Түлөң түл жөмөнчө; Узүң узү бөлөң, борының күкө күтөрөң; Юктөң бар бүлөң – төңөр бөлөң төңүң бүлөң; Узунүң узүң мактама, синең кеше мактасың ичтө ичтө болуң.

Conclusions
Proverbs and sayings in the English, Russian and Tatar languages certainly have ethical evaluation semantics. Evaluation in proverbs and sayings – is a pragmatic category that is related to man and reflects the entire spectrum of domestic, mental, socio-cultural, aesthetic and ethical preferences. Mainly proverbs and sayings reflect the universal laws, norms of behavior and rules of life, common to all peoples. The differences of the English, Russian and Tatar proverbs and sayings are largely due to the facts of the historical development of ethnic groups that depend on geographical location, climatic conditions, different national character, temperament, mentality, and on the type of languages that are not genetically related. However, during the analysis conducted, we identified the overall ethical assessment in English, Russian and Tatar languages: the idea of peace and kindness, commitment to work and knowledge, respect for the good human qualities such as modesty, honesty are the norm for any society; anger and greed, stupidity and laziness, mendacity, and cowardice are considered a deviation from the norm. Ethical evaluation in the studied proverbs and sayings is always the desire to normal.

Conclusion
This study does not fully disclose the content of the problem, the obtained results open prospects for further comparative study of Proverbs and sayings in English, Russian and Tatar language. Norms and rules of conduct, regulations and prohibitions in proverbial expressions serve as a guide for man, show what is good, what is bad, what is possible and what is not. Each national culture has created its own symbols of a normative character, which spiritualize the traditions and customs of the country.

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Literature
The Concept Bailik (Wealth) In The Tatar Language Consciousness (On The Material Of Paremias)

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Annotation

This paper is an investigation in which a complex linguistic and cultural description of the proverbial material of the Tatar linguistic culture was carried out. On the basis of the proverbs about the richness of the Tatar language, a classification of proverbial sayings was proposed, and a complex system analysis of the concept *bailik* (wealth) was conducted. Cognitive linguistic research makes it possible to expand knowledge in the field of linguistics. The description of the paremias of the Tatar linguoculture provides insight into the samples of folk wisdom and thereby an idea of the national picture of the world of the Tatar people. This explains the topicality of our study.

At present, there are a lot of works in Tatar linguoculturology that deal with the study of basic concepts. But, despite this, the study of the concept *bailik* (wealth) is relevant and very interesting, since by analyzing this concept it is possible to reveal the specific aspects of the linguistic national picture of the world of the Tatar people. In contrast to the lexicographic description of the concept *bailik* (wealth), the conceptual analysis of paremias significantly enlarged the content of this concept. We could determine that in the Tatar language picture of the world the concept *bailik* (wealth) is two-layer. The first layer, reflecting the development of the concept as “tangible wealth” and the second layer – “spiritual wealth”. In most Tatar paremias, the concept *bailik* (wealth) has a positive connotation, and it can be said that it is not only a material, but also a spiritual value of man in the Tatar language picture of the world.

**Keywords:** linguoculturology, concept, conceptosphere, conceptual analysis, paremias, proverbs, Tatar linguistic consciousness, concept of wealth.

Introduction

In 21st century, the problems of linguistics are investigated from a new angle. The linguistic world-image is the basic concept of the anthropocentric paradigm in linguistics. Much attention is paid to the study of the national and cultural specifics of linguistic conceptualization, linguistic consciousness, speech behaviour, etc. And the this connection, in linguistics, new branches have emerged, such as psycholinguistics, cognitive linguistics, linguoculturology, etc. According to V.A. Maslova, the main trends in modern linguistics formed within the framework of this paradigm are cognitive linguistics or linguistic cultural studies, which should be “oriented toward the cultural factor in man. Consecutively, linguoculturology is the product of the anthropocentric paradigm of linguistics, which has developed in recent decades [Maslova V.A. 2001].

One of the leading areas of linguoculturology is the study of conceptosphere - the phenomenon of the mental world, the totality of the views of the people and each individual of the reality, laid in minimal units - concepts. In broad cultural terms, concept as “the environment of language existence and its units” implies the interdependence of linguistic and encyclopedic knowledge [Makeeva N.S. 2009].
Over the past twenty years, interest in the concept bailik (wealth) has increased in our country, perception and interpretation of which is closely related to the changes in the political, economic and cultural life of society.

The purpose of our study is to analyze the system values being in the opposition to the proverbs about wealth, representing the concept bailik (wealth), as well as the description of universal and cultural-national spiritual spaces in the proverbial fund of the Tatar language.


The study of the proverbial material in our work was carried out using the following traditional methods: descriptive method (collection of factual material, synthesis and classification); theoretical method (analysis of scientific literature on the topic); method of philosophical analysis (inductive and deductive methods), as well as cultural, conceptual and linguocultural methods of analysis.

The paremiological fund of the language is very valuable for linguoculturology and conceptology, as it contains a rich material for revealing stereotypes of the national consciousness of a certain linguistic culture. Paremias reflect mutual relations between people, socially-historical context, features of a life, traditions and ceremonies of studied people.

Results

Before proceeding to the analysis of the paremias that represent the concept bailik (wealth) in the Tatar linguoculture, let us consider the interpretation of the lexeme bai / bailik (rich / wealth) in philological dictionaries. The explanatory dictionary of the Tatar language gives the following explanations of the lexeme bai (rich):


rich man becomes poor, another mocks (Ил.) // dialect. Master. Existence depends on the master, death – on God) [Tatar telenen anlatmaly suzlege, 1977].

There are the following treatments of the lexeme bailik (wealth): bailik – 1) bai buly (masalan, igenga bailik); 2) bai keshe buly dsehete (bailikka baider); 3) typlangan mal, dzyilgan kijmatlar. Bilgele ber yaktan kijmat bulgan nerseler dzielmasi; 4) kirekle nersenek dziterlek bului; dziteshlek, mullik, irkenchelek, kanagallanerlek matdi xal. (verbatim 1) be rich (for example, be rich in bread); 2) the state of a rich man (rich in riches); 3) earned goods, jewelry. The array of valuable things; 4) well-being of people’s vital necessities, good, good financial position). In a figurative sense, it means the value side of something; the aggregate of spiritual values; multifacetedness, much sense [Tatar telenen anlatmaly suzlege, 1977].

In the Tatar language consciousness, wealth is apprehended as material wealth – money, property, land, precious things; natural wealth; attractiveness and spiritual wealth – education, morality, intelligence, education. Each of them is reflected in paremias of the Tatar people.

The topic of wealth fills a significant place in the paremiological fund. Especially a lot of proverbs and sayings reflecting material wealth, which include, first of all, the attitude to a huge amount of money, private property, land ownership, grand houses, expensive furniture, domestic appliances, gold and jewelry from precious stones, expensive clothing, numerous equipment (aircraft, cars, helicopters, etc.). A person who owns so much material wealth is considered to be rich. Analyzing the attitude of the Tatar people to this kind of wealth, which expresses itself in paremias, it is possible to identify the following stereotypes of people’s consciousness:

1. Wealth is not easily earned, only by hard work:
   - Bailik dzirde yatmij (money doesn’t grow on trees).
   - Altin chikmen – telegenge, altin kese – eshlegenge (verbatim, a golden chekmen for those who wants, a pocketful of gold for those who work).

2. One should philosophically think of the absence of excessive material wealth, that is, the advantage is given to spiritual wealth:
   - Bailik morat tugel, julklik oyat tugel (verbatim, wealth is not purpose in life, lack of wealth is not disgrace).
   - Keshe gel bailik belen gene tormij, akil belen de tora (verbatim, man lives not only with wealth but with brains as well).
   - Altin kirekni, akil kirek, akil bylsa, altin tabilir (verbatim, brains, not gold, are needed, if you have brains, gold will come).
   - Sajlichtan zur deylet yuk; kanegattan zur bailik yuk (verbatim, there is nothing dearest but health, there is nothing richest but to have few wants).

3. Wealth can disappear at any moment:
   - Bailik – kugerchen (verbatim, Wealth is a dove ).
   - Bailik – chipchik (verbatim, Wealth is a sparrow).
   - Bailik – ber ailik (verbatim, Wealth is only for a month).

4. If wealth exceeds vital requirements of man then it begins to lead man astray:
   - Bailik keshenen kunelen tashka eilendere, a kuzen – akka (verbatim, wealth makes human soul stony and eyes blind).
   - Keshe baesa, bezneke bula, digen shaitan (verbatim, if a man grows rich, then will be ours, said a demon).
   - Bai tuganin tanimij (verbatim, a rich will not recognize his relatives).
5. Superfluous money cannot be earned by fair means:
   - Bailik etlek belen tabila (wealth is accompanied with dirty trick).
   - Bailik, bailik tube burlik (verbatim, the basis for wealth is thievery).
   - Daylat-bailik dus-ish arkasinda, yaxshi isen xatim arkasinda (verbatim, rich property is gained owing to friends, but good name – owing to wife).

6. Wealth has great power:
   - Bailik battirajra, yarilik kekerejte (verbatim, wealth adds courage, poverty bows).
   - Bailik matur kursete (verbatim, wealth makes beauty).
   - Ybirli karchiganni da alirlar, akchasi bylsa (verbatim, one marries Baba Yaga if she is wealthy).

It is interesting that the paremias reflecting moral values, spiritual wealth bear only a positive colouring, are opposed to material goods. In such paremias, one traces the fundament of national education, laid down many centuries ago. For example,

- Axildan artik bailik yak (verbatim, there is nothing dearest than intellect).
- Gijlemnen zur xezine yak (verbatim, there is nothing more valuable than education).
- Keshene yeshene, akchasina karap tygel, akilina karap beyelilar (verbatim, one judges a man not by his age, not by his money, but by his intellect).

It should be emphasized that the concepts such as labour, motherland, family, friendship in the paremias of the Tatar people are apprehended as wealth and are synonymous. Proceeding from this, we can say that the linguistic and cultural field of the concept of wealth comprises the following notions:

1) tangible wealth: bailik yl – ber ailik (verbatim, richness for a month); irlar sayni suyar, xatinnar baini suyar (verbatim, men like the healthy, women like the rich);

2) appearance: guzellek – Alla birgan bailik (verbatim, beauty is riches from God);

3) labour: hunerle bul – bai bul, hunerse bul – ach bul (verbatim, if you produces handicrafts, you will become rich, if you do not have occupation, you will be hungry); eshlemiche baep bulmai (verbatim, without making efforts there is no wealth);

4) family, children: mal belen bala – dunja zinnete (verbatim, property and children are values in life); ana digen xezine (verbatim, wealth known as mother);

5) motherland: uz ilem – altin bishek, keshe ile – yta tishek (verbatim, motherland is a golden cradle, strange land is a hole); herkemmen uz Vatani altin, yurak tube yalkin (verbatim, homeland for everybody is a gold, and heart will be beating furiously);

6) natural riches: bakcha bailik – ber ailik, ber aidan son – dzire ailik (verbatim, the gifts of the garden are for a month, after a month are for seven months); dzire bainin ile bai (verbatim, if the soil is rich, the land is rich); khalik bailiği – dzir belan su (verbatim, people’s wealth is land and water);

7) cattle: kuj – bailik (verbatim, ship is riches);

9) intellect, knowledge: dunyada in zur bailik – belen (verbatim, the most valuable riches is knowledge);

10) health: bai bulsan, bik rekhet, bailik yakshhi, bulmasan, ynet yzme, saylik yakshhi (verbatim, if you are rich, it is very good, wealth is a paradise, if you are not in wealth, don’t lose hope, health is the dearest); saylik – bailik (verbatim, health is a wealth);

11) friendship: dus akchadan kijmet (verbatim, friend is above wealth); duslikni akchaga satmijlar (verbatim, friendship is sold not at any price).

12) spiritual wealth: bailigim bulmasa, namusim bar (verbatim, if I don’t live in wealth, I have conscience);
13) life: isen kylda bailik bar, ylden – bette (verbatim, those who are alive have wealth, after death – everything vanishes).

It is worth noting that paremias mirror echoes of superstition, heathenis, for example,

- Bars yuli – bailik (verbatim, the year of Panther is a wealthy).
- Kuz bai bulma, yaz bai bul (verbatim, be wealthy not in autumn, but in spring).
- Belege junli – bi bylir, kolagi junli – kol bylir, baltiri junli – bai bylir (verbatim, if one has hair grown on the arm, he will be a khan, on the ear – a slave, on the legs – rich man).

Such popular belief about wealth is above all connected with natural appearences, symbols and structure of human.
Conclusions
Analyzing the paremias that realize the concept bailik (wealth), one can see that tangible wealth is criticized in the Tatar language consciousness, since it makes for the development of various misunderstandings and indignations between relatives and close people. Such reaction can be conceived by the Islamic religion, according to which spiritual values, faith of man are above all earthly goods.

In paremias, motherland, family, children, friendship, health come to the fore and they are a true treasure for the people.

Material wealth as a means of satisfying person’s vital needs can only be gained through hard work, knowledge, diligence. It is this that is valuable. But on the other hand, the paremias contradict each other: with the help of labour one can live in prosperity, but have not become rich, a large amount of wealth will only be earned by an unclean way.

Summary
Thus, one can make the following conclusions:

1) tangible wealth in the Tatar proverbs is strongly criticized and it is believed that the desire to possess such riches entails selfishness, dissension between relatives, loss of friends;

2) the lexeme bailik (wealth) represents certain skills and work, in this connection, it says that if you want to achieve material wealth, you must work hard and constantly perfect yourself in terms of education;

3) The main riches in life of the Tatars are the native land, the family (especially children), friendship, health and it is believed that no material wealth can replace them.

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Specific Ways Of Expressing Emotions In The Tatar And French Languages

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Abstract
With the help of language, which is a powerful means of expressing human individuality, people transmit not only thoughts, but also feelings, emotions. Language is the key to learning emotions. He expresses, describes, categorizes and classifies emotions, forms an emotional picture of the world. The verbalization of emotions in different linguocultures is carried out in accordance with specific national and cultural norms and rules. The verbal expression of emotions is the realization of the emotional function of a language, for the expression of which it has a special set of emotionally colored linguistic means, among which an important place belongs to the emotional sentences conveying the specificity of the national linguistic consciousness. Such emotionally expressive proposals both in Tatar and in French often express categorical judgment, establish unequal role relations in the dialogue, and also "the desire to protect each other from unpleasantness." Empathy - the most valuable in a confidential communication, then, to which both seek to interlocutor. Emotional-expressive suggestions serve to realize the category of emotional expression at the syntactic level. Decode the character of the implicitly expressed emotion in the Tatar and French sentences only the context, the communicative situation and the intonation are capable.

This article is devoted to the study of Tatar and French expressive syntax on the basis of the anthropocentric approach to the analysis of linguistic data.

Key words and phrases: expressive syntax; emotionally expressive sentences; emotionally expressive factor, communicative situation, explicitly expressed emotion, the French language, the Tatar language.

Introduction
Comparative linguistics has held a firm place among a number of linguistic disciplines. One cannot ignore the fact that in comparative study of two or more languages, their national distinctness is most vividly manifested. And this is not accidental, because the whole complex of living conditions of a particular people (customs, morals, established norms of behavior, etc.) is reflected in the language, and in this sense, the language is represented by “the mirror of culture” [8; 10; 13; 24].

Modern linguistics is intended not only to study the language, but also to solve the tasks of mutual understanding between people in all spheres of life. It should be borne in mind that mutual understanding of communicants is carried out through presentation and adequate interpretation of not only actual information, but also information about the personality of the speaking subject, in particular, about his feelings and emotions [1; 3; 5; 9; 14; 15; 18; 19]. Our study has shown that emotionally saturated sentences are very frequent in both languages.
Methods

The main method at the stage of hypothesis promotion is scientific modeling, the purpose of which is to create a model that provides an optimal and verifiable description of the object. As a method of axiological research, a description is used of the various types of implication, categories of norm and evaluation, which serve as ways of objectifying values. At the stage of processing empirical data, the methods of lexical, semantic, contextual and linguistic analysis were productive. General scientific methods of observation, classification, etc. were applied. At all stages of scientific research, the descriptive method and introspection reception remained relevant, which consists in addressing the linguistic intuition of the researcher in the process of linguistic modeling.

The work used linguistic methods and methods of analyzing the actual material: comparative-comparative, which allows you to determine the similarities and differences between the two languages being compared; Identify system matches and inconsistencies between matched languages; Identify the causes of similarities and differences.

The material for the study was the original literary and fictional works of famous Tatar and French writers of the 20th century (Гыйләҗев А., 1994; Ибраһимов Г., 1996; Covanna, 1995; Chambaz B., 1995).

Emotions are an integral part of the emotional picture of the world, which is a worldview projected by the emotional sphere of consciousness and reflecting axiologic priorities in the national picture of the world. The emotional picture of the world consists of emotionally marked perceptual images and representations, reflected by the inner world of man. It is reflected in linguistic means and is deeply national. Each language uses its own set of tools, based on national images and ideas about a particular emotion.

The formation of a verbal act occurs through the prism of the emotional sphere of the human psyche and this sphere imposes additional information that is expressed in emotionally expressive (EE) sentences [11; 13; 16; 17; 18; 21; 22; 25].

The peculiarity of verbal communication is that not the whole content of thought is embodied in linguistic elements: along with explicit methods of expression, there is also an area of implicit information, which is currently insufficiently studied. We distinguish three semantic types of emotionally expressive sentences with the exclamator what (quel) [14; 23]. Based on this semantic classification, we attempt to consider emotional-expressive sentences in the languages being compared.

1. emotionally expressive sentences with an explicit object of emotion and implicit emotion.

The above sentences do not indicate the pole of the scoring scale - positive or negative, since the main member of these sentences is not evaluative. Various means of intensification: exlamators, interjections, repetitions, etc., although they are the indicators of emotional content, but do not directly point to it. Emotional-expressive sentences with implicitly expressed emotions are ambiguous [3; 14]. Implicative characterization of the name implies that the emotion is deduced by the addressee on the basis of his own view of the world, in which a set of possible attributes of the given object is presented [3]. So, the sentences Нинди кеше! Quel homme! can express, on the one hand, approval, admiration, sometimes mixed with surprise (i.e. have meaning “beautiful, wonderful person”), and on the other hand, they can express disapproval, condemnation, indignation, sometimes with a touch of contempt, disdain, annoyance (that is, have the meaning “unpleasant, nasty person”).

An implicitly expressed emotion is characteristic for the sentences in which the exlamators
aque parole
ion. One can read more about the intonation representation;

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- normative evaluation:


In these emotionally expressive sentences, interjections, exclamations takes on an intensifying role. However, context and communicative situation do not play a primary role here, as opposed to the sentences with an implicitly expressed emotion. We can include, in our opinion, all substantive sentences in the Tatar language with the word имеш into this group of emotionally expressive sentences. This exclamator can give any sentence, irrespective of the fact whether its main member has attitudinal meaning or non-attitudinal, a shade of irony, sarcasm, doubt, uncertainty, indignation (in combination with the verb in the imperative mood). If the word имеш is removed from the sentence and the whole sentence acquires the character of a statement of fact. The ability of the word to attach any emotional meaning to any Tatar sentence is emphasized by many linguists [4; 5; 9; 11; 12; 13].

- Ha, врач, имеш, жаваплы шәхес, имеш!.. Э мин? Мин жаваплы түгелмени? [2, p. 98]; he! Нарсä лыкырдый! Таныш, имеш! [4, p. 33].

3) Emotive sentences, in which the object of emotion and the very expressed emotion coincide.

In the sentences of this type, the principal member can be expressed by abstract names, the names of various relations, states, events that are characteristic of many spheres of human manifestation, as well as by the names of persons named for their individual properties. They are evaluative in their semantics and do not need qualitative adjectives. We have already considered the sentences with an object of a directed emotion, so here we give only the examples of emotionally expressive sentences in which the object of emotion and the very emotion coincide:


Discussion

Our study shows that the expressive possibilities of utterances are more pronounced when they not only characterize the phenomenon but also convey a special attitude to the subject, intensifying the expressive and figurative features of emotionally expressive sentences. Only context, communicative situation and intonation can decode the character of an implicitly expressed emotion in Tatar and French sentences. Context and communicative situation are not of primary importance in emotionally expressive sentences with an explicitly expressed emotion. Purposeful use of subjective assessment, i.e. a characteristic representation of the phenomenon through the prism of sense perception, contributes to the strengthening of the convincingness of thought, which is based on the logical argumentation of the fact. The combination of conciseness and impassability of logical reasoning with the expressiveness of emotionally subjective assessment gives a deep conviction to spoken language.

The study showed the presence of similar typological features in representation of emotionally expressive sentences in Tatar and French, belonging to different language families. The existing discrepancies manifest themselves mainly in the structure of the sentences in compared languages,
whereas in the field of semantics, these sentences show many similarities, which is determined by the commonness of human thinking.

Conclusion

So, in this work, we have conducted a comparative-typological study of emotionally expressive sentences in Tatar and French. After comparing the structural and semantic organization of emotionally expressive sentences in Tatar and French, we have come to the conclusion that they are constructed with the help of a certain set of means of emotional expression. Analyzing the way of expression of emotions in emotionally expressive sentences of the compared languages, we have realized that it can be expressed implicitly and explicitly. If the emotion in the sentence is expressed implicitly, then the role of context, communicative situation, intonation and author’s remarks increases. The sentences with an explicitly expressed emotion are self-sufficient, in other words, contextually less dependent. The substantive sentences in Tatar and French are the most widespread and numerous. In the substantive emotionally expressive sentences of the French language, the constantly manifesting intensifying function is realized in the form of a definite article, whereas in the indicated Tatar sentences this function is performed by the possessive affix.

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References

Concept as a linguistic guideline in teaching Russian as a foreign language

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Abstract
This article covers linguo-didactic aspect of the theory of concept. Learning the language within the context of the culture of its speakers, taking into account the features of the formation of ethnic self-awareness and the national linguistic world image furthers the development of the linguo-conceptual tendency in the theory and practice of teaching of a foreign language. The concept, integrating the totality of universal and national and specific meanings, is the initial unit of the formation of foreign language knowledge in classes in Russian as a foreign language. Taking into account the specifics of the concept of native speakers and the orientation toward explaining the facts of the language via the analysis of the concepts will be facilitative of the integration of students into a foreign-language national and cultural system on a mental and linguistic level.

As a result of the research it was found that the use of the concept as a linguistic unit in teaching of Russian as a non-native language ensures the development of linguistic, communicative and linguocultural competencies of foreign students, and also determines the formation of a secondary linguistic personality of inophone being capable of dialogue of cultures and effective cross-cultural communication.

The methods of research are: descriptive-analytical method, methods of lexicographical, contextual, conceptual analyses.

Keywords: concept, the Russian language as a foreign language

Introduction
In recent decades, the predominant position in teaching of the Russian language as a foreign language has been taken by the linguoculturological approach, focused on the study of language within the context of culture of its speakers [Brinton 1989; Zanger 1993; Lado 1996; Palekha + et al, 2015]. Learning a foreign language as part of this approach is seen as a process of intercultural communication, which encourages the students to become familiar with the basic elements of a foreign language. Attention to language as a reflection of sociocultural reality generates the need to study the language conceptualization and categorization of the world for linguistic purposes [Safin + et al, 2016; Mukhamadiarova + et al, 2016; Varlamova + et al, 2016].

Accounting for the interaction of language and culture in the mental modeling of a person around the world advances the rapid development of the linguo-conceptual direction in the theory and practice of teaching a foreign language. Within the framework of this area, as the basic didactic unit is the concept most vividly representing foreign language image of the world and ensuring the adequacy of intercultural interaction with the representatives of another linguocultural society.

Thus, the timeliness of this work is conditioned by the relevance of learning the content of key cultural concepts in terms of the linguistic and cultural approach to teaching Russian as a foreign language.
Materials And Methods

The following methods were used in the course of the study: descriptive-analytical method, method of lexicographical, contextual, conceptual analyses.

Results

The study of the Russian conceptual sphere in practice of teaching RLF is carried out via students' familiarization with key national concepts that reflect the most significant fragments of the Russian language image of the world. In the process of learning foreign culture concepts, foreign students not only master their content, study up the traditions and cultural characteristics of the Russian people, but also learn to operate with the acquired knowledge in intercultural communication in a dialogue of cultures. Such work is aimed at forming among the students the ability to intercultural communication on the basis of the principles of mutual respect, tolerance to cultural differences and overcoming cultural barriers.

Work on the mental units of Russian culture in a foreign audience should be based on the consideration of the linguistic characteristics of students. The study of national concepts in the classes of the RLF is topical, first of all, at the advanced stage of education, since it requires the students to get linguistic, cultural and communicative competencies formed.

Communicative and relevant concepts that reflect the most important spiritual and material values of Russian speakers and serve as the basis for realization of cross-cultural communication between representatives of different linguocultural communities are chosen for learning in foreign language audience. Preference is given to the concepts that are characterized by pronounced linguistic explication: those that have a voluminous nominative field consisting of units of different levels and different parts of speech, and rich associative content.

As the objects for learning in the classes on the RLF, the students can be offered to consider the concepts such as “melancholy”, “fate”, “will” being fundamental for Russian linguistics and other constant concepts recognized by the leading researchers of national conceptual spheres. Despite its universal nature, these concepts have pronounced national connotations that are associated with the historical development of Russian ethno-cultural self-awareness and self-identification of the Russian people. For example, the national and cultural manifestations of the concept “melancholy” (“the need for what one yearns”, “humility before fate”, “irrational fear”, etc.) are determined by the Russian influence on the limitless expanses of his homeland, the inclination of the Russian to reflect on the meaning of life, death and God. Thus, the fundamental national concepts are based in many respects on spiritual attitudes and axiological foundations, correlate with the leading values of culture and provide the key to understanding the linguistic mentality and the specifics of the speakers’ linguistic world image.

When studying Russian national concepts in a foreign audience, it is necessary to pay attention to their “paired nature”: the concept can have a double incarnation, act as an opposition, a conceptual link, polarizing a single semantic space (“правда” – “истина” / “truth” – “verity”, “свобода” – “воля” / “freedom” – “will”, “должен” – “обязанность” / “duty” – “obligation”, etc.). The components of such pairs are conceptually discrete units of the Russian language, which often correlate with mental and indiscrete units of other languages (The Russian “воля”, “свобода”, the English “freedom”, the German “Freiheit”). The peculiar verbal “expansion” in the speech presentation of a particular subject or abstract sphere can be regarded as a symptom of the linguistic specification of the national language conceptualization of the world. For example, the first element of the conceptual link “свобода” – “воля” / “freedom” – “will”
corresponds to its Western European counterparts in meaning, while the second element represents a unique Russian concept: “Will and freedom are a particular case of the opposition “one’s own” – “another’s”, where воля / will is a concept originally of Russian consciousness, and свобода / freedom is of European”, “will for the Russians is an intrapersonal constant, a state of mind that takes hold of a person as a colossal force in strength leading to spontaneous unconscious actions” [Petrovykh 2002, 214]. Thus, the inseparable conceptual relation of the components of such conceptual pairs and, at the same time, their semantic differentiation reflect the features of the Russian mentality.

The nature of the perception of reality by representatives of different cultural communities will be widely demonstrated by the study of lacunar concepts. To such ones, the scholars refer the concepts that do not have equivalents in another linguistic culture. However, not all cases of interlanguage lexical lacunarity may indicate the absence of a certain concept in a particular culture. This fact is reflected not only by motivated lacunas determined by the absence of objective, anthroponymic, toponymic, historical and cultural realities peculiar to another culture. Since the national mentality is formed by concrete factors of the material environment of the existence of an ethnos, the non-equivalent units that constitute the core of such basic ethno-cultural spheres as national gastronomy («щи» / "shchi", «винегрет» / “vinaigrette”), clothing and footwear («кокошник» / "kokoshnik", «валенки» / "valenki" ), coloring ((«матрешка» / "matryoshka", «самовар» / “samoar”), etc. can be referred to the lacunary concepts. In addition, the class of lacunary will include the conceptual symbols and concepts-myths (folklore and literary characters, non-denotational realities) Baba Yaga, Oblomov, domovoy, etc., peculiar to Russian culture. Thus, the study of the concepts that are fundamentally absent in other languages, will contribute to the disclosure of the specifics of the life of the Russian people, their cultural life, the uniqueness of their worldview and traditions.

The presentation of national concepts in the teaching of the Russian language of inophones can be carried out in different ways. The representation of concepts can be based on both the description of the features of their paradigmatic and syntagmatic real in the modern Russian language, and the identification of their textual content in the work of literature. The first method consists in lexicographical description of the main explicators of the concept, as well as in the contextual analysis of functions and relations between them. This method involves the consideration of paradigmatic and syntagmatic features of the linguistic explication of the concept, reflected in its word-building capabilities, synonymous and antonymic relationships, typical free and sustainable compatibility. Representation of the concept is carried out on the material of paroemias, reflecting the features of traditional Russian consciousness. This approach to the presentation of national concepts in a foreign audience is, in our opinion, the most effective, because it is based on linguistic material and allows to reconstruct this or that fragment of the naive picture of the world. The second method is aimed at studying the representation of concept in a literary work by the method of linguistic and literary interpretation. As a result of textual analysis, the fragments of the author’s individual view of the world are reconstructed, the conceptual signs that constitute the associative-background and value content of concept are revealed. The familiarization with Russian national concepts is carried out on the basis of authentic texts containing linguocultural information.

It is important to note that the analysis of Russian national concepts must be carried out in comparative and contrastive terms with the corresponding concepts of the students’ native culture: such work will help to identify the content of concepts and establish a commonality and difference in their language realization and semantic content. The discrepancy between concepts in different languages can
be manifested both in ways of objectifying concepts, and in a set of means of their verbalization, in the semantic reflection of different stereotyped ideological and behavioral models, as well as in different systemic links of concepts in the mental lexicon of a concrete language, etc.

As an example, we will present the model of the presentation of the concept «совесть» / “conscience” in the classes on the Russian language as a foreign language with the of the philological faculty (an advanced course of study).

The presentation of the concept «совесть» / “conscience” is advisable to begin with an analysis of lexicographical interpretations of the nominee lexeme concept. During studies, the student is offered to familiarize with the data of the explanatory dictionary of the modern Russian language, which most fully reflect the conceptual layer of the concept in a synchronous section: “Conscience is a sense and consciousness of moral responsibility for one’s behavior and actions before oneself, the surrounding people, society; moral principles” [Yevgenieva 1984, 175]. It is concluded on the basis of the above definition, that conscience in the Russian language image of the world is recognized as a feeling that compels a person to assess in terms of morals his own actions and actions, subjecting them to a generally accepted morality.

The next step in describing the concept will be the study of the definitions that formed the structure of the concept at different historical stages. The dictionary by V.I. Dahl, which is now of historical and linguistic significance, characterizes the lexeme “conscience” as “moral consciousness, moral instinct in man; the inner consciousness of good and evil; a heartstring, in which the approval or condemnation of every action is echoed; the ability to recognize the quality of a deed, a feeling that leads to the truth and the good; an involuntary love for the truth and the good; an innate truth, developed in various degrees” [Dahl 1991, 256-257]. When examining this dictionary entry, the students’ attention should be focused on revealing those semantic components in the meaning of the word “conscience”, which were not fixed by modern lexicographic sources. The definition given by V. I. Dahl notes a direct relation between conscience and soul (conscience is understood as the inmost recess (“cache”) of one’s heart), an inseparable unity is established between the concepts of “conscience”, “truth”, “good”, emphasizes the “innate” character of conscience, its intuitive spiritual principle. When studying the data of the etymological dictionaries of the Russian language (revealing the connection between the old Slavonic «съвсемть» and the Greek synexeados “shared knowledge, consciousness”), it is necessary to introduce linguocultural information that makes it possible to reveal the features of the understanding of conscience by the Russian linguistic community. In this connection, it is important to note that if in the Western sense conscience is determined through the rationality of consciousness, then in Russian mentality, conscience is related primarily to spirituality, to the feelings of a person, being realized as a sense of personal responsibility for one’s thoughts, words and deeds.

The extension of the students’ views of the concept “conscience” will be facilitated by the reference to the data from aspect dictionaries.

During the studies, the students are offered to select as many synonymous and antonymic units representing the concept of “conscience” in the modern Russian language as possible («стыд», «ответственность», «совесть» - «бессовесть» / “shame”, “responsibility”, “conscientiousness” - “consciencelessness”). The selected units are correlated with the data of lexicographic sources, work is being done to distinguish between the concepts «совесть» / “conscience” and «стыд» / “shame” in Russian linguistic culture. The students are offered to discuss the mentioned notions, to draw the conclusions about their semantic differences. Students are encouraged to speculate about these concepts,
to draw conclusions about their semantic differences. After that, the learners are offered to familiarize themselves with the scientific information containing the linguocultural information on the subject of the discussion and correlate it to the opinions expressed by them: “Conscience is a moral regulator of the whole inner life of a person, and the vector of its action is inside a person: it is always ashamed of oneself” [Radbil 2010, 244].

Appeal to the data of word-building dictionaries will allow the students to reveal the broad word-forming links of the lexeme «совесть» / “conscience” in modern Russian: совестливый, совестливость, совестный, совестно, бессовестный, бессовестно, совестить / conscionable, conscientiousness conscientious, conscientiously, conscienceless, shamelessly, to put to shame, etc. The students’ attention may be focused on the possibility of forming a Russian predicate совестно / “be ashamed”, which, according to A. A. Zaliznyak, allows us to present “the participation of conscience in the decision-making process and in evaluating one’s own actions as the state of the acting subject” [Zaliznyak 2005, 252].

The analysis of the selectional capabilities of the word совесть / “conscience” according to the dictionaries of the compatibility of the words of the Russian language will allow the learners to determine additional semantic features of the lexeme being examined and to establish the most important features of this concept. When considering the substantive, attributive and verbal compatibility of the lexeme совесть / “conscience”, it is necessary to distinguish the metaphorical models that reveal the features of the understanding of conscience by the Russian consciousness: “conscience is a moral norm” (жить по совести / live in good conscience), “conscience is a human counteragent” (совесть не позволяет / to be enjoined by conscience from doing) “conscience is a judge” (суд совести / the bar of conscience), “conscience is an organ” (иметь совесть/ lit. to have a conscience), etc. [Arutyunova 2000, 75].

The next stage in the analysis of the concept is the study of the paroemias that constitute its interpretation field. The students are asked to match specific proverbs and sayings to their corresponding judgments, reflecting the understanding of the concept of совесть/ “conscience” by the Russian people.

Paroemias: С совестью не разминуться; Счастлив тот, у кого совесть спокойна / Happy is one who has clear conscience; Злая совесть стоит палача / An evil conscience is an executioner; Добрая совесть – глаз Божий / Good conscience is the voice of God; Говори по делу, живи по совести / Talk business, live in good conscience; and so on.

A number of setting judgments: 1. A clear conscience is the guarantee of tranquility; 2. Conscience is the judge; 3. Conscience has a divine origin; 4. Conscience is an internal law that must be followed; 5. Conscience is omnipresent, etc.

Conclusion

In the course of such study, extra-linguistic information about the content of the concept “conscience” and its axiological interpretation in Russian culture is revealed. The contexts of Russian paroemiae fix that conscience is treated as a basic moral concept, which is highly valued by the Russian people. Conscience in the Russian consciousness is likened to the internal regulator of morality, correlated with the Christian faith.

Summary
Thus, the concept, which includes in its structure both the actual language incarnation and the “extralinguistic, cultural environment” inextricably linked with it, is actual and relevant in the process of formation of linguoculturological competence by a methodical unit. The use of the concept system in the classes on the Russian language as a foreign language provides a method based on a linguistic and cultural approach, and its support - the possibilities of intercultural communication. The teaching of Russian as a foreign language on the basis of linguocultural concepts has a special significance, since it ensures the integration of the students into a foreign-language national and cultural system at the mental and linguistic levels.
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Development Of Integrative Skills In Higher-Education Students

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Abstract
This study deals with the development of critical thinking in higher-education students and identifies the integrative skills that a graduate student will need in their future professional activity. Also, the article exposes the features of teamwork in the development of critical thinking in students. We suggest a model of development of critical thinking in higher-education students and identify pedagogical conditions for the effectiveness of critical thinking development in higher-education students during teamwork.

Keywords: education, student, critical thinking, team, integration.

Introduction
It is undeniable that investigations related to the study of critical thinking are of prime relevance in modern society. Our analysis of studies on critical thinking that have appeared in recent years in various abstracts and full-text databases, namely EBSCO, Elsevier (ScienceDirect), and Taylor & Francis, has shown the existence of increasing interest in this subject. Many studies claim a need for the development of critical thinking in higher-education students jointly with other skills needed for their future professional activity.

Masumeh Taie [1] considers the development of critical thinking abilities and introduces the concept of the “critical thinking movement”. This movement has evolved as a reaction against the failures of many educational programs to meet their objectives since many college graduates are not qualified enough for real professional endeavors and do not possess higher-order thinking skills.

Slađana Živković [2] describes a “critical movement model”, i.e. a “critical thinking model” suggested by researchers for teachers and students involved in the process of developing critical thinking. Preparing students for real professional activities requires them to have “high-order thinking skills” allowing to discover a prospective professional activity and educate graduate students as independent doers capable of thinking creatively and critically.

Researchers at a Malaysian tertiary institution [3] consider critical thinking among “soft skills”, as integrative skills, together with such skills as problem-solving, lifelong learning, and information management.

Two Australian researchers, Al-Mahmood and Gruba [4], have studied critical thinking in the field of computer sciences. They replace the term “soft skills” with “employability skills”. These authors believe that, even though the above-mentioned skills are integrated into higher-education programs and are developed during the learning process, “employability skills” are actually realized only when graduates get into a real professional environment.

The point of view of the authors of the present paper is that future professionals’ critical thinking starts forming during their learning process and it is an inseparable part of their professional competence. The latter is just a set of skills of a certain type (e.g., mental, practical, communicative, etc.), motivational guidelines, and value orientations able to be applied in a professional practical activity. The process of development of the latter includes learning various competences that can be identified with skills based on knowledge and experience of practical application in different situations.
The integration of skills in the training process in higher-education schools, namely teamwork skills, critical thinking, the ability to put into practice their own ideas using a creative and innovative approach, also appears in Renée-Pascale’s study [5], which is aimed at researching students’ teamwork during the study of various disciplines.

The study [6], performed by another group of scientists, had the goal of assessing the efficiency of teamwork in the completion of students’ projects. A total of 165 respondents participated in the survey. Based on the outcome of the study, the authors of the paper gave the following list of skills ranked according to their efficiency in students’ teamwork:

- leadership skills – 43%;
- critical thinking and problem solving – 36%;
- communication skills – 34%;
- teamwork skills – 30%.

The above-mentioned results point to the following conclusion: a group of students becomes a single unit only when each member possesses the integrative skills that must be present among the competences of every future professional, namely critical thinking and teamwork abilities. These conclusions have been confirmed, in particular, in our experimental study, which had a more complex structure than the one described above (see [7]).

Methods

By analyzing the skills associated with training and team working, one can see that many of them match those skills required when critically thinking during an activity. Moreover, teamwork effectiveness depends directly on the development level of critical-thinking skills.

Let us describe in more detail those concepts allowing to identify (see [8]) critical-thinking skills: reflection-criticism-criticality-self-criticism-evaluation-self-evaluation-evaluative judgment. By analyzing these concepts, we managed to identify skills making critical thinking possible in practical activities.

Reflection is connected to the ability to make sense of one’s own actions and become aware of those schemes and rules according to which a person acts.

Criticism and criticality arise in the ability to independently defend one’s own convictions and find answers to objections, in the ability to analyze information or opinions for evaluation and validation. Criticality includes not only “evaluation/assessment” but also the ability to think dialectically, i.e. the ability to apply scientific methods and the rules and principles of logic (argumentation, demonstration, refutation) in a scientific manner.

Self-criticism is associated with criticism but has some specific traits showing itself in the ability to analyze one’s convictions, arguments and reasons for critical evaluation and correction, the ability to actualize such personal qualities as curiosity (inquisitiveness), power of observation, spontaneity (relaxedness), audacity, and tactfulness.

Evaluation and self-evaluation are associated with the organization of control and self-control and include the ability to contrast final results against goals, tasks, activity plan, the ability to analyze the causes of inconsistency and own mistakes, the ability to make decisions to exclude work inconsistencies.

Evaluative judgment manifests itself in the ability to compare, contrast, generalize, and concretize someone else’s and own opinions.
People’s striving for criticality and self-criticism is great. However, the lack of knowledge and skills to apply knowledge in practice is able to lead to nitpicking, i.e. wrong criticism.

Criticism can take the form of an ordinary quarrel to find out “who’s right”, or that of a scientific discussion, as a result of which either a common opinion arises or the opponents disagree and each one keeps their own opinion. The logical expression of thoughts is what distinguishes criticism from nitpicking.

Is it really necessary to teach students critical thinking? Or does this skill develop itself? It is an unquestionable truth that critical thinking is shaped by the logic of life and depends on natural abilities and inclinations, as well as on social environment and social education. Nevertheless, a purposeful educational process is the most effective way to develop critical thinking. Critical thinking does not automatically appear as a collateral effect of conventional education in any field of knowledge. Rather, systematic efforts are to be applied to improve thinking ability if one wants to reach the expected result.

The goal of our study is to develop a model aimed at developing critical thinking in higher-education students. This model is suggested as a general guide for teachers with a basic goal: prepare and conduct training sessions aimed at creating and developing critical thinking in higher-education students.

To determine the methods for developing critical thinking, we referred to the concept of developmental learning (V. V. Davydov) [9] and problem-based learning (M. I. Makhmutov) [10], which are based on the ideas of reflection, systematicity, and criticism of thinking. Problem-based learning is aimed at developing cognitive independence in learners, as well as their creative abilities and creative thinking. “... If we know that there is something that we do not know about the object, for example, some manifestations thereof, or how some components of the object communicate with each other, we already have some kind of problem-based knowledge”.

“The problem consists in the fact that the subject should comprehend that, by means of the available knowledge and experience, it is impossible to solve the difficulties and contradictions that have arisen in this situation” [11, p. 292]. M. I. Makhmutov’s concept of problem-based learning appeals to the conclusions of Soviet psychology about productive and reproductive forms of thinking and asserts that problem-based learning is the most important means of developing thinking and creating skills of productive cognitive activity in learners. However, since the issues related to critical thinking had not been sufficiently developed by that time in psychology, this concept does not emphasize special pedagogical methods aimed at developing critical thinking.

As is known, problem-based learning (finding a way out of a problem situation) is a process consisting of several stages, and has a certain sequence of thinking actions, namely: a) analysis of an emerging problem situation; b) posing the problem (verbal formulation); c) suggesting a hypothesis (assumption) about the method that should be used to solve the problem; d) proving the hypothesis (in fact, this is the solution of the problem); e) verifying the solution correctness [12].

The interconnection of all thinking forms within the learning process takes place as students perform the following actions [13]:

1. study of such concepts as “mind criticism”, “mind self-criticism”, “criticism”, “self-criticism”, and application of these concepts in everyday life;
2. critical analysis and evaluation of political, economic, and social situations in a region or country, also abroad and in diverse fields of activity;
3. discussion on mistakes committed during the solution of problems and tasks, choice of the most rational solution methods through the organization of discussions and debates;
4. writing reviews (in senior classes) of own and other authors’ literary works on the basis of critical analysis of the text;
5. discussion of books, articles, short stories, tales, etc., then writing essays on these works, searching for (own and other’s) mistakes in them, and discussing them;
6. solving problems related to criticism and self-criticism;
7. creating abilities and skills by training the ability to demonstrate or refute hypotheses that have been suggested in the past either in some fields of science or within problem-based learning processes in various subject areas;
8. special training in the procedure of demonstration and refutation on the basis of materials from history, physics, chemistry, biology, and other subject areas;
9. organization of discussions on sports, movies, TV shows, “sensational” articles published in the press; critical analysis of discussions, debates, experiment processes, etc.

There have been various attempts in the literature on psychology and pedagogics to identify the stages of development of critical thinking [14]:
1. the first and most important stage is the preparation of teachers having the ability to think critically and being capable of developing this type of thinking in students;
2. creation of motivations for the development of this ability;
3. acquisition of a system of special logical operations and actions by students;
4. teaching students to use these operations (i.e. skills) in their learning activity and while communicating with other persons of their age and with adults;
5. systematic training, adjustment of activity, exercises aimed at developing critical thinking skills.

Researchers dealing with these problems [15, 16, 17] have noted that teaching students critical thinking, especially while working in teams, allows them to apply theoretical skills acquired in seminars and training sessions in practical situations. They highlight the following stages of critical thinking implementation:
- problem identification;
- systematic observation;
- brainstorming;
- starting to solve the problem;
- setting short-term goals;
- argumentation based on qualitative indicators;
- feedback and self-evaluation.

Researchers of another team believe that there are three main stages in the development of critical thinking: challenge, comprehension (cognition) and reflection (cognition) [18]. In our opinion, however, a fourth stage is to be added, namely generalization and evaluation. All these stages are not simply interrelated but also interdependent. The realization of critical thinking and, consequently, its formation is possible to a certain extent at any stage, anytime an alternative exists, while analyzing a problem situation (the analysis requires a critical attitude).

Results
1. We have developed and implemented a model of development of critical thinking in students under conditions of team learning. The model contains the following structural components: acquisition of knowledge on logical, problem-based, and creative thinking by students; learning basic logical concepts; development of abilities to make critical judgments as critical arguments of a tolerant nature; learning to identify logical errors committed during critical evaluation of phenomena.

2. We have experimentally tested and have given theoretical grounds for the pedagogical conditions that contribute to the development of critical thinking in higher-education students under conditions of team learning: the use of the project method in team learning, monitoring the development of critical thinking in students during team learning, training teaching staff to conduct lessons aimed at developing critical thinking in students.

According to the analysis of the results and the conclusions drawn, we can conclude that the overall tasks of our research have been solved, and the results obtained have a theoretical and practical significance.

Discussion

Based on the study of the stages and methods of critical thinking development in higher-education students under conditions of team learning, we have managed to produce a model of development of critical thinking in students (Fig. 1).

Objectives: development of critical thinking in higher-education students as a result of team learning.

Goals of critical thinking development:
- acquisition of knowledge on logical, problem-based, and creative thinking by students;
- development of abilities to make critical judgments as critical arguments of a tolerant nature;
- teach students to identify logical errors committed during critical evaluation of phenomena.

Didactic conditions for the development of critical thinking:
- use of the project method in team learning (development of creative abilities in students, skills of business interaction and cooperation as a result of interaction between teacher and student);
- monitoring the development of critical thinking in students during team learning (level of development of critical thinking, value orientations and interests, attitude of team members toward their duties, attitude toward learning, real and potential opportunities of students);
- training teaching staff to conduct lessons aimed at developing critical thinking in students (using acquired knowledge and skills in various situations within the educational process, improving the level of skills, creating the necessary conditions for development of the teacher’s personality, understanding the theoretical foundations of critical thinking and realizing why students need critical thinking, acquaintance with modern achievements in pedagogical science and practice for a creative approach to pedagogical innovations).

When all the above-mentioned conditions are met, it is possible to develop critical thinking skills in higher-education students. Moreover, we assert that the development of critical thinking through team learning increases, on the one hand, the educational process effectiveness and, on the other hand, the
level of general and professional education of future specialists getting them ready for working in business teams.

Methods:

The authors of various studies [19] (A.I. Lipkina and L.A. Rybak, and others) consider four issues: 1) students’ attitude toward their evaluation by a teacher; methods: questionnaires, observation, conversations with students; 2) students’ self-evaluation in educational activities; methods: self-review, self-characterization; 3) development of an adequate critical and self-critical evaluation of the performance of training tasks; 4) education of a critical approach to acquired knowledge; methods: review of works written by themselves or by classmates, before and after evaluation by a teacher; students’ characterization and self-characterization, etc.
**Goals:** development of critical thinking in students

**Tasks:** acquisition of knowledge on logical, problem-based, and creative thinking by students; learning basic logical concepts; development of abilities to make critical judgments as critical arguments of a tolerant nature; learning to identify logical errors, critical evaluation of a phenomenon, behavior.

**Principles:** systematization and integrity, critical significance, social-normative conditionality, scientific character, continuity.

**Conditions:** use of the project method, monitoring the development of critical thinking, training teaching staff to conduct lessons aimed at developing critical thinking in students.

**Content:** scientific knowledge of formal and dialectical logic; performance of tasks to develop problem-based and critical thinking; use of logical methods and techniques of critical analysis and evaluation of students' statements during educational and cognitive activities; finding and correcting logical errors on one’s own.

**Stages:**
- **Active Cognition:** discussion of information in the context of problem solving, updating existing knowledge, motivating interest in a topic, determining the purpose of studying the material.
- **Comprehension:** discussion, choice of actions; planning, choice of solutions; alternative solutions.
- **Reflection:** formation of a personal attitude toward the material being studied.
- **Synthesis and Evaluation:** generalization of arguments, demonstration, formation of self-evaluation and public evaluation.

**Forms:** didactic games, business games, brainstorming, discussion, scientific and practical conferences, educational and research work, etc.

**Methods:** problem-based description, training, projecting.

**Criteria:** motivation; knowledge of critical thinking; formation of personal traits; abilities to develop critical thinking; availability of a culture of critical-thinking abilities and skills; experience in critical thinking.

**Levels** of development of critical thinking

- **Elementary level:** students have only a vague idea of what critical thinking is, poor skills in evaluating and proving their righteousness, low level of development of thinking operations (analysis, synthesis, comparison, etc.), predominantly poor skills in comparative analysis.

- **Middle level:** gradual training of basic thinking operations, low level of organization and purposefulness, insufficient experience in demonstration and refutation, lack of an active position.

- **High level:** a clear understanding of critical thinking, stable abilities and skills in basic thinking operations, ability to logically justify evaluations and self-evaluations, ability to suggest hypotheses on one’s own, tolerance to reasonable criticism, etc.

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Fig. 1. Model of development of critical thinking in higher-education students through team learning

What does the teacher’s activity consist of?

**Course content**
1. Inclusion of matters requiring critical understanding by students in new academic topics.
2. Inclusion of various forms and types of criticism in the academic information and material proposed to team members.
3. Arrangement of group tasks and problems requiring that critical thinking be applied as a part of the training process in various subject areas.
4. Thematic distribution of the training session materials with the purpose of developing critical thinking in accordance with the tasks of developing critical thinking of team members.
5. Determination of the level of students’ critical thinking.

**Forms of teaching**
1. Use of critical thinking in group problem solving taking into account individual traits of team members.
2. Teamwork while solving problem-based and cognitive situations aimed at developing critical thinking abilities and skills.
3. Group work taking account of the distribution of roles among members of a team for the execution of tasks aimed at developing critical thinking.

**Teaching methods**
1. Use of rating systems to determine students’ readiness to acquire teaching material and information, and choice of a pedagogical technology in accordance with the level of students’ ability to learn.
2. Motivate students to critically comprehend the content of training sessions and cultivate a critical attitude toward statements and actions.
3. Establishing the level of development of critical thinking (“low”, “middle”, “high”) within the structure of pedagogical technology.
4. Use of problem-based training technologies: problem-based reasoning method, heuristic method (ad absurdum method, exclusion of superfluous data, and reliability assessment of a source of information), research method, dialogical method, methods to motivate students to perform logical tasks on their own using critical thinking techniques, i.e. anytime a question arises: “What if?”, “What’s that?”.
5. Use of the logical method (analysis, synthesis, comparison, generalization).
6. Use of the reflexive, problem-based and critical thinking method, as well as inductive and deductive inferences.

What does the learner’s activity consist of?

**Content of learning**
1. Acquiring knowledge on formal and dialectical logic.
2. Execution of tasks aimed at developing problem-based and critical thinking.
3. Use of logical methods and techniques of critical analysis and evaluation of students’ statements during their educational and cognitive activity.
4. Finding and correcting logical errors on one’s own.

Forms of learning
1. Group work in training sessions aimed at executing tasks requiring critical analysis of texts and assignments.
2. Group work aimed at performing logical and cognitive tasks.
3. Role-based logical and cognitive tasks associated with critical analysis in training sessions.

Learning methods
1. Determination of one’s own level of readiness to assimilate academic information and material.
2. Execution of logical tasks (procedure of demonstration and refutation, identification and generalization of methods for solving problems, problem solving, etc.).
3. Performance of creative assignments.
4. Performance of exercises associated with the transference of critical analysis methods to a new situation, and training of critical thinking abilities and skills (writing reviews on other students’ works, or on any work of literature, finding and correcting mistakes in one’s own writing, etc.).

Culture of critical thinking
- mastery of the culture of speech;
- mastery of the culture of discussion and debate;
- ability to enter the communication process in a psychologically correct form;
- acceptance and consideration of all the ideas suggested by team members;
- free expression of one’s own opinion and each team member’s opinion since this fosters openness;
- responsibility for one’s own point of view;
- ability to talk properly introducing pauses when necessary;
- adherence to the rules for expressing ideas
- reaching general agreement on various issues;
- finding the truth in discussions and debates;
- expressing objections to an opponent’s view;
- ability to hear and listen to an interlocutor’s view;
- goodwill;
- constructive criticism;
- tolerance;
- mutual understanding.

Conclusions
Integrative skills: teamwork and critical thinking ought to be included in the professional competences of future specialists. The development of these skills is only possible in a dedicated training system of students in special courses and seminars, using interactive technologies that teach thinking and working in practical situations.
Critical thinking of higher-education students consists of a system of socially and personally significant critical thinking qualities acquired as part of the learning and teaching process. Teaching students in teams contributes to developing their critical thinking, namely acquiring and suggesting assumptions and hypotheses and searching for the most rational methods to solve problems and tasks, finding mistakes and shortcomings in the course of learning as well as in social life in order to overcome them, creating an atmosphere of interaction, teaching to accept criticism and respond to it after careful consideration, taking an active stance.

Conflict Of Interest

The author confirms that the data presented does not contain any conflict of interest.

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Bibliography


A Model Of Psychological And Pedagogical Support For Students' Professional Self-Determination

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Abstract

The importance of the research topic is determined by practical tasks of the youth’s psychological support and development of modern and human society because it is the youth that is an important factor and condition of social changes. In view of this, the article is directed towards the discovery and revelation of social and psychological specific features of students’ professional self-determination. The leading approach to the study of this problem is treating professional self-determination as the system of life meanings, prospects and goals which are determined by a person for himself and that influence his activity and life situation. The choice of a future profession is always individualistic since it represents a part of personal self-determination, finding one’s vocation by a future specialist. The criterion of its effectiveness is his satisfaction with his work and status in society as well as his place in the professional world. The article contains the study results of the problem of a person’s professional self-determination in domestic and foreign science. The components have been revealed in the structure of professional self-determination: the component of values and motives, a cognitive, an operational component. The model of psychological and pedagogical support for students’ professional self-determination has been substantiated. The criteria of assessing professional self-determination of students of a higher education institution have been identified. The materials of the article are of practical value to psychologists-practitioners and university teachers.

Keywords: profession, professional self-determination, psychological support, social and psychological conditions, professional self-determination, student milieu.

Introduction

The main objective of professional education is provide professional self-determination and development a future specialist’s personality in conformity with the orientation in values, individual abilities, a social requirement of society, with the state’s needs for qualified personnel. That is why the main categories of professional education is a person’s professional formation and readiness for professional activity (Alexandrova, 2003). A person often faces problems that require his attitude to professions and sometimes the analysis and self-analysis of his own professional achievements, decision making about the choice of a profession or its change. All this complex of problems is explained by the concept «professional self-determination».

The issues of professional self-determination were dealt with by both domestic and foreign researchers. For instance, W. Mozer (1963), E.Bordin (1974), E. Row (1969) and et. al. assert that the leading role the professional formation belong to various forms of needs. D. Super (1992) study the
professional choice as a system of orientations in various professional alternatives and in decision making. The researchers Ch. Buhler (1962), E Ginzberg (1951) at. al. consider that carrying out general types of activity can lead to the formation of similar personality traits in people that enable one to deduce the typology of people in groups of people and give a psychological characteristics of a professional’s personality. Thus foreign psychologists study the resultant side of a professional’s formation process thinking that every person is designated for a certain type of activity.

In its turn, domestic psychologists (Bodrov, 2006; Klimov, 2003) pay considerable attention to the process of the personality formation in a professional activity emphasizing compensatory moments of person’ psyche, great opportunities of developing his professional abilities and self-perfection.

Methodological Framework

In the framework of this problem we conducted a theoretical analysis of a person’s professional self-determination in domestic and foreign psychology.

Professional self-determination and personality development pursues the goal of “ensuring fairly reliable behavior of an individual in concrete and typical life and professional conditions and all this determines the formation of stable traits in a person for a future type of activity, in particular” (Bodrov, 2006). Consequently, activity sets requirements for a person, serves as a stimulus of his development and a condition of forming his traits and qualities the most adequate ones for certain forms of behavior and activity. Thus professional self-determination is one of the forms of personality development. A.K. Markova (1983), speaking of the professional formation names this process as professionalization emphasizing at the same time that “in general, professionalization is one of the sides of socialization”.

V.A. Bodrov (2006), E.F. Zeer (2003), E.A. Klimov (2000), A.K. Markova (1983) and et.al. emphasize that professional self-determination of a person is a long and dynamic process that has definite stages (phases). Irrespective of differences in their names, number, age boundaries all researchers distinguish:

1) the stage of preparation for the choice of a profession;
2) the stage of vocational training;
3) the stage of professional activity.

The effectiveness of the professionalization process in general depends on successful passing all these stages and phases, but a special role is given to the phase of vocational training where the student’s professional formation is strengthened, professionally important qualities are formed that are required for future labor activity, the development of one’s personality takes place with the help of professional training means and etc. (Buyanov, 2017; Ganieva et.al., 2015; Gnedova et.al., 2015; Kalinina et.al., 2017; Masalimova & Chibakov, 2016; Mitin, 2014; Salakhova et.al., 2016).

The formation of a future specialist as a highly qualified specialist, in V.A. Yakunin, N.V. Nesterova’s (2006) opinion, is possible only with his formed attitude to motives and values in his professional development.

N.B. Nesterova (2006) analyzing psychological peculiarities of students’ learning and cognitive activity development divides the whole learning period into three stages:

stage I (first year students) is characterized by high levels of professional and learning motives that control learning activity.

stage II (second year students, third year students) is distinguished by the overall decline of intensity of all motivational components.
stage III (fourth year students, final year students) is characterized by the fact that the extent of awareness and integration of various forms of learning motives is growing.

The authors who were engaged in studying student issues made an attempt to determine the students’ typology criteria. For instance, V.T. Lisovsky (1974) apart from the attitude to learning introduced such grounds as scientific and social and political activity, common culture and collectivism. As a result, they identified six types of students. Despite the fullness of description and easiness of finding analogs for the identified types among students this typifying process turns out to be a limited situation in learning at a higher education institution and can only conditionally be spread over future activity. In this respect the typology is looking more preferable. They are identified the following types of self-determination in a profession:

Type “W” (professionals). They view training as a tool of preparation for a future profession. According to the opinion of the majority of «professionals» the main reason of their learning is to get vocational training and education.

Type “X” (nonconformists). These students seek knowledge about life in general in the studied disciplines on the basis of their choice. In their opinion, an institution of higher education exists only in order to satisfy their thirst for knowledge and curiosity about life.

Type “Y” (academicians). These students get closer to type “X” with only one difference that academicians also live for books, do not keep themselves apart from other forms of social life. They try to be noticed and want to pass exams as better as possible.

Type “Z” (student activists). These students pay greater attention to social forms of life rather than a science itself.

It is very likely that the general trend of these types’ established structure of interests will be kept in their further activity.

However, the authors’ aspiration to find a universal ground of typology that would enable one to predict the development ways of a professional is manifested more distinctly in the attempts to determine the levels of students’ professional orientation. For instance, E.F. Zeer (2008) identifies the following types of students according to the professional orientation:

type I - students with a positive professional orientation which shows the situation if a person is fit for a chosen profession that in its turn, assumes a link between dominant, leading motives with the content of professional activity.

type II - students who have not made up their mind yet regarding their choice of a profession. They tend to compromise between their lack of choice and, sometimes a negative attitude to a profession, and their continued education at a higher education institution, a prospect further to work in this profession.

type III - students with a negative attitude to a profession. Motivation of the their choice is closely connected with social values of higher education. They have a slight idea about a profession. The leading motive here expresses not so much the need for activity itself but various circumstances connected with it.

J. Holland (1986) highlights the six professionally oriented personality types, each of them is oriented to a certain professional environment:

1. realistic type intends to create material things, to maintain technological processes and technical devices;
2. intellectual type is oriented to intellectual work;
3. Social one is oriented to the interaction with the social environment;
4. Conventional one to definitely structured activity;
5. Entrepreneur type to management of people and business;
6. Creative one is oriented to creativity.

The gist of J. Holland’s (1986) theory consists in the idea that success in professional activity, work satisfaction depend, first of all, on the fitness of a personality type for a type of the professional environment which is created by the people that possess similar positions, professionally significant qualities and behavior. The workers of one profession also determine the definite professional environment adequate for one of the six identified personality types.

In domestic psychology the classification of professions devised by Е.А. Klimov (2000) received great publicity. He understands self-determination as a significant manifestation of psychical development, as an active search for development opportunities to form oneself as full-fledged participant of the community of «doers» who do something useful, of the community of professionals.

N.S. Pryazhnikov (2012) emphasized an uninterrupted link of professional self-determination with a person’s self-realization in other important spheres of life. He substantiated the process model adding more content-related elements:
- recognizing the value of community service work and the necessity of vocational training;
- being able to orient oneself in a social and economic situation and to forecast the prestige of chosen work;
- general orientation in the world of professional work and setting a professional goal;
- setting short-term professional objectives as stages and ways towards a long-term goal;
- informing about vacancies or job placemets;
- being aware of obstacles that impede the attainment of professional goals as well as one’s qualities that contribute to the implementation of the charted plans and prospects.

The authors’ group headed by S.N. Chistyakova (1997) identified major functions of psychological and pedagogical support for professional self-determination:
- diagnostic (the collection of information about the content of students’ professional self-determination components);
- tactical (discovering capabilities to overcome problems in self-determination that stipulates in particular, the devising of the program);
- pedagogical support of students’ self-determination in the learning process at a higher education institution and relevant criteria, i.e. a procedural side of solving the outlined problems);
- practical (the implementation of the designed program in practice that assumes a concrete content, forms, methods, a complex of conditions:
- organizational, methodological, didactic, personnel, legal, technical and analytical (the analysis of results in the course of the program implementation).

We understand by pedagogical support of professional self-determination the interaction of a teacher and students directed towards the provision of conditions for more adequate comprehension by them the ways of their personal and professional development during their study at a higher education institution.

Thus it is possible to distinguish the following components in the structure of professional self-determination:
- a component of motivation and values represented by students’ value orientations in the sphere of their professional activity. This component in many respects determines the development of other components of professional self-determination;

- a cognitive component that contains professional knowledge, knowledge of special disciplines, perceptions of various professions, their requirements set for a person, of professionally important qualities, inclinations and capabilities, of various aspects of one’s personality and of oneself as a potential participant of professional activity as well as an awareness of the labor market requirements;

- an operational component that comprises the skills of self-projecting, that is a student’s activity to build his own strategy of professional growth, the existence of internal locus of control, being able to self-analyze, a creative ability (Buyanov, 2017; Lipatova et.al., 2015; Masalimova et.al., 2014; Mitin, 2016; Salakhova et.al., 2016; Ovsyanik et.al., 2016; Vasyakin, 2016).

For every person is characterized by a more or less expressed preference of activity types relevant to that area of work that he wants to do. This happens due to the prevalence of certain life orientations in components of the personality structure: values, interests, individual and personal features.

Being aware of his subjective and optimum walk of life by a young person is an important element of his maturity as a personality. The walk of life is frequently chosen out of reasoning grounds or at the mercy of circumstances without taking real inclinations into account. The difficulties in professional self-determination may comprise the following: an insufficient level of self-cognition; a weak orientation in a profession that is being chosen; the narrowness of the range of interest; social infancy (infantilism). That is why mistakes in the choice are quite natural and unavoidable in adolescence and it is very important to correct them to overcome a life crisis or to be more precise, to help one understand «one’s own» walk of life (Mitina, 2004; Ivleva et.al., 2016; Masalimova et.al., 2017; Mitin et.al., 2017; Salakhova et.al., 2017; Vasyakin et.al., 2015).

Results

Thus the conducted theoretical review of this problem made it possible to draw the following conclusion: to prepare students for further work activity in a chosen profession at professional educational institutions it is important to provide systemic methodological work and as well as the improvement of models of psychological and pedagogical support that can contribute to professional self-determination of a person, the formation of professionally significant values and readiness for the perfection in work in the chosen walk of life.

A complex psychological and pedagogical support of students plays a great role especially in the process of professional self-determination. Psychological and pedagogical support is a system of professional activity directed towards the creation of social and psychological prerequisites for a student’s successful upbringing, learning and development at each stage of learning. Psychological and pedagogical support is the systematized activity in the frame work of educational process which to a greater extent is directed to the creation of favorable conditions for students’ successful professional development and self-determination.

Theoretical results provided the foundation to design the model of psychological and pedagogical support for students’ professional self-determination. This model consists of 2 big units – vocational training; vocational guidance with active methods of psychological and pedagogical support.

This division is not absolute since many pedagogical actions tend to be fostering ones at the same time. It is important to start psychological and pedagogical support with the pre-professional training of
prospective students which is directed to the provision of information to students of educational institutions about various types of professional activity and to arouse interest among them in mastering professional knowledge and skills.

The program of the adaptation courses for freshmen («Business communication ethics», «Social and psychological training», «Health culture» and others) is another important mechanism of psychological and pedagogical support for students' professional formation. This program can be implemented during the first month of training and must be aimed at providing a complex of organizational and psychological and pedagogical events facilitating the successful social and professional adaptation of students to the learning environment at a higher education institution and further professional activity.
Social–psychological training

Vocational guidance

Business communication ethics

Leisure activity

Job training

Interaction with an employer

Vocational training

Psychological and pedagogical support for students’ professional formation

Vocational training system for prospective students

Personality diagnostics

Adaptation course

Learning process

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Possible areas of work:
- forming in students the awareness of social significance of a chosen profession;
- creating favorable conditions to form in students skills and capacities of organizing learning leisure and household activity;
- preventing and eliminating psychological and physical discomfort in freshmen connected with the transition to a new educational environment;
- developing the ways of interaction in first year students;
- assisting in the professional and personal growth of a student.

Similar programs will enable one to ensure graduates’ preparedness for successful adaptation to conditions in the labor market, an effective realization of their professional career, will help to raise their competitiveness, to develop skills of confident behavior under changing social and economic conditions.

Practical training at work is aimed at consolidating and deepening the theoretical training of students, at obtaining practical skills and competences by them as well as gaining experience of independent work in professional activity. Students in their practical training combine self-study with work in their professional area. While doing practical training a student solves professional objectives and identifies himself as a professional. The most effective forms of interaction between an employer and a higher education institution are enterprises’ requests to an educational institution for the training of specialists in a certain field, the organization of students’ practical training and internships at an employer’s enterprise.

An employer and a higher education institution can interact while preparing and holding joint master-classes, workshops, contests of various levels and business games. The vacancy fairs and professional forums that are jointly organized help the students who think about their professional career get more information about vacancies and prospects of acquiring professional competences.

To provide pedagogical support for students’ professional self-determination we designed the guidelines on a teacher’s activity:
- holding individual consultations on the issues of professional self-determination and outcomes of psychological diagnostics;
- drawing up methodological recommendations how to arrange pedagogical activities with the students who have different types of professional self-determination;

As a result of the conducted theoretical analysis both the formation indexes of professional self-determination and diagnostics means were identified (table 1).
Table 1. Assessment of university students’ professional self-determination based on criteria and diagnostics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria and indexes</th>
<th>Diagnostic means:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Values and motivation component</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orientation to professional activity</td>
<td>The «value orientations» technique proposed by M. Rokich</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The formation of internal motivation for certain activity types</td>
<td>The technique «motivation of professional activity» by K. Zamfir modified by A. Rean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value orientations peculiar to a self-actualizing person</td>
<td>The self-actualizing test (E. Shostrom’s set of values)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The idea of the meaning of one’s professional labor</td>
<td>«Personal professional plan» by E.A. Klimov and N.S. Pryzhnikov (the motivation set)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cognitive component:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The degree of mastery of theoretical and practical fundamentals of professional activity outlined by the program</td>
<td>«Personal professional plan» by E.A. Klimov and N.S. Pryzhnikov (a cognitive set). An expert assessment, practical and theoretical tests, test work, qualification examination, practical training reports, character testimonials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Operational component:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-analysis skills</td>
<td>Self-actualization test (E. Shostrom’s set of self-perception)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The implementation of the proposed model of psychological and pedagogical support for students’ professional self-determination ensures a good preparation for professional activity and successful entry into the social environment.

After the theoretical analysis conducted of both domestic and foreign literature on professional self-determination we can make a conclusion that it is a constituent part of personal self-determination and assumes the formation of an attitude to oneself as a prospective or a present professional on the basis of the criteria of professionalism that have been elaborated in society and accepted by a person consciously.

The effectiveness of professional self-determination of university students raises under its adequate pedagogical support which is considered as a process and the project structure elaboration of a life and professional path is based on the improvement of value, motivation, cognitive, operational components in professional self-determination presupposes a foundation on the mechanisms of intrapersonal development – stereotyping, introspection, personalization.

The main guidelines of work to create prerequisites for effective psychological and pedagogical support of students are the following:
- diagnostics of students’ professional self-determination and discovering a student’s readiness for future professional activity;
- building individual trajectories of professional self-determination;
- training courses of personal growth, interpersonal communication, conflict-free interaction, independence;
- devising recommendations to teachers, parents that are directed to rendering assistance in the issues of upbringing and training;
- improving the assessment system of professional results;
- designing a portfolio of a participant in the educational process;
- supporting talented young people.

So, the introduction of new models and forms of psychological and pedagogical support at the stage of students’ professional self-determination will help to prepare a prospective specialist for work in the chosen sphere, to provide the support of gifted students and create an individual development trajectory of every student (Ivleva et.al., 2014; Salakhova et.al., 2017; Yemelyanenkova et.al., 2017; Chen et.al., 2017).

Conclusion

The theoretical analysis of literature sources has shown that psychological and pedagogical support is treated as a holistic and uninterrupted process of studying a student’s personality, creating the conditions for self-realization in all the spheres of activity. Psychological and pedagogical support of a student’s professional self-determination is an intentionally organized and controlled process. It must be noted that the role of psychological and pedagogical support of professional formation consists not only in rendering timely assistance and support to a person but also in teaching one to overcome difficulties of this process independently, to help one be responsible for one’s formation.

Proceeding from the above-stated, we can draw a conclusion that understanding psychological and pedagogical support as an important constituent of professional formation facilitates the effectiveness increase of applying educational technologies at the expense of raising psychological resilience, personal self-determination, protectedness and organized work of all the participants of the educational process for the purpose of training qualified and comprehensively developed specialists.

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Specific Ways Of Expressing Emotions In The Tatar And French Languages

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Abstract
With the help of language, which is a powerful means of expressing human individuality, people transmit not only thoughts, but also feelings, emotions. Language is the key to learning emotions. He expresses, describes, categorizes and classifies emotions, forms an emotional picture of the world. The verbalization of emotions in different linguocultures is carried out in accordance with specific national and cultural norms and rules. The verbal expression of emotions is the realization of the emotional function of a language, for the expression of which it has a special set of emotionally colored linguistic means, among which an important place belongs to the emotional sentences conveying the specificity of the national linguistic consciousness. Such emotionally expressive proposals both in Tatar and in French often express categorical judgment, establish unequal role relations in the dialogue, and also "the desire to protect each other from unpleasantness." Empathy - the most valuable in a confidential communication, then, to which both seek to interlocutor. Emotional-expressive suggestions serve to realize the category of emotional expression at the syntactic level. Decode the character of the implicitly expressed emotion in the Tatar and French sentences only the context, the communicative situation and the intonation are capable.

This article is devoted to the study of Tatar and French expressive syntax on the basis of the anthropocentric approach to the analysis of linguistic data.

Key words and phrases: expressive syntax; emotionally expressive sentences; emotionally expressive factor, communicative situation, explicitly expressed emotion, the French language, the Tatar language.

Introduction
Comparative linguistics has held a firm place among a number of linguistic disciplines. One cannot ignore the fact that in comparative study of two or more languages, their national distinctness is most vividly manifested. And this is not accidental, because the whole complex of living conditions of a particular people (customs, morals, established norms of behavior, etc.) is reflected in the language, and in this sense, the language is represented by “the mirror of culture” [8; 10; 13; 24].

Modern linguistics is intended not only to study the language, but also to solve the tasks of mutual understanding between people in all spheres of life. It should be borne in mind that mutual understanding of communicants is carried out through presentation and adequate interpretation of not only actual information, but also information about the personality of the speaking subject, in particular, about his feelings and emotions [1; 3; 5; 9; 14; 15; 18; 19]. Our study has shown that emotionally saturated sentences are very frequent in both languages.
Methods

The main method at the stage of hypothesis promotion is scientific modeling, the purpose of which is to create a model that provides an optimal and verifiable description of the object. As a method of axiological research, a description is used of the various types of implication, categories of norm and evaluation, which serve as ways of objectifying values. At the stage of processing empirical data, the methods of lexical, semantic, contextual and linguistic analysis were productive. General scientific methods of observation, classification, etc. were applied. At all stages of scientific research, the descriptive method and introspection reception remained relevant, which consists in addressing the linguistic intuition of the researcher in the process of linguistic modeling.

The work used linguistic methods and methods of analyzing the actual material: comparative-comparative, which allows you to determine the similarities and differences between the two languages being compared; Identify system matches and inconsistencies between matched languages; Identify the causes of similarities and differences.

The material for the study was the original literary and fictional works of famous Tatar and French writers of the 20th century (Гыйлажев А., 1994; Ибраимов Г., 1996; Covanna, 1995; Chambaz B., 1995).

Emotions are an integral part of the emotional picture of the world, which is a worldview projected by the emotional sphere of consciousness and reflecting axiological priorities in the national picture of the world. The emotional picture of the world consists of emotionally marked perceptual images and representations, reflected by the inner world of man. It is reflected in linguistic means and is deeply national. Each language uses its own set of tools, based on national images and ideas about a particular emotion.

The formation of a verbal act occurs through the prism of the emotional sphere of the human psyche and this sphere imposes additional information that is expressed in emotionally expressive (EE) sentences [11; 13; 16; 17; 18; 21; 22; 25].

The peculiarity of verbal communication is that not the whole content of thought is embodied in linguistic elements: along with explicit methods of expression, there is also an area of implicit information, which is currently insufficiently studied. We distinguish three semantic types of emotionally expressive sentences with the exclamatory what (quêl) [14; 23]. Based on this semantic classification, we attempt to consider emotional-expressive sentences in the languages being compared.

1. emotionally expressive sentences with an explicit object of emotion and implicit emotion.

The above sentences do not indicate the pole of the scoring scale - positive or negative, since the main member of these sentences is not evaluative. Various means of intensification: exclamators, interjections, repetitions, etc., although they are the indicators of emotional content, but do not directly point to it.

Emotional-expressive sentences with implicitly expressed emotions are ambiguous [3; 14]. Implicative characterization of the name implies that the emotion is deduced by the addressee on the basis of his own view of the world, in which a set of possible attributes of the given object is presented [3]. So, the sentences Нинди кеше! Quel homme! can express, on the one hand, approval, admiration, sometimes mixed with surprise (i.e. have meaning “beautiful, wonderful person”), and on the other hand, they can express disapproval, condemnation, indignation, sometimes with a touch of contempt, disdain, annoyance (that is, have the meaning “unpleasant, nasty person”).

An implicitly expressed emotion is characteristic for the sentences in which the exclamators
урыныннан торды: 
[19, p. 28]; Quel sourire il a, l’animal! Mais quel sourire! [20, p. 78].

The indicators of emotional richness of the studied sentences are interjections, demonstratives, but, as it has been alreadt said, they cannot concretize an emotion:


So, having considered emotionally expressive sentences with implicitly expressed emotions in two languages, we came to the conclusion that only intonation, context and situation are capable of decoding the character of the expressed emotion. One can read more about the intonation representation of emotionally expressive sentences (and, more broadly, utterances) in French in the works by M.I. Olevskaya, M.M. Ruber and I.G. Torsuyeva [6, 7, 8, 10]. In addition, these sentences with an undifferentiated emotion are approaching in their peculiarities to phraseological, syntactically indivisible sentences.

2) emotionally expressive sentences with an explicit object of emotion and explicitly expressed emotion.

For this type of sentence, it is not fundamental what word (attitudinal / non-attitudinal) the main member is expressed. In other words, it can be common, proper, abstract, which cannot be said about adjectives and other parts of speech, which, being used in these sentences as attributes, are synonymous with general-evaluative adjectives: good / bad:

- Ах, жұләр қызы! - ди де ай, тыңыш бетергөі [2, p. 82]; Биңарә кеше! Күңінин бер-иже минут эңдә ақыл алының сүм акчасын ұйымы бөл алға биреде... [4, p. 29]; Des études, dit Rezk d’un ton rêveur et comme s’il était frappé par la résonance de ces mots grandiloquents. Quelle chose merveilleuse! [19, p. 28]; Excellente idée! [20, p. 28].

Moreover, in emotionally expressive sentences with an explicit evaluation, frequently evaluative adjectives are also used, which in turn serve for:

- utilitarian evaluation:

Бодайын алы барырыға қырәк, анысы әкі. Ҳәттә қи, ык кырәкке әй! [2, p. 92]; Яна Бистәдәгә ләкегән соң моңда өжма! Тегендә таңық көтәге иде, моңда тартма... Гончарлык, уңай квартпир! [2, p. 71]; Ah! être une mere parfaite, comme tu l’ees à tes propres yeux! Quel métier difficile! [19, p. 29]; Que dites-vous là! Le pauvre garçon! [20, p. 38].

- aesthetic evaluation:

Урманың бөтен яме дә августта була! Олгерен ай! Тансық ай! [2, p. 90]; Эх, нинди матуу
bolyn! [4, p. 88]. Il pense: - Quelle beau pays! [19, p. 35]; Quelle belle nuit! Aucune étoile au firmament, rien que des nuages couleur d’ébène, pas un pouce de vent, le printemps encore immobile au creux de l’air [19, p. 97].

- normative evaluation:

- He, ansam jahvan! Bolzhaj kesh geng bulyp yashagh, komsomolda torunyn magнaе kalamy soq? [2, p. 67]; Фойзи агаи, бу безнец якташ малай. Ны ишэн буннисм! [4, p. 89]; Un honnête homme! [19, p. 38]; Génereuse enfant! s’écria Anne d’Autriche [20, p. 90].

In these emotionally expressive sentences, interjections, exclamations takes on an intensifying role. However, context and communicative situation do not play a primary role here, as opposed to the sentences with an implicitly expressed emotion. We can include, in our opinion, all substantive sentences in the Tatar language with the word имен into this group of emotionally expressive sentences. This exclamator can give any sentence, irrespective of the fact whether its main member has attitudinal meaning or non-attitudinal, a shade of irony, sarcasm, doubt, uncertainty, indignation (in combination with the verb in the imperative mood). If the word имен is removed from the sentence and the whole sentence acquires the character of a statement of fact. The ability of the word to attach any emotional meaning to any Tatar sentence is emphasized by many linguists [4; 5; 9; 11; 12; 13].

- Ha, врач, имен, жаваплы шахес, имен!.. Э мин? Мин жаваплы тутелмени? [2, p. 98]; He! Нарсa лыгардый! Таныш, имен! [4, p. 33].

3) Emotive sentences, in which the object of emotion and the very expressed emotion coincide.

In the sentences of this type, the principal member can be expressed by abstract names, the names of various relations, states, events that are characteristic of many spheres of human manifestation, as well as by the names of persons named for their individual properties. They are evaluative in their semantics and do not need qualitative adjectives. We have already considered the sentences with an object of a directed emotion, so here we give only the examples of emotionally expressive sentences in which the object of emotion and the very emotion coincide:


Discussion

Our study shows that the expressive possibilities of utterances are more pronounced when they not only characterize the phenomenon but also convey a special attitude to the subject, intensifying the expressive and figurative features of emotionally expressive sentences. Only context, communicative situation and intonation can decode the character of an implicitly expressed emotion in Tatar and French sentences. Context and communicative situation are not of primary importance in emotionally expressive sentences with an explicitly expressed emotion. Purposeful use of subjective assessment, i.e. a characteristic representation of the phenomenon through the prism of sense perception, contributes to the strengthening of the convincingness of thought, which is based on the logical argumentation of the fact. The combination of conciseness and impassability of logical reasoning with the expressiveness of emotionally subjective assessment gives a deep conviction to spoken language.

The study showed the presence of similar typological features in representation of emotionally expressive sentences in Tatar and French, belonging to different language families. The existing discrepancies manifest themselves mainly in the structure of the sentences in compared languages,
whereas in the field of semantics, these sentences show many similarities, which is determined by the commonness of human thinking.

Conclusion

So, in this work, we have conducted a comparative-typological study of emotionally expressive sentences in Tatar and French. After comparing the structural and semantic organization of emotionally expressive sentences in Tatar and French, we have come to the conclusion that they are constructed with the help of a certain set of means of emotional expression. Analyzing the way of expression of emotions in emotionally expressive sentences of the compared languages, we have realized that it can be expressed implicitly and explicitly. If the emotion in the sentence is expressed implicitly, then the role of context, communicative situation, intonation and author’s remarks increases. The sentences with an explicitly expressed emotion are self-sufficient, in other words, contextually less dependent. The substantive sentences in Tatar and French are the most widespread and numerous. In the substantive emotionally expressive sentences of the French language, the constantly manifesting intensifying function is realized in the form of a definite article, whereas in the indicated Tatar sentences this function is performed by the possessive affix.

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Information And Communication Tools For Tatar Language Teaching

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Abstract
The article is devoted to the study of theoretical works devoted to information-communicative means of teaching, media education and its models, and the attempt to use them during Tatar language lessons. The issue of information and communication tools, media education is one of the most topical and controversial issues of theoretical and practical pedagogy in recent decades. As a rule, not only scientific schools, but also individual scientists from different countries offer the explanation of the basic concepts of "information literacy", "information culture", "information competence", "media education", "media culture", "media literacy", "media competence", etc.

Many works of domestic and foreign authors are devoted to the problem of media education and the development of various trends (mainly in cinema, press, and in certain aspects related to television). Conventionally they are divided into the studies of a certain nature, including the information on the adoption of media texts in different countries and age categories, the level of development and the criteria for audiences; General research of a general theoretical nature, analyzing models, methods, the concepts of media education and mass information, and the issues of specific methods of media education. The study of this topic is closely related with the creation and the implementation of information and communication tools for Tatar language teaching in the educational process. These tools are based on the main provisions of modern linguistic didactics and supplement the traditional forms of education. The article deals with the real use of media education tools using the lessons of Tatar language, the results of the study are given. In general, it is designed to promote the improvement of language education, its intensification and individualization, as well as the orientation to real communication in Tatar language using media education models.

Keywords: information and communication means, media education, integrated approach, optional approach, special approach, media education model, Tatar language.

Introduction
In recent years, a separate system of terms emerged among the experts working in the field of information literacy and media education.
"Media pedagogy" is the science of media education and media literacy, which reveals the laws of personal development in the process of media education [Fedorov, 2005].

There are three main models of media education:
- the model based on the synthesis of aesthetic and social-cultural approaches [Usov, 1998; Polichko, 1990];
- the model based on the synthesis of aesthetic, educational and educational and ethical approaches [Penzin, 2004; Baranov, 2002];

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- the model based on the synthesis of social-cultural, educational-informational and practical approaches [Zaznobina, 1996; Spychkin, 1999].

The methods of media education can be conditionally divided into the following groups:

- according to the sources of obtained knowledge: oral (lectures, story, conversation, explanation, discussion);
- visual (illustrations and demonstrations to media texts);
- practical (performance of various tasks).

In the media pedagogy of our country the last two models will be able to develop, because they can be used in different educational systems taking into account national traditions, the opportunities of this or that region and the variability.

Methods. The descriptive method was used for the purpose of information and communication tools comprehensive study for teaching, media education, the collection and systematization of materials on a research topic. Also, using the method of analysis and classification, a systematic and comprehensive analysis of the scientific material was carried out; The elements of the statistical method were necessary to obtain quantitative information.

Results

During the creation of modern models, the proposed technology is based on the cycles of creative and game assignments as a rule (units, modules). These cycles can be used by teachers during educational and extracurricular activities. An important feature of the models discussed above is the wide range of their entry into the work: schools, higher education institutions, the institutions of additional education and leisure facilities; Thus, media education lessons can be taken in the form of separate lessons, electives, in the form of special courses integrated into different subjects, can be used in the conduct of circles [Kharisov, Kharisova, 2014; Nurova, Kharisov, 2015; Yusupov + et al, 2015; Husnutdinov, Sagdieva, 2016].

Based on the models analyzed above, it is possible to build a perfect model for the development of media competence of students at pedagogical educational institutions. At the same time, it is necessary to rely not only on the general didactic principles of education (the education of an individual in the educational process and its all-round development, scientific character, systemic nature, the connection between theory and practice, clarity, the connection between theory and practice, the strength of learning outcomes, a positive emotional background, the consideration of student individual traits), but also on special principles related to video materials.

According to these principles one can say about the unity of emotional and intellectual endeavors, about the preservation of personal thinking integrity in the methodology of lesson conduct for the development of creative abilities. It is aimed at the maximizing of media culture potential. The use of media education models in teaching Tatar language means a new organization of the learning process. At this time, the learning process is directed to the main result - the identification of a learner's desire for active communicative activity, the communication with the use of emotional and intellectual capabilities of a child [Kharisova + et al, 2015; Nurova + et al, 2016; Shakirova + et al, 2016].

One of the most successful media technologies used in a school is electronic textbooks and manuals. Teachers successfully use electronic textbooks "Kyтлеle Tartar Tel" ("Fascinating Tatar Language") by Khaidarova R.Z. et al., [Khaidarova + et al, 2013], the textbook "Tatarcha syиl'shbez, Ukybiz, Yazabiz" ("We talk, read and write in Tatar") by Fatkhullova K.S., Yusupova A.Sh., Denmukhametova E.N.
[Fatullova + et al, 2015]. The materials of these textbooks and teaching aids generate the interest in the study of Tatar language. Their positive qualities are: modern design, skillfully designed tasks and texts, appropriate selection of colors for design, interesting texts for the children, offered texts and excerpts, an account of the age characteristics of students, the tasks and questions possible for students, the availability of materials for listening.

The company "ABBYY" known all over the world has released a new electronic dictionary Lingvo. Along with English, Spanish, German, Italian, Chinese, Turkish and other languages, there is also Tatar one. It includes 154 vocabularies in 12 languages. The translation not only into Russian, but also into other languages is provided.

Fund "Mardzhani" ("Mәрҗәni") in Moscow released an audio compilation for children, consisting of Tatar folk tales. Two discs in 1000 copies have such the fairy tales as "Bashmaklar" ("Boots"), "The White Bell" ("The Rooster and the Fox"), "Ahmeth", "Gulchchuk" ("Gulchek") and other famous Tatar compositions. The disc is in Russian. The peculiarity of the collection is that the fairy tales are read by famous actors who are Tatars by nationality.

During the process of teaching and education teachers use the following sources: http://belem.ru/, which is a great help for the teachers of Tatar language and literature. There is a vast information for teachers, students, schoolchildren, preschoolers, and for everyone who is not indifferent to Tatar language. The site has the headings "News", "Library" (http://miras.belem.ru), "Resources", "Catalog", etc. The center of Internet knowledge offers the thoughts of experts on current topics, conversations; The latest news from the field of science; the observation of the world press, covering the problems of education; the information about olympiads, conferences, courses for schoolchildren and teachers; normative documents in Russia and Tatarstan. In the section "Library" they offer the originals of classical works, their brief content; the articles on the subject of literature and language; the biography and creativity of outstanding writers in electronic and audio variants.


Tatar cartoons, performances, films are located on the site http://ggulnaz.jimdo.com/, http://ras2203.narod.ru/. The site of the village Kushlavych http://qushlawich.ru/node/134 is also rich in various methodological materials. When extra-curricular activities are carried out, the site http://ras2203.narod.ru/shubino-karaoke.html is used often, where Tatar karaoke is located.

Using the models of media education in a classroom, teachers were able to achieve the following

**Results:**
- Improvement of oral speech among students, enrichment of vocabulary;
- An increase in the notion of Tatar culture, art, literature;
- The drawing up of a portfolio with creative assignments for each student;
- The enrichment of educational activity;
- The increase of student creative efficiency in a classroom.

As a positive result, it should also be noted that pupils, who use media education models during their classes, take prizes at various competitions, conferences and olympiads. Students attend these lessons with interest and desire.

**Discussion**
As was stated above, there are three main models of media education nowadays.
The model by Yu.N. Usov unites communication technologies, the study of traditional arts and video art.
The content of the model of cultural, associative, objective reality perception by students and logical thinking [Usov, 1998].
The model of media education by G.A. Polichko is the development of an individual on the basis of media text material. The objectives of media education: to help students understand the language and the basic laws of the artistic spectrum of audiovisual media; to develop the abilities of the qualification analysis for artistic media texts, aesthetic, cultural perception and taste; To educate on the theory of media culture, etc. The forms of media education organization: autonomous special courses, traditional academic subjects, electives, film clubs, etc. [Polichko, 1990].
According to the analysis results, we can say that the described above media education models are known as the synthesis of aesthetic and social-cultural learning models. As you know, aesthetic models were popular in the West during the 70-ies of the 20th century.
S.N. Penzin notes that media education, especially using the example of media texts (based on the masterpieces of "filmmaking authors"), is an aesthetic education of the audience [Penzin, 2004].
The model of media education by O.A. Baranov is an aesthetic, audiovisual, emotionally-intellectual training of the audience and the development of a personality using the material of artistic media texts [Baranov, 2002].
A.V. Sharikov refers to media education as to the teaching of practical skills and the theory to master modern mass communications, considered as the part of a special and an autonomous field of education in pedagogical theory and practice [Fedorov, 2005].
Media education by L.S. Zaznobina is considered as the learning of different subjects by students in the information environment by media education aspect development [Zaznobina, 1996].
The education model by A. Spichkin considers the media education as an interdisciplinary model, i.e. mass communications are considered in the course of traditional subject study. It is based on the means of mass communication - the results of media texts and aspect analysis thinking. The effectiveness of the model is based on the possibility of a media text comprehensive review [Spichkin, 1999].
Media technology has many advantages in the process of education and upbringing. The use of top quality visualization with multimedia capabilities influences the development of cognition positively, serves to develop memory, the personal qualities of a student, also leads to the intensification of learning. Intersubject communications are established, using a variety of teaching forms and techniques, the content of a lesson is enriched and it becomes more interesting. The opportunities for control and self-control are increased, because it becomes possible to read the material several times, and correct error immediately, try to use several options for a problem solution. Media technologies are convenient to control the mastering of a topic, the evaluation of knowledge, the finding out of errors, the analysis and the determination of the ways for their elimination.
The interactive manuals commissioned by the Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Tatarstan have become indispensable helpers for our teachers in recent years. For example, multimedia programs dedicated to the works by G.Tukay, R.Fahretdin, M.Jalil, G.Ishaki, F.Jarullin "Ancient literature and the literature of the Middle Ages", the electronic textbook "Tatar telle zaman", numerous DVDs and CDs are used in lessons and in after-hour activities successfully.
Multimedia guides are also issued by teachers, who are helped by able students. Students prepare presentations on various topics and use them in classrooms and during extra-curricular activities [Husnutdinov, Sagdieva, 2017].

The most common forms of multitechnology are multimedia abstracts and presentations. The purpose of multimedia presentations is the presentation of information in a visual, easily digestible form. When interactive multimedia presentations are shown, an interactive whiteboard plays an important role. Interactive whiteboard makes it possible to use multimedia resources, enrich a lesson with all sorts of materials. Such presentations are prepared in a relatively short period and are used on different types of lessons. Media technologies make it possible to use text, voice, graphic, video information during the organization of educational work in a new way. This gives rise to the students' interest in creative work and stimulates the development of cognitive activity.

One of the main tasks of Tatar language and literature teacher at the Russian school is the acquaintance of students with Tatar literature, oral folk art, songs, music, theater, fine arts, the study of famous writer biography, the acquaintance with their separate works. First of all, the teachers of Tatar language and literature should pay attention to words and concepts that reflect the essence of people as a nationality, its history, daily life, traditions, and should show linguistic and cultural ties [Abdrakhmanova + et al, 2016; Fattahova + et al, 2016; Husnutdinov, 2015; Husnutdinov + et al, 2016].

Media culture is an integral part of media education. An important goal of media education is the media education for the students of pedagogical universities, the use of media resources during the teaching of students at schools. By taking this into account, we conducted the study among the teachers of Tatar language and literature.

The teachers of Tatar language and literature of the Vakhitovsk and Privolzhsky districts of the city of Kazan took part in the study.

94 teachers participated in the study, including:
- 15 teachers at the age of 21 - 30 years;
- 39 teachers at the age of 31 - 40 years;
- 29 teachers at the age of 41 - 50 years;
- 11 teachers at the age of 51 years and older.

The work experience as a teacher of the Tatar language and literature:
- 30 teachers - 1-10 years;
- 40 teachers - 11-20 years;
- 21 teachers - 21-30 years;
- 3 teachers - 31 years and more.

The third question of our questioning was aimed to find out the attitude of teachers towards media education. The results are the following ones:
- 50% of teachers consider that the use of media education in lessons is compulsory;
- 27% of teachers believe that media education should be provided at school autonomously, in the form of separate classes;
- 22% of teachers consider the optional use of media education during classes;
- 1% of teachers believe that there is no need for media education among students.

The next question was about the basic responsibilities of media education:
- 36% of teachers noted the development of critical thinking among students;
- 34% - the development of personal demonstration skills;
24% - the preparation of students for life in a democratic society;
22% - the development of communicative abilities among students;
17% - the satisfaction of various student needs in media education;
8% of teachers supported the protection against the harmful impact of media education.

Regarding the use of media resources during the lessons of Tatar language and literature the results were the following ones:
90% of teachers apply the elements of media education (15% of them use these elements during each lesson, faculty, circle, 56% use these elements often);
2% of teachers do not apply media education at all.

The survey also revealed which media tools are used by teachers most often to prepare for lessons. The following results were obtained:
86% of teachers use the Internet;
41% - film-video means;
17% - the media press;
8% use television information.

A separate question in the survey was asked for those who do not use the elements of media education. The reasons of not using media means are the following ones:
9% of teachers who do not use the elements of media education lack the knowledge of the methodology and the theory of media education;
3% do not use the elements of media education, as there is no desire for it;
3% - do not use them, because there is no interest;
2% - do not use because they do not know the methods;
6% do not work with the elements of media education, as there are no proposals from a school management;
5% do not use them for another reason.

Other reasons were noted, such as:
- the absence of own office;
- the absence of a media library;
- the absence of the necessary technical means to use the elements of media education.

The survey involved the teachers with higher pedagogical education. Therefore, we were interested in their attitude to the introduction of media education as an object in the educational process at pedagogical universities. 18% of teachers noted that this is necessary;
29% - it should be taught as an elective;
53% believe that media education should be conducted in parallel with the main subjects.

As you know, there are positive and negative aspects in every science. We decided to learn the teachers' opinion about the negative impact of media education:
11% of teachers of the Tatar language and literature believe that media means promote bad taste;
27% believe that there is violence on a screen;
32% - low-quality films;
38% - advertising has a negative impact on children.

According to the questionnaire, the following conclusions were reached: most school teachers conduct lessons using media education techniques and actively use it in class. They believe that media education develops the critical thinking of the child and the ability to demonstrate oneself.
But there are also teachers who do not have enough knowledge concerning media education methods. We think that by conducting such studies aimed at media education model use, by introducing the proposals on this issue, the necessary competence among teachers will be increased. Undoubtedly, we believe that it is necessary to study media education independently and continuously. We also think that media education should be in parallel with compulsory subjects at pedagogical educational institutions. We also believe that the organization of media education courses for elderly teachers will be successful.

Media education is defined as the trend in pedagogy, supporting the study of mass communication regularities (press, television, radio, cinema, video, etc.). Media education prepares a new generation for life in modern information conditions, to the perception of various information, teaches a person to understand it, to realize the consequences of its impact on psyche, to master communication methods on the basis of non-verbal forms of communication through technical means.

Media education is inseparable from the understanding and the perception of works of art and the place of culture in a man's life, the significance of which has immeasurably increased in the twentieth century. Today great changes take place in pedagogy and educational process. The content of education is enriched with new skills, the ability to interact with information is developed, a great importance is given to the spiritual education of an individual, the development of a man's morality. The main goal of the lessons is the education of a competitive, spiritually and physically perfect personality. A teacher of Tatar language and literature also has the task to educate children who know Tatar language perfectly, who recognize and respect the national traditions of the Tatar people and are ready to develop them. It is necessary to use modern media technologies to solve these problems.

Media technologies have superiority in education and upbringing. High-quality visualization of the material, which has multimedia capabilities, influences the development of consciousness positively, serves to develop memory, the personal qualities of a student and the intensity of training. Through the interaction of different lessons, due to the diversity of teaching forms and methods, the content of lessons is enriched. Also, there are increased opportunities to increase control and self-control, because once you read the material again, you can immediately correct an error and try to use several solutions to solve a problem. Media technologies are convenient to determine the level of topic mastering by students, for the evaluation of knowledge, for the understanding of errors, for analysis and the ways of their correction.

The use of media technologies helps teachers to develop new methods and techniques, carry out the restructuring in the pedagogical system, work in a new way, changing the work style. This poses special challenges for the organization of the pedagogical process and its management. The use of innovative media technologies during Tatar language and literature lesson means a new organization of the educational process. Its important tasks are the awakening of interest in a subject, the development of cognitive activity, the creation of mutual understanding and mutual assistance atmosphere in the process of communication, the disclosure and the development of creative abilities among students.

Tatar language is one of the most authoritative languages of the world stage. Therefore, it has the full power to serve as a state language to his people, preserving and respecting it. The perfection of the native language, its development is a serious and an important task of state significance. The main way of the Tatar language application expansion is the increase of the necessary level of mastering - a qualitative, effective learning of Tatar language and literature for the students of Russian schools.

In recent years, the lessons of Tatar language and literature can not be imagined without the use of electronic textbooks and books. A teacher of Tatar language brings up the love for Tatar language among students, reveals its beauty, richness and the depth of thought; he makes students cultural, he develops...
comprehensively and educates a person. Therefore, a teacher remains a student's main trust, helping to find his place in life.

Conclusions
The acquaintance with new technologies and their use during lessons, the study of methodological literature that provides creative development, the continuation of search activity are the prospects of a modern teacher of Tatar language and literature.

As the result of the mentioned above, it should be noted that there are sufficient technologies that promote the development of the educational process in pedagogy.

A teacher's duty is not to get lost among the new trends, but to seek and use the most successful options to explain teaching material. At the same time, a teacher should remember about the need to match new technologies to each other, about their successful interaction. And most importantly, we must remember the following: traditional technologies help to memorize 40% of the teaching material, modern technologies - 85%. We have revealed the level of media education model use in the Tatar language teaching process within the experiment. The experiment was supposed to reveal the frequency of Internet resources, audio-video materials, media texts application in Tatar language; The views and discussions of films and performances in Tatar language; the visiting of museums and exhibitions dedicated to Tatar public figures of culture and arts, writers, poets and composers; the use of video lessons within the online program "Ana TV" (Online School EF-ANA TELE), etc.

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Audiovisual Translation In The Linguistic Discourse

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Abstract
Nowadays more and more movies are released every year. Unfortunately for non-English speaking people, Hollywood and other American companies are the leading movie producers in the world. Thus, these films should be translated and dubbed before hitting the Russian screens. There are a lot of translation aspect that should be taken into account. For example, defining the right genre is important to use the appropriate lexical and stylistic units typical of this genre. This study is devoted to the peculiarities of audiovisual translation from English into Russian and Spanish. The relevance of this work is to consider the translation and interpretation aspects in the field of the film and animation industry, which is in high demand nowadays. The purpose of the work is to find out the degree of influence of translation transformations on the adequacy of translation on the material of the cartoon cartoon series. The practical significance of the study is that it can be useful in the classroom for practical translation courses in language universities.

Key words: audiovisual translation, translation equivalence, text adaptation, lexico-semantic transformations, lexico-grammatical transformations.

Introduction
In recent years, the phenomenon of cinema discourse has been the object of various studies and numerous discussions. Many researchers question its existence on the grounds that the cinematography does not have some features typical of verbal communication. In most cases, we are talking about the absence of a limited number of values unambiguously assigned to the signs, i.e. cinematographic dictionary.

The term "audiovisual translation" is usually understood as the translation of feature and animation films. Audiovisual translation as a process includes interlingual literal adaptation of the original script with the further rhythmic, audio or subtitle overlay. Audiovisual translation is divided into two groups: intralingual and interlingual.
1) Intralingual Audiovisual Translation - In this kind of translation the source language is the same as the target language. Used for the blind, deaf, live subtitling and surtitling for the opera and theatre.
2) Interlingual audiovisual translation - This translation type is used to translate TV programs and films. The interlingual translation can be either visual which is known as subtitling, or aural, in which case the whole soundtrack is replaced.

It is considered that the most common types of audiovisual translation are subtitles, dubbing and voice over.
Subtitles are traditionally subdivided into 4 groups:
1) Intralinguistic (intralingual) - this kind of subtitles is also called vertical: the perceptual modality changes (oral speech turns into written text)
2) Interlingual (interlingual) - the so-called diagonal type of subtitling, in which both perceptual modality and language change;
3) open - non-optiional, being an integral part of a film or TV program;
4) Hidden (closed) - optional, presented in the form of teletext, viewing is possible when using the appropriate decoder.

Dubbing most commonly refers to the replacement of the voices of the actors shown on the screen with those of different performers speaking another language, which is called "revoicing" in the film industry. Voice-over translation is divided into 3 types:
1) VO (Voice-over) - single-voice offscreen translation
2) DVO (Dual voice-over) - Two-voice offscreen translation
3) MVO (Multi voice-over) - Multi-voice offscreen translation

Each of these translation techniques has its pros and cons.

Deviations from direct dictionary equivalences are often observed in the translation process. In such cases, translators resort to the use of translation transformations, which serve to transform the internal form of a lexical unit or its complete replacement in order to preserve the meaning of a statement. Various theories suggest different types of transformations but the most common ones are the following types of transformations: lexical, semantic, grammatical, syntactic, stylistic. These transformation can be used either separately or combined with each other.

We chose the American adult animated sitcom "South Park" (Russian "Южный Парк") as the material for the study analysis. During the translation transformations analysis, we used the original English series, as well as its official translation into Spanish and Russian. The study used the series "You Have 0 Friends". (Russian: "У Вас 0 Друзей", Spanish "Tienes 0 Amigos").

methods
The main methods used in this research are as follows: the method of random sampling, comparative analysis, translation and quantitative analysis. These methods allowed us to identify and summarize the main facts, opinions and assumptions regarding the research topic. The obtained data has become reliable material for further discussion, analysis, systematization and presentation of conclusions on the work done.

Results
The pre-translational analysis of the text means "... the first fundamental stage of translation activity, consisting in identifying the features of the source text that are important for translation and allowing to develop a translation strategy and choose methods and tools for its implementation". The quality of the translation itself depends on the quality of the pre-translational text analysis [1].

Pre-translational analysis of the film allows taking the overall communicative, pragmatic, its aesthetic function and even phrases that are key in an adequate understanding of the film into account. The pre-translational analysis falls into 3 stages:
1) Watching the film as a spectator
2) Collecting of all available information about the film, its plot, characters, characters, creators: comments, comments, interviews, etc. If the film has literary sources, a translator should also get acquainted with them: for example, to identify well-established translations of names and terms.
3) Analytical viewing implies that the translator has the full text of the movie (most often subtitles). At this concluding stage, the significance of each unit of information gathered at the previous stage and its
impact on the translation strategy is determined, the language features of the characters of the film are defined, and the information that is irrelevant to the adequate translation is cut off [2, 3].

In the film translation process, deviations from direct dictionary correspondences are often observed. In such cases, translators use translation transformations, which serve to transform the internal form of a lexical unit or its complete replacement in order to preserve the content of a statement. The most common in various theories are the following types of transformations: lexical, semantic, grammatical, syntactic, stylistic. The data of the transformation can be used either separately or combined with each other. Lexical transformation is the replacement of some units of a source language (SL) with lexical units of a target language (TL) which have a meaning different from the lexical units of the source language. The syntactic functions of individual words and word combinations in the sentence change during a lexicosemantic transformation [4].

Among the lexical transformations, it is possible to distinguish such types of transformations as addition, omission, transpositioning and half-calque [5].

Addition is defined as a lexical transformation, when many semantic elements that are not expressed but implied in the source language must be represented by introducing new lexical units in translation.

The omission is opposite to the addition and involves the refusal to transfer redundant words into translation semantically, the values of which turn out to be irrelevant or may easily be restored from the context.

Transpositioning is a change in the arrangement (order) of the language elements in the translation text as compared to the original text. Elements that can be rearranged are usually words, phrases, parts of a complex sentence (clauses) and independent sentences in the text’s structure [6].

Half-calque is a way of translating the lexical unit of the original text by replacing one of its constituent parts, e.g. the morpheme or the word (in the case of stable phrases) by lexical matching in the TL.

Among lexicosemantic transformations, it is possible to distinguish such types of transformations as modulation, generalization, and concretization [7].

Modulation or a semantic development is the replacement of a word or a word combination by a unit of the TL, the value of which is logically deduced from the meaning of the original unit. Most often, the values of the correlated words in the original and the translation turn out to be connected by the cause-and-effect relations [8].

Concretization is the replacement of a word or a word combination with a broader meaning by a word and a phrase with a narrower meaning. As a result of the application of this transformation, the created correspondence and the original lexical unit turn out to be in the logical relations; the identity unit expresses the generic concept, and the identity unit is the species concept entering into it [9].

Generalization is the replacement of a unit of SL having a narrower meaning, with a unit of the TL with a wider meaning.

обсуждение (discussion)
Let us consider two groups of translation transformations that we discovered during the analysis of this series, namely lexical and lexicosemantic transformations.
The following lexical transformations were used while translating the series: addition, omission, transpositioning and half-calque.

Let us consider the following example of addition:

- Hey kid, how come you ignored my friend request?
- [looks at him like he's crazy] I don't know you! -
- Эй ты, почему ты проигнорировал мой запрос?
- Я вообще вас не знаю!
- ¿Oye, por qué ignoraste mi petición de amigo?
- ¡Tú no lo conoces!

A lexical unit вообще (at all) was added to the Russian translation of the statement to intensify the meaning. This transformation is not observed in the Spanish translation.

The next example illustrates updating a Facebook status. The translator added the phrase My status in the Russian translation to convey the implicit meaning of the original utterance.

Randy Marsh is at work right now. Work is boring.

– Мой статус: Рэнди Марш на работе. Работа отстой.
– Randy Marsh está trabajando. Es aburrido.

Omission is directly opposite to addition and it is used to skip semantically redundant units in the translation, when the meaning of is irrelevant or easily restored in context. [10, p. 54]. For example, Noo, I told you guys I don't wanna be on Facebook!

– !No, no quiero estar en Facebook!
– No, no quiero estar en Facebook!

In the next example of the Spanish translation the phrase "fine dude" was omitted since its absence does not affect the meaning of the sentence in any way. In the Russian translation, the phrase "Alright, fine dude" was transformed to "Господи, да и пожалуйста" which does not contradict the meaning:

Alright, fine dude, you don't have to add any friends. You can just be like Kip Drordy.

– Está bien, no tienes que añadir ningún amigo. Puedes ser como Kip Drordy.
– Господи, да и пожалуйста, можешь никого не добавлять. Будешь как Кип Дрорди!

The next translation transformation represented in the series is transpositioning. A characteristic feature of this transformation is the change in the order of language components in the text. Words, phrases, and parts of the complex sentence (clauses) and independent sentences in a sentence are often subjected to transpositioning. [10, 11].

But you just don't wanna, add me, as a friend?

– Да, но в друзья ты меня добавить не хочешь?

Among the lexico-semantic transformations, we can distinguish such types of transformations as modulation, generalization and concretization. Let us consider an example of modulation:

I've got more friends than Kyle! I've got more friends than Kyle!

– А я круче Кайла! У меня больше друзей!

As we can see, in the Russian version, the translator refused to reuse the sentence, replacing it with another, the meaning of which is a logical consequence of the meaning of the original unit. It should be noted that in the Spanish version this phrase has been translated by the method of word-for-word
translation preserving the repetition of the sentence ("Tengo más amigos que Kyle!" Tengo más amigos que Kyle!).

In the example below, we can see that the phrase "I was on my computer at work" was logically modulated to "Я с работы зашел в интернет", which is acceptable from the TL's point of view.

Hey Stan, I was on my computer at work and saw that you have a Facebook page now?
Стэн, я с работы зашел в интернет и заметил, что ты завел страницу на Фейсбуке.

In the Spanish series, we again faced the literal translation of the phrase. («Oye, Stan, usé la computadora en trabajo y vi que tienes una página en Facebook»).

In the following example, generalization is used when the slang expression "to have a ball" is replaced by a unit with a more general meaning "веселиться". In the Spanish sentence, the slang expression was also replaced by the more neutral verb "divertirse", meaning "having fun":

Sounds like you boys had a ball! –
Похоже, вы отлично веселитесь!

Por lo visto se divirtieron mucho.

In the example below, we see that the verb "to check out" is replaced by a translation unit with a more general value of "ver" ("look, look"). In the Russian version “Конечно, загляну! И ты на мою заходи!” the verb "заходи" also looks more neutral than “check out”.

I'll visit your farm! You should check mine out too! –
¡Visitaré tu granja! ¡Debes ver la mia!

In the example below, the phenomenon of instantiation is traced:

You can message your friends or play Yahtzee with your friends. –
Puedes enviar mensajes o jugar Yahtzee.

Here a unit of translation with a narrower meaning of “кости” replaces the name of the game “Yahtzee”.

For the Russian-speaking viewer, the transcribed version of "Yeatsi" would not reveal the meaning of the game. In Spanish, there is the equivalent of "Generala", but the translator decided to leave the name without translation.

выводы (Summary)

The results of the research allow us to summarize the following:

1. Translation of audiovisual texts occupies a special position among other types of translation. Despite having been neglected by translatology scholars until very recently, it can be regarded as a separate branch of linguistics.

2. There is a number of factors that need to be considered by a translator in order to achieve the maximum translation adequacy and relevance. They are as follows:

A) Genre accessory
B) Character and vocabulary peculiarities of a movie characters
C) Target Audience
D) Air time (the later the film is shown, the more informal vocabulary can be used to translate it, for example, taboo or slang expressions)
3. The main types of audiovisual translation can be divided into 2 large groups: re-voicing and subtitling, which, in turn, are divided into smaller subgroups.

4. The most frequently used types of audiovisual translation are subtitles, dubbing and voiceover.

5. As a rule, when translating an English audio-visual text into Russian, a greater number of translational transformations is applied due to the significant differences between languages.

6. When translating an English audio-visual text into Spanish, fewer transformations are used and a literal translation takes place. This is due to the similarities of the given languages in grammatical structures and vocabulary.

Заключение (conclusions)

Characteristic features of audiovisual translation were dealt with to demonstrate its particularity and uniqueness within the field of translation studies.

Drawing a conclusion, we can say that the translation of film and video products has a number of its specific features. It is impossible to make an adequate, high-quality and correct translation without taking those features into consideration. The problem of correct audiovisual translation has not yet been fully studied and solved yet, which calls for further and more detailed and in-depth study of it.

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Список Литературы (Bibliography)
Abstract
This article deals with Russian and Tatar emotive phraseological units picked out from different lexicographic sources that were qualified in accordance with the negative attributes that characterize the person reflected in them. A comparative analysis of phraseological units with the lexeme «сердце/йәрәк» (heart) representing negative emotions is carried out in the paper. An attempt to reveal the general and specific in two different-system languages is made.

By virtue of a number of objective factors and many feelings and emotions, it is impossible to consider the semantics of all phraseological units, as a result of which the paper analyzes emotive phraseological units, representing, in our opinion, the most expressive and rich in their internal form negative emotions.

Keywords: emotive phraseological units, the lexeme «сердце»/йәрәк», multi-structural languages, comparative analysis, negative emotions.

Introduction
An important place in linguoculturology, as the review of scientific literature indicates, is the actual problem for philology—the representation of emotions in language. Despite the fact that modern science today includes more than 20 different theories of emotions and a large number of foreign studies (G.Vignaux, 2012; H.Barkema 2012; RGibbs 2012, G.Lakoff, 2012, etc.), emotions remain relatively little-studied concepts in Russian Linguistics[10 - 14]. At the present time, there is no single theory of emotions in either psychology, psycholinguistics, or linguistics. It should be noted that the language symbols of emotions have not been practically studied by native scholars in terms of linguistic culture, which makes it difficult to study their linguospecific structure and functioning in different linguistic communities, in different cultures.

In modern linguistics, much interest is taken in comparative analysis of languages, an anthropocentric paradigm is formed, language is considered not only within the framework of its communicative-cognitive function, but also as a kind of ethno-cultural code for individual linguistic cultural communities [1].

As R. A. Yusupov points out, a comparative study of the phraseological units of the Russian and Tatar languages gives ground to assert that they, although generally regarded as phenomena characterized by national originality, are not currently restricted to only one language [8].

In our study, we will try to give a complex analysis of emotions from the standpoint of the phraseological foundation of the two languages. Phraseological units are the most laconic, vivid, imaginative, expressive, effective language universals, in which the centuries-old experience of knowledge, culture, traditions and realities of each people is laid. They contain the wealth that is passed down from generation to generation, and which is the most mysterious area of language, it is impossible to penetrate.
into the depths without knowing the language, its phonetic, morphological, lexical, grammatical structures, that is, the language competence of the person, and the knowledge of reallies of the environment, peace, that is, language competence.

**Materials and Methods**

As a result of the analysis of monolingual and bilingual phraseological dictionaries, we have revealed Russian phraseological units with the lexeme «сердце» (heart) and Tatar phraseological units with the lexeme «йөрөк» expressing negative emotions. This analysis made it possible to single out the most frequent phraseosemantic group (“сердце/йөрөк (heart) - strong experiences”), into which other negative emotions were combined according to the contiguity of their synonymous relations (suffering, dismal or impaired mood, the state of being upset, sadness, melancholy, sadness, excitement, uneasiness, anxiety, exaltation, grief, despair). The distribution of phraseological units was carried out on the basis of their identification by separate lexemes, word combinations or detailed descriptions in lexicographic sources, the presence of common integral semes in their semantics.

The predominance of “negative” emotive phraseological units over “positive” ones is explained by a more acute and differentiated emotional and verbal-cognitive reaction to negative phenomena. D. O. Dobrovolsky notes that “concerning the phraseological system, it is safe to say with confidence about the dominant role of negative evaluativity not only in terms of variety and differentiation of names, but also in terms of number of phraseological units” [3]. The results of our study also confirm this fact.

The methods of linguistic research used in our study are determined by its purpose, tasks and the nature of the material. The following research methods were used to solve the tasks: conceptual analysis (in the study and description of the lexeme «сердце»/«йөрөк» / heart), component analysis (in revealing the conceptual features), the method of semantic definition (in interpreting the meanings of phraseological units), the method of correlation of linguistic and social phenomena, comparative-comparative method (in revealing universal and specific characteristics of phraseological units with the concept «сердце»/«йөрөк» / “heart”, representing the negative emotions), the descriptive method (in describing the results obtained during the study). Interpretation of the material and results of the research also required the use of elements of the distribution and quantitative methods of analysis.

**Results and Discussion**

It should be noted that the main distinguishing features of the general and specific in the emotive phraseological units of different languages are their correspondence or lack of correspondence in terms of meaning and image. The phraseological units, which correspond to both in the meaning and the image, and therefore also in the intensity of the expressed feelings and expression, are the common means of these languages. Phraseological units, based on different images and expressing different meanings, are considered as specific means of correlated languages. Common phraseological units assume the exact or approximate correspondence of their components to the basic nominative meaning. In specific phraseological units, on the contrary, their individual elements usually do not correspond to the basic direct meaning [9].

We have studied the most frequent group of phraseological units with the lexeme «сердце» (heart) in the Russian language and «йөрөк» in the Tatar language, that express negative emotions, analyzed examples of phraseological units, their contextual realizations in fiction, and revealed common and specific features in the two languages being compared.
Cardiac arrest emergency is said to happen when a man feels a strong emotional upset: Russian сердце (heart) in the Russian language and Tatar йөрәк (heart) in the Tatar language are central organs of circulation, which is characterized by such physiological properties as “heartbeat”, “rhythm”, “pressure”. It determines the work of all other organs of the human body, it nourishes, gives life, if a person worries or is upset, the rhythm of the heart as a body organ becomes more frequent.

In the phraseological units of the languages being compared, the concept of “сердце”/“йөрәк” (heart) any discomfort feels like physical pain of the sense of loneliness, fear, etc.: Russian сердце колотится (heart pounding) - Tatar йөрәк дөп-дөп тибә, Russian сердце стучит (heart throbs) - Tatar йөрәк кага, Russian сердце ёкает, сердце шалит (heart misses a beat, heart fails) - Tatar йөрәк көгөлән әң тора, Russian сердце резит (heart cuts) - Tatar йөрәк кисә, йөрәк кәркрыла.

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Russianserdi̇ce кровоточит (one’s heart is bleeding) - Tatar йөрәкъ яна тама mean strong feelings of compassion, concern, or grief, where the blood is a symbol of vital force.

Undoubtedly, an enormous number of examples of Russian phraseological units with the lexeme «сердце» and Tatar phraseological units with the lexeme «йөрәкъ» representing negative emotions, is indicative of the direct connection of heart with a feeling of love, with love experiences and pangs, yearning, longing for close people, for example: Russianserdi̇ce разрывается (one’s heart is breaking) - Tatarйөрәкъ везена, Russianserdi̇ce горит - Tatarйөрәкъ яна.

This generality is determined by common features in the artistic thinking of the speakers of the Russian and Tatar languages. Intense feelings (in mind or heart), when the functions of the repository of emotional experiences are given to the soul and heart, are inherent in both Russian and Tatar peoples.

In contrasting languages, the verbs are actively used when describing negative emotions in phraseological units with the lexeme «сердце» / «йөрәкъ» (“heart”) in the group “сердце/йөрәкъ(heart) / strong feelings”, which just gives intensity, dynamics, and processuality to the very experience. The very lexical meaning of these verbs (either sharpness, activity of movement, or sincerity) points to the absence of any kind of rest. The lexeme «сердце» (“heart”) in the Russian language and the lexeme «йөрәкъ» in the Tatar language indicates an object in which there is no this balanced state, that is, rest. According to N. A. Krasavsky, this is explained by the fact that verbs due to the dynamism of their semantics are more effective, more adequate in encodingemoiogenic situations [4].

Specific for Russian linguculture is the association of strong feelings in emotive phraseological units with the concept «ад» (“hell”), as well as with the image «мышь» (“mouse”): the phraseological units ад кромешный на сердце, мышь на сердце скребёт speak about the strong and heavy sufferings of man.

And also in Russian phraseological units, such specific verbs as давить (на сердце) pressure (on the heart), защемило (сердце) pinched (heart), подступает (к сердцу) (comes to the heart), which show low state of mind, are often used.

The emotive phraseological unit пронзить сердце (to pierce the heart) is specific for the Russian language to describe the state of great excitement, intense emotion because of the feeling of love.

In the Tatar language, however, we observe an active, variable use of the lexeme «ут» (огонь / fire). It is known that this lexeme in the Muslim religion is used to designate hell - a symbol of anxiety and evil. The lexeme «ут» (fire) is used in the Tatar phraseological units with different kinds of verbs, for example: йөрәкъ ут кабынды (кабынды) (literally, сердце загорелось / the heart is on fire), йөрәкъ ут кайны (literally, в сердце огонь кипит / the heart boils with fire), йөрәкъ ут тшткет (literally, в сердце огонь опустился / in the heart the fire fell), йөрәкъ ут салу (ар) (literally, поджечь огонь в сердце / set fire to the heart) - about the feeling of melancholy, sadness, grief, that depresses the person.

In the Tatar linguistic culture, one cannotstink, eat «йөрәкъ» for example, the emotive phraseological units йөрәкъ несемегу (literally, ушипнүү сердце), йөрәкъ её (literally, есть чё́л-ли бо сердце) mean repentance, grief or anxiety.

In the Tatar language, the specific phraseological units are as followсйөрәкъ кара кан тшткет (literally, чёрная кровь опустилась к сердцу / black blood sank to the heart), йөрәкъ кара кан тулдым (literally, сердце наполнилось чёрной кровью), йөрәкъ канлы тарак белён тарау (literally, расчёсываться сердце расчёской, которая в крови), which mean painful feelings, suffering, irreparable loss, slander and are used with the lexemes кара» («чёрный» / black), «канлы тарак» («расчёска, которая в крови» / a comb that is in the blood).
In the Tatar language one can observe the equating of an object to a human being and the likening of an inanimate object to an animate person. The names of these shifts can be manifested in the languages equally, and specifically [8]. In our case, the verbs «чемету» (ущипнуть / pinch), «ашау» (есть / eat) acquire a metaphorical use with the same meaning: йөрөңө чемету (literally, ущипнуть сердце), йөрөңө ашрау (literally, есть чье-либо сердце).

The phraseological unit йөрөңө түрөн сыйзлату (literally, ранить сердце / wound the middle of the heart) mean strong inner feelings and is a specific phraseological unit in the Tatar language.

In the Tatar lingvoculture, love feelings are associated with the lexemes «үт» (огонь / fire), «май» (масло /oil) and are used with different types of verbs, which is specific to the Tatar language, for example: йөрөңө үт салу (literally зажечь огонь в сердце / light a fire in the heart), йөрөңө май сыйзлату (literally, масло сердца излилось / the oil of the heart was poured out), йөрөңө үт алды(literally, сердце охватил огонь).

It is interesting that the lexeme «май» in Tatar emotive phraseological units occurs very often, expressing a variety of emotions, for example: йөрөңө май баскан (literally, масло сердца излилось / the oil of the heart was poured out) -deep feelings, йөрөңө май баскан (literally, сердце обросло жиром / heart fattened) -indifference, йөрөңө түрөн ийи (literally, sucking the oil of the heart) – anger, represent negative emotions; йөрөңө маем (literally, масло сердца / butter of the heart) - romantic emotions, йөрөңө түрөн иү (literally, сердце перебрасывается с одного места на другое и обратно / heart is moved from one place to another and back), which is not characteristic of the Russian language.

It should be noted that the lexeme «май» in the Tatar language has several meanings, however in these phraseological units «май» is translated as «масло»/ “butter”, «жир» / “fat”. And the rendering of the lexeme «май» by the word «жир» / “fat” is observed in phraseological units with negative connotation, and the translation of the lexeme «май» as «масло» / “butter” in the phraseological units with negative and positive connotation.

In the Tatar language, when one feels strong emotions «йөрөңө» can seem to change its location, for example: йөрөңө зөвеш-тавеш калу (literally, сердце перебрасывается с одного места на другое и обратно / heart is moved from one place to another and back), which is not characteristic of the Russian language.

In Tatar linguistic culture, a specific is the phraseological unit йөрөңө төөн (төөр) утыру (калу) (literally, в сердце сел (остался) ком или узел), which denotes an anxious feeling, uneasiness, inquietude and strong excitement and is used with the lexemes «төөн» (узел), «төөр» (ком). The said above gives grounds to conclude that intense emotions in the compared languages deform the heart of man, “grip”, “torment”, “flip from one place to another”, give no rest.

As can be seen, from these examples, in two linguistic cultures, the group «сердце/йөрөңө» (heart)-strong emotions is associated with the element of fire, often with the concept of “fire” - «үт». It should also be noted that the common for emotive phraseological units of Russian and Tatar with the lexeme «сердце/йөрөңө» is their use with different kinds of verbs, which give to their semantics greater expressiveness and dynamism in the two languages.

Summary

Based on the above, we can summarize that the emotive phraseological units entering into the phraseosemantic group “strong emotions” convey a whole amalgam of negative emotions: desperation - extreme despair, a sense of hopelessness; sadness - gloomy feeling, sorrow, spiritual sorrow; grief is unhappiness;
suffering - physical or moral pain, pangs. The common to the analyzed languages is the use of different verbs in the phraseological units with the lexeme «сердце/йөрәк»/ heart, which in turn give their semantics greater procedurality/process and dynamicity. It should be noted that this is one of the most numerous groups that is distinguished by bright expressiveness, since the meaning of most Russian and Tatar phraseological units is motivated by internal images conveying behavioral response of a man.

Conclusion
It should be noted that this emotive phraseosemantic group is especially bright in the phraseological units of the Tatar language, which indicates the eastern coloring of the Tatar people and its mentality, where the soul and heart have the most important role in the world of emotions and feelings. It is characteristic of the representatives of the East to plunge into themselves, avoiding worldly problems to realize their position in the world.
The studies have shown that the phraseosemantic group “strong emotions” is the most expressive, where phraseological units have a rich internal form. In general, phraseological units of Russian and Tatar predominate in this group, including in their semantics a component that indicates pain sensations, physiological changes in the human body. This is explained by the specific nature of the state of excitement, when the negative excitation predominates.

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References
Balanced scorecard as management tools of the enterprises of a petrochemical complex “Tatneft”

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Abstract
The external environment of a modern enterprise sets constraints in the analysis of economic activity, focusing only on the financial indicators. At the same time, undeniable need make ensure the development of all sides of the business, a benchmark in the development of which specified in the system design including non-financial indicators. Balanced scorecard as, on the one hand the focus and reference point when assessing the activities of the enterprise can be powerful help system traditional reports on the performance of the economic entity. The article is devoted to the development of a balanced scorecard for the enterprises of petrochemical complex “Tatneft”

Keywords: the balanced scorecard, holding, enterprises, goals, objectives, indicators

Introduction
Monitoring of system, management process and results of economic activity of enterprises that are a part of a petrochemical complex "Tatneft" revealed some problems. These problems include lack of uniform approach and accurately certain direction in ensuring their strategic development. The conflicts of interests separating subjects of management from subjects of property, on the one hand, and another - management of a complex and its staff, prove need of formulation and cascading of accurate system of target indicators of economic activity. The last have to cover not only financial side of work of the enterprises of a complex, but also define accurate and concrete reference points of development of not economic parties of managing to which we carry social, ecological, political and so forth processes, to show relationships of cause and effect of their change.

Despite abundance of developments in the field of creation of the balanced scorecard, the problem of institutional fixing of the mentioned process’s algorithm and its results is relevant. In this regard, authors offer and prove expediency of creation of work in the following sequence: formation of the strategic map of complex’ goals; cascading the strategic map of the objectives of the complex to the levels of enterprises; definition of communication of indicators system on each level of management of a complex; installation of target values of indicators; definition of responsible persons for achievement of target values of indicators; optimization of strategic initiatives; formations of the internal institutes defining rules and restrictions in “work” of balanced scorecard.

Use of this algorithm will allow reproducing the system of indicators which values will reflect effectiveness of various parties of enterprises managing of a petrochemical complex “Tatneft”

Methods
The theoretical and methodological basis of the research represented by achievements and well-known developments of domestic and foreign scientists in the field of the problem under consideration. Their integrated use realized in the above-mentioned algorithm of research.

Logical and gnoseological analysis of the formation of balanced scorecard the company based on the using of the dialectical method of cognition. The research of essence of system of indicators of activity of the enterprise defined by need of use of a method of scientific abstraction and pair categories of dialectics. The retrospective analysis of the objectives of the petrochemical complex enterprises required the use of the historical-logical method of investigation. The achievement of the objectives set in the study based on the principles of systemativeness, interconnection and interdependence of the dynamics of socioeconomic relations associated with governance. The information base of the research provided by the corporate reporting data of OJSC TATNEFT.

Results and discussion

The purposes of management define alternative requirements to formation of system of reporting indicators. They are necessary when determining the development strategy of the enterprise: for the objective analysis of a situation in the enterprise, for assessment of investment attractiveness, financial stability etc., which is diagnostics of results of managing [1]. Despite similarity of the analyzed systems of indicators, some of their components can be not suitable for the purposes of strategic management or for operational activity, in particular, of carrying out a financial evaluation [2].

Modern operating conditions of the enterprises do not allow its management to be limited to the analysis of monetary indicators as development of their economy caused by not economic factors (ecology, the social sphere, policy, etc.) considerably. In this regard, realization of capacity of balanced scorecard, which provides transformation of vision in strategy, investment projects, feedback and training, seems reasonable.

The system includes four aspects of the enterprise activity– finance, the market and clients, internal processes, employees and infrastructure. Its balance is defined by methodology of an integrated approach to assessment of material and immaterial assets of economic entity that act as instruments of ensuring strategic development of the enterprise. The balanced scorecard strengthens the system of planning and control of realization of strategy in life at all levels of company management that is especially relevant in work of the Petrochemical complex “Tatneft” together with a set of the enterprises – its participants. [3]

Creation of the above-named system can be carried out by using of research potential of a method "ascent from the abstract to the concrete" through "cascading" which allows to define connection of strategy of each enterprise with the general strategy of a complex. [1]

Преимущества системы сбалансированных показателей определяют направление вектора исследования в сторону анализа системы целей предприятий нефтехимического комплекса «Татнефть» и разработки названной системы показателей.

Advantages of system of the balanced indicators define the direction of a research towards the analysis of system of enterprises’ purposes of a petrochemical complex “Tatneft” and developments of the called system of indicators.

Использование процедуры каскадирования позволяет исключить названный недостаток: «получить именно те цели, которые в процессе декомпозиции от самого верхнего уровня
The mission of OJSC “Tatneft” is designated as follows: "Strengthening of international and recognized positions and ensuring forward development of the company in the status of one of the largest vertically integrated Russian producers of oil and gas, oil and gas processing products and petrochemistry, thermal and electric energy on the basis of effective management of assets of shareholders, rational use of natural resources and corporate social responsibility". The mission is capacious, it covers areas of activity of the corporation and priorities in management. At the same time in it communication with strategic objectives of separately taken enterprise of the company is not traced. For example, PJSC Nizhnekamskshina which primary activity consists in production of tires. Using of the procedure of cascading allows excluding the called shortcoming: "to receive those purposes which in the course of decomposition from the most top level will be transferred to the final enterprise and by that will inform it of the mission of holding". Besides, to coordinate the strategy of the enterprises with the strategy of a complex in general. [1]

Structure of the Petrochemical complex of PJSC “Tatneft” under the direction of “Tatneft Neftekhim” Managing Company (fig. 1) includes five types of managing. The structure united by operational communications and divided organizationally - a legal form of independent functioning:

1) Production of materials and semi-finished products;
2) Processing;
3) Rendering services in repair;
4) Supply;
5) Sales of products.
Focused specialization on one type of business and dependence on other divisions of a complex causes emergence of the conflicts. These conflicts have to be resolved in the system of plans and budgets of these enterprises [4]. Accurate structuring plans and budgets of a complex defines need of identification of the centers of expenses and profits. The structuring of the plans carries out the functions of solving auxiliary (for example, supply - OOO Tatneft-neftekhimsnab). Structuring the budget carries out the functions of producing and selling finished products and obtaining operating profit to be distributed (for example, PJSC Nizhnekamskshina, LLC Plant of Truck Tires, LLC Nizhnekamsk Plant of all-steel cord tires, JSC Nizhnekamsktekhuglerod, JSC Nizhnekamsk Mechanical Plant, Kama Trading house). [5] Realization of an algorithm of structuring balanced scorecard assumes [1]:
- development of the strategic map corporations;
- its cascading on the lower levels of management and inter-level coordination;
- installation of target values of indicators;
- definition of responsible persons for achievement of target values of indicators;
- optimization of strategic initiatives;
- institutionalization of process of creation balanced scorecard.
According to model of the balanced indicators, development of the strategic map of the purposes of a complex assumes:
stage-by-stage determination of financial prospect;
- designation of interested parties in activity of a complex;
- disclosure of business processes;
- assessment of the technical and technological level of development of business, level of development of its human capital;
- determination of target values of indicators which characterize aspects of activity of the company.

At establishment of prospects of financial development activity of a complex, it is important to provide compliance of the developed system of indicators to the principles of complexity and comprehensiveness. By means of what, the system of capable it will be fullest to estimate results of managing for the period and on this basis will allow making reasonable strategic decisions. Profitability of business as criterion function of activity of a petrochemical complex "Tatneft" provided with achievement of the goals of growth of volumes of product sales and cost cutting.

achievement of the called prospect purposes "Finance" in many respects defined by action of "interested parties" of the enterprises of a complex. According to model of "a black box" the analyzed complex has "entrance" for means and objects of the labor, the human capital and information, and "exit" for a finished product (works, services). "Interested parties" are government institutions, clients, suppliers, partners, competitors [1]. The technique of the morphological analysis allows establishing connection between financial prospects of a complex and activity of interested parties (see table 1). It allows revealing "success factors" of realization of prospect "Finance".
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Financial purposes</th>
<th>Suppliers</th>
<th>Partners</th>
<th>Consumers</th>
<th>State</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increase in sales volumes</td>
<td>Increase in the scope of supply; improving the quality of materials</td>
<td>Investments in fixed assets; increase in output; adherence to work schedules</td>
<td>Lack of finished products; expansion of the market</td>
<td>Introduction of tax barriers for foreign producers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost Reduction</td>
<td>Price drop</td>
<td>Improvement of production technology; reduction of costs per 1 ruble of commercial products</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>Tax benefits</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Disclosure of prospects of development of "business processes" of the enterprises of a complex by modeling allows gaining a clear idea of the content of internal processes of the enterprise. The result of creation of functional model of business processes of the enterprises of a petrochemical complex of PJSC Tatneft with use of methodology of IDEFO presented in the figure 2. Assessment of internal potential of a complex in a section of tangible, intangible and human components allows finishing work on creation of the strategic map of a complex. At the same time, the enterprises given about tangible and intangible assets reflected in accounting reports. The characteristic of the human capital of a complex is result of functioning of HR system. [6]

The strategic map of a complex received in the course of realization of an algorithm, submitted in the figure 3.
Fig. 2. The main business process of the petrochemical complex

PJSC Tatneft
Finance

Factors of success

Interested parties

Business processes

Training, development

- Increase in profitability
- Cost Reduction
- Increase in sales volumes

- Price reduction
- Quality improvement
- Increase in delivery volumes

- Investments in fixed assets
- Reduction of costs per one ruble of commercial output
- Increased output
- Compliance with work schedules
- Perfection of production technology

- Lack of finished products
- Expansion of the market
- Tax barriers for foreign manufacturers
- Tax benefits

- Suppliers
- Partners
- Consumers
- State

- Preparation and tendering process
- Drawing up schedules of delivery
- Signing of the contracts
- Control of quality

- Design and development of tires
- Management of technical documentation
- Correction of volume depending on demand

- Coordination of the production program
- Control of quality
- Planning of volume and product range

- Business development
- Ecology and industrial safety

- Market research
- Training
- Modernization of fixed assets
- Automation of accounting
- Certification
Existence of a business and background environment of the enterprise proves a possibility of conditional division the card on spheres of "monitoring" and "management" [1]. Factors of a background environment therefore the top part of the strategic map are the purposes and indicators for monitoring are subject to monitoring. Factors of the internal environment and a business environment therefore the lower part of the strategic map characterized by area of indicators – object of management are subject to management.

The contents of the strategic map of the purposes of “Tatneft” have to gain the development and a specification in the cards of each business direction (segment) of the same name as a part of holding which definition carried out by segmentation on grocery or geographical sign, and cards of the enterprises entering it. The three-level structure of strategic maps of the purposes is as a result: the first level is devoted to the purposes of PJSC “Tatneft”, the second – its segments, the third – the separate enterprises (fig. 4).

The strategic maps of the goals of the enterprises of the petrochemical complex "Tatneft-Neftekhim" constructed according to the indicated algorithm are shown in Figures 5-8.
Fig. 5: Strategic goal map of LLC Tatneft-Neftekhimsnab
Finance

Factor of success

Increase in profitability

Cost Reduction

Increase in production volumes

Investments in fixed assets

Compliance with work schedules

Perfection of production technology

Tax barriers for foreign manufacturers

Tax benefits

Reduction of costs per one ruble of commercial output продукции

Interested parties

Managing Company

Partners

Scientific and Technical Center

State

Business processes

Coordination of the production program

Coordination of schedules of delivery

Production

Control of quality

Business development

Ecology and industrial safety

Training, development

Training

Certification
Fig. 6. Strategic map of the goals of PJSC "Nizhnekamskshina"

- **Finance**
  - Increase in sales proceeds
    - Increased output
    - Expansion of the market
    - Factor of success
      - Lack of finished products
        - Reduction of accounts receivable
      - Cost Reduction
        - Quality improvement
        - Increase in output
      - Tax barriers for foreign manufacturers
      - Interested parties
        - Consumers
        - Enterprises of the Petrochemical complex
        - State
      - Business processes
        - Signing of the contracts
        - Planning of volume and product range
        - Correction of volume depending on demand
      - Training, development
        - Market research
        - Professional development of marketers
Strategic maps of the goals of holding, its segments and the enterprises allow managers of the company, responsible for functionality, to realize processes of their cascading and definition of target indicators for all levels of managing. The lack of communication of purposes of the lower level with the purposes of the top level indicates existence of a gap in system and defines practical unattainability of the purposes of the top level [2]. It is expedient to unite set of the received indicators in groups, on those, which characterize a state; use and result of economic activity. [7]

Formalization of process can is carried out by means of the sheet in which compliance of indicators and purposes is reflected [2] (cm table 2).
Table 2

The goals and indicators of the petrochemical complex of PJSC Tatneft

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>№</th>
<th>Перспективы</th>
<th>Описание цели</th>
<th>Показатель</th>
<th>Целевые значения</th>
<th>дата</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1. Increase in profitability</td>
<td>Profitability of production,%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Finance</td>
<td></td>
<td>2. Cost Reduction</td>
<td>Expenses for one ruble of proceeds, cop.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>Increase in sales volumes</td>
<td>The growth rate of sales volumes,%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Factors of success</td>
<td>Reduced prices for input and output</td>
<td>Percent change,%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>Quality improvement</td>
<td>Coefficient of grades, decrease in the share of marriage</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td>Increase in delivery volumes</td>
<td>Growth rate, %</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td>Investments in fixed assets</td>
<td>Update rate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td>Reduction of costs per one ruble of commercial output</td>
<td>Expenses for one ruble of TP, cop.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td>Increased output</td>
<td>Growth rate, %</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td>Compliance with work schedules</td>
<td>The coefficient of rhythmicity</td>
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<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td>Perfection of production technology</td>
<td>Growth rate of output</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of finished products</td>
<td>Market share, %</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
<td>Expansion of the market</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td>Tax barriers for foreign manufacturers</td>
<td>Customs duties, %</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td>Tax benefits</td>
<td>Reduction of income tax and corporate property,%</td>
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<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
<td>Conducting tenders</td>
<td>Acceleration of the process of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Business processes</td>
<td>Task Description</td>
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<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Scheduling of delivery</td>
<td>contracting</td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>Conclusion of contracts</td>
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<td>19</td>
<td>Quality control of raw materials</td>
<td>Reducing the level of deviations from the normative characteristics</td>
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<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Design and development of tires</td>
<td>% development of new tire sizes</td>
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<td>21</td>
<td>Management of technical documentation</td>
<td>Workflow speed</td>
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<td>22</td>
<td>Correction of volume depending on demand</td>
<td>Conformity of volumes of production to volumes of demand</td>
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<td>23</td>
<td>Harmonization of the production program</td>
<td>The speed of approval of the production program</td>
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<td>Planning of volume and assortment of products</td>
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<td>26</td>
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<td>Presence of business development strategy</td>
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<td>27</td>
<td>Ecology and industrial safety</td>
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<td>Market research</td>
<td>Presence of the forecast of development of the market</td>
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<td>Training</td>
<td>Increase in the level of qualifications</td>
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<td>Modernization of production</td>
<td>Coefficient of wear</td>
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<td>31</td>
<td>Automation of accounting</td>
<td>Reducing the number of employees</td>
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<td>32</td>
<td>Certification</td>
<td>Share of certified products in total production</td>
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Establishment of target values of the selected indicators is carried out "from below up" when consolidation of indicators of the lower level allows to create values of indicators of the top level. Development of actions, planned schedules and the system of the budgets providing achievement of the planned purposes of the company - the final stage of development of the system of the balanced indicators.

Conclusions
Research potential realization of algorithm of balanced scorecard formation applicable for the enterprises of a petrochemical complex “Tatneft”. It allows developing balanced scorecard of the company that can become an accurate reference point of the movement of various aspects of enterprise activity. Besides, it allows carrying out the complex detailed analysis of efficiency of business processes in a section of each divisions of holding.

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References
The functioning of the Arab-Persian elements in the grammatical categories of a noun (based on the language of Tatar poetry of the XIXth century)

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Abstract
The article deals with the problems of grammatical development and the patterns of Arab-Persian element functioning in the language of poetic works of the XIXth century and the ratio of normativity and variation concerning the use of foreign grammatical forms in nominal parts of speech. It proposes the scientific methodology to analyze Arabic and Persian grammatical elements in the language of Tatar poetry of this period; The mechanisms of borrowed grammatical element adaptation in the grammatical aspect are defined; The peculiarities of Arabisms and persidisms development at the grammatical level are revealed.

The scientific novelty of this article is determined by a new approach to the study of Arabic and Persian elements - the description of foreign form grammatical development. In the course of the study, they stated that the language of Tatar poetry of the XIXth century is characterized by the grammatical norms of different languages: Tatar, Arabic and Persian; Heterogeneous linguistic facts in the system of poetry language become expressive or stylistic means.

In order to implement the goal and the objectives of the work, the following research methods were chosen: the method of continuous sampling; descriptive-analytical; the method of vocabulary definition analysis; comparative-historical method; comparative-typological method; comparative-historical method.

Key words: Old Tatar language, history of language, the language of poetry, borrowings, grammatical form, adaptation, Arab-Persian elements.

Introduction
Borrowings, primarily Arab and Persian one, were recorded in all stages of the Tatar language development. In the process of historical evolution, the lexical composition of a language, including the old Tatar language, is replenished with borrowings and the grammatical means of other languages. If you turn to history, you can see that for many centuries the Turkic writing and literary language was equipped with a large number of foreign lexical units and grammatical elements. At the same time, poetry was considered as the highest form of literature and "poetic works were composed in "sublime poetic style" [Yusupov A.F., 2004: 7], i.e. in the classical literary language "with an active use of Arab-Persian grammatical elements and traditional common Turkic forms" [Yusupov A.F., 2012: 99]. It seems to us that a similar phenomenon is typical for the language of Tatar poetry of the XIXth century.
The purpose of this article is to describe the grammatical development of the Arab-Persian elements in the language of Tatar poetry of the XIXth century, the determination of the ratio of norm and the variability concerning the use of foreign grammatical forms in nominal parts of speech and the features of their functioning. From this point of view, the language of Tatar Sufi poetry of the 19th century is interesting and unique [Yusupova N.M., 2014], since the language of Sufi works is characterized by the synthesis of Arabic, Persian, Chagatai and Ottoman-Turkish languages on the one hand and the main regional linguistic features on the other.

The systematic study of the Arab-Persian borrowings in the Tatar language began relatively long ago. However, the issues of the Arab-Persian elements grammatical development remained out of sight of special linguistic studies. Despite the presence of a large number of works relating to the language history of this period, the scientific methods of Arabic and Persian grammatical element analysis in the language of Tatar poetry of the XIXth century were not developed sufficiently. It should be noted that the works by F.Sh. Nuriyev studied the mechanisms of phonetic adaptation of the Arabic vowels in the process of study of the Old Tatar language history within the Golden Horde period and the medieval manuscripts of the Turkic languages [Khaphizova R.Z., 2015]. The studies by A.F. Yusupov reveal the mechanisms of lexical adaptation and the assimilation of Arab-Persian borrowings, in particular, the specifics of Sufi and Islamic terminology development in the poetic works of the XIXth century [Yusupov A.F., 2015]. The concept of the systematic description of the main features of the old Tatar language of the nineteenth century, the definitions of a norm and the variability in the grammatical categories of the language within the given period were also developed in the scientific literature [Husnutdinov D.H., 2016]. In the works by D.Kh. Khusnutdinov [Husnutdinov D.H., 2015] the lexical composition of the language of the XIXth century and the Tatar literary language as a whole [Husnutdinov D.H., 2016; Husnutdinov, D.H., 2016] is an object of study.

As our studies show, the grammatical system of Tatar poetry language of the XIX century has fixed Arabic and Persian grammatical elements, first of all, in the design of the nominal parts of speech. However, it is not possible to describe all the Arab-Persian elements used in the language of Tatar poetry of the 19th century within the framework of one article, therefore the attention is focused only on Arabic and Persian grammatical elements in the grammatical categories of a noun within this work.

Methods

In order to implement the goal and the objectives, the following research methods were chosen in the work: the method of continuous sampling; descriptive-analytical method; the method of vocabulary definition analysis; comparative-historical method; comparative-typological method; comparative-historical method.

The main research method is the descriptive-analytical method with its main components - observation, generalization, interpretation and typologization. For the purpose of a comprehensive analysis of the grammatical category of a verb, a comparative-historical method is used, it makes it possible to identify the peculiarities of the Tatar language interaction with Arabic and Persian one in the process of Sufi poetic works creation. When you reveal similar, common features, specific features of unrelated languages (Arabic, Persian and Turkic-Tatar), a comparative-typological method is also used.

Comparative-historical method was used in the analysis of semantic features of word usage concerning identified linguistic units in the diachronic aspect in relation to modern Tatar literary language.
Results
1. In the language of Tatar poetry of the 19th century the meaning of belonging is conveyed by the grammatical means inherent in the Tatar, Arabic and Persian languages. When you express the meaning of belonging, izafet structures are used often, which is the norm for the Persian and Arabic literary languages. In the language of the texts under study, these language constructs are referred to the peripheral indicators of the works under study, forming the variation of grammatical form written standard. The Persian form -am/-äm is also the stylistic variant of the grammatical forms in the Turkic affixes of belonging.

2. The grammatical means of Tatar and Arabic languages are used when the meaning of plurality is expressed in the language of Sufi texts. Thus, when you express the value of plurality, the Arabic nouns are used in the form of a "broken" plural. The borrowed grammatical elements are involved in the development of the lexical-syntactic way of the plural form expression, inherent in the Tatar literary language, which is conditioned by the written and literary traditions and genre specificity of the Tatar poetry of the period under study.

3. Thus, the language of Tatar poetry of the XIXth century is characterized by the grammatical norms of different languages: Tatar, Arabic and Persian one. In the grammar system Arabic and Persian grammatical elements are used, mainly, in the composition of nominal parts. Such mixed nature and the diversity of grammatical forms were obtained due to literary traditions of that period and the genre specificity of poetry, due to which heterogeneous linguistic facts in the language system of poetry are turned into expressive or stylistic means.

Discussion
As was noted above, the basic form of the grammatical meaning expression of all grammatical categories in the language of the poetic texts under study is the Turkic one. At the same time, grammatical means of the Persian and Arabic languages are used to convey the meaning of individual grammatical categories, which form the variation of the written norm of the language and which are peripheral attributes.

The language of Tatar poetry of the nineteenth century, conveys the grammatical meaning of belonging through the following linguistic means of Persian and Arabic languages:

1) The grammatical meaning of belonging is expressed by the addition of Persian fused pronouns. "This category of pronouns, unlike other kinds of pronouns, always adjoins the previous word, is not used independently, and can not have the main accent ... These affix-like elements correspond to personal pronouns by their meaning, but differ in their nature of use and the performed syntactic function" [Rubinchik YA, 2001: 172-173].

As in modern Persian, the fused pronouns in the language of the poetic texts under study perform an attributive function most often, expressing belonging. Belonging to the first person is transferred by borrowed pronouns -am/-äm, which differ from the Turkic affixes of belonging only phonetically: haman märde diläm qoruγ telemder [SHämsetdin Zaki shigyr'la, Sh. 95] «my heart is still dead, my tongue is dry».

Persian fused pronouns of the 1st person -am / -äm, joining the Turkic personal pronouns are used in the function of the personal pronoun 'I', i.e. Bän - män (i) + -äm (i). For example: vä anda mädädqareŋ bänäm [SHämsetdin Zaki shigyr'la, Sh. 132] "and there I am your assistant". As can be
seen from the above examples during the joining of fused Persian Turkic pronouns to personal pronouns, they are used in the function of predicative affixes.

We have documented instances where Persian fused pronouns of the 1st person, joining nouns, are used like in the Persian language in the meaning of "I", in the Tatar language they correspond to the function of predicative affixes: yaribäm, xaqdan üzgä mönisem juq [SHamsedtin Zaki shigyr'läre, Sh. 96] "I am a disabled person, I have no friend but God."

Persian fused pronouns of the 1st person -am/-äm express a pronounced emotional and expressive coloring and participate in the formation of an address: xodavändäm, sänadyr ibtihal [SHamsedtin Zaki shigyr'läre, Sh. 106] « Oh, my God, I beg you».

2) In the language of Tatar poetry of the nineteenth century, the meaning of belonging is also expressed through the use of the isaphetical combinations of Persian and Arabic languages. According to our observations, Tatar poets often use Persian inconsistent definitions - izafets that are simpler than Arabic izafet design in the course of the belonging category expression.

At the same time, linguists note that in the Persian language, various lexical-grammatical categories of words are combined with an izafet connection. The result of their values interaction, the relations of determinative, belonging, quantitative, spatial and temporal" nature appear [Rubinchik Y.A., 2001: 363].

In poetic works, izafet structures are a universal type of attributive connection. "Using an izafet, not only qualitative definitions, expressed by the names of adjectives, but also the definitions of belonging in the broad sense of the word, can be attached to the defined element, i.e. expressed by the nouns" [Ovchinnikova I.K., 1956: 71-72]. The noun, acting as the second member of the izafet phrase, acquires the value of an adjective and plays the role of an attribute. For example: küzlejä γyjbrät doryr xal¬э cihan [SHamsedtin Zaki shigyr'läre, Sh. 131] « the state of the world is an example for a person who has sight» etc.

3) Besides, the language of poetic texts fixed the expression of belonging by Arabic uncoordinated definitions. "Uncoordinated definitions are the definitions expressed by a noun in the genitive case without a preposition or with a preposition" [Kovalev A.A., 2002: 90]. As you know, such types of definitions in Arabic grammars are called isafa or izafet combinations. For example: fa şökru niγmäti allahi, — dide xaq [SHamsedtin Zaki shigyr'läre, Sh. 125] "be grateful to the gifts of the Highest," God said.

An isaphetical combination is a substantive phrase, consisting of a definition in the form of the possessive case and the defined element. As you know, the order of words in the Arabic language, in the isaphyte combination differs from the order of the words in isaphyte combination, used in the Tatar language. In Arabic, the second word also is in the possessive case. The Arabian structure is the word combination where a word is defined without an article, the definition is with the article: belgel, allah wālijü äl¬mö¬minin [SHamsedtin Zaki shigyr'läre, Sh. 125] "Know this: Allah is the patron of believers (Muslims)."

Our research allows us to state that such a way of a grammatical meaning of belonging expression by the means of the Arabic language is found in religious expressions and phraseologisms written in Arabic.

In the language of Tatar poetry of the XIXth century, when the meaning of the grammatical category of a number is expressed for a noun, the following Arabic grammatical elements are fixed:

1) In the texts under study, the expression of the multiplicity value by Arabic borrowings in the form of a "broken" plural is observed. 'The peculiarity of such a plural form is that it is formed not by the
attachment of the plural form ending to the singular form, but by the changing of the word internal structure, i.e. by the so-called internal inflexion” [Kovalev A.A., 2002: 117].

In Arabic grammar over thirty models of this type of plural formation are presented, so the language of studied works contains numerous examples of the use of "broken" plural forms. Below are the frequently used forms of this type of plural development, in accordance with the rules of pronunciation adopted in the Tatar language:

- γäläm «activity» – äγmäl «activities» [SHәmsetdin Zәki shigyr'әre, Sh. 102];
- šiγer «poem» – äšγar «poems» [SHәmsetdin Zәki shigyr'әre, Sh. 90];
- xädis «a story» – äxädis «the words allegedly said by the Prophet Muhammad» [SHәmsetdin Zәki shigyr'әre, Sh. 126];
- saxib «a friend» – äsxab «friends» [SHәmsetdin Zәki shigyr'әre, Sh. 123];
- rux «spirit» – ärwax «spirits» [SHәmsetdin Zәki shigyr'әre, Sh. 112];
- mäγnä «meaning» – mäγani «meanings» [SHәmsetdin Zәki shigyr'әre, Sh. 85];
- xäzinä «treasure» – xäzain «richness» [SHәmsetdin Zәki shigyr'әre, Sh. 91] etc.

2) The grammatical elements of the Arabic language are used in the formation of the lexical-syntactic way of the plural expression, inherent in the Tatar literary language.

As is known, in the above-mentioned way of the meaning of plurality expression, separate words expressing the concept of plurality appear as an attribute of a noun. In the study of poetic texts, the function of adverbial words, reinforcing the value of plurality, also uses the Arabic word cómlä «all» and the word of the Persian origin hämmä «all». For example: cómlä bimarnyη däwasy bondadyr [SHәmsetdin Zәki shigyr'әre, Sh. 112] «here is the drug for all injured».

The value of plurality may be transmitted by the combination of morphologic and lexical-syntactic methods, i.e. "by mixed method" of plural: çön hämmä taläbäläreη mätluby sän, çön hämmä γašyjqlaryη máxbuby sän [SHәmsetdin Zәki shigyr'әre, Sh. 132] "because you are desired for all students, because you are the favorite one for all beloved ones".

During the transmission multiplicity value the Arabic words in the form of "broken" plural within the above-noted method: nähan ulsa kiräkder cómlä äsrar [SHәmsetdin Zәki shigyr'әre, Sh. 108] "if necessary, it is important to keep secrecy in all matters", etc.

Conclusions

During the research it was proved that the language of Tatar poetry of the XIXth century is characterized by the grammatical norms of different languages: Tatar, Arabic and Persian one. In the grammar system Arabic and Persian grammatical elements are used, mainly, in the composition of nominal parts. The written literary traditions of that time and the genre specificity of poetry contributed to such mixed and varied grammatical forms, due to which heterogeneous linguistic facts in the language system of poetry turn into expressive or stylistic means.

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References
Grammatical And Communicative Method IN THE Practice Of Teaching Foreign Languages – Description, Approbation, Results And Conclusions

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Abstract
Along with the description of the various existing methods of teaching a foreign language the article describes a recently developed one - grammatical and communicative. The basic characteristics of this method and the results of its approbation in the experimental groups of students are represented. The target of this article is a detailed review of the existing diversity of methods of teaching foreign languages in Russia and description of the new one - the grammatical and communicative.

Keywords: grammar and communicative method, Schechter communicative method, teaching, grammar, international certification, experimental groups, advantages, disadvantages, formal language learning.

Introduction
Learning English today is not a hobby but a vital necessity. Nowadays World Without Borders dictates completely different rules. Hunting for a highly paid, interesting and challenging work, career growth and personal development - all this is impossible without a proper knowledge of the English language. But a few words about English itself.

Standard English, which is spoken by different accents, is a dialect and simply one variety of English among many (Trudgill, 1999). The two main varieties of Standard English (SE), which are widely taught to EFL learners in some non-native English-speaking countries, are British English (EngEng) and North American English (NAmEng) (Trudgill & Hannah, 1992). Therefore, learners of English in outer and expanding circle countries usually seek for British or American native speakers to experience native accents or the standard varieties without considering this variety is actually used or usable in their own context (Kachru & Nelson, 1996). While native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) can be regarded as speakers of Standard English or a real native speaker model, non-native English-speaking teachers (non-NESTs) may be considered as users of poor English and “bookish language” (Medgyes, 2001). So, lately, the market has been replete with educational technology offers and has been devoid of variation in English teaching methods. The subject of English teaching methodology has been thoroughly explored by Russian scholars (Abdulmanova, 1999; Galskova, 2003; Kolesnikov, 2001; Koryakovtseva, 2008; Popov, 2001). In addition, those who wish to learn English, students, and businesspeople are often puzzled while looking through advertisements of English language courses. Can we trust modern technologies? If not, should we give preference to well-established English teaching “brands?” Cambridge, Oxford, Eckersley, and The Headway are all passing into the category of “methodological classics” (Lewis, 1997).

In Russia in 2000th, English language teaching methods underwent a “revolution.” Previously, priority was given to grammar, mechanical-like vocabulary learning, reading, and literary translation. Reading texts, translating passages, memorizing new words, and paraphrasing exercises were tedious regimens occasionally varied by writing, dictation, or phonetic drills that were “breaks” in the routine. Then the communication at the lesson becomes purely superficial, without affecting the student’s personality...
(Lyubova, 2009). It is not surprising that, with the dated old school method, only a few astutely
determined and hardworking pupils were able to achieve English language fluency.

Language teaching has become an applied character, whereas earlier it used to be relatively abstract and
theorized.

But progress, variability and fundamental changes in the methods of language learning are undoubtedly
related to innovations in the field of personality and group psychology. Today we can feel a noticeable
change in the minds of people and the development of new ways of thinking: there is proclaimed
Maslow’s need for self-actualization and self-realization. The psychological factor of learning foreign
languages is promoted to the leading position. Authenticity of the communication, the weighted
demands and claims, mutual benefit, respect for freedom of others - this is a set of unwritten rules of
forming a constructive relationship in the system "teacher-student". Learners’ need analysis which
emphasizes on discovering motivation, and psychological and social needs, rather than on making lists of
individual communicative needs or linguistic items (Seedhouse, 1995) should be conducted precisely
during the English course.

As it has already noted, in the current system of globalization, the need to know a foreign language at a
high level is essential but it is not enough to speak and understand well. For training and professional
training abroad the international certificate (IELTS, TOIFL), which confirms the high level of language
knowledge of the applicant, is required. And here we are faced with a problem: the communicative
method of teaching a foreign language, which has recently established itself as the best in teaching
speaking and listening, does not imply a serious study of the grammatical material, but the last one is
essential to pass the exam for international certification successfully. In the tutorials, built on the principle
of the communicative method, we find only some brief commentaries on the fundamental questions of
grammar.

All the above mentioned factors have brought us to the need to develop a new concept, namely, a new
method of teaching a foreign language - "grammatical and communicative".

Methodology
Speaking of the methodology applied for the development of grammatical and communicative method, it
should be mentioned that the approbation in 2 experimental groups of students was useful. Testing was
conducted in 2 groups of 10 students in each, the average age of participants was 23. In the process of the
development of grammar and communicative method we used a variety of methods of pedagogical
research. Namely, at the initial stage - analysis, the methods of questioning and testing, at the
intermediate - pedagogical and piloting experiments, projective techniques, synthesis, at the final stage -
ranking methods, teacher consultation, and a control experiment. Moreover in the development of our
method of teaching foreign languages we decided to use an unconventional approach and in addition to
the empirical methods of pedagogical research it was used a theoretical one - modeling. Modeling, as it is
known, is based on a synthetic approach: holistic systems are delaminated and their functions are
studied. We carefully worked out all the stages of modeling, starting with the construction of the model,
its experimental analysis, comparison of the results of the analysis and the characteristics of the original,
detection any inconsistency between them, model adjustment, interpretation of the obtained information,
explanation of the discovered properties and relations; and finally practical test of simulation results.

Results
Speaking about the experiment we should provide data of its effectiveness. The first group of students worked using a quite popular method – communicative. The second one (experimental) studied with the use of newly developed grammar and communicative method. Experiment had been carried out for 3 months. After that students of both groups were tested for English grammar knowledge level. Students studied English with grammatical and communicative method accompanying tutorials have shown better results. Measuring the dynamics of grammar knowledge after experimental work has shown that the average index for the communicative method in the control group was 47.7% but in an experimental group with the use of newly developed grammatical and communicative one - 69, 2%, indicating the marked change in the positive side in the experimental group. Grammar and communicative method also goes back to Lozanov’s suggestopediya (Losanov, 1979), uses many elements of the methods Schechter (WMS, 2014) and Kitaygorodskaya (Kitaygorodskaya, 2009) and is based on the communicative method. However, we were guided by the following principles:

(1) grammar-communicative method should be universal. It should be well suited for both classes with students of certain specialties, and for professionals.
(2) The method must reconcile all the existing methods of teaching the language. In each session there is a phonetic training (5-10 min. depending on the level), the theory of grammar (15-20 min), conversational grammatical training (30 min.) And communication training (1 hour ).
(3) Students should be clearly focused on a specific goal and have a full understanding of what they do.
(4) The method should encourage teachers to maintain a professional level of knowledge of the language and take regular refresher courses.
(5) There must be a principle of continuity. The educational process must be continuous. Material learned in one lesson is the base for the next study.

We have developed a selection of grammar material - the author's tutorial, a new educational curriculum, and that it registered as a "know-how" by the patent department of the Kazan Federal University and is considered its intellectual property.

In short we can characterize the grammatical and communicative method as the quintessence of the popular modern methods of teaching English. Relying on high grammar course, we teach students to speak, read, write, and translate. The use of multimedia tools, educational materials «Oxford» and «Cambridge», reinforced teaching of grammar – all that together is recognized as a new methodological solution.

Discussion

Meanwhile we explain the topicality of developing a new method by considering the advantages and disadvantages of some of the existing analogues. The subject of English teaching methodology has been elucidated by a wide range of English scholars (Allen, 2003; Lewis, Hill, 1997; Thornbury, 2010; Schmitt, 2008).

And one of them - "grammar-translation or a traditional method" of teaching English. According to this method, knowledge of the language means to know grammar and vocabulary. The improvement process is understood as a movement from one grammar scheme to another. Thus, a teacher who is planning an English training course on this method, firstly should think about grammatical scheme he wants to highlight. Then, texts under these topics are selected, from them are extracted some separate sentences, and the process of training ends with an extracted sentences translation. First – from foreign language to native, then vice versa. As for the text, it is usually called artificial text in which virtually no value is
given to the meaning: not so important what you say, the point is how you say it. Catching up on the classical method, the students not only operate a wide variety of lexical layer, but also learn to see the world through the eyes of "native speaker" (Koryakovtseva, 2008).

The main disadvantage, of course, is that the traditional method creates ideal conditions for the so-called language barrier, so the man in the learning process stops expressing himself and doesn’t speak, but simply combine words by certain rules.

There is also another alternative it is the method of emotional and semantic approach created by Schechter. Schechter technique implies free communication of a teacher and students from the first classes. Full immersion in the language. The essence of the method is that the phrases and word constructions are remembered naturally. It is widely-known that presentation of new language items should be immediately followed by their practice. New knowledge needs to be integrated into existing knowledge, i.e. the learner’s existing network of word associations, what is called the mental lexicon (Lozanov, 1979).

This method has a couple of disadvantages: first, it is not suitable for studying in the mode of 2-3 times per week (i.e. "Business studies by the method of Schechter" is not simply possible), second, though people start talking very quickly, the grammar they have is weak.

In practice of teaching a foreign language there is a prototype of our method called "communicative approach", which is currently the most popular. Communicative method suggests to develop the ability to think in the target language in real-life circumstances. The teacher models the lesson as various communication situations, and encourages students to participate. Thus, the students are stimulated by the desire to speak out.

The communicative approach is based on the assertion that for the successful study of a foreign language students need to know not only the linguistic forms (i.e. grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation), but also have an idea of how to use them for the purpose of real communication.

Still, the weak link of the communicative method is the study of grammar. Many people believe that the grammar will be acquired automatically, it means that there is no need to study it separately. However, it is not fair. The study of grammar in the communicative method of teaching should occupy 30% of the study. But this knowledge is given unsystematically, often is presented in the form of a short comment. As a result, the student doesn’t understand the logic of language, and can’t use it in full.

Another serious drawback is the ignoring by the teacher the students errors. We, like the most of today’s teachers are of the opinion that we should learn to speak correctly, not somehow. In addition, according to well-known method is Penny Eure, in recent years, students ask the teachers to correct speech errors, because they are planning to pass the international exam or get a good job, or enter the university where the language knowledge should be much more fundamental than just a fluent speaking.

Well known prototype, that is, the communicative method can’t be applied in the courses "Business English for Professionals", with a good level of the spoken language we can see apparent gaps in knowledge of grammar, and that is a serious obstacle to the passing of the interview in a foreign company or the examinations for international certificate. Matsuda (cited in Baumgardner, 2006) notes that an incomplete presentation of English language may lead learners to frustration and demotivation.

Conclusion
As we have already mentioned our method was properly tested on the educational basis of Naberezhnye Chelny Institute (branch) of Kazan Federal University. The results were fixed and represented here.
Students of different specialties, studied according to our method, when testing, showed a high level of knowledge not only in the practical language skills, such as speaking a foreign language and listening, but also a strong knowledge of grammar.

Thus, we can conclude that the use of this method can satisfy the need for professional education of a foreign language for specialists and students at a higher level. Wherein new approaches to teaching a foreign language suppose that English language as a discipline should be an integral component of modern specialist training. But unfortunately we were not able to cover all aspects of grammar equally well, so the designed grammatical tutorial needs to be improved and enlarged. In addition, we could not find a reasonable balance between the teaching of all aspects of language, such as speaking, listening, reading and writing so as a priority in our methodology is given to grammar and speaking fields. In the proposed program of study there is an obvious lack of training exercises in reading and writing, these imperfections are the foreground tasks, requiring further refinement. Thus, we’ll have a slather and a lot of work to be properly done in order to improve the developed know-how.

Acknowledgements

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References:

Development Of Students’ Language Competencies Within The Framework Of Their Self-Education

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Abstract
At the present time, based on the factor of expanding international contacts and in general modern socio-economic realities, the sociocultural context of studying foreign languages has begun to change noticeably in our country. This is connected, in particular, with the growth of both the actual educational and self-educational function of a foreign language, its professional importance and hence the importance of strengthening the motivation to study it. This provision also determines important indicators of the formation of foreign professional self-education effectiveness of the university itself. First of all to these indicators we include the following: 1) the achievement in the university community of agreements on the development of foreign language education in all areas of training for the future specialist; 2) the presence of developing university links in the field of foreign language education in the areas of training (regional, federal and international with teachers, students, specialists from different universities, organizations, institutions, enterprises); 3) positive dynamics of development of language competencies of students as a component of their professional competence; 4) positive dynamics of the results of self-educational activity of students. In the course of the study, the results of the experimental work testify to the effectiveness of methodological support for the development of students’ language competencies within the framework of their self-educational activities.

Keywords: the educational space of the university, university students, a foreign language, self-educational activities, language competencies, teaching methods, methodological techniques, foreign-language communication.

1. Introduction
1.1. Actualizing the problem of development of students’ language competencies within the framework of their self-education
Before the higher education there was always a problem of students’ readiness formation for a constant self-educational activity, including the mastering foreign languages. And this, to some extent, leads to the fact that the education system has to focus on new types and forms of activity. This is especially related to the teaching of a foreign language in the context of self-education of students.
In this study we focus on the ability of young people to learn languages, the ability to self-learn, self-education, etc. In this regard, the acquired skills are already the result of one or another activity related either to education in the university, or to the current educational level of the student, or to the process of self-education. The relevance of this study lies in the fact that self-education assumes a certain level of development of goal-setting and autonomy of the individual, which is inherent in such processes as self-instruction (self-directed, self-determined and self-organized learning).
The indicator of foreign language education in the university is the language competence of students, manifested in their ability to solve general cultural problems and professional tasks with using language tools (selection and presentation of special materials, annotation, translation, participation in the project in the specialty). At the same time, the formation of significant language competencies in the field of professional activity occurs in the course of the learner’s active doing within the relevant professional context.

1.2. Status of a problem

In recent years, various pedagogical studies have been carried out on the problem of active methods of teaching English in the university, for example, the authors E.V. Pomanisochka (2008), G.A. Kitaigorodskaya (1992). The problem of the methodology of teaching foreign languages is actualized by Ya.M. Kolker (2002), N.D. Gal'skova, N.I. Gez (2004). The studies of V.V. Safonova (2006), Yu.V. Manukhina (2006), analyze linguistic, sociolinguistic, sociocultural competencies. The problem of forming foreign language competence was studied by such scientists as G.V. Elizarova (2002), G. Gubaidullina et al. (2016). The formation of foreign-language professional competence and the development of methodological approaches, technologies for teaching a foreign language were studied by A.A. Valeev & I.G. Kondratyeva (2015), L.V. Pokushalova (2011), I.G.Kondratyeva, A.A.Valeev, N.Y.Madyakina (2015). In the framework of teaching language and speech competence there are works by the authors of M.N.Vyatutnev (2014), A.V. Soboleva (2009). The problem of communicative competence is considered in the works of D. Hymes (1972), I.G. Kondratyeva, A.A. Valeev et al. (2015). Of great importance is the research on self-education in the study of foreign languages by such authors as AA. Pligin (2008), Yu.A. Semenchuk (2013), TN. Korotenko (2014).

1.4. Hypothesis

The development of language competencies among students in the framework of their self-education will be effective if: 1) the teaching of a foreign language will take into account the interconnection of students' knowledge, abilities and skills in the context of their foreign-language speech activity on the basis of constant readiness for the development of their abilities; 2) a productive relationship between the development of students’ language competencies and their self-educational activities will be created; 3) the pedagogical bases of using methodological methods for the formation of language competencies among students will be determined; 4) in the course of high school practice the main criteria of the development of language competences of students will be observed as much as possible; 5) the student’s need to have experience of self-improvement in his own methods of self-learning will be taken into account.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. The tasks of the research

The tasks of the research are: 1) To define the concept of "self-education of students"; 2) To identify the nature and characteristics of "language competencies"; 3) To substantiate the effectiveness of the interrelation of development of students’ language competencies with their self-education; 4) To identify the main criteria for the development of students’ language competencies; 5) To generalize the use of methodological methods for the formation of students’ language competencies.

2.2. Theoretical and empirical methods

To solve the tasks, the following methods were used: Theoretical: study, generalization, analysis of literature on pedagogy, psychology and methods of teaching foreign languages; concretion;
interpretation; method of analogies. Empirical: pedagogical experiment; pedagogical observation; questioning, testing, interviewing. Statistical: methods of mathematical and statistical processing of research results; computer methods of processing the results of the experiment.

2.3. The trial infrastructure and stages of the research

The basis of the study was The Institute of Management, Economics and Finance of Kazan (Volga region) Federal University. The study was conducted within the framework of training students specializing in "Foreign Language". An experimental check of the possibilities of the interrelation between the development of language competencies and self-educational activity was carried out. Verification of the criteria for the development of the language competencies of students and the registration of research results were carried out.

3. Results

3.1. Methodological approaches of students' language competencies development

The research has shown that the effective development of the system of language requires a set of methodological approaches, which is a certain educational resource focused on achieving a concrete result—the formation of a language personality. We propose the following methodological methods: the integrity of cognitive activity; the systemic nature of foreign knowledge and skills; the integration of academic disciplines; the intensification of teaching a foreign language; the communicative and pragmatic use of language competencies; autonomy when mastering a foreign language.

3.2. The procedure and results of the experiment

To carry out the experimental work, we have formed 2 groups of students (20 students each of the 1st and the 2nd courses) of The Institute of Management, Economics and Finance of Kazan (Volga region) Federal University. Continuously in the course of the experiment we analyzed and summarized the results of the effectiveness of the methodological methods developed by us for the formation of students' language competencies. Then we studied the level of students' self-educational activity in their study of a foreign language. This was reflected in the students' maps of the dynamics of the development of language competencies, as well as in the process of questioning and processing the results. In the experiment two positions were examined: 1) The dynamics of students' development of language competencies; 2) The level of self-educational activity of students in the study of a foreign language. To identify indicators we used various methods: observation, conversation, interviews, self-analysis, self-evaluation, questioning. In particular, the test questionnaire of T.D. Dubovitskaya (Dubovitskaya, 2005) was used. The choice of the 1st and the 2nd courses was determined by the need to establish whether the discovered skills of the initial level of the use of language competencies are the same for all students, or it depends on self-educational activity when learning a foreign language. The first year students were represented by a control group, the second year students were represented by an experimental group. The results of the experimental work confirmed the hypothesis. The study showed that the initial level of development of language competencies is provided by a set of certain skills related to self-educational activity, and the absence of any of these skills has a negative impact on the learning of a foreign language. Thus, the results confirmed the presence of all hypothetically isolated skills in students who reached the initial level of proficiency in language competencies.

As the experiment showed, a high level of students' development of language competencies presupposes that students have a corresponding level of self-educational activity when learning a foreign language. And the influence of individual skills associated with self-educational activity on the process of
developing language competencies is not the same. There are skills that determine the dynamics of the development of language competencies, and their absence reduces the level of self-educational activity. Thus, first of all, those skills that determine the qualitative development of language competencies were formed. Analysis of the results of the experimental work made it possible to establish the formed language competencies of the 1st year students and to compare these data with 2nd year students. The results of the experiment are shown in Table 1.
Table No. 1
Development of students’ language competencies within the framework of their self-education among students of the control and experimental groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Components of language competencies</th>
<th>The level development in%</th>
<th>Components of self-educational activity in learning a foreign language</th>
<th>The level development in%</th>
<th>Common score in%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>1) The use of language norms</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1) The ability to organize self-learning</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2) The ability to reproduce a foreign language</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2) The ability to acquire knowledge</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3) Adherence to linguistic forms</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3) The ability to carry out speech activity</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>1) The use of language norms</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>1) The ability to organize self-learning</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>56,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2) The ability to reproduce a foreign language</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>2) The ability to acquire knowledge</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>52,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3) Adherence to linguistic forms</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>3) The ability to carry out speech activity</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>55,5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of the experimental work allow us to make certain recommendations regarding the definition of the criteria for the development of students’ language competencies in studying a foreign language at a university at the initial stage.

4. Discussions
As the study of psychological and pedagogical literature has shown, the process of self-education in the formation of language competencies can go through several stages: a motivational stage (the student realizes his need for learning the language, he begins to understand the importance of languages knowledge, sets tasks of his self-educational activity); a stage of accumulation of subject experience (the student is offered a choice of options for self-acquisition of knowledge); a self-educational stage itself (the student develops his own system of language learning, comprehends the achieved results and then...
makes adjustments in his actions when learning the language material) [Coombe, 1992]. Taking into account the above, in the framework of teaching a foreign language it is reasonable to speak about the possibility and necessity of forming the communicative competence, which includes educational, sociocultural, linguistic, sociolinguistic and compensatory competences. So, developing students’ linguistic competencies in the framework of their self-education, it is important to help them to realize the search for the most important information in the content and to separate all the secondary information. At the same time, it is important that the development of language competencies is not an advantage of mastering only a foreign language; this should also take place in the native language.

5. Conclusion
From the point of view of self-education the development of language competencies becomes especially relevant when it comes from appropriate realities. In conclusion, we should emphasise that self-educational activity in the sphere of learning languages has its ultimate goals, such as: 1) the increase of students’ interest in learning foreign languages; 2) strengthening of the student’s motivational sphere formation as the formation of his personality; 3) the improvement of skills in mastering of all kinds of foreign speech activity; 4) actualization of the results of language learning; 5) the formation of professional training of the future specialist taking into account his foreign language knowledge. At the same time, as practice shows, only an individual motivated for the knowledge of foreign languages is ready to improve his self-educational skills in order to move further in his own development, thus demonstrating his needs for self-education in a foreign language. It is necessary to create conditions for students under which they can continuously improve the language, learn not only to speak it, but also to think independently. It is also necessary to train teachers adequately for joint activities with students to develop their language competencies within their self-education, as well as competent organizational and managerial support of this process.

6. Acknowledgments
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Psychoeducational Support Of Foreign Language Training 
In Higher School

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Abstract
Current trends in higher education require changes in the content of disciplines, the application of new methods and forms of organization of educational process, and the use of psychoeducational support of educational activities as a system. The purpose of this article is to review the system of psychological and pedagogical support of foreign language training in higher education. Theoretical analysis has shown that, there is no unambiguous interpretation of the pedagogical category "psychoeducational support" both in the theory and practice of higher education, therefore, the author's interpretation of this concept is presented. The article describes the structure of psychoeducational support of foreign language training in higher education; the results of implementing psychoeducational support in the educational process are given. When defining the structural elements of psychoeducational support, the authors used systematic, competence-based approaches, which allowed to consider the psychoeducational support of foreign language training as a whole system. Psychoeducational support of foreign language training as the system is based on the principles of scientific, systematic support, continuity, and prevention. Based on the author's interpretation of the notion "psychoeducational support", the structure of psychoeducational support of foreign language training is described as a set of two interacting, complementary components: psychoeducational support of foreign languages teachers and psychoeducational support of students in the process of foreign language training. The result of psychoeducational support of students in the process of foreign language training as well as foreign languages teachers are their personal, intellectual and social development.

Keywords: psychoeducational support, foreign language training, high school, components of psychoeducational support

Introduction
Modern trends in higher education require not only changes in the content of disciplines, the application of new methods [10] and forms of organization of educational process [2], but also the use of psychoeducational support of educational activities as a system. At the same time there has not been developed a holistic, conceptual understanding of the system of psychoeducational support in the higher education in Russia, only some of its components were created or developed in a number of Russian universities [6]. Currently, the problem of psychoeducational support of professional training in general and foreign language training in particular has not been developed sufficiently. When defining the notion "psychoeducational support" and the structural elements of this category as a system, the authors of the article used the system, competence, personal-activity approaches. From the point of view of the authors, the result of using psychoeducational support system is the formation of personal, intellectual and social competences of subjects of the educational process and the subjects of educational activity; the teacher and the learner, while carrying out their activities, develop themselves through it.
Psychoeducational support of foreign language training in the higher school is considered as an integral system, the implementation of which creates psychological and pedagogical conditions for the successful professional activity of teachers, as subjects of the educational process, and successful study of foreign language students as subjects of learning (educational and professional) activities, as well as for the development of each of them in the educational environment of the university.

Methods
Theoretical analysis has shown that there is no definite interpretation of the notion "psychoeducational support" both in the theory and practice of the higher education. Different researchers define it in various ways: it is the process that contains a sequence of purposeful actions of the teacher to ensure self-selection by the student when responding to educational tasks [3], and teacher's professional work aimed at providing assistance and support in individual educational process [1,7,9], and technology, including the successive stages of the teacher’s actions to ensure the learning outcomes, and the system which characterize the relationship and the interdependence of the structural elements [8].

Based on the own experience and conclusions of the authors, it seems possible to identify the pedagogical category as follows: psychoeducational support is a comprehensive whole of professional activities, aimed at personal, intellectual and social development of subjects of the educational process and subjects of educational activity, providing them with methodological and psychological support as well. A new interpretation is based on the fact that we are moving away from the conventional model of "object-subject of the educational process": the teachers and the students are active subjects of educational process, the teacher acts as the subject of the organization of the educational process and the students are in the role of subject of the educational (educational and professional) activities.

Defining the structural elements of psychoeducational support, the authors used systematic, competence-based and personal-activity approaches, which allowed to consider the psychoeducational support of foreign language training as a whole system, the result of which is the formation of personal, intellectual and social [11] competences of the subjects of the educational process and the subjects of educational activity, assuming that the student himself, his personal characteristics become the center of the process of foreign language training; the teacher and the student, carrying out their activities, develop themselves.

Results
The structure of psychoeducational support of foreign language training, from the point of view of the authors, is a set of two interacting, complementary components: psychoeducational support of foreign languages teachers and psychoeducational support of students in the process of foreign language learning.

The result of psychoeducational support of foreign languages teachers are the following:

- personal development of the teacher which helps to define the meaning of their teaching activities, enhance the importance and value of their mission, to analyze their own experience, achievements, find and fix problems in the process of learning a foreign language in proper time;

- intellectual development of the teacher implicates the ability to design and organize the process of teaching a foreign language, adapted to the specifics of a technical university and future professional activity of students, to use modern methods and forms of education;
• social development of the teacher involves the ability of a foreign language teacher to create an imaginative climate in the group, ability to interest students in the cultural heritage of the foreign speaking people with the aim of forming the respect and tolerant attitude to the foreign culture.

The result of psychoeducational support of the students in the process of foreign language learning are the following:

• personal development of the student, i.e. psychological readiness, formation of the qualities necessary for personal self-improvement and professional development;
• intellectual development of the student which involves the emotional-value attitude to foreign language training (personal importance of language training, communicative activity need, sustained motivation to enriching the intercultural knowledge);
• social development which denotes the possession of ethical and moral standards of the behaviour accepted in different cultural societies.

Discussion

Psychoeducational support of foreign language training as the system is based on the following principles [4]:

- scientific content – the use of pedagogical technologies and methods which are science-based and proved in practice;
- consistency maintenance is implemented through the unity of diagnostics, correction and development;
- continuity means that the student is guaranteed continuous support in solving problems at all stages of foreign language training;
- preventiveness, i.e. transition from response problems in the course of foreign language training to the prevention of their occurrence.

Psychoeducational support of teachers of foreign languages includes:

- improving the interaction with students in the process of foreign language training;
- management of educational and professional activities of students in the process of foreign language training;
- analysis of professional activity in the process of foreign language training with pedagogical and psychological points of view and its adjustment;
- improvement of pedagogical skills (the use of innovative technologies, interactive teaching methods);
- identify prospects for personal, intellectual and social development of the teacher.

Psychoeducational support of students in the process of foreign language training is aimed at the development of all spheres of personality (cognitive, motivational, value-semantic), the strengthening of personal qualities (goal-seeking, determination, persistence, independence, initiative, self-regulation) [5], and implies:

- methodological assistance on the part of the teacher;
- formation of psychoeducational conditions for successful foreign language learning and self-development of the students;
- psycho diagnostics and monitoring of the psychological state of the students;
- reveal of the prospects for personal, intellectual and social development of the student.
Conclusions
Psychoeducational support of foreign language training in higher school is considered as an integral system, the implementation of which creates psychological and pedagogical conditions for the successful professional activity of teachers, as the subjects of the educational process, and successful study of foreign language by the students as the subjects of learning (educational and professional) activities, as well as for the development of each of them in the educational environment of the university.

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Structural And Semantic Peculiarities Of Acronyms Of Polylexemic Nosological Terms In The Russian And English Languages

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Abstract
The relevance of the analysis of abbreviations of nosological terms in comparative aspect is caused by insufficient study of a ratio and interaction of abbreviations in medicine sublanguage in the Russian and English languages.

Scientific novelty of the research is shown on the background of insufficiency of studies on the semantic and structure of medical terminology in comparative aspect, particularly in the English and Russian languages.

The abbreviations of the Russian and English languages which are used for the nomination of diseases are chosen as the object of the given research.

The research is aimed at studying the general and specific features of acronyms of polylexemic nosological terms in Russian and English languages.

The analysis of theoretical and supporting data comprise the usage of such methods as continuous sampling method of abbreviations from scientific literature and medical dictionaries as well as their structural and typological analysis; method of statistical analysis (with statistical calculations).

Acronyms are the reduction of polylexemic terminological combinations by use of their initial letters. The total number of analyzed acronyms is 269 nominations in Russian - 63% from the total number of analyzed abbreviations, 401 nominations in English - 72% from the total number of analyzed abbreviations.

According to the articulatory characteristics, three groups of acronyms in the nosological terminology of the analyzed languages were distinguished: 1) alphabetic abbreviations (68% of the sample of acronyms in English and 65% of the sample of acronyms in Russian); 2) sound abbreviations (18% of the sample of acronyms in English and 23% of the sample of acronyms in Russian); 3) phonographic abbreviations (14% of selection of acronyms in English and 12% of selection of acronyms in Russian).

Alphabetic abbreviation is presented in the analyzed languages by three types: two-letter (39% – in Russian, 32% – in English), three-letter (53% – in Russian, 56% – in English) and four-letter abbreviations (8% – in Russian, 12% – in English).

The most part of terms are abbreviations, represented in one of the languages by the abbreviation term and in another language by the corresponding term-phrase.

The material of the study shows that the tendency to abbreviation of nosological terms is most noticeable in English.

Key words: medical terminology, acronym, nosological term, polylexemic term.

Introduction

Medical terminology is a special vocabulary which has the basic concepts of medicine as a science and sphere of professional activity. The volume of the medical lexicon includes hundreds of thousands of words and phrases as well as terminological units used in scientific medicine related to it (biology, chemistry, physics, genetics, psychology, etc.) [1, p. 41].
At the present stage of the development of terminological lexicon, the presence of abbreviated vocabulary is an integral part of medical dictionary of any language.

In the sublanguage of medicine, whether monographs, articles, descriptions, specifications, two tendencies are clearly traced: one is the use of multicomponent terminological units in the form of terminological combinations [2, p. 44], and the other is the widespread use of abbreviated forms of these units.

The creation of abbreviations is its characteristic feature in the field of modern medicine, since the need for this reception is determined by the fact that polylexemic complicated names interfere with the communication of medical specialists. The term abbreviation makes it possible to express a large amount of information with utmost brevity, on the one hand, and provides a level of encryption of medical text from non-professionals, on the other hand [3].

Abbreviation is a special way of compressive word formation, including various ways of reduction or formal compression of such initial nominative units as a word or phrase [4, p. 331]. Abbreviations are usually subjected to the most common terms. The terms abbreviations appear in the language as full terms [5].

The increased tendency to the abbreviation of terms many scientists [6; 7; 8; 9] associate with extralinguistic (the era of information explosion, new discoveries) and linguistic (the desire for language compression) factors.

Acronyms are of particular interest in the linguistic aspect, that is, terminological units which are composed of the initial letters of the original term-collocation. They are typical for scientific written discourse and they represent significant difficulties when translating English-language medical articles.

Abbreviations of nosological terms (names of diseases) in the Russian and English languages have been chosen as the research material, since a person is most commonly faced with this field of terminology.

The relevance of the analysis of the abbreviations of nosological terms in a comparative aspect is stipulated by insufficient study of the correlation and interaction of abbreviations in the sublanguage of medicine in Russian and English. There should also be noted the importance of replenishing lexicographic materials in the languages studied.

The abbreviations of the Russian and English languages used for the nomination of diseases are chosen as the object of the study.

The aim of the article is to study the general and specific features of acronyms of polylexemic nosological terms in Russian and English.

Research Methodology

Abbreviations selected from single and bilingual dictionaries, medical encyclopedias of English and Russian, from scientific literature serve as the subject matter of analysis. In the course of the study there were analyzed 986 abbreviations of polylexemic nosological terms of the English and Russian languages (428 nominations in Russian, 558 nominations in English).

The analysis of theoretical and supporting data comprise the usage of such methods as continuous sampling method of abbreviations from scientific literature and medical dictionaries, as well as their structural and typological analysis; method of statistical analysis (with statistical calculations).

Study Results and their Discussion
As the study showed, abbreviations in nosological terminology have their own structural features. Acronyms (269 nominations in Russian – 63% from the total number of selected abbreviations, 401 nominations in English – are the abbreviations of the polylexemic terminological collocations by using their initial letters: PUD (peptic ulcer disease), PS (pulmonary stenosis), IDDM (insulin dependent diabetes mellitus), DU (duodenal ulcer), CLL (chronic lymphocytic leukemia), AML (acute myelogenous leukemia); Rus. AS (aortal'nyj stenoz), GB (gipertonicheskaya bolezni), BP (bolezni Parkinsona), RMZH (rak molochnoj zhelez), OML (ostryj mieloidnyj lejkoz), SD (saharnyj diabet), etc. In this case acronyms can include not only the initial letters of words, but also elements of complex words: URI (upper respiratory tract infection), SVT (supraventricular tachycardia), ANLL (acute nonlymphocytic leukemia), ADEM (acute disseminated encephalomyelitis); Rus. BEHB (bronhoehktaticheskaya bolezni), DZHVP (diskineziya zhelchevyvodyashchih putej), ZHKB (zhelchnokamennaya bolezni), etc.

From the given material of the study it possible to distinguish three groups of acronyms according to articulatory characteristics in the nosological terminology of the analyzed languages:

1. Alphabetic abbreviations, which in the sample have 272 nominations in the English language, constituting 68% of the sample of acronyms in the English language and 174 nominations in the Russian language, representing 65% of the sample of acronyms in the Russian language, are pronounced as a set of alphabetic names letters included in them: SBE [cs-bi-i:] (subacute bacterial endocarditis), CLL [si-el-el] (chronic lymphocytic leukemia), CHF [si-enf-el] (congestive heart failure), AML [ei-em-el] (acute myelogenous leukemia); Rus. VSD [ve-es-de] (vegeto-sosudistaya distoniya), OML [o:-cm-el] (ostryj mieloidnyj lejkoz), YUA [ju-a:] (yuvenil'nyj artrit), ORZ [o:-er-ze] (ostroe respiratornoe zabolevanie), etc.

2. Phonetic abbreviations, which in the study sample have 72 nominations in the English language constituting 23% of the sample of acronyms, are pronounced not in alphabetical names of individual letters included in their composition, but as an ordinary word. Such abbreviations are usually called acronyms: AIDS [eidz] (acquired immune deficiency syndrome), CADASIL [kædæsil] (cerebral autosomal dominant arteriopathy with subcortical infarcts and leukoencephalopathy), BOOP [bu:p] (bronchiolitis obliterans organizing pneumonia), CAD [kaed] (coronary artery disease); Rus. SPID [spid] (sindrom priobretnennogo immunodeficit), BOD [bod] (bolezni organov dyhania), OREHM [orm] (ostryj rasseynannyj ehncefalomielit), SPON [spon] (sindrom poliorgannoj nedostatochnosti), HOB [hob] (chronicheskij obstruktivnyj bronhit), HOBL [hobl] (chronicheskaya obstruktivnaya bolezni'legikh), etc.

3. Phonographic abbreviations, which number 56 units in the sample of the English language, representing 14% of the sample of acronyms and 32 units in the sample of the Russian language, representing 12% of the sample of acronyms, in pronunciation combine both of the above methods: ARDS (acute respiratory distress syndrome), ANLL (acute nonlymphocytic leukemia); Rus. ORVI [o-er-vi] (ostraya respiratornaya virusnaya infekciya), SPVI [rs-pe-vi] (subklinicheskaya papillomavirusnaya infekciya), RVI [er-vi] (ostraya respiratornaya virusnaya infekciya), etc.

The alphabetic abbreviation is represented in the analyzed languages by a set of alphabetic names of individual letters included in them: AD (Alzheimer’s disease), BS (Bloom’s syndrome), PS (pulmonary stenosis), CH (cluster headache), DM (diabetes mellitus), HD (Huntington’s disease), JE (Japanese encephalitis), MD (muscular dystrophy); Rus. BP (bolezni Parkinsona), ZHT (zheludochkovaya tahikardiya), AG (arterial'nya gipertensiya), GB (gipertonicheskaya bolezni), etc.

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ZHKB (zhelchnokamennaya bolezni'), IBS (ishemieskayabolezni'serdca), LNEH (lihoradkaneyasnoej etiologii), etc.

3. Four-letter abbreviations: ADEM (acute disseminated encephalomyelitis), ANLL (acute nonlymphocytic leukemia), IDDM (insulin dependent diabetes mellitus), COPD (chronic obstructive pulmonary disease); Rus. HZHDA (hronicheskayazhelezodeficitnaya anemiya), OREHM (ostrij rasseyannyj ehncefalomieltl), NSVN (nasledstvennye sensorno-vegetativnye nevropatii), etc.

The quantitative ratio of alphabetic abbreviation types of the nosological terms being compared is presented in the following diagram:

As for the semantic features of the abbreviations under study, most of the terms are abbreviations, represented in one of the languages by the abbreviation term, and in another language by the corresponding term-collocation: URI (upper respiratory tract infection) – infekciya verhnih dyhatel'nykh putej, PS (pulmonic stenosis) – stenoz klapana legochnoj arterii, MAT (multi-focal atrial tachycardia) – mul'tifokal'naya preserdnaya tahiardiya, IDDM (insulin dependent diabetes mellitus) – insulinzavisimyyjaharnyyj diabet, DLE (drug related lupus erythematosus) – medikamentoznaya krasnaya volchanka, CHF (congestive heart failure) – zastojnaya serdechnaya nedostatocnost', AAA (abdominal aortic aneurysm) – anevrizma bryushnoj aorty, etc. Rus. BP (bolezniParkinsona) – Parkinson's disease, BEHB (bronhoekhktatcheskayabolezni') – multiple bronchiectasis, DZHVP (diskineziya zhelchevyvodyashchih putej) – biliary dyskinesia, ZHKB
(zhelchnokamennaya bolez') – cholelithiasis, OREHM (ostryj rasseyannyj ehncefalomielit) – acute disseminated encephalomyelitis, RMZH (rak molochnoj zhelezy) – breast cancer, etc.

The same medical concepts in both languages can be transmitted by various abbreviations: ORZ (ostroe respiratornoe zabolevanie) – URI (upper respiratory infection), BLD (bronholyogochnaya displaziya) – BPD (bronchopulmonary dysplasia), GEHRB (gastroehzofageal'naya refluksnaya bolez') – GERD (gastro-esophageal reflux disease), IBS (ishemicheskaya bolezn' serdca) – CAD (coronary artery disease), ORVI (ostraya respiratornaya virusnaya infekciya) – ARVI (acute respiratory viral infection), COPD (chronic obstructive pulmonary disease) – HOZL (hronicheskoe obstruktivnoe zabolevanie legkih), SLE (systemic lupus erythematosus) – SKV (sistemnaya krasnaya volchanka), AIDS (acquired immune deficiency syndrome) – SPID (sindrom priobretennogo immunodeficita), ALS (amyotrophic lateral sclerosis) – BAS (bokovoj amiotroficheskij skleroz), etc. Only in some cases it was possible to identify the complete coincidence of the abbreviations in English and Russian: AB (aspiration biopsy) – AB (aspiracionnaya biopsiya), IHSS (idiopathic hypertrophic subaortic stenosis) – IGSS (idiopaticheskij gipertroficheskij subaortal'nyj stenoz), AS (aortic stenosis) – AS (aortal'nyj stenoz).

**Results**

Abbreviation is an effective means of reducing complicated terms, since the main function of abbreviated terms is the lean principle of a complex scientific concept. The most productive ways of forming contractions can be considered initial ones. Among the selected acronyms, the predominant type of abbreviation is alphabetic abbreviations. It is represented in the analyzed languages in three types: two-letter, three-letter and four-letter abbreviations.

Most of the terms are abbreviations, represented in one of the languages by the abbreviation term and in another language by the corresponding term-collocation.

The material of the study shows that the tendency to abbreviation of nosological terms is most productive in English, which can be explained by the historically developed tendency of the English language to save language means, manifested in loss of flexions, preferential use of single- or double-syllable words, abbreviated grammatical forms.

**Conclusion**

Despite scientists call abbreviation as the latest mode of term formation, this method undoubtedly acquires more and more productivity. Abbreviation is an effective means of reducing complicated terms, since the main function of abbreviated terms is the lean principle of a complex scientific concept.

**Acknowledgement**

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**References**

Demographic Power Comparative Analysis Of The Uk Regional Languages (Welsh, Irish, Gaelic)

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¹Kazan Federal University
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Abstract
Current appreciation of linguistic diversity explains the relevance of the regional language protection and maintenance. The globalization processes make sociolinguists concern on minority languages vitality that has been reflected in large scope of literature. The paper covers the linguistic situation in the UK regions: Wales, Northern Ireland, and Scotland. The sociolinguistic methods of quantitative data analysis are applied so as to weight up demographic power of the co-official languages of the UK regions: Welsh, Irish, and Gaelic. The analysis data are synthesized in tables so as to compare the dynamics within the region. The comparative analysis of the regions presents a clear view on the language situation in the UK. Taking into account the quantitative data in each region, we propose a general forecast for further functional and demographic power of the UK regional languages. The research results are considered to be of practical use for further language planning and policy.

Keywords regional languages, demographic power, language situation, language policy, Welsh, Irish, Gaelic

Introduction
The issue of regional languages protection and maintenance is topical, nowadays. Influence of the globalization processes on minority languages can be traced in linguistic diversity decline. Nowadays, protection of regional languages is gaining international importance. Therefore, the language policy issues require a sound scientific and empirical basis that is presented by works of foreign and Russian sociolinguists: Liljergen H., Oakes L., Berardi-Wiltshire A., Wright W., Alpatov V., Mustafina J., Grishaeva E., Slavina L., Gilmetdinova A., Klokov V. and others [1-10].

Language policy is a term used to describe state/region actions; however, in sociolinguistics it is a scientific area that aims at exploring patterns for language situation development, and designing influence and control tools. In our research we go with the definition of the term introduced by Klokov V. He suggests that language policy is a conscious and targeted influence on a language functional and structural system by authorities, social institutions, classes, and etc. [10]. Language policy and language situation are in constant interaction and cannot be discussed separately. Language situation according to Mustafina J. is a combination of historically induced quantitative and qualitative features of a state/region language image viewed from the point of relevant extralinguistic factors [11]. The research focuses on comparing the language situations in three regions of the UK: Wales (Welsh), Scotland (Gaelic), Northern Ireland (Irish). The paper displays the quantitative data on the regional languages that are under protection of the European Charter for Regional and Minority Languages ratified by the UK in 2001 [12]. The current language situation in the regions and the state as a whole is a result of the language policy being undertaken by the government.
The paper examines the quantitative data of the regional languages so as to explore their demographic power that is defined as a ratio of language speakers and a total population of the region [13]. The quantitative data analysis allows us to propose a general forecast of functional power development of the UK co-official languages.

**Methods**

In the paper we applied the methods of comparative analysis, the quantitative research method, and the results of the review are synthesized in the tables. The research demonstrates the comparative analysis of the language situation in the UK. The object of the research is Welsh, Irish, and Gaelic demographic power.

**Results And Discussion**

The regional languages under our study belong to the Celtic languages. They prospered within their region and were the only means of communication for all social classes. After Anglo-Saxon invasions, each regional language was superseded by English. English was considered to be a language of power, well-being, opportunity, and intelligence whereas the regional languages symbolized poverty, barbarism, and disloyalty to the English government. Current appreciation of linguistic diversity, national and cultural identity protected the Celtic languages of the UK from extinction and brought about revitalizing them.

Wales

Census 2011 data indicate that Wales population is 2,9 mln people aged over 3 years old. According to the Census 2011 results, 73% of people aged over 3 years old have no Welsh command; 5% can understand only spoken Welsh; 19% can speak Welsh [14].

In 2015 Welsh Language Commissioner published the results of Welsh Language Use in Wales 2013/15 survey [14]. The data obtained in the survey are compared with the results of the survey conducted 2004/06 so as to trace dynamics of language functional power. The surveys are targeted at Welsh skill assessment of the Wales populace. The results display that 138,8 thsd (11%) out of the whole population can speak Welsh fluently. Considering each age group separately, we notice that the higher percentage of Welsh fluent speakers is in age group 3 to 15 (15%), the figure drops to 9% in age group 45 to 64.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Welsh fluent speakers out of the whole population, (%)</th>
<th>Age 3-15, %, within a group</th>
<th>Age 16-29, %, within a group</th>
<th>Age 30-44, %, within a group</th>
<th>Age 45-64, %, within a group</th>
<th>Age 65+, %, within a group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2004/06</td>
<td>137,3 thsd (12)</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013/15</td>
<td>138,8 thsd (11)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comparing the results of surveys 2004/06 and 2013/15 displayed in Table 1 we observe increase in number of fluent speakers by 1500 people. However, the percentage rate in 2013/15 is lower because of population growth in Wales. The highest percent is shown by respondents aged 3-15. However, in the report it is noted that we should consider the figure carefully since due to children age and development their language skills, parents could describe them either fluent or non-fluent speakers. Considerable
increase (+130,7 thsd) is marked among the respondents who speak Welsh but not fluently: 2004/06 – 225,6 thsd, 2013/15 – 356,3 thsd.

Moreover, the survey presents data on frequency of Welsh usage: 13% out of the Wales population claims to speak it daily. The figure is higher than the rate of Welsh fluent speakers (11%). We can assume that even non-fluent respondent speak Welsh in every day communication. The figure remains unchanged comparing the percentage rate, but in number we observe increase by 18,6 thsd in survey 2013/15 results (2004/06 – 342,3 thsd; 2013/15 – 360,9 thsd). The highest percentage of people who speak Welsh daily is recorded in age group 3 to 15 (24%). The percentage is similar to the percentage of people who receive Welsh medium education, according to official reports it is 22% [14].

Environment where a language is acquired is a key factor in the language power analysis. According to the survey 2013/15, 43% out of the Welsh speaking population were exposed to the language within family, 11% in daycare, 25% in primary school and 15% in secondary school.

Table 2 Language acquisition environment (by age)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Age 3-15</th>
<th>Age 16-29</th>
<th>Age 30-44</th>
<th>Age 45-64</th>
<th>Age 65+</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>79%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daycare</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary school</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (college, university, etc)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The survey results point to the fact that less people are acquired the language at home today (21% in age group 3-15), though earlier the figure was much higher (79% in age group 65+). The data obtained allow us to notice the other tendency: the figures prove the language policy and planning efficiency within the education system, as a result 42% of respondents aged 3 to 15 acquired Welsh in primary school. Comparing the figure with other age groups (of acquiring the language in primary school) and language acquisition environment we can notice that it is considerably higher in all categories, therefore, Welsh teaching in primary school is now more efficient than on other education stages. However, considering language acquisition environment and Welsh skills, we observe that 80% of those who were exposed to the language within family at early age speak it fluently, who learnt the language in daycare - 50%, in primary school - 26%, in secondary - less than 10%. Therefore, we suppose that language learning in natural environment, within family, rather than as academic subject at school is more efficient and support language functional power development.

Northern Ireland

Census 2011 results prove that Northern Ireland population amounts to 1,736 mln people aged over 3 years. According to the results, the population is linguistically diverse. The prevailed language of the region is English (96,86%), next in number is Polish (1,02%), and Lithuanian (0,36%). The Irish language is in the fourth place and only 0,24% considers it to be their native language. The assessment of the Irish skills reveals that 4,06% understands but cannot read, write, and speak Irish; 1,42% speaks but cannot write and read Irish; 0,43% speaks and reads but cannot write Irish; 3,74% writes, reads, and speaks Irish [15]. The Department for Communities (Northern Ireland) regularly conducts survey on Irish skills and
use. Today, they have published three reports on Knowledge and Use of Irish in Northern Ireland: 2011/12, 2013/14, 2015/16 [16-18].
Table 3 Knowledge of Irish by age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Total % of the Irish speakers out of the number questioned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16-24</td>
<td>Age 25-34, %, within a group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>Age 35-44, %, within a group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>Age 45-54, %, within a group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>Age 55-64, %, within a group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-64</td>
<td>Age 65+, %, within a group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011/2012</td>
<td>13 15 17 16 13 10 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013/2014</td>
<td>15 20 17 15 16 13 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015/2016</td>
<td>15 21 16 14 14 15 10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The base for surveys is over 3000 people. The results comparison shows that the number of people with Irish command (can read/write/speak/understand) has increased by 2% since 2011. Another marked trend is that the number of people of age 16-24 knowing Irish has gone up. The fact points to interest in the regional language among the youth and some success in the language planning and policy. Surveys 2011/12 and 2015/16 included a question on willingness to learn or improve Irish, the positive answers amounts to 18% and 19% respectively. However, the results show that 0% of respondents speaks Irish daily and 4% uses it at home or in public (the figure has not changed in all three reports) [16-18].

Scotland

As there is no surveys on functional power of the Gaelic language since 2011 (or has not been published by the end of 2017), in our research we compare the results of Censuses 2001 and 2011. Census 2011 reports indicates that the population of Scotland is 5,3 mln people and 87,1 thsd (1,7%) of them aged over 3 years have some Gaelic knowledge. The assessment of the Gaelic speakers skills demonstrates that 57,6 thsd (66,2%) can only speak Gaelic; 32,4 thsd (37,2%) can understand, speak, read, write in Gaelic; 23,4 thsd (26,8%) can understand but cannot speak, read, and write in Gaelic; 6,1 thsd (7%) can either read, or write in Gaelic (number of people in each group overlaps other groups numbers to certain extend) [19].

Table 4 Comparison of Gaelic language skills in 2001 and 2011 (number of people in each group overlaps other groups numbers to certain extent)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total, thsd</th>
<th>All skills, thsd</th>
<th>Can understand, thsd</th>
<th>Can speak, thsd</th>
<th>Can read/write, thsd</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>92,4</td>
<td>31,5</td>
<td>26,7</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>87,1</td>
<td>32,4</td>
<td>23,4</td>
<td>57,6</td>
<td>6,1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2011 is indicated by decrease in Gaelic speaking population by 5,8% in comparison with 2001. However, we should point to increase in number of people with “all skills” by 2,8%. The figure proves that interest in national language is growing. The review of Gaelic language skills by age in 2011 has revealed that age group over 18 has seen decline in Gaelic speakers and age group 0-17 has gained in number of Gaelic speakers. The main change is occurs in age group 5-11: from 0,91 % in 2001 to 1.13 % in 2011. Percentage growth can be justified by Gaelic learning in primary school.

The report on Gaelic language points out that at home Gaelic is used by 48,8% of respondents with “all skills” use it at home, 43,8% of those who can speak, understand, read, but cannot write in Gaelic; 40,1%
of those who can speak Gaelic; 3.6% of those who can understand Gaelic; 2.9% of those who can either read or write in Gaelic. The highest percentage of those who use Gaelic at home is marked in age group 5–11 with “all skills” – 64.7%, in age groups 3–4 and over 65 the figures are 50.7% and 54.5% respectively [19].

Summary
When comparing the regions, Wales stands out. According to the obtained data, the region is marked by growth of Welsh speaking population that are results of successful and balanced language policy. We should recognize success in teaching the regional language since increase in Welsh speakers is recorded due to school education. Despite Scotland and Northern Ireland have left behind by figures, the regions demonstrate quantitative data improvement of the language situation of the regional languages. The key difference between attitudes towards Gaelic in Scotland and Irish in Northern Ireland is that 77% of Scottish respondents admits importance of Gaelic for their national culture and heritage whereas only 49% of Northern Ireland respondents has shared this opinion about Irish. Moreover, 24% in Northern Ireland and 22% in Scotland consider their national languages crucial for preserving their national identity [20].

The topical objective of the regional governments is to promote regional language use in everyday communication but not only within the educational system. Family is supposed to play a crucial part since the statistics prove that people who were exposed to a language within their family speak it fluently and daily (eg.: 45% of those who learnt Irish at home converse in it, and only 6% of those who were not exposed to it at home) [21]. The age group examination results show interest of the young generation in their national languages. The fact points to both a successful language policy and necessity of active measures in this field since the priorities of the young generation create the basics for further language development. Creating conditions for further usage the regional languages in professional and academic life motivates the populace to learn them.

Conclusions
Taking the analysis results into consideration we can forecast further development of UK regional languages functional power. Each region presents their own pace, dynamics, and risks. Positive dynamics shown by Wales prove a strong position of Welsh in society, so we assume the number of Welsh speaking people will continue to go up, and its position in everyday and professional field will get stronger. The forecast for Gaelic is ambiguous: along with a positive attitude towards it, we observe decline in number of people knowing Gaelic. The survey and quantitative data show imbalance between those who have Gaelic command and those with a positive attitude towards language development. It confirms development of sense of national identity, however, that is not supported by real language skills. Language situation development in Northern Ireland is hard to predict. There are certain reasons for that: firstly, as a national language it takes the fourth place by number of speakers, and, secondly, almost the half of the region population does not show positive attitudes towards the Irish promotion measures in the region. One of the options for supporting Irish is collaboration with Ireland and application of its educational and other resources for maintaining the co-official language.

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Use of modern information technologies in lectures on higher mathematics

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Abstract
This article is relevant to the present problem of use of different information, including computer technologies in education. The purpose of this article is to study the possibilities of applying the modern computer technologies in higher mathematics teaching in higher education. The article consists of two sections, in which the use of interactive stands and an electronic educational resource are studied.
In the first part of the article the concept of interactive rostrum is discussed. In the lecture classes there is equipment that allows one to use the computer during the lectures. The lecturer can simultaneously display the electronic version of lectures, explain it orally from the pulpit with a touch screen with text of the lecture, accompanying the explanation with illustrations on a standard chalk board.
In the second part of the article examines the application of distance education in the higher mathematics training for students based upon the example of the course "Theory of functions of a complex variable". The author has carried out the testing of an electronic educational resource "The Theory of functions of a complex variable". This course was given in two groups. In the first group during the training of "the Theory of functions of a complex variable" e-learning resources were used, in the other group (the control one) the same training was conducted without use of the ELR.
The following results are obtained. Firstly, in the first group the average score for the class training was higher than in the second group. Secondly, the first group was more active than the second (control) one in course of extracurricular work.
Thus, we can say that the use of modern information technologies, particularly e-learning resources has a positive effect on student learning.
The article may be useful for teachers of higher and secondary schools in course of using computer technologies in the class work.

Keywords: Multimedia, information, Internet, local web, e-learning resource, the rating system.

Introduction
In recent years various information technologies used in education develop rapidly, but in the teaching of mathematics only a blackboard and chalk are often used. In some cases it is justified, because, for example, during the practice class students are expected to learn the solution of problems through their direct variants writing them on the board or in their notebooks. There is no need to turn to distant learning, as there is a possibility of an outsider’s solving the control tasks and the other student will not be able to cope with quite difficult material. But at the lectures some computerization of educational process is possible.
The problems of informatization in Math education were studied in the works of authors from different countries. So, considering the latest developments in sphere of informatization and computerization, the problems of distance learning are investigated in the works written by Anisimova T. I. [1], Mironov A. N.
and Toropov AA [2], the problems of computerization of mathematical education explored in the works of T. V. Kapustina, Popyrin A. V. & Savina L. N. [3], the problems of application of computer technology lectures according to the course of higher mathematics are studied in the article by Mironova Yu. N. [4], Jim Rubin & Manikya Rajakaruna[5] studied the training and assessment of high level thinking at the mathematics class using computer technology. Thus, the problem of informatization of education is relevant at the present time.

The author has studied the following aspects of problem of informatization in education:
1. The use of the latest multimedia equipment in teaching course;
2. The use of elements of distance education during the training courses;
3. The results of study using a rating system.

In educational process we use equipment that allows you to use the computer at the lectures. It is presented with a computer (an interactive platform) with the operating system Windows 7, Microsoft Office 2010, tools for demonstration of multimedia content. There is also an access to the Internet and local network with all common resources of university. In addition to the software, allowing the lecturer to perform manipulation with almost all files occurring in the training course, there is also corresponding hardware support.

Then let’s take an appearance (Figure 1) and the composition of the interactive rostrum (look: manual working with the interactive platform for users [6]).

![Figure 1. An interactive platform (rostrum)](image)

1. The external case.
2. Hardware cabinet.
3. A lockable door.
4. Dashboard.
5. The desktop.
6. A touch screen monitor.
7. The power switch with a key.
8. Keyboard function control of the presentation.
9. A set of interfaces (includes 3 USB connectors for connecting flash drives, as well as microphone with audio input and audio output for headphones).
10. A microphone for audio conferences.
11. The power button and mute button.
12. An outlet port 220 for connecting the laptop.
13. An outlet port Ethernet.
15. The power button and turn off button the wireless microphone.

Computer is equipped with a touch screen, a keyboard, a computer mouse, USB jacks for flash drives, a microphone, speakers (located on the perimeter of the class, which provides good audibility), a projector and automatic raise and lower of the screen. The grandstand is equipped with an uninterruptible power supply (UPS). The UPS protects the active equipment from power surges and short blackouts of the current system.

There is an authorized entering into the system.

Now we turn to the physical protection of the computer. It is made in the form of the chair, which is the computer itself inside. The teacher receives the keys and the remote control for the projector, placed under the ceiling of the auditorium. One key opens the top panel, under which is a monitor, keyboard, connectors, etc, the second key turns on the computer. Then the teacher enters a personal login and password of the teacher. The screen goes up and down from the session buttons Up/Down. Thus, it is difficult to damage the computer accidentally or on purpose.

Using these technical tools, a lecturer can simultaneously display the electronic version of lectures, to explain it from the pulpit orally using a touch screen with text of the lecture and accompanying the explanation with illustrations on the standard chalk board. That board presents in the audience at the same time with the screen. Meanwhile, students can follow the explanation of the materials from the library, and take notes from the screen of the lecture at special breaks. It is important to have an electronic version of lectures on the subject.

If we add watching training videos on the topics of the lectures, then switching the focus of understanding will be the best way of memorization of the material. Also in the end of the class it’s proper idea to view the presentations upon the previous topics made by the students with their explanations. It is important not to take a very large part of the lecture, so you need to have 10-15 minutes for this kind of activity in the end of the lecture.

During the seminars this form of activity can also be used but it is not effective enough as students must learn to solve their tasks on mathematics at that real time.

For studying computer science and related disciplines the presence of computer technology is compulsory at the lectures, laboratory classes and practical classes. But in the course of study other disciplines, such as physics, chemistry, mathematics e.t.c., practical skills cannot be replaced with specific to the standard of computer tests or distance learning, so they need to be applied comprehensively.
Methods
The leading method to study this problem is the method of experimental confirmation based on theoretical assumptions, as it allows identifying positive and negative aspects of implementation of computer technologies in the educational process.

Let us study the use of information and communication technologies in training students of higher mathematics with the example of the course "Theory of functions of a complex variable". In this case, we are speaking about such type of distance education as e-learning resources. (ELR)

The author developed the set of ELR on the topic "the Theory of functions of a complex variable", covering 50% of the lecture material. This course passed the examination and was officially presented as an educational resource on the website of the Kazan (Volga region) Federal University (KFU) at http://edu.kpfu.ru.

When you create a course based on electronic materials lecture material of the textbook "the Theory of functions of a complex variable"[7] and related workshops on the theory of functions of a complex variable [8].

This course includes (see Fig. 3):
1) The working program of the discipline.
2) Brief notes of lectures and complete course of lectures on each topic.
3) A set of practical exercises: some tasks and their solution.
4) The guidelines for the teacher and student to work with material.
5) References to electronic sources.
6) A Glossary for each topic and overall on the course.
7) A forum upon the topics of the subject.
8) Test with questions for the theoretical part of the course and practical exercises for each topic.
9) Final test on the full course.
Новостной форум
Форум по курсу "Теория функций комплексной переменной"
Рабочая программа дисциплины
Краткий конспект курса
Практикум по решению задач
Методические указания студенту
Методические указания преподавателю
Список основной и дополнительной литературы
Электронный учебник по ТФКП
Список вопросов для итогового контроля
Глоссарий
Тест по курсу "ТФКП часть1"
In this case, we take three themes as follows:

1. The plane of complex numbers.
2. Differentiation of functions of a complex variable.
3. Elementary functions of a complex variable.

Let us take for example the contents of the first topic (Fig. 4).

Students answer the questions in sections "1_1 Complex numbers and operations on them" and "1_2 Extended complex plane, Stereographic projection". The answers are provided in the file shown on the board; the teacher estimates the responses on 100-point scale. In case of positive result (more than 50 points) students solve tasks on subject, see "Tasks on Module 1".

The limit of tasks in time should be set up (applications can be accepted till a specific date). It is especially important while passing the test: there should be a small period of time for the test, which should be
announced to the students. This measure will increase objectivity in students' knowledge estimating because the test is not available until its start, so no one can see the questions and answer them. The calculation of total results in the system have been arranged conveniently: during the passage of the ELR we can see the percentage of passing resource for each particular student taking into account the points of the assignments and estimating by the teacher.

Тема 1. Плоскость комплексных чисел

Здесь рассматриваются начальные понятия Теории функций комплексной переменной: понятие комплексного числа и комплексной плоскости.

- Форум по теме "Плоскость комплексных чисел"
- Лекции по теме 1

Комплексные числа и операции над ними.

- Расширенная комплексная плоскость.
  Стереографическая проекция.

- Методические рекомендации студенту по изучению Темы 1
- Тема 1. Глоссарий
- Список литературы по теме 1
  1_1 Комплексные числа и операции над ними.
  1_2 Расширенная комплексная плоскость. Стереографическая проекция
  Задания по теме 1
Theme 1. The plane of complex numbers

It deals with elementary concepts of the Theory of functions of a complex variable - the concept of complex numbers and the complex plane.

Results

This paper examines the use of computer technology in teaching, and, in particular, the contents of the electronic course "Theory of functions of a complex variable". This course had been given in two groups of the Faculty of Mathematics and Natural Sciences. One of them used e-learning resources "the Theory of functions of a complex variable" during their training, and another group’s teaching was conducted in the traditional format (lecture and participation in the practice work without using the ELR), but also using an interactive rostrum.

In addition, both groups were given the opportunity to earn additional points through scientific-research work, by writing essays, and surfing the Internet and watching some training videos for the course "Theory of functions of a complex variable".

It the end of the semester the training has been summed up.

The group, which used for teaching electronic educational resource, showed better results in the classroom in solving tasks and in writing tests. The high scores were also shown for the whole course.
To begin with, in the first group the average score for the class training is higher than in the second group (see Fig. 5).

Secondly, the first group showed a higher level than the second (control) group, in writing articles, essays and other extracurricular work (for example, finding material online).

Figure 5. The average rate of the points for classes during the semester
If we analyze the total scores obtained after passing the exam, we will get two similar charts.
Conclusion
We covered the use of information technologies in course of teaching course "Theory of functions of a complex variable", examined the use of e-learning resources in the process of education on the example of two groups of students and analyzed their results using the point rate system.
Thus, we can conclude that the use of the ELR gives a good result in the motivation of students for class work, and especially for extracurricular activity.
In future these obtained results can be useful in new researches. This area of knowledge is growing rapidly now. For example, this subject is also referred to in works [9] and [10]. A new research for the long term will also help to verify the data obtained in this study.
The article may be useful for teachers of higher and secondary schools in course of using computer technology during the class work.

Conflicts of interests
The authors confirm that the above data does not contain a conflict of interests.

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References
The actual issues of tax federalism modernization in the Russian Federation

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Abstract
This paper examines the problems of implementing the federalism principle in tax legal relations. For the Russian Federation, the problem of distributing tax revenues and powers over the levels of the budget system is very relevant. The need for a competent distribution of tax revenues and powers between budgets in Russia is the basis of the financial well-being of the regions and the economic development of the country as a whole. The urgency of this paper is determined by the fact that in the context of solving the problems of overcoming the consequences of the financial and economic crisis and modernizing the Russian economy, it becomes necessary to increase the revenue side of budgets of all levels, to find additional sources of tax revenues aimed at strengthening the tax potential of the territories. Unfortunately, the model of tax federalism that has developed in the Russian Federation despite the reforms carried out in recent years does not fully meet the principles of federalism and the country's development strategy for the long term, and undoubtedly needs further development and modernization. At the same time, in a rule-of-law state where power is bound by the law, improvement of tax policy within the framework of constitutional law is undoubtedly connected with the strengthening of the foundations of the constitutional system. Constitutionalization of tax policy and taxation, improvement of tax administration is extremely important for the purpose of implementing large-scale programs for the constitutional development of Russian society. The decisions of the Constitutional Court of the Russian Federation testify to the significance of this activity.

Keywords: tax federalism, efficiency of tax revenues distribution, federal budget, regional and local budget, the norms of deductions, fixed taxes.

Introduction
There are now many major legal problems in the field of implementing the principle of tax federalism. Among these are constitutional and legal problems of Russian budgetary federalism, the urgent need for comprehensive study of which has intensified in recent years. The Tax Code of the Russian Federation does not contain a definition of tax federalism. But after examining the signs identified by a number of authors in financial and legal science, it would be right to understand tax federalism as a unified system of measures aimed at an equitable distribution of tax authorities between different levels of state power and local self-government and achieving a balance of interests between the budgets of different levels of governance, and observance of human rights and freedoms in the conditions of the federal system of Russia. Basic laws are necessary to effectively implement tax federalism, and they are absent, unfortunately. This gap is filled by intrastate agreements and agreements between different levels of public authority, which contribute to the concretization of general principles and directions of state, regional and national policy.
For the Russian Federation, the problem of implementing budgetary federalism is very acute. In turn, the efficiency of the tax revenues distribution between state and local budgets now requires much more attention to improve legislative regulation than it is necessary in a majority of developed countries. The construction in the Russian Federation of a well-established system for regulating the distribution of tax revenues and powers is complicated by circumstances of both objective and subjective nature. The first include the lack of sufficient historical preconditions, significant regional differences, the second is the lack of experience and theoretical developments in this field, necessary for the organization of such a system.

There is a need to systematize international experience in the field of fiscal federalism between budgets to form a holistic view of the areas on improvement of this sphere in Russia.

Materials and methods

The theoretical and methodological basis of this paper was the basic concepts outlined in the works of well-known domestic and foreign economists on issues of fiscal federalism. In carrying out this study, the following methods were used: general scientific methods of analysis and synthesis, a comparative-historical method, and extrapolation.

The normative base of the research was made by the Constitution, the Budget and the Tax Codes of the Russian Federation, legislative and regulatory acts in the sphere of intergovernmental fiscal relations, data from the Federal State Statistics Service, the Ministry of Finance, the Ministry of Economic Development, and the Ministry of Regional Development of the Russian Federation. The publications of special and periodical domestic and foreign press, electronic mass media, and materials of Russian scientific and practical conferences on the problem under consideration were analyzed.

The scientific novelty of the article is in development of methodological and practical recommendations for improving the budgetary system.

The system of Russian legislation is highly centralized, since the legislative competence of regional and local authorities in the field of taxation is minimized. Regional legislation and legislation of local government do not have essential significance to regulate the distribution of tax revenues between budgets.

More than 80% of tax revenues of territorial budgets are formed due to deductions from federal taxes, basically approved by the laws on the budget [1].

Results and their discussion

Currently, in terms of decentralization of budgetary resources, Russia is almost inferior to most federal states, however, in Russia centralization of fiscal powers is observed. At the same time, federal legislation, namely the Tax Code of the Russian Federation, establishes extremely limited fiscal and budgetary powers of the authorities concerning territorial entities of the Russian Federation and local self-government bodies. In addition, the contradictions between the decentralization of budgetary resources and the formal centralization of fiscal powers are exacerbated by the existence of a number of macroeconomic problems, sharp differences in the budgetary provision of regions and municipalities, and the uncertainty of the budget status of municipalities [2].

The problem of constructing an effective model of tax federalism in Russia is due, on the one hand, to the incompleteness and imperfection of the theoretical concept of federalism, and on the other hand, to the practical questions of the organizational construction of federal relations. The modern theory of
federalism does not yet represent an integrated system of knowledge, since the discreteness of the approaches of different authors to the understanding of the economic and legal content, structure, models, principles and mechanism of the federalism functioning is still preserved. Due to these circumstances, comprehensive studies of federal relations in the field of taxes, aimed at developing common approaches to the interpretation of the essence, economic content and mechanism of tax federalism are needed. At the same time, it is necessary to reform tax system on the basis of the federalism principles, taking into account historical and foreign experience, a wide range of territorial features of the subjects of the Federation, and prospects for socio-economic development of the state [3]. According to Article 12 of the Tax Code of the Russian Federation, regional authorities are only entitled to specify the tax rate within the limits established by federal laws, and to supplement the list of benefits, to determine the procedure and terms for payment and reporting forms for the relevant tax. Unfortunately, these rights do not give the opportunity to implement the tax federalism [4].

The world practice knows three principal approaches to solve the problem of the taxes division in a federal state:

1) Assignment of taxes to a certain level of power and delineation of powers to collect taxes (the "one tax - one budget" model, or a model with "separate" taxes), i.e., each authority at a certain level of the budget system introduces its own taxes and fees on its own, or the central government provides a clear and comprehensive list of various taxes and fees (incomplete division of rights and responsibilities of various levels of government and management in the establishment of taxes);

2) Joint use of the tax base (the "different rates" model) is the combination of several tax rates independently established by different levels of government (federal, regional and local) within a certain type of national tax;

3) Shared distribution of taxes (the model of the regulatory division of taxes), i.e., a legislatively established share of that amount of a specific tax that must be collected in the corresponding territory on the basis of a common (for all taxpayers of this tax in the state) tax rate, must be credited to the budget of each level of power.

Further development and effective action of tax federalism in Russia is hindered due to a lack of its Constitutional enshrinement. The existing gaps in the Russian Federation Constitution [5] dealing with general issues of the budget, budget process, budgetary alignment and others, give rise to problems in the current legislation (conflict of norms, for example). The uncertainty of the legislative regulation content leads to a violation of the principles of equality and the rule of law.

The way out of this situation is seen in the real decentralization of the budget system, a clear delineation of fiscal authority and responsibility between federal, regional and local authorities.

The existing system of tax federalism violates the following conditions for its effective functioning:

1. Fuzzy hierarchy. The existing system is characterized by a lack of clear distinction of powers and responsibilities between different levels of authority and ambiguities regarding the procedure for the formation of local authorities.

A significant part of government activities, including all social and economic policies, is in the sphere of joint management of various levels of government without a clear delineation of the responsibilities and powers of each level, and some areas of activity that are within the jurisdiction of subnational authorities are perceived by the population and representatives of these authorities as being in the jurisdiction of federal authorities [6]. As a result, the principle of a clear division of powers and responsibilities between different levels of power is violated.
As noted by Tatyana Zatulina. "The existing legislation practically does not limit the size of the settlement on the territory of which a municipality is formed. As a result, in some regions, formation of local self-government of the settlement type occurred, when municipalities are formed not only within the boundaries of districts and major cities, but also within the boundaries of rural councils consisting of several rural settlements. This leads to emergence of a huge number of municipalities, as well as to their considerable heterogeneity in size and population". [7]

It is necessary to agree with this opinion, it is for this reason that the majority of local authorities are practically unable to implement an independent policy, and regional authorities have to form intermediate levels of authority and assume some of the powers of local authorities.

2. Absence of subnational autonomy. Regional and local authorities are legally limited in their ability to conduct an independent economic policy.

The almost complete lack of independence in determining the level of taxation and the tax base in the territory under their jurisdiction deprives subnational authorities of the opportunity to implement fiscal policy at the proper level. In their hands, there are only opportunities to form the legislative environment, allocate subsidies, and develop local infrastructure [8].

As a result, both regions and local authorities use numerous informal methods for implementing fiscal policy.

Regional and local budgets have the taxes enshrined to them, which do not have a significant fiscal significance for the respective budgets. Article 14 of the Tax Code of the Russian Federation provide the following regional taxes: a tax on the assets of organizations, a transport tax and a gambling tax; Article 15 of the Tax Code provides the following list of local taxes: personal property tax and land tax.

The share of regional and local taxes does not exceed 15-20% of all revenues of the consolidated budgets of the territorial entities of the Russian Federation. This raises the need to regulate budgets through regulatory allocations from federal regulatory taxes [9].

Inside the constituent entities of the Russian Federation, the centralization of funds at the regional level is increasing, and as a result, the own revenue base of the budgets of local self-government bodies is declining, and their subsidies are increasing. The low level of own revenues of local budgets, which is in the range of 5-8%, makes the corresponding specialists worry.

It should be noted that the main goal of tax federalism in Russia should be to expand own tax base of regions and local governments.

Summary

In our opinion, one of the effective ways to achieve this goal is to change the proportions of tax deductions from regulating revenue sources to budgets of different levels, in favor to the constituent entities of the Russian Federation. As D.A.Smirnov correctly notes "As practice shows, orientation to greater tax self-sufficiency serves as a powerful incentive for the activities of regional authorities and local self-government bodies to develop the financial and economic potential of the territories" [10].

When compiling a regional budget, its revenue structure should be fully (or at least to a large extent) controlled by the appropriate level of government. This orientation of the tax policy makes it possible to ensure not only the economic but also the political independence of territorial budgets, since the more territorial budgets are dependent on external revenues, the more noticeable the political influence on them.
Conclusion

Summarizing the above, we would like to note that the modernization of the Russian tax federalism model requires a radical revision of the approaches to delineating not only tax authority between different levels of the budget system, but also a different approach to determining the expenditure functions of various budgets. In this connection it seems expedient to:

1. Expand the list of taxes that are administered by the territorial entities of the Russian Federation and local authorities and form their own tax base;
2. Form a system of long-term standards for deductions from federal taxes that remain at the disposal of the territorial entities of the Russian Federation;
3. Distribute tax revenues taking into account social and economic norms and rates, as well as regional features of the territorial entities of the Russian Federation (i.e. the possibility of an asymmetric approach for budgetary regulation);

Having reorganized thus the mechanism of tax relations between budgets of various levels, it is possible to achieve a significant increase in the share of own revenues in regional and local budgets and thereby increase their independence, as well as a real return on the tax potential of the region.

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Literature

Tatar Literary Criticism Of The Xx-Xxi Centuries In "Lights Of Kazan": Names, Problems, Genres

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Abstract

Literary-artistic and socio-political magazine «Казанутлары» (“The Lights of Kazan”, Kazan), published in the Tatar language, is the only edition that has a 95-year history, continues its activity from the second decade of the twentieth century to the present. The magazine, perceived by the Tatar community as a continuer of traditions started at the beginning of the 20th century by the publications such as «Алгасрелджадид» (“New Century”), «Шура» (“The Council”), «Ан» (“Thought”) occupies a special place in the development of the Tatar national culture in general, literature and literary criticism, in particular. Set up in 1922 under the title «Безне юл» (“Our Road”), the magazine was published in 1933-1965 as “Soviet Literature”, and in 1965 it was given a new title “The Lights of Kazan” and has been known under this title throughout the Tatar world.

The role of the edition, which has a 95-year history in the formation of national public opinion, in rendering assistance in dissemination and promotion of Tatar literature, development of critical thought is invaluable. New works are published on the pages of the magazine “The Lights of Kazan”, both the works by the venerable Tatar writers, and the works by young fans of writing who presented their first creations before the readers. It is important that it is this journal where both critical and historical-literary materials are printed, where the literary process at a certain stage of its development, certain phenomena of national literature are studied, as well as the critical evaluationis given to the works of individual writers and individual works that are a definite contribution to the history of Tatar literature.

The study of the problems and genre classification of critical material, which has been published in the magazine for the last quarter of a century (since 1990 till the present) will provide an opportunity to follow the state of the national literary critical process of the transition period, which is the novelty and topicality of this work.

Keywords: Tatar literature; literary criticism, the magazine “The Lights of Kazan”, genres of literary criticism, problems.

Introduction

“At the turn of 20th and 21st centuries in the environment of globalization and integration of market conditions, the humanitarian thought has undergone tremendous changes, which is particularly evident in the development of national literatures. The shift of spiritual-moral as well as social-esthetical values and cultural reference points became a huge trial for the oral lore. The Tartar literature is a unique phenomenon, which has been actively evolving in the post-Soviet and inter-Russian space, providing for the growth of the national consciousness of the Tartar ethnos”. [Gilazov et al., 2015: p. 508].
The development of literature is associated with both new scientific and theoretical works and the development of critical thought. In connection with this, it is always topical to assess the current state of literature and literary criticism, which is purposed to evaluate the literary process and determine the ways for its further development [Barthes, 2007: p. 84; Culler, 1983: p. 312; Frye, 2000: 400; Eagleton, 2002: 84].

As we have noted, “Tatar literature of the second half of the 20th century is characterized by active search for new means of artistic expression, new schools and stylistic trends including intellectual realism, sentimental tradition which became targets for contemporary scientists. The difference of national literature from European and Russian, use and adaptation of European and Russian artistic trends in Tatar literature are determined not only by specific going through the stages of literary process but also the impact of local cultural substrate; related to the national worldview and manifested, first of all, in thinking specifics and artistic perception relevant to the cultural type”. [Yusupova et al., 2016, pp.: 213-222].

In the development and advancement of the literary process as a whole, literary criticism plays an enormous role, which is intended to assess literary phenomena, analyze the work of writers in the context of the history of the development of literature in general, based on the requirements of the time, the scientific and theoretical, aesthetic and ethical views of contemporaneity. At the same time, the study of the history and current state of the very literary criticism, its progress at a certain stage of development, the study of the activities of the founders of national literary criticism, and individual critics who have made a definite contribution to its development is one of the most important areas of literary criticism. The analysis of scientific and critical works published on the pages of the magazine “The Lights of Kazan” at the end of the 20th and beginning of the 21st centuries, an assessment of the contribution of this publication to the development of literary criticism, is the novelty of this work.

Methods And Materials
The object of the paper is literary-critical articles published in the magazine “The Lights of Kazan” for the past twenty years, which are considered to be “transitional” for both literature and literary criticism. This is the period of active searches in literature, when at the turn of the 20th and 21st centuries, in the context of globalization, integration and market conditions, a humanitarian thought undergoes great changes, which is especially evident in the development of national literatures.

Genre specificity, problems, poetics of individual works are considered in the context of the literary process on the whole. The article uses system, hermeneutic, structural and comparative methods of investigation.

Results
The analyzed magazine “The Lights of Kazan” gives a special place to literary criticism. Almost every issue of the magazine traditionally presents the column such as “Literary Criticism”, “Review of the Book”, “Reviews in Brief”, “The Reader’s Word”, “Jubilees”, where there is an overview of the latest literature, notices of individual works, analysis of the creativity of individual writers and other materials that have a critical focus.

Thus, tracing the critical articles published in this magazine, one can have an idea of the state of development of literary criticism within a certain period of its development.

The change of spiritual and moral, social and aesthetic values, cultural orientations was the test for verbal art. Studying the materials where the history of Tatar literature is critically evaluated, its individual
manifestations, new phenomena in national literature make it possible to trace the fundamental changes in literary and aesthetic thought that occur in “the transition period”. “The Lights of Kazan” is the main publication, where one can trace new trends in literature and literary criticism.
Discussion

Discussion of this issue is topical, since there are diverse judgments upon Tatar literary criticism at different stages of its development. The scholars consider the period of formation of Tatar critical thought at the beginning of the 20th century to be the most active period. The scholars note, “Today the scientists are particularly interested in the process of active formation and effective development of the Tatar literary criticism in the beginning of the 20th century (1906-1913) in terms of the similarities of the socio-political state, when the national critique forms and evolves as an independent science and acquires apart from the literary-esthetical function also socio-national and spiritual-ethical role. In this period the literary criticism as one of the areas of speech ethnography does not just merely uncovers the constants of the Tatar culture to the reader, it also forms self-consciousness of the Tartar intellectuals having an impact in doing so over the evolution of the Tartar ethnos as a whole”. [Gilazov et al., 2015: p. 509].


Despite this, one sees some positive changes in the literary criticism of the beginning of the 21st century, which is proved by critical works that have appeared on the pages of the analyzed magazine. Literary critic T.S. Gilazov, who studied the history of the formation and development of Tatar literary criticism, offers the following genres: review, article, literary portrait, an obituary notice, etc. [Gilazov, 2016: 254]

In the magazine “The Lights of Kazan” in the column “Literary Criticism”, there are mainly the genres of criticism such as, overview, problematic, controversial articles.

The columns “Book Review”, “Reviews in Brief” give information on new books, collections. Being source materials about newly appeared books or works of literature, they are called upon to interest the reader in reading these novelties. The column “Book Review”, which has more than five-year history, presents the samples of reviews, mono-reviews. “Reviews in Brief” are small and printed only in certain numbers, but contain interesting information, they take in a critical view of new works, mainly of young authors.

Literary-critical portraits, creative essays, which appeared on the occasion of the jubilee of writers, of mainly a survey character, give an idea of the creative path of the hero of the anniversary, aimed at revealing him as a personality.

Rarely, some issues of the magazine contain the column “The Reader’s Word”, which gives the readers’ opinions on the works published in the magazine for the first time. In addition, some issues contain the materials published under the heading “A Young Critic Has a Word”, where, accordingly, critical materials of young critics are published.

In the 1980s-1990s in the country there is a political period, the so-called “perestroika”, which ultimately influenced the development and tendency of both literature and literary criticism. Analyzing the materials published in the journal under study for the years mentioned, it can be noted that the criticism of this decade is determined by the articles covering the problem of “a positive character” in a literary work. In this connection, it should be noted that in 1985 the magazine organizes a discussion on this issue and its results appear on its pages. Literary critic F.M. Musin on this occasion writes: “Recently, the tendency to raise the question of a positive hero as one of the most burning questions has intensified” [Musin, 1985: 164-175]. Unlike the previous literary critic, critic F. Zulkarnaev argues that when
considering poetic works published in recent years, historicism as their main feature is exposed. The participants in the discussion agree that the writers of this period have not been yet able to create a hero in all his complexity, that only the searches are continuing in this direction. The magazine, debating centers on this question, draws attention of the critics, writers and readers to this problem.

During this period, the column “Reviews in Brief” appears in the magazine, where the materials are not very voluminous, but their relevance arrests attention. For example, R. Mukhammadiev’s material deals with the analysis of A. Khasanov’s collection of stories “Преданность” / “Devotion”. [Mukhammadiev, 1981: 150]. The author suggests to the writer reflecting on the genre’s sense, since despite the fact that many of the author’s works are defined as stories, in fact they refer to journalistic notes.


The 1990-2000-ies a certain update in the field of criticism, a variety of approaches to the evaluation of artistic texts is seen in the magazine “Fires of Kazan”. This period, on the one hand, is characterized by a variety of opinions, on the other hand, the loss of certain spiritual benchmarks, which also affects the development of national critical thought.

The critics, whose materials appeared in print on the pages of the analyzed magazine, urge forward to avoid formal approaches to the analysis of the literary text, to avoid the mistakes of the past decades, to approach the analysis of works based on the assessment of their ideological and aesthetic value. Interesting in this regard is the review article by F. Galimullin “What is Reflected on our Mirrors?” [Galimullin, 1991: 147-152]. As is known, during the Soviet period many works of the best writers are subjected to severe criticism, for example, “Three Arshins of the Earth” by A. Gilyazov, “Mirage” by A. Eniki and others. F. Galimullin expresses disagreement with this approach to the evaluation of works and notes that these works are the achievements of Tatar literature. Special emphasis is on the presence of national reflection in the works. In this respect, the critical articles by T. Galiullin, R. Sverigin, M. Valiev, F. Galimullin are particularly distinguished, and in the field of dramaturgy - the works by A. Akhmadullin are a new word in the field of criticism.

As is well known, in 1990-2000 Tatar literature is beyond the scope of socialist realism, the writers begin to search for new tendencies and trends. Here the article by F. Khatipov “Where our literature is moving to on the threshold of the XXI century?” [Khatipov, 2001: 115-133] can be called the programmatic where the author points out that the main criterion in the evaluation of literature should be artistry.

Monoreview by G. Gilmanov “Image, Symbol, Spiritual Codes” is a vivid example of the reflection of the renewal process in Tatar literary criticism [Gilmanov, 1999: 143-155]. Analyzing the collection of poems by G. Murat “Repentance”, the author notes that the new tendencies that took place in poetry can be assessed as the renewal of symbolism in Tatar contemporary poetry.

Attention is drawn by a review article of analytical nature by D. Zagidullina “Thoughts Related to the Storytelling Competition” [Zagidullina, 2016: 101-105], where the author analyzes the stories published over the last 2 years in this magazine and expresses a positive opinion about the very competition.

In the last decade on the pages of the magazine, the critical articles that reflected new ways of thinking about the literary heritage of the past years, as well as the modern texts, saw the light of the day. The article by F. Khatipov “New Content” is interesting in this respect, which gives a new evaluation of G. Ibrahimov’s novel of the 1920s-1930s “Deep Roots” [Khatipov, 2009: 164-167], as well as R. Batulla’s article
“What did Zuleiha See When She Opened Her Eyes?”, the novel by G. Yakhina “Zuleikha Opens Her Eyes”), published in 2016. [Batulla, 2016: 153-156]

Thus, in the year 2000-2016. Literary criticism on the pages of the magazine “The Lights of Kazan” is aimed at reevaluation of esthetic values.

Summary
Summarizing the analysis of the material, the following conclusions can be made: the role of the journal in preserving the traditions of the development of national critical thought, which began in the first decades of the twentieth century, is invaluable.

Starting from the second half of the twentieth century and up to the present, special attention is paid to critical materials in various columns of the magazine, which comprises the characteristic of the national literary process, reflects individual problems, and traces the tendencies of its development.

At the turn of the century, a new judgment about the literary heritage is being created on the pages of the magazine, where a modern view of literature is given, and changes in philosophical and aesthetic views can be traced. In the limelight of the materials there are actual problems of modern literary criticism, on account of which round tables, discussions are organized.

The analysis of the critical material being brought out over the past three decades in the journal’s pages allows us to draw conclusions about the great contribution of the publication “The Lights of Kazan” in the development of Tatar literary critical thought and enables us to trace the development of national criticism.

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Theoretical and Critical Materials:


The comparative analysis of semantic distinctions between synonymous adjectives in Tatar and English

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Abstract
Many linguistic researches are devoted to the issues of defining the valid criteria of emergence and preservation of semantically synonymous relations between words, the conditions of their system-based organization in a synonymic row. The aim of the paper is to indicate and analyze the types of semantic distinctions between synonymous adjectives in Tatar and English, thus determine features common for the two non-related languages. Based on the broad review of the theoretical data it is stated in the paper that a synonymic row represents a specific type of word relations based on the sameness / similarity of meaning and distinction. The distinctions which bear semantic, expressive and stylistic nuances, that serve to preserve gradation inside a synonymic row, are called shades of meaning. The comparative analysis of the examined data let us identify types of semantic distinctions in gradation, motivating circumstances, duration and frequency, nature of outward expression of the quality, range of described objects, semantic associations, evaluative attitude, logical emphasis, emotional coloring. We believe the paper findings may be useful for researchers who deal with contrastive linguistics, typology of non-related languages, lexicographic practice and may help those who study the English language to solve the difficulty of choosing the appropriate word in the communication discourse.

Key words: linguistics, language education, semantics, comparative analysis, synonyms.

1. Introduction
Lexical synonymy has always been the focus of linguistic researches. There are numerous works on synonymy which were carried out both by English and Tatar linguists. In English as Noyes points out, "the evolution of English synonymy ... stems immediately from the French" (Noyes, 1951) and is connected with the work of Trusler "Difference between words esteemed synonymous in the English language" (1766). In Tatar, synonymy was one of the slowly developing aspects of lexicology. It made its appearance in 1895 with Kayum Nasyiri’s well-known work "Lahjai Tatari" in which he esteemed synonymous the words from the Tatar, Arab, Persian, Turkish and Russian languages.
The first authoritative work in the field of lexical synonymy in the Tatar language belongs to Shifa Hanbikova. Her original efforts found reflection in the work “The Tatar Synonymy and Dictionaries” (1980). Hanbikova offered the treatment of synonymy in the framework of history, word-building and semasiology; indicated the relevant principles of a dictionary compilation. As a result, the first and only Dictionary of Tatar Synonyms appeared in 1999 edited by Hanbikova and Safiullina.
Thus, despite the long history of evolution and abundance of researches devoted to synonymy, there are still controversies over the valid definition and criteria of synonymy, the conditions of organizing the
words into a synonymic row, the principles of studying synonymy in separate word classes. Moreover, in Tatar linguistic science extremely little attention is given to synonymy in recent years, the research works are conducted on the fragmentary basis and in one language platform. Almost no comparative analysis based works appear, the results of which could be included into bilingual dictionaries of synonyms. The present study is an endeavor to demonstrate on a modest but essential language material the semantic differences between Tatar synonymous adjectives in contrast with their English counterparts. Thus, it could contribute to deeper understanding of the semantic variety of adjectives in the Tatar and English languages. Another reason is that it would greatly benefit the language learners or translators and would be a definite improvement over their choice of the correct word in English.

2. Materials and methods
2.1. Research objectives
In order to carry out the comparative study of semantic differences between synonymous adjectives in Tatar and English we stated the following objectives:
- to review the existing works devoted to the research topic and analyze the main approaches to studying synonymy in English and Tatar linguistics;
- using continuous sampling method, to collect the body of synonymous adjectives from Tatar lexicographic sources and determine their counterparts in the English language;
- to study the semantic structures of the Tatar and English synonymic rows, indicate the common and differential semantic properties of synonyms;
- to work out the typology of semantic differences between synonymous adjectives in Tatar and English in lexicological framework.
2.2. Theoretical and empirical methods
Our research is based on the following key methods:
- theoretical methods of analysis and synthesis, including the analysis of the theoretical literature devoted to the research problem and generating the reviewed linguistic knowledge into the relevant research approach;
- empirical methods including linguistic observation and selection of research data, which was examined in the light of comparative analysis.
2.3. Body of Data

3. Results
3.1. Similarity vs. Difference
Synonymy as one of the types of relations between words is based on similarity and distinction. Hence, two or more words could be called synonymous due to the proximity or sameness of meaning, but expressing different characteristics of one concept.

The comprehensive review of the works on the issues of synonymy allowed us to reduce the existing viewpoints into two main points:

a) synonyms are words identical in their lexical meaning and interchangeable in certain contexts, which are strictly interrelated with each other. However, such a definition of synonym brings to the forefront only the general understanding of synonymous words; the distinguishing features of each synonym turn out to be of little significance;

b) synonyms are words close in their lexical meaning, but differing with shades of meaning or expressive and stylistic features. Thus, Rakhmanov points out semantic, stylistic and grammatical distinctions between synonyms (Rakhmanov, 1961). Safiullina indicates four main aspects which make synonyms different from each other: shades of meaning, emotional and expressive coloring, morphological structure and frequency of use in active speech (Safiullina, 1999). The disadvantage of such an approach to synonymy is that it denies the existence of absolute synonyms and is focused more on distinction than on similarity of meaning.

In this case we share Yevgenyeva’s definition of synonyms as words possessing similar or same meaning, characterized by different shades of meaning, emotional coloring and stylistic characteristics or differing from each other by all these features simultaneously.

A synonymic row, being the system-based organization of words, enables to describe each concept in all the variety of its characteristics. The presence of a distinctive characteristic is an essential pre-requisite for including the word in a synonymic row. Such a synonymic row is marked by "a range of variation" starting from a dominant word with the closest synonyms to the ones with the greatest distinction. "Unclosed synonymic row is a way of the development of a language, the evolution of a language" (Bragina, 1979).

However, a debatable question arises about what it is more important in defining the synonymy of words in language: similarity or distinction in meaning. As aforementioned, many contemporary scientists support the sameness of meaning as the key principle of uniting the words in a synonymic row. Most Tatar linguists also recognize "sameness" as the main selection criterion of synonyms that goes under the titles as commonness or closeness of meaning: “synonyms express a common meaning. …Synonymous relationships are based on how close the words on their meanings (Hanbikova, 1980); “A set of words denoting the same or close meaning is called a synonymic row” (Safiullina, 2002).

Thus "sameness" isn't understood as naive "equality" or absolute coincidence of semantic structures of words. Otherwise it would be pointless to speak about the existence of synonyms in language. Being one of the types of relations of words in a lexico-semantic group, synonymy demonstrates the correlation of similarity and distinction. Other scientists point out the dialectic unity of sameness and distinction. "Each meaning-bearing verbal sign like an atom possesses two charges in itself: positive (identifying, common) and negative (differentiating, distinct)" (Ufimtseva, 1980). Therefore, it would be rational to consider "sameness" as "unity in diversity" (Bragina, 1979).

While analyzing the similarity of semantic structures of lexemes we may come to a general point that the basis of sameness distinguishes the character and frames of distinctions of the synonymous lexical units, indicates their linguistic nature. The possession of the common and distinct features within the borders of this semantic sameness is one of brightest models of the system organization of language. A synonymic
row demonstrates internal language similarities, that is, the words denoting one and the same concept aren't semantically equal to each other; their semantic structures are different from the one of a dominant word or other members of the synonymic row.

It would be right to assume that distinctive features of each synonym is of great significance and stands out as a necessary basis supporting the existence of synonyms in language. Bragina states that "powers of the language themselves supply the distinctive shades of meaning of each synonym; the very shades of meaning preserve gradation in a synonymic row, that evades any semantic, expressive and stylistic neutralization, mixture of different forms of language expression" (Bragina, 1979).

3.2. Shades of meaning

The issue of shades of meaning is inseparably linked with such notions as word and word meaning. Not all researchers, who support the traditional approach to the issue, offer the ways of addressing this terminological uncertainty. Thus, according to Alexandrov, synonymy should be determined with the help of the term sememe which is understood by him as a combination of the expressed concept and additional (stylistic, emotional, etc.) characteristics. Referring to the idea of a language context as an aspect defining a word meaning in the syntagmatic chain, the scientist suggests that since "in practical terms, words are used in a context, it is appropriate to consider synonyms not as lexemes, but as sememes" (Alexandrov, 1967). Other supporters of the traditional theory in definitions of synonymy keep on using such synonymous terms as "lexeme", "word", "word meaning" and "lexico-semantic variant".

In our research, we call a word an essential structural-semantic unit of a language, that appeared in the course of communication and serves to represent objects and their properties, other phenomena and reality relations; and possesses a tangible shape (semantic, phonetic and graphic). The terms “word meaning” and “lexico-semantic variant” are used as interchangeable elements and express content of a word conjuring up and fixing in mind the idea about an object, property, process and so on, which is a product of cogitative activity of a person, that is, they represent specific actualizations of meaning of a polysemantic word in a certain speech activity. The term “lexeme” has a broader interpretation and can be defined as a lexical unit of language system.

The term “shade of meaning” is also quite disputable in linguistics. Apresyan, considering synonyms in relation with dictionary units which bear the same conceptual content, thinks that "from logical point of view, a shade of meaning is characterized by its correlation with an insignificant feature of an object that is inherent in concept..." (Apresyan, 1995). Novikov notes that in the functional field "shade meaning" is based on individual compatibility of each synonym (Novikov, 1968). Khanbikova and Safiullina, call "shade of meaning" a semantic feature of the word, and consider it as "the unity of the features representing a concept: "Meg’nə tosmere – suzeneng semantic uzenchelege, meg’nene, toshenchene barlykka kiteruche bilgeler berdemlege ul". (Hanbikova, 1999).

It may be of interest to mention so-called "stylistic shades" (Hanbikova, 1999). Most linguists share the opinion that stylistic distinctions, even when they appear in a pure form, are always followed by semantic distinctions: "Different stylistic coloring, anyway many of its types, generate semantic distinctions quite similar to what is usually called distinctions in shades of meaning" (Apresyan, 1995). Thus, shades of meaning are distinctive semantic and stylistic characteristics which, without breaking the unity of a synonymic row, indicate the uniqueness and distinctness of each synonym. To demonstrate the given opinion, let us turn to an example. The Tatar adjectives chiber, nefis, nezekatle, kileshle are united in a synonymic row based on the meaning “beautiful”. Each synonym has a specific feature that makes it different from the rest. The adjective chiber characterizes external beauty of a person, in most cases
beauty of person’s face; the adjectives nefis, nezekatle imply elegance of style, delicacy; and kileshle can demonstrate decent manners, behavior or speech. In English the adjective beautiful has synonymous adjectives handsome and pretty. While used to describe people’s appearance, the adjectives handsome and pretty express different types of beauty. Pretty underlines small features, shape, that are pleasant to look at, lightness and freshness, lacking force and manliness. Handsome is used in the description of people larger in size and almost of any age with regular features and an attractive figure that cause romantic feelings in someone.

3.3. Types of semantic distinctions
Sometimes the most minor differences can lead to unpleasant consequences in cross-cultural communication (Nurgalieva, Motygullina, 2016). Thus, in what follows an attempt is made to explain the semantic distinctions of the synonymous adjectives in Tatar English; work out their typology. The examined data allowed us to indicate distinctions in:

1) gradation of the represented quality: kochsez = helsez = zagyif / weak – frail – feeble, iserek = kayefle – salgan – chomergen / drunk – merry – tipsy – wasted. The first example demonstrates different grades of little physical power or ability: weak / kochsez / helsez express lack of physical strength (Ilsoyar, helsez ayaklary belen alpan-tilpen atlap, etise artynnan ashykty. He was too weak to sit up), zagyif / feeble suggest extreme weakness of body, apathy or lack of strength to perform any act at all (Zagyif kymyskamym min yulda yatkan. She’s still feeble from her long illness). The synonyms in the second example are characterized by expressing different degrees of drunkenness: kayefle / merry show the effects of little alcohol, when a person is full of gaiety or high spirits (Ul bugen beraz kayefle kurena. They drank, and were merry with him), salgan / tipsy describe slightly drunk people, who cannot move properly or behave in an inadequate way from drinking (Yaratmyim salgan keshene! He was by now tired, angry and a little tipsy), chomergen / wasted suggest too much alcohol, when people are not able to move or speak at all (Tobena kadar chomergan mahrum kalyr gomerdan. He was completely wasted).

2) nature of outward expression of the quality / property: akylsyz – yuler – tile – holyksyz / mad – crazy – insane – demented – deranged. In these synonimic rows, unlike akylsyz / mad and crazy, the adjectives yuler – tile / insane point to oddity of assessment, inconsequent reasoning (an insane decision, tile suzler soileu), while holyksyz / demented, deranged may demonstrate incoherence of speech, senseless acts (хәлкылыш кылап, .. а sister became deranged and threw herself into the lake). In some cases, the Tatar synonyms yuler – tile represent lightheartedness, or extreme passion for something (yuler mahhabbat, tile uliar).

3) circumstances, motivating the quality / property: agargan – chyraie kachkan – chyraie kol kebek – tose kitken / pale – pallid – ashen – ashy – wan – livid. The adjectives agargan / pale generally demonstrate the state caused by various circumstances: hunger, illness, tiredness, strong emotions (pale face; Sin bit nigerde agargansyng, tosereng kitken. Ni buldy singa?), while tose kitken / pallid suggest extreme physical tension, strong emotional stress, but not any emotional excitement (Bu – artyk haweflanuden tose kachkan, kaudarlangan Nail Abdullin tawyshy. His pallid face reveals the strain he has been under), chyraie kol kebek / ashen, ashy, wan demonstrate the consequences of illness, hurt feelings or old age (her face looked wan after her long illness; ...koyash iashhy uk kyzdyryga karamastan, chyraie kol kebek), livid describe whiteness because of a strong negative emotion such as anger, annoyance, displeasure (her face was livid with rage).

/ steady – stable – regular. In the first synonymic row the adjectives wakyty / temporary, transient express not permanent properties, existing or lasting during a limited amount of time, which are likely to change (wakyty eshche – transient worker), az wakyty / short-lived characterize the quality lasting for a short period of time (az wakyty behet – short-lived happiness, az wakyty pauza – momentary pause), ute torgan / passing suggest the quality which are likely to go away or change in the shortest time (ute torgan konner - passing days). In the first synonymic row the adjectives totrykly / steady describe things that are developing or growing gradually in an even way (totrykly ungysch / steady progress), stable / uzgermes are used to talk about a state or condition that is not easily changed or likely to change and stays the same over a period of time (uzgermes harakter / stable mind), daimi / regular suggest the quality / state that is happening over and over again or continue for a long time (daimi kadrlar, regular employment).

5) range of objects described. In the Tatar synonymic row buily – buichan – suzan – chakrym baganasy – telegram baganasy – kolgasar – kilbetsez ozyn – ikende kulegese and its English counterpart tall–towering– gigantic – giant – high the adjectives ozyn, tall and high bear a broader meaning, thus may describe a bigger variety of objects. In particular, the Tatar ozyn, unlike the other synonyms, which generally characterize the height of a person, demonstrate different features or qualities of animate and inanimate objects and often describe the length (ozyn uram), the size (ozyn hikeia), the duration of a music composition or performance (ozyn koi) and others. The English tall may also describe animate and inanimate objects such as trees, buildings, animals, people (tall trees, tall animals, tall glasses), suggest improbability or incredibility of stories (Jim was full of tall stories about his travels); its synonym high means also exalted in character, having a finely honed sense of rectitude, possessing a higher rate and rich in quality, thus describe a wide variety of objects (high purposes, high society, high living).

6) semantic associations. Each word in a synonymic row bears additional associations, which are not represented by synonyms directly, but are “implied”. For example, shere / naked compared to their synonyms ialangach / bare in most cases suggest the absence of clothing on all the body or at least on those parts of the body which should be covered according to the generally accepted rules and regulations. Thus, using the words our consciousness deals with ethical, social and esthetical associations: a challenge to a social taste (naked woman / shere hatyn-kyz); poverty, financial hardships (naked children playing on the heaps of the rubbish); natural beauty (a perfectly shaped naked body; anyng sylu shere gudeses kurep, bashyn yugaltyr).

7) evaluative attitude. Not all the words express a neutral attitude to reality. There are words, which bear either a positive or a negative evaluation in relation to concepts they represent. For example, in synonymic rows danlykly – danly – atkazangan – mashhur – shohretle / famous-celebrated-notorious the adjectives mashhur, shohretle / celebrated express a positive evaluative attitude; they imply notice or attention attached to a person as a result of achievements in art, or beneficial deeds (mashhur kompozitor, a celebrated painter). The Tatar atkazangan and danly may bear both positive and negative evaluative attitudes: atkazangan zhyrch (positive evaluative attitude), atkazangan yalganchy (negative evaluative attitude). The English notorious implies a negative evaluative attitude as it suggests fame a person received in consequence of some bad deeds or unfavorable quality (a notorious criminal, gangster).

8) logical emphasis. The synonymic rows awyr – kyien – chiten - katlauly and difficult-hard-challenging mean requiring much work and needing a lot of efforts and skill because one has to deal with something complicated or challenging. In the semantic meanings of hard, challenging / awyr, kyien the idea of
spending a lot of skills, labour and ability is emphasized (awyr esh, kyien yullar, a hard lesson to learn, challenging career), whereas the adjectives chiten, katlauly / difficult mostly imply hardships and obstacles that appear while dealing with a certain problem / task (chiten / katlauly mes’ele, a difficult problem).

9) emotional and expressive coloring. Besides a basic nominative meaning, words have a figurative meaning which involves an imaginative, vivid and evocative image in one’s mind. Words with a figurative meaning usually imply a set of different emotions and feelings, assessment and experiences. Thus, quite often metaphors, phraseological units, idiomatic expressions are included in synonymic rows: kurkak – kuian yorek / cowardly – lily-livered, iabyk – tire de soiak / soiak kapchygy / thin – skin and bone/ a bag of bones, rahimsez – tash yorek/ cruel – heart of stone. As it is obvious from the examples, the dominant words have a neutral meaning lacking any emotional coloring whereas their synonyms bear different emotional faculties: derisive laughter mixed with sympathy towards cowardliness or emaciation of a person; anxiety about obduracy and cruelty of other people.

4. Discussion
The researches devoted to lexical synonymy are mostly carried out on a separate language basis. Comprehensive full-scale surveys including two or more languages, which results could be compiled in bilingual or multilingual dictionaries of synonyms and used in lexicographic practice, are carried out quite rarely. Despite the shortage of comparative studies of adjectives in Turkic languages with other non-related languages, there are certain works that deal partly with synonymy in Turkic and other languages. Remarkable are the researches of synonymy in Tatar and English by Yusupov (Yusupov, 2005), in Bashkir, Tatar and English by Zainullina (2004), in Altaic and Russian by Dobrynina (2006), in Tatar and Russian by Khismatullina (2009). One of the recent works dealing with lexical synonymy in the Tatar language is the Candidate’s dissertation of Zakirova (2007). As for the comparative studies of semantic distinctions between synonymous adjectives, this paper represents the first endeavor to demonstrate the typological similarities between the Tatar and English languages.

5. Conclusion
Using a language expression, we perform a linguistic action which carries out both cognitive and communicative functions. Each time, pursuing a communicative purpose, the speaker faces the problem of "selecting" a linguistic means. The core of the problem of selection involves the opportunity to express the same cogitative and linguistic content by means of the language which have got various linguistic meanings.

Distinctions between synonyms prove their perpetual existence and sustainability in language; make them the means of expressing various nuances of thought, feelings and emotions; thus, allow us to make a relevant choice of lexical units depending on the communicative purpose.

The comparative analysis of semantic distinctions of adjectives in Tatar and English demonstrated the complex relations between synonyms in both languages. Being a system-based chain of words, a synonymic row experiences the relations of semantic “attracting” and “distancing”, which are provided by semantic distinctions of each synonym. The knowledge of such features leads to better comprehension of any language phenomenon and the avoidance of many pitfalls for English-language learners.

We believe that such comparative studies must be promoted, because it may lead to a more meticulous and cognitive approach to studying and teaching the semantic nature of languages. Moreover, it may
develop a reliable theoretical framework within which an educational bilingual (Tatar-English) Dictionary of Synonyms may be compiled.

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Abstract
Interest of the man of present in their past and sources of their culture makes them look closely into linguistic units as translators of the historical experience. Verb form in general, and verbs of motion in particular, deserve a special attention in terms of the information they bear. The verb in a language is one of the most interesting and complex categories both in terms of grammar, and from the lexical semantic prospective, and from the point of view of comparative researches. This paper reviews the research of the verb of motion in the Tatar language. The verb is quite often composed of lexical units designating the motion and represented by two groups: prefixless verbs and prefixal verbs generated from the prefixless ones, which are an important structural base for building coherent speech.

Keywords: verb, Tatar language, verb of motion, lexical semantic group, verbs of directional motion, verbs of unidirectional motion, verbs of repose.

Introduction
In the Turkic linguistics, the problem of lexical semantic groups of verbs was studied for the first time in a work by a famous turkologist N.K.Dmitriev. He distinguished the following groups of verbs: verbs of speech, verbs of thinking, verbs of motion, verbs of action. [Dmitriev, 1962]. N.K.Dmitriev pointed out at two semantic groups of the verbs of motion: 1) verbs designating the direction of motion; 2) verbs designating the method of motion. [Dmitriev, 1962: 590].
E.V.Sevortyan mentioned the verbs of the vertical and horizontal motion in his work [Sevortyan, 1962: 101-122].
An essay by E.R.Tenishev was also dedicated to the verbs of motion [Tenishev, 1961: 232-293], where he collected a profound factual material and made valuable theoretical conclusions. In particular, the author has suggested and original semantic classification of Turkic verbs. In terms of semantic properties, the verbs are classified in two groups: 1) general meaning verbs and 2) particular motion verbs. The first group includes four verbs antonymic in their meanings, while the second group, based on particular properties, is divided in three groups: a) verbs designating the method of motion; b) verbs meaning overcoming an obstacle while moving; c) verbs specifying the speed of motion.
Yu.V.Psyanchin divided the verbs of motion in two groups in his work:
1) class of verbs of horizontal motion with nuclear meanings of kilü/kitü, baru/yörü (hard surface, liquid surface, gaseous medium); 2) class of verbs of vertical motion with nuclear meanings of menü, töşü (hard surface, liquid surface, gaseous medium) [Psyanchin, 1990: 8-18].
The most complete description of the verbs of motion was given by M.G.Usmanova. The author notes that in the Tatar language, same as in other Turkic languages, the organic feature of the verbs of motion, the essence of their uniqueness is the trend of motion that is clearly reflected in the notional structure of the most verbs. Lack of prefixes in the Tatar language, same as in other Turkic languages, that perform
the function of expressing various directions, as in the Russian language, is compensated by logical means: the contents of the verb, along with other notional elements, include the designation of the direction too. They express the idea of the trend of the action in an implicit way, by their roots themselves, and thus they do not need any morphological formalization. Therefore, the privative opposition engaged by the Tatar verbs of motion is based on the availability of the reference to the motion or the lack of such motion. The motion is deemed to be directional if it is carried out with an orientation relative to another object or a person [Usmanova, 2002].

M.G.Usmanova classified the verbs of motion in the following groups:
1) verbs of directional motion;
2) verbs of non-directional motion;
3) verbs of repose, that are respectively subdivided into more subgroups.

In the Tatar linguistics, the lexical semantic groups of verbs are specified in a work by F.S.Faseev, who highlights 8 groups of verbs: 1) verbs of action, 2) verbs of motion, 3) verbs of status, 4) verbs designating psychological conditions or physiological actions, 5) verbs of sensual perception; 6) verbs of thinking, 7) verbs of speech, 8) vocative verbs [Faseev, 1966: 854-857].

F.A.Ganiev marks 11 lexical semantic groups of verbs, among which the verbs of motion are also mentioned [Ganiev, 1997: 73-75].

The verbs of motion are also highlighted in works by D.G.Tumasheva [Tumasheva, 1978, 1986] and F.M.Hisamova [Hisamova, 2006]. The clearest account on the verbs of motion is given in the candidate’s thesis by R.K.Ishtanova [Ishtanova, 2002]. Therefore, the verbs of motion have been a subject for study by many linguists both in the Russian, Turkic, and Tatar linguistics. However, the problem of a comparative study of such lexical semantic group in different languages has remained of relevance and unresolved.

The methodic base for this study is formed by the works by A.V.Tlebzukhova, N.K.Dmitriev, D.G.Tumasheva, F.M.Hisamova, R.K.Ishtanova, F.A.Ganiev, R.Z.Sadykova.

**Methods**

For the purpose of a comprehensive study of the verbs of motion in the Tatar language, when collecting and systematizing the materials on the subject of the research, the descriptive method was used. A systematic and comprehensive analysis was also performed using the analysis and classification method; elements of the statistical method were also necessary to obtain quantitative data.

**Results and discussions**

In the available literature, two terms are used to designate the motion with verbs: “verbs of motion” and “verbs of transition”. In some cases, they are used as equivalent, in other cases – as non-equivalent, while sometimes these two notions are merged as one term by naming them verbs of motion-transition [Blyagoz, 1964; Syrbu, 1965; Sattarov, 1967; Sergeyeva, 1970; Avilova, 1976].

It is common knowledge that the notions of “motion” and “transition” are not equivalent. The notion of motion covers all changes or processes taking place in the Universe, beginning from a simple moving and ending with thinking, i.e. the notion of “motion” is wider than the notion of “transition”. That said, the semantically wide and quantitatively unlimited group of the verbs of motion is advisable to refer to the verbs expressing any movement, the movement in general [Husnutdinov Damir H., Sagdieva Ramila K., 2016]. At the same time, a spatial movement is a particular case of the motion, and the verbs like “go”,...
such as walk, run, etc. designate a directional or non-directional transition of an object or a person. Taking the above into consideration, we think that while developing methods of teaching the verbs of the said group, the term “verbs of motion” should be used.

The verbs of motion in the Tatar language mean a transition, a movement of various persons, objects in space, natural phenomena, etc. For example: Haşim beraz basıp tordı da çır, garmn tawısı yanğırap törğan öyğä kerep kitte. – Hashim stood for a while and entered the house where the song sounded, where harmonica played (G.Apsalyamov). Şuň kızätıp törğan kuştan çuar et, Bibinurnuñ ötkçäsen eläkterergä omtıl, qat-qat öskä sikerde.— A mottled dog watching it jumped several times, trying to catch Babinur by her heel (A.Gilyazov). etc. As we can see, all these verbs mean a spatial movement. They vary in their purposes: some of a limited nature, i.e. they mean an action that has only happened once (sikerde – jumped, kerep kitte – entered, etc.), while some are for multiple acts (kilä – is going, etc.).

The verbs of motion in the Tatar language can be divided into the following semantic groups:

1) Verbs designating the common notion of moving. Such verbs have the meaning of a continuous, non-directional spatial movement. In the “Defining dictionary of the Tatar language”, there are many such lexical units: yörü – walk, küçü – cross, iyääri – get attached, küçenü – move about, xäräkätläñü – move oneself, xäräkätländerü – move something, ütü – pass. As we can see, such units mean a universal motion not conditioned with any factors, and they are extensively used in different styles of the Tatar language.

2) Verbs designating a motion direction, which is the largest semantic group in terms of the number of units. Several subgroups can be distinguished in this group:
   c) verbs of rotating motion: aylänü – reverse, bötelerü – spin, borilü – turn around etc.;
   d) verbs directed inside or outside: kerü – enter, çgü – exit, qaytu – return, kertü – let in etc.;
   e) verbs of multidirectional action: çäcelü – fall to pieces, sübelü – crumble, ayqalu – fluctuate, çayqalu – oscillate, aunau – lay around etc.

3) Verbs designating the method of motion. Such verbs refer to a motion on different surfaces in space (water, air, etc.). We classify the following verbs as such: oçu – fly, ağu – flow, yöüzü – float, çumu – dive, şu uu – ride etc. The number of such verbs is limited.

4) Verbs designating the speed of motion are divided into the following semantic subgroups:
   b) verbs meaning a slow motion: aqrınayu – slow down, qımşanu – move slightly etc.;
   c) verbs meaning a monotonous or aimless motion: tibrälü – swing, cilferdäü – heave, çayqalu – sway, selkenü – move around, butalu – get tangled etc.


6) Verbs designating the beginning and the end of the motion. Any motion in space has its beginning, in can be continuous, or it can end one moment. For example, the verbs xäräkätlä kilü – start moving, quzgalu – move off, irğlu – dash have the meaning of the beginning of a motion. While the verbs tuqttau – stop, tuqtalu – halt, xäräkätsez qalu – become immovable have the opposite meaning.
Apart from the verbs listed above, in the Tatar language, there are double-meaning verbs. They are not so many, these are the verbs like yatu - lie/lie down, utıru - sit down/sit, toru - stand/stand up. Depending on the process designated by the verb – whether static or dynamic – they can mean both a motion and a condition. Their meaning is conditioned with the context. For instance, in the following example, the verb yatu means a motion: Xäyretdin agay urınına menep yatti, tüşämgä qaradı. (A.Gilyazov) – Hairdetin agay lay down in his place, looked at the ceiling; while in the next example, in is a status: Å sez narsä erep açqan boz şikelle anda yatasız? (G.Apsalyamov) – Why are you lying, as if you have melted? The same meanings are common for the verb uturu: Ğazinur urınnan tordı da sunda uq kire utırdı. (G.Apsalyamov) – Gazinur rose from his seat and immediately sat back down; Ğazinur, bolırdğa çığp, ozaq utırdı. (G.Apsalyamov) – Gazinur sat on the porch for a long time.

In the contemporary linguistics, the problem of analyzing verbs is rather disputable. For example, a well-known linguist F.A.Ganiev refer to such verbs as to new lexical units [Ganiev, 2006: 161], but his opinions found no support among other reputable scholars. In his own earlier works, F.A.Ganiev refer to these verbs as to analytic forms of the aspect category and points out the following semantic groups of aspectuality: beginning, continuance, repeatability, incomplete performance, outcome, and ending [Ganiev, 1963]. A monograph by F.M.Hisamova mentions the same classification [Hisamova, 2006: 220-222]. In a monograph by D.G.Tumasheva, certain problems of the category of aspect were highlighted for the Tatar verbs, and among other things, she gave a detailed study to analytic forms meaning the direction (orientation) of the action in space [Tumasheva, 1986].

In the composition of analytic verbs, the first component has the ending of -a/-ä or -ip/-ep/-p and means the main act, while the second component is auxiliary. For example, a structure uqıp çıqtı consists of two verbs: the first verb has the semantics of reading, while the second one is translated as “has left”, however, in aggregate, the second component loses its basic meaning and begins to designate the accomplishment of an act, i.e. such combination is translated as “has read to the end”. Therefore, among the auxiliary verbs forming various analytic forms, there are many verbs of motion too. Such peculiarity extends the functional semantic field of such lexical semantic group [Husnutdinov D.H, Sagdieva R.K, Mirzagatov R.H., 2016; D.H. Husnutdinov, A.F. Yusupov, N.M. Yusupova, M.M. Shakurova, 2016]. In creations by R.Zaidulla, we can meet lots of analytic forms generating the category of aspect, where the second component is represented with various verbs of motion. Let us give them a closer look.

1) Forms meaning the beginning of motion. Such form is generated from a participle with the form of -a/-ä (-i/-i) and the auxiliary verb başlau (begin). At the same time, the role of the auxiliary verb can be performed in such structures by the verb of motion totınu (hold, grip). In this case, the main verb always has the form of the infinitive, and the verb totınu loses the semantics of the motion. For example: Ul yämsez tawış belän qıçqırğa totındı (R.Zaidulla). – He began shouting in an unpleasant voice. Waq qna yangır siyalarä qıncırdı (R.Zaidulla). – A small rain began to drizzle.

The verb of motion qit (leave, exit) also shapes an analytic form with the semantics of the beginning of an act: Ul totınuq qna yörep kitte (R.Zaidulla). – She began to walk, holding on objects.

The verb cibär (let in) is used for the same function just as often: Ul yağımlı tawış belän cırlap ta cibärde (R.Zaidulla). – He began to sing in a pleasant voice.

2) Analytic forms designating a sudden, abrupt beginning of an act are shaped using the verbs of motion cibär (let in), salu (lay down), qıt (leave, exit), alu (take) that perform as auxiliary verbs: Şahgalineñ yöze yaqtırıp kitte (R.Zaidulla). – Shakhgali’s face began to shine. Limon räxätłänep kölep cibärde (R.Zaidulla). – Lemon laughed vibrantly. İşek töbendä Limon∩ñ küze Lisnüń
militsiya kiemen qapşap aldı (R.Zaidulla). - In front of the door, Lemon felt Fox’s militia uniform with his eyes. Xatın tok suqqanday dereldäp aldı (R.Zaidulla). - The woman jerked sharply, as if shocked with electricity.

As shown by the examples, the meaning of a suddenness of the process is sometimes formalized with lexical means, which we observe in the last sentence, where the words tok suqqanday – as if shocked with electricity enhances the semantics of the suddenness.

3) Analytic forms designating acts expanded in time are divided into three formal groups:

a) verbs formed with combinations -ip/-ep + yatu (lie/lie down), toru (stand/stand up), yörü (go), baru (walk) point at a prolonged action that has stopped at a certain point: yäsäp yata (is living), basip tora (is standing), üsep utra (is growing), qaytmuy qaldı (has not returned), eşläp yöri (is working), etc. This form is rather active in writings by R.Zaidulla: Qapça tóbendä Limonnniñ kúptänge tänşä basip tora ide (R.Zaidulla). - Lemon’s old acquaintance stood at the gate. Döresräje, ul küptän pensiyäga çığçañ, ämma bu tunda sizdermäskä tınışıp sıprit qna eşläp yöri ide (R.Zaidulla). - More truly, he retired a long time ago, but continued to work, trying not to mention the fact. Şahğali üzüneñ aqtäsini Batikä belän sarayda käef-safa qorip utra ide (R.Zaidulla). - Shakhgali was having fun with Batike in the shed.

b) the form ending with -a-/ä (-y/-i) + baru (go), yöri (leave), qalu (stay), birü (give away), toru (stand/stand up) means a process that has begun at a certain point of time and has continued till now: Haman üz süzen söyli birä (R.Zaidulla). - He keeps saying the same all the time. Taqtaları inde kimi bara (R.Zaidulla). - The boards have got fewer already.

c) the form ending with -ip/-ep+ baru (go), kilü (come), toru (stand/stand up) means prolonged processes. For example: Awıl haman erağaya bara (R.Zaidulla). - The village has been getting farther still. Qız matur bulıp üsep kilä (R.Zaidulla). - The girl grew as a beauty.

4) Analytic structures pointing at one-time, quickly completed acts are shaped using the verbs of motion quyu (lay down), alu (take), qitü (leave), taşlau (throw), uzu (pass), qalu (stay). Let us exemplify with an abstract from a creation by R.Zaidulla: Ul mıña ber metrlar yakın kilmicä tuqtap qaldı (R.Zaidulla). - She stopped at about a meter from me. The board has not returned to the gate (R.Zaidulla). - The face of karachi Bulat twitched. Şahğali şanmeñ gänä şärab urtlap quydi (R.Zaidulla). - Shakhgali took a seep of wine carelessly.

5) Analytic structures with auxiliary verbs of motion citü (come to), citkerü (lead to), çığu (leave, exit) that mean an accomplished act fulfilled to the end: Xatın tiz genä uşq çitq (R.Zaidulla). - She read the letter quickly. Kičkä barıp çittek (R.Zaidulla). - They arrived by the evening.

6) Analytic structures ending with -a-/ä+töşü (descend) means an action completed partially: Ul tağın da maturlana töşte (R.Zaidulla). - She became even more beautiful. Küzlären yoma töşep qaradi (R.Zaidulla). - She looked with the eyes half closed.

Findings
Therefore, the verbs of motion in the Tatar language feature a complex semantic composition and can mean different properties of the motion. Their meanings are often conditioned with the context.

Conclusion
In the Tatar literature, the most frequently used are the verbs designating the general notion of movement, the verbs of horizontal motion, the verbs meaning a motion inside or outside, and double-
meaning verbs. In creative works, many analytic forms can be found that create the grammatical category of aspect. Such structures are generated from participles ending with the form -ıp/-ep/-ıp, and more rarely with -iy/i, -à/à, and various auxiliary verbs. The latter role can be performed with verbs of motion like baru (go), yörü (walk), çığu (exit), qitü (leave), etc. that lose their main semantics of motion and begin to mean various additional semantics: beginning or ending, duration of the action, etc. Such variants of the analytic forms of aspect are specific for the Tatar language only, and they are translated into Russian as prefinal verbs of motion.

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References
The Description And Interpretation OF Linguistic And Cultural Component Of The Precedent Phenomena In The Mass Culture

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Abstract
The article concerns the phenomenon of precedence, interest in which is not weakened due to its linguistic and cultural component. The study of precedent phenomena in a concrete linguocultural consciousness is very important, since the knowledge of universal and national-precedent phenomena is an indicator of belonging to a given epoch and to the culture of the country of the studied language. Precedent phenomena are comprehended in the collective background knowledge of the linguistic and cultural community and are an essential element of the cultural literacy of the language personality.

This article discusses the precedent phenomena and texts from folklore sources and media resources in the works of mass culture, specifically the text and video material of the popular animated series “Ivan Tsarevich and the Gray Wolf”, which is characterized not only by the richness of various national and cultural stereotypes from Russian folk tales that are well known to the native speakers of the Russian language, but also represents a peculiar cross-section of linguocultural dominants of the linguistic personality of the Russian language speaker, in which the folklore texts entered.

The article makes an attempt to develop and present such type of linguistic and cultural commentary of precedent phenomena that allows us to fully disclose those aspects of Russian culture that are relevant in the contemporary discourse of Russian speakers, but at the same time have not been yet sufficiently clear to non-speakers of Russian.

Keywords: intercultural communication, linguocultural commentary, precedent phenomena, approaches to description, discourse of Russian speakers.

Introduction
Description of the precedent phenomena existing in a concrete linguistic culture consciousness is very essential, since the knowledge of universal and national-precedent phenomena is an indicator of belonging to a given epoch and to the culture of the country of the studied language. Precedent phenomena are comprehended in the collective background knowledge of the linguistic and cultural community and are an important element of the cultural literacy of the language personality.

The study and commenting on the sources and their interpretations in the national cultural and linguistic consciousness is also connected with the need to train specialists in cross-cultural communication, since cultural stereotypes are one of the most important factors affecting the accessibility of the perception of national texts in the process of cross-cultural communication.

Since the interactive method is the most productive of modern methods of teaching of foreign languages, multimedia resources become an optimal platform for developing materials for teaching. “It is no doubt that the use of the visual aids improves their perception: the more channels of perception are used (optic, mechanical (tactile), auditory and emotional ones), the higher the indicator of the perception is” [Bochina...
In learning, these can be different tasks that represent student activity [Varlamova M.Yu + et al, 2016], and the courses of special purpose [Bogomolov A.N., 2000]. And, of course, the works of mass culture, such as films, animation, comic books, entertainment literature, are of particular interest in this regard. The potential of movies and cartoons is used most often in teaching of listening and speaking [Varlamova M.Yu + et al, 2014], we consider a particular work of mass culture as a kind of cross-section of linguocultural dominants of the language personality of the native speaker [Slyshkin, 2004], in which the precedent phenomena as one of the sources of background knowledge in cultural consciousness enter.

Our aim is to determine those approaches that allow us to present the maximum complete description of the linguocultural context and national precedent phenomena.

Our attention was focused on the precedent phenomena from folklore sources and media resources in the works of mass culture, in particular the text and video material of the popular TV series “Ivan Tsarevich and the Gray Wolf”, characterized by a richness of various national and cultural stereotypes from various sources that are well known to Russian speakers. Their main source in the series is Russian folk tales, the works by A.S. Pushkin, the cartoons and films of the Soviet era, the works of world literature and folklore, as well as popular songs, promotional texts and texts of official documents. We have differentiated several levels of precedent phenomena in the material of the animated series, thanks to which we can predict, which of them will be available to non-native speakers and how to comment on them to reveal the essence of the material. On the basis of the distinguished levels, we can determine: 1) what has been fixed from previous eras in the national consciousness of the Russian language speaker and culture; 2) what constitutes a modern cultural background.

Methods

The interest in linguoculturology, the science that studies and describes the correspondence of language and culture in their synchronous interaction, is largely related to the need to train the specialists in intercultural communication, since cultural stereotypes are one of the most important factors affecting the accessibility of the perception of national texts in the process of cross-cultural communication. V.A. Maslova sees the task of linguoculturology in “exploring the cultural significance of the language unit (i.e. “cultural knowledge”) on the basis of correlating the prototype situation of a language unit, its symbolic reading with those “codes” of culture that are known or may be offered to the native speaker of the language” [Maslova, 1997, P. 10-11].

The concept “precedent phenomenon” being actively developed recently is intended to serve the basis for such apparatus [Gudkov, 1999; Krasnykh, 2002; Karasulov, 2010].

To interpret the precedent phenomena it is proposed to apply the following methods in a complex: observation, method of continuous sampling, statistical analysis, descriptive classification, method of component analysis, stylistic analysis, linguistic cultural method, functional description.

Having considered the theoretical substantiation of the notion of precedence, we define in this paper the term “precedent phenomenon” as the most capacious in the understanding of the group of scholars V. V. Krasnykh, D. B. Gudkov, I. V. Zakharenko, D.V. Bagaeva. Accepting the understanding of the term “precedent phenomenon” in a broad sense (in the context of the ideas of Y. N. Karaulov, V. G. Kostomarov and N. D. Burvikova, G. G. Slyshkin), we believe that in this context it is appropriate to consider the precedent text in a broad sense as a synonym for the precedent phenomenon. Following V. Krasnykh, I.V. Zakharenko, D.B. Gudkova, we accept the division of precedent phenomena into socially-
precedent, national-precedent, universal-precedent. We associate the theory of precedence with the concepts of language game in the context of the phenomenon of postmodern game as the games with background knowledge of the bearers of a particular culture and believe it appropriate to use the following types of precedent phenomena for the analysis of the animated work such as a precedent situation, a precedent text, a precedent name, a precedent statement.

Preliminary observation of the precedent phenomena in the cartoon from the point of view of its variety showed that in the cartoon structure they are three: precedent names (images), precedent statements, precedent situations. The form of existence of precedent phenomena varies: visual, textual. The method of continuous sampling allowed us to identify 146 precedent phenomena that occur in the cartoon “Ivan Tsarevich and the Gray Wolf”.

The most important functional feature of precedent phenomena is their ability to present in a collapsed form a large amount of information, the depth of which is determined by the cognitive basis of the individual, its ability to associative information perceiving. Therefore, when interpreting precedent phenomena, it will not only be necessary to find the source text, but also to find out how they function in the discourse.

We compile the tables for each action taking into account the plot of the animated cartoon. This approach gives us an opportunity to explain the connotation manifested in a combination of precedent phenomena, to clarify the ways of functioning of precedent phenomena, and also allows us to reveal in detail the highest semantic level of background knowledge of the native speaker of the Russian language reflected in the cartoon.

Results
On the example of animation we tried to present the approaches that can be applied to the analysis of precedent phenomena that are aimed at revealing their role. Thanks to such approaches, the interpretation of such linguistic cultural units is presented in the form of a visual model, which greatly facilitates their linguoculturological commentation.

Discussion
Let us give the methods and stages of work with linguoculturological commentation on the basis of the description of precedent phenomena.

We suggest analyzing the animated works taking into account all levels and forms of the existence of precedent phenomena. For convenience, the audiovisual array of the work is divided into scenes characterized by the unity of the effect.

Thus, all obtained data are tabulated. Let us give an example of the description of the first scene:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>precedent phenomenon</th>
<th>according to the original source</th>
<th>correspondence to the original source</th>
<th>non-correspondence to the original source</th>
<th>the source of details, non-correspondent to the phenomenon</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>precedent name or image: Far Far Away Kingdom</td>
<td>Russian folklore: fairy-tale kingdom, magic, splendid palaces</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>fields, houses, wash on a line, carpet, firewood, cows. Index «3/9»</td>
<td>the image of a contemporized Russian country side</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>precedent name or image: Big Grey Wolf</td>
<td>Russian folklore: Big Grey Wolf—magic hero-Ivan Tsarevich’s assistant - has restricted functions and brief utterances</td>
<td>character and name</td>
<td>personage, that performs the function of cohering a storyline – the main commenation of the adventures. In this scene the main role is a reporter</td>
<td>a reporter of news program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>precedent situation: introduction to fabulous narration</td>
<td>Russian folklore: canonical phrases</td>
<td>the text: «In the Thrice-Ninth Kingdom, in the Thrice-Ninth State...»</td>
<td>the text: «Zap, are you reading me...»; the commenation in a reporting style: «It was a powerful, enlightened state...»; video sequence: pasticcio of a shooter with the video camera</td>
<td>modern news programs: live program, a report on social-economic state of the country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>precedent image: cannon</td>
<td>Tsar-Cannon in the Kremlin of Moscow</td>
<td>details of the design</td>
<td>in the field with a crow sitting on the cannon, it has been</td>
<td>the report about crisis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Precedent image: three men drink in the field</td>
<td>Russian traditions of the feast for three</td>
<td>Details of the feast</td>
<td>Fairy tale pasticcio of «antique»: «The Zhitiye Newspaper»</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Precedent image: newspaper</td>
<td>modern realias</td>
<td>Character</td>
<td>The Old Russian as a characteristic style of folklore</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Precedent situation: demonstration of sights and photos</td>
<td>modern realias</td>
<td>Photos from Egypt</td>
<td>Absent in folklore</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Precedent image: by a curved sea-shore the oak and the learned cat</td>
<td>The prolog to the A. Pushkin’s poem «Ruslan and Lyudmila»</td>
<td>Video sequence: the character according to artworks for children’s books; the cat tells stories</td>
<td>Video sequence: tourists and excursion, the cat=guide; text: «I have dinner break»</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Precedent name: modern image of the tourist office and a guide</td>
<td>A fairy tale about a fisherman and a fish</td>
<td>«The old man threw the seine into the sea ...»</td>
<td>«The old man threw a turnip in the sea, pulls and pulls it, but cannot drag it out»</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairy tale «Turnip»</td>
<td>«The grandfather planted a turnip. The turnip has grown very large. ... He pulls and pulls it and cannot drag it out»</td>
<td>Disney «Mermaid»</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Precedent image: rusalka</td>
<td>The prolog A. Pushkin’s poem «Ruslan and Lyudmila»</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>The character approximates to the character of mermaid Ariel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Precedent image: 33 bogatyrs and Chernomor</td>
<td>The prolog A. Pushkin’s poem «Ruslan and Lyudmila»</td>
<td>Video sequence: the character according to artworks for children’s books</td>
<td>The characters march and sing a marching song</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Modern military unit, army</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Thus describing step by step the work saturated with precedent phenomena, giving the comments on the sources of the origin of the phenomena, and also giving the associations existing in the Russian linguistic cultural space on the basis of existing research [Bochina T. G., Pavol A., 2015], we disclose and make available the author’s language concept for the non-native speaker, which allows the non-native speaker to approach the background knowledge accumulated at the present stage of development of Russian culture.

Concerning a concrete work, precedent phenomena act as one of the ways of structuring a system of characters, a plot of the cartoon and a viewer expectations. The main source of precedent texts in the series are Russian folk tales, as well as the works by A.S. Pushkin; the cartoons and films of the Soviet era, the works of world literature and folklore, but also the popular songs, promotional texts and texts of the official documents. The communicative and pragmatic function of precedent texts is that it enables the viewers to get involved into an intellectual game: based on the precedent texts, to expect a traditional fairy tale and “to be under delusion” when the characters talk, joke, like their contemporaries, famous actors or historians, or even neighbors. That is, the combination of the original precedent texts of different cultural spheres, different styles due to contrast gives a humorous effect. Acting in a constant combination and transformation of precedent phenomena, the authors “play” on the contrast and create a humorous effect.

We have defined several levels of precedent texts in the material of the animated series: 1. social-precedent (known for some groups of people): a) micro-group (from youth slang, advertising): Prology; b) Macro-group (known to a generation): a party for 300 people, the songs of Magomayev, Mikhail Boyarsky. 2. national-precedent: known to the native speakers of the Russian language. Almost all the precedent names and images of the characters of fairy tales. 3. universal-precedent (civilizational): known throughout the world: Schubert, Tchaikovsky, Sorbonne, Godzilla, characters of fairy tales. One can consider the images and names of Russian fairy tales to be the universal-precedent: Ivan, Vasilisa, Tsar-Batyushka, Baba-Yaga, Cat, Zmey-Gorynych.

On the basis of the distinguished levels, we can determine that from earlier eras the national language of self-consciousness has become entrenched in the Russian language and culture, which is the contemporary cultural background.

Summary
To the works being rich in precedent phenomena, we propose to create a parallel comparative commenation of visual, textual, genre components with indication to the source and the way of forming a precedent. The communicative-pragmatic function of phenomena, therefore, becomes apparent to the non-native speaker. This approach offers exiting possibilities for a deep understanding of the dominants of the mass national culture, the transformation of national perceptions of various phenomena.

Summing up the study on precedent phenomena in the animated series “Ivan Tsarevich and Big Gray Wolf”, we distinguish six types of precedent phenomena: precedent names, precedent statements, precedent situations, precedent images, precedent genres.

Also, by singling out the levels of precedent texts, we can forecast which of them will be available to non-native speakers and how to comment on them in order to reveal the essence of the material.

References


Continuity In Language Learning: Promoting Professional Additional Program

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Abstract
Due to the challenges of modern society, the difficult economic situation in the country and global society human resources should be given more attention. In particular, there is an urgent problem of youth intellectual potential increase, including support of continuous training of qualified competitive specialists who have a good command of foreign language and who are able to be flexible in the rapidly changing world. In this regard, the development of “life-long learning” concept becomes increasingly urgent.

This article covers the majoring process development by means of learning foreign language throughout life, which involves the implementation of the continuity principle. Through the literature analysis, advanced pedagogical experience, observation, surveys and expert evaluation method the authors conclude that training should be a structure itself. This structure should provide educational elements that combine horizontal and vertical continuous and successive connections intended for all periods of adult life. The analysis of literature allowed us to identify two key interrelated areas of professional training and to identify its priorities. As a result of conducted research in the framework of ‘personal orientation’ ideas implementation in the basic and additional professional education there was identified a number of promising trends: implementation of training quality monitoring, increasing the competitiveness of the future expert, a perspective motivation encouraging, development of professional competences of a person.

The article emphasizes the role of dialogical communication in the process of mastering professional competences of future specialist on the basis of the gradual training of students, involving a sequence of transition from the question-answering job to the dialogue and further discussion. The results of the study extend the knowledge about the continuous nature of learning, offer the ways of future specialists’ intellectual potential and level of professional competence increase.

Key words: learning, foreign language, continuity, professional competence, competence, intellectual capacity, additional professional education.

Introduction
The modern education system today involves profound structural changes; there is a gradual process of secondary and higher education modernization, which includes reassessment of the goals and objectives, contents, scientific and methodological support of educational process, search of new methods to improve the quality of educational services. Today the current trend of “life-long learning” is becoming increasingly important for the development of professional education organization. Such training is, in fact, continuous training. The concept of life-long education declares the educational activities of person as a necessary and natural need for his or her lifestyle. Today Russia is developing and strengthening its relations with many countries and in this regard young people face the task of mastering the language of international communication, which is necessary for the negotiations, signing of contracts, and establishment of business relations. Foreign language is an indispensable communication tool, means of...
career growth, mechanism of future specialist’s intellectual potential development for building a successful career in any field.

Realization of this goal requires a search for additional opportunities in the field of education. New challenges of economic development and the modernization process naturally lead us to the "educational boom", an important component of which is the transition to the system of "education through life" and as a result, the appearance of various programs of additional qualifications at all levels of training. As the main purpose of ‘education through life’ we can consider permanent enrichment of the intellectual potential of the individual. Building a strong economy requires the involvement of qualified personnel. One of the higher professional education tasks is training of human resources with an appropriate level of preparation for socially-useful activity. Ultimately, the results of socio-economic development of the country and the population’s standard of living depend on it.

One of the important and promising directions in quality of human resources training improvement is the creation of additional professional education (APE) system, which is based on the concept of lifelong learning, learning throughout life. Development and inclusion of additional professional education programs with assignment of additional qualification into the structure of higher professional education is as relevant today as ever.

The introduction of the APE contributes to the continuity of education levels, building a strong interdisciplinary connections in the learning process, consolidation and extension of special knowledge, development of skills, and opportunities of their practical application. The turning point in solving the problem of active implementation of the APE occurred when professional education came to be regarded as the succession line of the entire system of continuous education. Thus, the purpose of the study is to ensure ongoing training of future specialists by means of foreign language. Objectives of the study are: the formation of the intellectual potential of students and the formation of professional competencies through a program of additional professional education in a foreign language on the basis of the principle of continuity, the implementation of programs of additional professional education, creation of mechanisms to achieve this goal.

methods
The research used the methods of empirical study - generalization of advanced pedagogical experience, the study and analysis of the relevant scientific literature, work with Internet-resources, observation, surveys, expert assessment method and its important component - pedagogical concilium. The use of these methods allowed us to identify and summarize the main facts, opinions and assumptions regarding the research topic. The obtained data has become reliable material for further discussion, analysis, systematization and presentation of conclusions on the work done. The pedagogical concilium has allowed finding adequate ways to accomplish the study objectives.

results
The process of expansion and deepening of students’ knowledge, abilities and skills optimize the development of advanced skilled human capacity in the economy, in the labour market. The rating of the graduate during employment depends on the number and quality of qualifications acquired in parallel with the main study at the University.

The analysis of philosophical and psychological-pedagogical literature allows to state that the problem of continuity is reflected in many philosophical works, scientific researches of teachers and psychologists.
The implementation of the succession on such levels of education as elementary, middle and high school has always involved psychologists, teachers and practitioners: teachers and University professors. Very important issues of the competence approach is analyzed in the works of Baidenko V. I., Medvedev V. Y. and others [1], [2], [3]. A wide range of problems in this area was considered in works of Yakovleva V. V [4]. Foreign scientists have always paid considerable attention to the problem of continuity in education. The Report to UNESCO of the International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century, known as ‘Delors Report’, considers the lifelong learning paradigms. (Delors J. et al. (1996) [5]. Based on the foregoing, we concluded that the creation of the APE at the University and the imposition of additional qualifications promotes:

- implementation of vertical continuity in the system of learning throughout life;
- progressive and advanced development of professional competence of future specialists;
- improving the competitiveness of graduates;
- satisfaction of employment structures in the region;
- expansion of educational opportunities of the institution and increase its competitiveness in the market of educational services;
- expansion of students autonomy, manifested in their self-determination, self-actualization of their aspiration in life, finding their professional self in the field of additional education;
- the creation of the teaching conditions for improving their qualifications through the development of additional programs that enhance their professional capacity: the emergence of additional jobs.

The analysis of philosophic, sociological, psychological and pedagogical literature allowed us to define the priority in a student-centred paradigm, directions of preparation of future specialists:

- multi-stage educational training like foreign internships, grants, international conferences and symposia, which can be combined into a single educational structure;
- "lacuna" educational preparation, involving the filling of skills gaps arising with the change of life situations of person, such as the change in its activities or expansion of business contacts, increase learning motivation, etc [6].

The additional professional education program is the qualification of "Translator in professional communications" which can be characterized as “vertical-horizontal" at the level of interdisciplinary connections, as well as obtaining additional qualifications.

Improving of the quality of specialist training has always been of particular importance in the process of organization of vocational education, which is connected with the realization of ideas of personal orientation in the basic and additional professional spheres of education. The analysis of pedagogical literature and the pedagogical concilium allowed us to outline a number of tendencies connected with the ideas of personal self-realization as a part of improving the quality of specialist training [7].

The first trend is the need for pedagogical monitoring is observed. It involves diagnostics, assessment and prediction of the state of the pedagogical process, monitoring its progress, impact on the individual, on the results and prospects for its development.

The second trend, which determines the self-actualization of a specialist, is expressed in the forward-looking nature of vocational education in the context of Russia’s entry into the international educational space.

The third trend of implementation of ideas of personal orientation is stimulation of perspective motivation which is connected with individual abilities of the person, his interests and motives.
The fourth trend that determines self-actualization of personal qualities and finding one’s place in the labor market, is associated with the development of various kinds of professional competences of a young person [8].
Обсуждение (Discussion)

At the university stage a great attention should be paid on the fostering a socio-psychological and professional culture, the development of the intellectual potential of a young person. Therefore, in today’s agenda there is a strategically important problem: to give students professional knowledge, skills and competence, to teach them the practice of effective use of the latest information technologies and to develop the foreign language competence. All this is the basis for the formation of “intellectual potential” of an individual.

An essential role is given to the formation of various competencies. A foreign-language competence is a structural element, which includes such components as communicative skills and abilities, cognitive activities and abilities, motivation and being ready to communicate [9]. In addition, obtaining supplementary qualifications forms students' behavioral competence like teamwork skills, ability to make decisions and adequately respond to different situations. Foreign-language and behavioral competence is associated with the ability to independently build the discourse, to realize the communicative intention, to know cultural universals and professional cliches, to implement the strategy and tactics of business and professional communication, to have the necessary background knowledge revealing a foreign-language image of the world etc. [10], [11].

Our experience in working with the bachelor's and master's programs and the "Translator in the field of professional communication" additional education program, as well as the pedagogical council allowed us to conclude that a dialogue occupies a special place in the system of mechanisms that develop a foreign-language and a behavioral competence. The main tool of this type of work is a question-answer unity, which is a symbiosis of a replica and a response to it. If the question-answer system is practiced, basically, in the first year, then the development of dialogical speech is activated at the subsequent stages of training.

It should be noted that teaching a dialogue is a more time-consuming process than teaching a monologue, as it requires a greater number of different sentence structures, listening skills, ability to respond quickly, etc. It is during the preparation of a dialogical speech that the professional competencies of students are successfully formed, as they try on the role functions of future professional activity.

Discussion is an important means of forming a foreign competence. By discussion, we mean a free verbal exchange of knowledge and ideas about the problem being studied or considered. The discussion is actively used in the foreign language classes under the program "Translator in the field of professional communication" to develop the skills of professional communication in the foreign language.

It is on the third year of training on this program that the student has already formed professional skills, and he can prove his point of view reasonably, comparing and analyzing facts, and giving examples. The discussion method helps to solve the following tasks:
- teaching to analyze real situations, as well as the formation of oral speech skills;
- modeling of especially important situations, when even the most capable student is not able to cover all aspects of the problem;
- demonstration of the ambiguity of possible solutions

Выводы (Summary)

The article is devoted to the problem of the successive foreign language teaching as a necessity for a modern lifestyle with the example of a supplementary vocational education program that contributes not
only to the continuity of the levels of education but also develops the professional and foreign-language competencies of the future specialist, shapes and expands its intellectual potential.

The study identifies the following areas of educational training: multi-stage and lacunae. Based on vertical-horizontal continuity, two main areas of professional training of the specialist were identified: "basic vocational education" and "additional professional education.

Implementation of ideas of personal orientation is carried out in the above two areas of specialist training: quality monitoring, increasing the competitiveness of the future specialist, stimulating the perspective motivation of the individual, and developing the professional competence.

An important place in the system of mechanisms working on the development of foreign-language competence is a dialogue. It successively evolves from the question-answer system of education to free dialogue and further to the discussion, which is an important stage of professional competence.

заключение (conclusions)
This article represents a synthesis of experience of the team of teachers of a foreign language. It is based on a number of empirical methods, including the method of expert assessments. The authors came to conclusion that the observance of vertical and horizontal continuity in the interaction between the main professional training and the program of additional vocational education by the means of a foreign language creates the conditions for the development of intellectual potential and the formation of students' competence. An additional mechanism in solving this problem is the gradual preparation of students for the dialogue and discussion as an important indicator of the competitiveness of the future specialist.

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Information Competence Development Through Foreign Language Teaching

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Abstract

The article deals with the problem of using modern information technologies in teaching English for specific purposes. It is primarily focused on teaching listening comprehension in the professional field of medicine with the help of media resources, which provide new opportunities for learning English and using it in many professional areas. The relevance of the problem is due to the fact that media resources are an integral part of the educational process. Methodological base for the investigation is the course of the experiment carried out in the process of teaching English to students of medical department of Kazan Federal University. The results of the experiment can be applied in integration of such language aspects as reading, listening and speaking in the framework of teaching ESP. The article proceedings may be useful for specialists, researchers and teachers of English, who deal with the language of a certain professional field. The methodological material worked out by the authors can serve as an example for further development and implementation in the educational process.

Keywords: education, language teaching, student, education technology, information competence, English for specific purposes, critical thinking, media resources.

1 Introduction

The improvement of the professional education system is a priority of educational policy today. A set of key competences is a result of the activity of a higher educational institution. Among these competences the information competence plays one of the leading roles. The bulk of information in the modern world is presented in the English language. So we speak about English as a medium in the information competence formation of future specialists. University graduates must be able to work with the acquired information – analyze and think critically, sort the important information and skip secondary data, use and express information correctly.

Today we are right to speak about media education as a necessity of the modern society. According to European Union publications, media education is interpreted as education intended to develop media competence, which is believed to be critical and display thoughtful attitude to media. The purpose of this is to educate responsible people who are able to communicate their thoughts and ideas on the basis of the acquired information. Media education teaches students to interpret and create statements, and choose the most appropriate communication media [2].

Many researchers in the field of media education refer to L. Masterman who set a number of reasons for the priority of media education in the modern world [7]. The problem of media education is analyzed in the works of G. Gerbrner who treats it as a means of communication freedom and diversity, as well as critical understanding of media [5]. A.V. Fedorov studies the problem of media education as the process of personality development with the help of mass media. It includes training creative and communication skills, critical thinking, analysis and media texts evaluation, as well as acquiring self-expression skills with the help of media technologies [3]. The position of N.A. Konovalova is close to it. She assumes that media education leads to interaction between a person and the information society, including axiological,
technological and creative components [10]. The questions of personality information culture are discussed in the works of Yu.S. Inyakin and V.A. Gorsky [6], as well as N.I. Gendina [4], A.A. Valeev [14] and I.G. Kondrateva [9] consider the information competence as inseparable part of the communicative approach. The integration of teaching listening and speaking skills on the basis of media competence was focused in the research of E.B. Voronina and I.S. Nalimova [12]. The central part of the investigation revealed the role of media resources in the process of information competence development [11]. Information communicative formation was investigated by Khisamova V., giving attention to the interaction of native and foreign languages [8].

Analysis of theoretical works and personal practice showed that the development of students’ information competence through professional-oriented video materials is achieved, if the following pedagogical conditions are realized in the process of education: student’s understanding of the importance of information in the modern world; acquiring the ability to work with information critically; applying the information obtained in the process of foreign language training in their professional development.

2 Methods
2.1. Task of the research.
In the course of the experiment the following tasks were solved: 1) to define information competence, its components and structure; 2) to consider the English language potential for the development of students’ information competence; 3) to work out the technology and examine its efficiency in the context of teaching through professional-oriented video materials.

2.2. Theoretical and empirical methods.
To examine the hypothesis a set of various methods was used:
- theoretical methods – literature review, study of innovative pedagogical technologies, synthesis and analysis;
- empirical methods – observation, pedagogical experiment, questionnaires, tests, interviews, study of the results of students’ learning and extracurricular activities.

2.3. Basis and stages of the research.
Institute of international relations, history and oriental studies, Alexander Butlerov institute of chemistry and Institute of fundamental medicine and biology in Kazan federal university were the basis for the research.

There were three stages of the research:
At the first stage the experimental platform was organized on the basis of Institute of international relations, history and oriental studies, Alexander Butlerov institute of chemistry and Institute of fundamental medicine and biology. Educational programs and lesson plans were worked out and implemented for students’ professional-oriented teaching.

At the second stage theoretical basis of the English language potential for the development of students’ information competence was considered. Experimental work was held for students’ information competence development on the basis of professional-oriented video materials in the context of foreign language teaching.

At the third stage new technology was worked out and approved. The results of pedagogical experiment were analyzed. Formulation of conclusions was carried out.

2.4. Evaluation criteria.
The following criteria were taken into account to evaluate students’ information competence development on the basis of professional-oriented video materials in the process of foreign language teaching (Association of College and Research Libraries, 2000):

1) ability to determine the extent of information needed
2) ability to access the needed information effectively and efficiently
3) ability to evaluate information and its sources critically
4) ability to incorporate selected information into one’s knowledge base
5) ability to use information effectively to accomplish a specific purpose
6) ability to understand the economic, legal, and social issues surrounding the use of information, and access and use information ethically and legally

3 Results
3.1. Description of the experiment.
Theoretical stage of the research definition of information competence, its components and structure was analyzed. It provided three levels of the development of students’ information competence: beginning, proficient and advanced.
The first level – beginning level. Students can formulate the tasks of their work. But they lack any strategy to search information. Students can’t judge the information properly and it’s difficult for them to select necessary and important facts and omit unnecessary ones.
The second level - proficient level. Students can formulate purposes of their work clearly. They can find the necessary sources of information, evaluate its relevance, accuracy and efficiency. Undergraduates can select only necessary data and exclude unimportant facts. Students realize the role of free access to information and its expression of it in the modern society.
The third level - advanced level. Students can analyze the results of their information search; evaluate the importance of different sources of information and various opinions in them. Students can integrate information from different sources; make accurate conclusions and express the information to other listeners.

On the basis of evaluation criteria mentioned above and levels of information competence, examination took place in groups of first-year students of the Institute of fundamental medicine and biology (specialty – medicine) - control group and Alexander Butlerov institute of chemistry - experimental group. Experimental part of the research was carried out in accordance with the education plan in the process of the English language teaching.

3.2. The English language potential for the development of students’ information competence.
In the process of the English language teaching a questionnaire system was worked out and implemented. It helped to find out some problems of the development of students’ information competence. The results of the questionnaire helped to formulate the following preliminary conclusions: most non-linguistic students believe that they don’t master information competence; it’s difficult for them to choose and select important facts and secondary information. Greater part of students expressed the desire to study the foreign language; the reason for it was that the bulk of information in the modern world is provided in English. The students were interested in acquiring the ability to think critically, respect other people’s opinions and express their own ideas properly. The undergraduates really believed that the foreign language could help them obtain profound knowledge in their professional field – beginning with professional terminology (theory) up to some practical laboratory experiments.
3.3. The course and results of the experiment

For the experiment two groups of students were organized: 1 experimental academic group consisting of 15 students, and 1 control academic group consisting of 16 students of Kazan federal university. Summary and analysis of observation results was constantly carried out. Intermediate check-points of the development of students’ information competence were conducted for clarification of the experiment. It allowed us to make adjustments in the course of experimental work and to define some prospective for the formation of students’ information competence.

In the course of practical part of the experiment, accuracy of our hypothesis was tested. Observation of the educational process, its document’s analysis, questionnaires, tests, personal experience as a teacher of foreign languages provided the study and generalization of the development of students’ information competence.

So, method of observation was directed to the study of the level of student’s critical thinking development. The following skills and abilities were demonstrated by students:

- to understand that all video materials are just a part of the world, they don’t give appropriate and thorough picture of the reality;
- to check whether the video material is reliable;
- to select appropriate and useful information from the video;
- to assess the information critically;
- to interpret the material individually and create their own point of view;
- apply the knowledge obtained from the video in their professional sphere – chemistry and medicine and use it for their further research.

4 Discussion

The final diagnostics based on the criteria and methods considered above showed a profound positive dynamics (Tables 1, 2)

**Table 1.** Comparison of the results of mastering the information competence and changing the level of its formation of students, on the basis of professional-oriented video materials in the context of English language teaching (in %)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Stages</th>
<th>Level 1 (beginning)</th>
<th>Level 2 (proficient)</th>
<th>Level 3 (advanced)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>By the start of the experiment</td>
<td>62.3</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>By the end of the experiment</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>41.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>By the start of the experiment</td>
<td>66.4</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>By the end of the experiment</td>
<td>62.7</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of changing the level of formation of students’ information competence are represented graphically (Figure 1)
Table 2. The results of studying the information competence skills at the times of beginning and end of the experiment in the experimental group (EG) and the control group (CG)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Experimental By the start of the experiment</th>
<th>Experimental By the end of the experiment</th>
<th>Control By the start of the experiment</th>
<th>Control By the end of the experiment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indexes of the students’ information skills competence development</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Groups | Ability to determine the extent of information needed | Ability to access the needed information effectively and efficiently | Ability to evaluate information and its sources critically | Ability to incorporate selected information into one’s knowledge base | Ability to use information effectively to accomplish a specific purpose | Ability to understand the economic, legal, and social issues surrounding the use of information, and access and use information ethically and legally |
--- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
EG | Average value by the start of the experiment | 1.60 | 1.67 | 1.3 | 1.57 | 1.68 | 1.5 |
| Average value by the end of the experiment | 2.30 | 2.18 | 2.2 | 2.54 | 2.53 | 2.18 |
CG | Average value by the start of the experiment | 1.50 | 1.36 | 1.3 | 1.67 | 1.60 | 1.4 |
| Average value by the end of the experiment | 1.55 | 1.49 | 1.43 | 1.83 | 1.74 | 1.65 |

Thus, the results of the experiment revealed positive dynamics in the development of students’ information competence on the basis of professional-oriented video materials, in the context of foreign language teaching in the experimental group and proved the efficiency of the suggested methodology.
5 Summary
The main precondition that contributed to the development of students’ information competence is the increasing role of a foreign language, its influence on critical thinking formation of young people and their ability to navigate in the information flow; professional orientation for further specialists.
Comparison of levels of the development of students’ information competence in both academic groups was carried out in the experiment. The research revealed a significant growth of the considered parameters with the experimental group of students compared to the control group of students. Most students of the experimental group demonstrated a high level of the development of the information competence. Early accurate correction and enhancement of the applied methods, tools and techniques was provided by the analysis of the process of the development of students’ information competence. Comparison of the students’ information competence levels in the experimental and control groups showed that the proposed motivational model of professional training of students in the study of a foreign language is effective.

6 Conclusions
The results of the performed research give reasons to conclude that there is close interrelation of the level of students’ information competence with professional-oriented foreign language training. In the development of this competence, critical thinking and communicative skills become of primary importance. The indicators of the dynamics of students’ information competence formation are directly dependent on their ability to work with facts in a proper way, grasping necessary details, considering different approaches to professional problem, dealing with controversial issues, interpreting the information adequately, using and expressing the acquired knowledge appropriately.

7 Благодарность (Acknowledgements)
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Effect Of The Boundaries Smoothing For A Three-Dimensional Model Of Open Cell Foam On The Pressure Drop Calculation

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Abstract
Interdependent partitions located in three-dimensional porous structures create a problem of understanding the flow field, which differs significantly from the flow in traditional porous media. The structure of the open cell foam requires the use of various flow laws (Darcy, Forchheimer, or the direct solution of the Navier-Stokes equations, since the value of medium permeability is not known in advance). The purpose of this work was to determine the effect of smoothing in open cell foam structure on the resistance of the medium. As a characteristic of the resistance, the pressure drop is considered for the given gas flow rate. The main parameters of porous medium are the cell diameter, the fiber diameter and the porosity. Thus, the further purpose of the study was to determine the parameter that makes the greatest contribution to the pressure drop change.

We report the computer model of the open cell foam by an ordered set of intersecting spheres. To make hydrodynamic calculation we use the software package ANSYS Fluent. We compare calculation results of pressure drop with the experimental data of other authors. It is established that the model of a porous medium using of automatic smoothing of all the faces (performed by AutoCAD package) provides the biggest pressure drop at a fixed value of the porosity of the foam compare to the model with smoothed faces manually and the model without smoothing. Thus, the approximation of an elementary porous cell substantially distorts the flow field. It is not good in the detailed simulation of the open cell foam material. In addition, we made calculations of the pressure drop with different fixed parameters of the medium – porosity, cell diameter and fiber diameter of the medium. Calculations have shown that hydrodynamics is determined by the fiber diameter of the porous structure.

Key words: open cell foam, numerical simulation, 3D model, porosity, cell diameter, fiber diameter, pressure drop.

1 Introduction
Open cell foam materials with the developed surface area are an important invention for many industrial areas. Among the various porous materials, the metal open cell foam materials perform distinctive features: low density, moderate stiffness, high strength and a high density-to-volume ratio, whereby they are actively used in various applications such as cooling microelectronics, fuel cells and compact heat exchangers. For these applications, getting knowledge of the pressure drop value is a main problem for flow control, improvement of heat transfer, planning and development of chemical technology processes [1].

In work [2] authors use a combination of microcomputer tomography, simulation modeling and computational fluid dynamics (CFD) to study the pressure drop in open cell foam materials. The analysis includes several flow regimes and determines the pressure drop dependence of the important morphological parameters. Mechanical, thermomechanical and fluid dynamic modeling of open cell foam...
materials requires an exact geometric model. It performs in work [3]. The authors of the paper [4] created and confirmed the CFD model for simulating catalytic reactions occurring on the surface of open cell foam materials.

In recent years, due to the growth of computational capabilities there are many works about detailed computer modeling of porous media using various simplified models. In paper [5] Mitrichev I.I. and other authors present computer modeling of the porous structure as a model of a ceramic open cell foam material. As a geometric cell of the material, they took a sphere with twelve segments made by clipping the spheres. Thus, they formed a structure of 13 elementary cells, which corresponds to the face-centered cubic packing of spheres. The open cell foam model consisted of 21 layers of such cells.

In article [6] the authors calculated direct numerical simulation based on computed tomography and a physical experiment of the dusty gas flow in a porous medium. He obtained semiempirical dependences for the pressure drop and compared his data with the experimental data of the authors Wake and Brown [7] which is far compared with the Hellman experiment. He proposed his semi-empirical formula, however, and the data obtained with DNS did not correlate well with the proposed semiempirical dependence. In [8], there was made a simulation of hydrodynamics in different three-dimensional structures of a porous medium for various Reynolds and Euler numbers. The calculations help to understand the methods for optimizing the porous medium. The authors of [9] researched the heat transfer process and calculated the value of the pressure drop in the periodic unit cell of the porous medium, which is the structure of the tetradecahedron cell with sphere in the center. The authors of work [10] proposed and studied the model of a unit cell, called the macroscopic method, which neglects small details in a porous medium. Also in this work, they established a pressure drop based on the Forchmeyer equation, which is the law of flow in a porous medium. The most complete model for describing the gas motion in porous medium is the extended Brinkman equations with allowance for permeability, inertial and diffusion effects [11, 12]. The paper [13] presents an analytical model that predicts the pressure drop of a Newtonian incompressible fluid passing through the open cell foam material in the Darcy and Forchmeyer flow regimes. In [14] authors used an idealized model of the tetradecahedron unit cell to numerically study the conjugate heat transfer in open cell foam structures with a porosity of 0.95. Particular attention to the size and shape of the cross-section of the cells for thermal conductivity, fluid flow and heat transfer is paid. It is concluded that it is important to take into account the shape of the cells (partitions and nodes) especially for high porous media.

2 Methods
A detailed model of the porous structure is usually characterized by three parameters: the cell diameter (pore), the porosity and the fiber diameter (average thickness of a rigid partition in the structure under consideration). In the literature, these parameters are related by one equation, for example, [1]. While creating a computer model, it is important to know which of the parameters is the determining one. Let us construct a model of the open cell foam structure by an ordered set of intersecting spheres (Figure 1). The parameters of this model are the diameters of the spheres, the distance between their centers and the relative position.
Figure 1. The model of open cell foam structure.

Analysis of the literature has shown that the use of this model to describe the open cell foam is acceptable, however one of the main problems of application of this model are sharp edges, which can affect the gas flow field. Therefore, it is advisable to smooth the edges, for which the second model with smoothed faces was built. The calculations were carried out using two geometric models.

The main models describing the gas motion in a porous medium are Darcy and Forheimer model. However, for an arbitrary structure, they cannot be used because of the presence of an unknown permeability parameter. In this paper, the flow for the constructed three-dimensional model was calculated in the CFD solver ANSYS Fluent by the finite volume method.

The gas flow was considered in the approximation of the Navier-Stokes equations:

\[ \nabla \cdot \vec{U} = 0, \]

\[ (\vec{U} \cdot \nabla)\vec{U} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \nabla P + \nu \Delta \vec{U}, \]

where \( \vec{U} \) is the vector of gas velocity, \( \rho \) is the gas density, \( P \) is the pressure, \( \nu \) is the kinematic viscosity coefficient of the gas.
In the literature, there are semiempirical models of the dependence of the pressure drop on the filtration velocity, based on the results of the conducted experiments. For example, in work [7] of 1991 was obtained the formula

\[
\Delta P = l \cdot (A \cdot Po^2 \cdot U + B \cdot U^3 + O(U^5)),
\]

where \( l \) - is the thickness of porous structure, \( Po \) - is the porosity, measured in ppi, \( A \), \( B \) and \( O(U^5) \) - are parameters, obtained from the experiment.

In work [6] of 2015 an adapted formula is presented

\[
\Delta P = l \cdot (A \cdot Po^2 \cdot U + B \cdot U^3),
\]

where \( A \) and \( B \) - are parameters obtained from new experiments of Hellmann et al.

To determine the model adequacy of a porous medium and the effect of faces smoothing on the pressure drop, a series of numerical calculations was performed, the results of which are shown in Fig. 2 for the given cell diameter \( d_c \) and the porosity \( \varepsilon \) of the medium.
The results of the calculations turned out to be between the two semiempirical formulas of [6] and [7]. A porous structure with smoothed faces ensures the smallest pressure drop in the performed calculations. The results of calculations for approximating the porous structure without faces smoothing show a higher pressure drop in the selection of porosity and cell diameter. Thus, a simple approximation of the open cell foam can introduce a significant error in calculating the drag force.

Since the conducted studies showed the need for smoothing the cell faces, models of a porous medium with manually smoothed faces and automatically smoothed faces were created.
Figure 3. Geometrical models of the porous structure: 1 – without faces smoothing, 2 – with manually smoothed faces, 3 – with automatically smoothed faces.

For a correct calculation of the gas flow in the cells of the structure, the number of elements was on average 9 millions. The analysis showed that a grid partition with a smaller number of cells leads to calculation errors because of the complicated regions at the cell boundaries. Further reduction of the grid elements is inadvisable, since it does not affect the results of calculations, but at the same time it leads to additional costs of computing resources.

3 Results
In order to determine the parameter that is the main one in changing the hydrodynamics of the flow, the pressure drop was calculated as a function of the flow velocity at the inlet to the porous medium for fixed cell size $d_c$, fiber diameter $d_f$, and porosity $\varepsilon$ of the medium for three models: a porous element without smoothing (index 1), with manually smoothed faces (index 2), and with automatically smoothed faces (index 3).
Table 1. Parameters of calculation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fixed parameter</th>
<th>$d_{c1}$</th>
<th>$d_{c2}$</th>
<th>$d_{c3}$</th>
<th>$d_{f1}$</th>
<th>$d_{f2}$</th>
<th>$d_{f3}$</th>
<th>$\varepsilon_1$</th>
<th>$\varepsilon_2$</th>
<th>$\varepsilon_3$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$d_c = 0.5123$</td>
<td>const</td>
<td>const</td>
<td>const</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>0.058</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.975</td>
<td>0.9616</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$d_f = 0.05$</td>
<td>0.5123</td>
<td>0.5103</td>
<td>0.5148</td>
<td>const</td>
<td>const</td>
<td>const</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.9713</td>
<td>0.969</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\varepsilon = 0.97$</td>
<td>0.5123</td>
<td>0.5098</td>
<td>0.516</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>0.049</td>
<td>const</td>
<td>const</td>
<td>const</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figures 4, 5 and 6 show the results of calculations of the pressure drop depending on the flow velocity for fixed parameters of the design model, where for all three figures the values of indices 1, 2 and 3 are described above.
Figure 4. The dependence of the pressure drop of the filtration velocity at fixed parameter of the cell diameter $d_c = 0.5123$.

Figure 5. The dependence of the pressure drop of the filtration velocity at fixed parameter of the fiber diameter $d_f = 0.05$. 
Analysis of Figures 4, 5 and 6 shows that the change in the pressure drop is linear, therefore, the Darcy flow law acts for such a porous structure. The permeability of the medium can be determined from the calculation for a known value of velocity and pressure. Considering the influence of the parameters of the porous structure on the flow, it can be concluded that the maximum pressure drop is observed in the case of automatic smoothing of the medium (option 3). The main parameter determining the flow behavior is the fiber diameter of the open cell foam material.

4 Summary

A model of the open cell foam is created, which is a set of intersecting spheres. The correctness of the application of such a model for describing the real porous structure is analyzed. The data of numerical calculations correlate well with the semiempirical data of other authors. Three models of the open cell foam are constructed – without faces smoothing, with manually smoothed faces and with automatically smoothed faces. For all three geometries, the pressure drop was calculated for various parameters of the porous medium. A parameter is determined that is characteristic for the construction of a model of a porous medium.
5 Conclusions
All three parameters (cell diameter, porosity and fiber diameter) contribute to the hydrodynamic calculation of the porous structure. The option with automatic smoothing of faces demonstrates the greatest resistance. With a fixed cell diameter and porosity, it has the largest value of the diameter of the binding fibers, which contributes to the change in pressure. With a fixed fiber diameter, automatic smoothing also shows the greatest resistance due to the smallest porosity. Thus, the shape and size of the fibers in the open cell foam model has a greater effect on the structure resistance than the diameter of the cells and the porosity.

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Bibliography


Psychological Violence Prevention In The Educational Environment

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Abstract:
The urgency of the research is conditioned by the fact that, due to the challenges of the last decades, the problem of ensuring the integrated security of the educational environment and such an important its component as psychological security is become acute, the main threat of which is the increased occurrence of psychological violence among adolescents. This article is aimed at analyzing possible targets for the prevention of psychological violence as an element of interpersonal interaction in the educational environment. The leading theoretical method to investigate this problem is the content analysis of scientific papers related to the research problem, which allows us comprehensively to analyze the factors contributing to the propensity to psychological violence. Empirical methods were the conduct of a study using valid diagnostic techniques appropriate to the purpose of the study, as well as statistical analysis and generalization of the results obtained. The article presents the factors of a propensity formation for psychological violence at the theoretical level, such as direct and indirect verbal aggression, indirect physical aggression, low communicative tolerance, a tendency to dominate and manipulate, an egoistic orientation, a focus on power, a negative attitude toward others, non-compliance with existing norms and regulations, rigidity, anxiety and extraversion, which are the targets of its prevention. The results of an empirical study of these factors prevalence among adolescents in the educational environment are presented. The materials of the article are of practical value for the development of psychological and pedagogical programs aimed at the prevention of psychological violence in the educational environment.

Keywords: psychological violence, educational environment, adolescents, features of interpersonal interaction, personal characteristics, manipulation.

Introduction
At the present stage of Russian education development, one of the first issues has been the problem of ensuring the integrated security of the educational environment. One of the elements of the educational environment comprehensive security system is the provision of psychological safety for participants in the educational process - students and teachers, including the solution of prevention and
minimization problem of interpersonal communication's negative phenomena as psychological manipulation, psychological violence and psych terrorism.

In the main in modern psychological science, the forms of psychological violence, psych terrorism manifestation and its consequences for the psychological, emotional-volitional, value-motivational and other spheres of the personality of psychological violence object are studied (Volkov, 2002; Ilyin, 2013; Lapteva, 2010; Tsymbal, 2007). However, little attention is paid to the study of the personality psychological characteristics of psychological violence subject, as well as factors contributing to the formation of a propensity for psychological violence. Based on the theoretical analysis of scientific research on psychological violence, violence and related areas (Baeva, Volkova & Laktionova, 2003, Zinovieva & Mikhailova, 2003; Sokolova, 2013; Ilyin, 2014), we also identified the main factors related to the propensity of personality to psychological violence. Based on the analysis of the relationship between violence and aggression, it can be concluded that the propensity for psychological violence can be determined by the tendency to verbal aggression, both direct and indirect (behavior using the response of one's own negative emotions both through intonation and other non-verbal components of speech, and with the help of statements content), and the propensity to indirect physical aggression (the aggressive direction against some person or thing is hidden or not realized by the subject of aggression, indirect use of physical force).

There is a correlation between the propensity to psychological violence and the propensity to manipulate other people. Manipulation is a kind of psychological influence, the skillful execution of which leads to a hidden exciting in another person of intentions that do not coincide with his actual desires (Ilyin, 2014). This is the hidden control of the addressee on the part of the initiator, in which the latter achieves his goals, damaging the addressee (Sheinov, 2010).

One can trace the tendency to dominate for one of propensity factors to psychological violence. Domination is most often seen as the desire to take priority positions in the hierarchy of social relations, suggesting a struggle for their achievement. It is characterized by the desire to control their social environment, influence others, give advice, seduce, persuade, order, forbid, and discourage (Ilyin, 2014).

The orientation toward power as the total control and management of all processes around the world and other people is also indicated as the basis of psychological violence.

One can also identify factors such as the selfish direction of the individual, the negative attitude towards other people, and communicative intolerance, the propensity to disregard the values and moral norms and rules accepted in society. As for individual psychological features, here, most often stand out rigidity, anxiety and extraversion.

Materials and Methods

2.1. Theoretical and empirical methods

The theoretical method of research is the content analysis of scientific works related to the research problem, which allows comprehensively to consider the degree of its development and to reveal the main approaches to understanding psychological violence and the factors that determine the scale of this phenomenon in the educational environment.

We conducted an empirical study aimed at studying the severity of these factors among adolescents with the use of valid and validated methods set aimed at their study:
1. The method "Aggressive behavior", developed by E.P. Ilyin and P.A. Kovalev is aimed at revealing the propensity to a certain type of aggressive behavior: direct and indirect physical and verbal aggression (Ilyin, 2014).

2. The method of "Social and psychological adaptation" of K. Rogers to identify common problems of adolescents socio-psychological adaptation, especially such factors as domination and rejection of others (Fetiskin, Kozlov & Manuilov, 2002).

3. The method of the individual socio-psychological attitudes diagnosis in the motivational-need sphere of O.F. Potemkina (scales of focus on selfishness and power) (Fetiskin, Kozlov & Manuilov, 2002).


5. Children's version of the individual-typological questionnaire (ITQ) of L.N. Sobchik for determining the level of rigidity, anxiety and extraversion, as well as other individual and typological characteristics of adolescents (Sobchik, 2010).

6. Questionnaire "Addiction to Deviant Behavior" of A.N. Oryol to determine the propensity to forms of deviant behavior and non-compliance with norms and regulations (Fetiskin, Kozlov & Manuilov, 2002).

7. The test of communicative tolerance of V.V. Boyko (Ilyin, 2011).

2.2 Base of research

128 teenagers aged 16-17, students of the 10th form of general education organizations of Kazan took part in the study.

Results

In the course of factors empirical study, the following results were obtained:
- high direct verbal aggression was detected among 42.8% of adolescents, high indirect verbal aggression – among 14.2%.
- in the field of socio-psychological adaptation, a high propensity for domination was revealed among 32.8% of respondents, and a high level of rejection of others, a negative attitude towards them - among 46.4%;
- high selfishness direction of the individual in the motivational and need sphere was established among 35.7% of adolescents, and a high focus on power - among 28.6%;
- a high tendency to manipulation was noted among 21.1% of adolescents; as for the individual psychological characteristics, a high level of rigidity was found among 45.3% of adolescents, a high level of anxiety - among 39.3%, and a high level of extraversion - among 21.4%;
- a high tendency to non-compliance with norms and rules was detected among 43.7% of adolescents who took part in the study.

As it is shown by the empirical study, the factors related to the propensity to psychological violence in adolescents revealed on the basis of theoretical analysis have a rather high degree of severity, which actualizes further study of this problem.

We conducted a comparative analysis of the average indicators for selected factors among boys and girls.

The results of comparing the average indicators for direct and indirect verbal aggression, indirect physical aggression are shown in Figure 1.
Figure 1. Average indices for direct and indirect verbal aggression, indirect physical aggression

The figure shows that the boys possess more pronounced direct verbal and indirect physical types of aggression, and the girls have more pronounced indirect verbal aggression. That is, young men are more likely to express their aggression verbally through abuse, insults, threats, and physically - indirectly (it is necessary to note that in this study we did not consider direct physical aggression, since it refers more to physical than to psychological violence).

The results of comparing the average indicators for factors of rigidity, anxiety and extraversion are shown in Figure 2.
Figure 2. Average values for factors of rigidity, anxiety and extraversion

Note: * - significant differences in average values were established at significance level p≤0, 05 (Student’s T-criterion)

The study shows that girls possess significantly higher rates for factors as extraversion and anxiety, and boys are somewhat more rigid. Consequently, girls have excessive sociability, that interfering with the purposefulness of actions, increased distractibility, talkativeness, with an excessive number of friends and acquaintances, their social contacts remain superficial, shallow (many acquaintances but few true friends). They are playful, risible, but they are quite realistic and enterprising. They can lie to get out of a difficult situation, to brag to increase their importance in the eyes of others. Manifestations of such traits as indecisiveness, an increased sense of responsibility, suspiciousness, timidity, unreasonable fears, an inner need to correspond to the position of the environment - teachers, parents, class, are also more characteristic of them. Pupils of this type are more diligent in carrying out assignments for fear of getting a bad mark, are painfully experiencing reproaches and punishments, and are very nervous about different kinds of control tasks and examinations.

Young men are different by somewhat more pronounced persistence (if this is to achieve the goal) and stubbornness (if this is manifested in defending their point of view). For them, their status is more significant - both from the point of view of leadership, power, and in terms of material prosperity. They are extremely envious of foreign fame and wealth, jealous in friendship and love, are aggressive in defending their rights. Thanks to good perseverance, they can achieve good successes, and in connection with pronounced competitiveness in character they can fight to the last and win. They are less romantic and sentimental, they show rigidity, aggressiveness in fights.

The results of comparing the average indicators for factors of selfishness and focus on power are presented in Figure 3.
Figure 3. Average values for factors of selfishness and focus on power

Note: * - significant differences in average values were established at significance level p≤0.05 (Student’s T-criterion)

The figure shows that the studied personality trends are more pronounced among young men than among girls. That is, young men are more focused on their own personal interests, and when making decisions they take very seriously into account how their consequences will affect them personally. They have a much stronger position for power than girls; they want to feel control over other people and are ready to do a lot for this. The results of the average indicators comparison on the factors of non-acceptance of others and the propensity to dominate are presented in Figures 4 and 5.
The pictures show that both factors are more pronounced among young men.

The results of the average indicators comparison for the factors of propensity to violate, overcome existing norms and rules and propensity to manipulate are presented in Figures 6 and 7.
The pictures show that young men are more inclined to implement in their behavior of non-conformist attitudes, they are more prone to put forward their own norms and values against the group ones and they possess the tendency to "break calm", to seek difficulties that could be overcome. And girls are more likely to achieve their goals indirectly, through manipulative influence.

We conducted an analysis of communicative tolerance. Its results are shown in Figure 8.
The figure shows that, in general, girls have a higher communicative tolerance, but the boys have more developed adaptive abilities in interaction with people.

**Discussions**

The subject of violence in the educational environment, both psychological and physical, was considered by various authors both in foreign and in domestic scientific literature. In a study by B. Yodprang, M. Kuning & N. McNeil (2009), it was found that four components, such as age group, ethnicity, type of school and parents' violence, are related to the fact that students exhibit violence. Their study shows that students who witnessed physical violence between parents were more likely to be violent towards fellow practitioners, than those who had never witnessed physical abuse (Yodprang, Kuning & McNeil, 2009). When studying violence and bullying in the educational environment, it was
proved that the presence of a psychologically inadequate parent who manifests violence in the family is a consequence of the fact that his child will commit acts of violence. These factors are very closely interrelated. It is also established that students who preferred military films were more likely to be hooligans than those who preferred comedy cartoons (Laeheem, Kuning & McNeil, 2009).

Study of I. Uba et al. (2010) showed a negative and average correlation between depression and self-estimation, self-respect and psychological abuse, and a positive and weak correlation between depression and psychological abuse. Depression is associated with intimidation, psychological and physical abuse, and most hooligans showed depressive symptoms (Uba et al., 2010).

The Study of S.O. Salami (2010) examined the relationship between violence and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) among adolescents, as well as the impact of mitigating factors such as sustainability, self-estimation and social support. It was found that the impact of violence is positively related to PTSD, but this relationship was mitigated by resistance, self-respect and social support, so that the more these factors were manifested among adolescents, the less serious were the consequences of violence.

In considering the problem of child abuse, M.R. Iravani (2011) notes that child abuse - is either a fact of harming him or ignoring him from the side of the other, be it an adult or a child. He says that, despite the fact that the problem of sexual violence against underage children has been widely publicized and thoroughly researched, the problem of emotional (psychological) violence is still hushed up and remains very little explored. Children's emotional abuse, from his point of view, can be considered as an example of behavior that worsens the child's emotional development or his self-esteem. It can include constant criticism, threats or rejection, as well as the lack of love, support or upbringing. Emotional ill-treatment rarely appears in physical signs, so it is very difficult to diagnose it. Behavioral characteristics of emotional ill-treatment are habits, behavioral disorders, and neurotic symptoms, extreme manifestations of psycho-neurotic reaction (passivity, aggression, cruelty, isolation, excessive exactingness, stubbornness, and detachment), emotional and intellectual retardation, and suicide attempts. The author identifies four important causes of emotional violence-poverty, lack of parental control and frivolous family relationships, cruelty to parents in their childhood, or intergenerational transmission of genetic abnormalities, including those involving mental illness or substance abuse by parents (Iravani, 2011).

The lack of knowledge of psychological violence problem is indicated by C.H. Che Noh & A.W.I. Wan Talaat (2012). They write that there are basically five main forms of child abuse, namely physical abuse, sexual violence, emotional abuse, neglect, and abandonment of the child. These forms of ill-treatment received legal and scientific attention and recognition, except of emotional or psychological violence. They highlight the verbal abuse as another significant form of child abuse that needs to be given serious consideration by society and considered in the scientific community (Che Noh & Wan Talaat, 2012).

F.I. Mohamad, M.S. Chong & S.T. Azmi Abd Manaf (2012) indicate a strong link between the manifestations of aggression, psychological abuse and drug use among adolescents. They indicate that, according to their studies, even after treatment and rehabilitation, 95% of adolescents exhibit moderate or severe aggression (Mohamad, Chong & Abd Manaf, 2012). There is also a connection between alcohol and violence. A.J. Snowden (2015) writes that the relationship between alcohol and violence begins with a person who brings his own personal characteristics, such as personality, personal expectations and experience, as well as the consequences of past alcohol taking, into the drinking situation. Alcohol taking
affects cognitive functioning, and it produces a number of changes in human behavior. Violence related to alcohol is not only due to the pharmacological effect of alcohol on individuals, social interaction between two or more individuals and the high availability of alcohol in society, but also due to the connection of cultural violence and alcohol (Snowden, 2015).

Studying social intelligence, M. Frankovský & Z. Birknerová (2014) found that its components are manipulation, empathy and social irritability. Manipulation is that people can convince others to do almost everything. They can use others for their own benefit and convince them to fall into place. They use the life of others for their own benefit. Empathy is expressed in the fact that people are able to recognize the intentions, feelings and weaknesses of others. They can adapt to new people, guess their desires, and also fulfill them. Social irritability - people are nervous in dealing with other people. The feelings of others prevent them from adapting to other people, and this is a problem for them. The weaknesses and wishes of others confuse them. They are nervous among people who are ready to do something for them. These factors, which bear a negative connotation in this interpretation, may also be related to a tendency to psychological violence (Frankovský & Birknerová, 2014).

Conclusion
The carried out research has allowed drawing a conclusion that the direct verbal and indirect physical types of aggression are more pronounced among young men, and the girls have more pronounced indirect verbal aggression. That is, it is more common for young men to express their aggression verbally using abuse, insults, threats, and physically - indirectly. Young men are different by somewhat more pronounced persistence and stubbornness. For them, their own status is more significant, and in connection with the pronounced competitiveness in character they can fight to the last and win. They are less romantic and sentimental, they show rigidity, aggressiveness in fights. The egoistic orientation and focus on power are more pronounced among young men than among girls. That is, young people are more focused on their own personal interests, and when making decisions they take very seriously into account how their consequences will affect them personally. They have a much stronger orientation on power than girls; they want to feel control over other people and are ready to do for this a lot. Young men are more oriented to implement in their behavior non-conformist attitudes, they are more prone to put forward their own norms and values to the group ones and they possess the tendency to "break calm", to seek difficulties that could be overcome. And girls are more likely to achieve their goals indirectly, through manipulative influence. But at the same time, girls’ communicative tolerance is higher, but young men have more developed adaptive abilities in interaction with people.

Thus, we singled out targets for the prevention of psychological violence among adolescents in the educational environment. The obtained data can be used in the future for the development of psychological and pedagogical preventive programs and corrective work to reduce the level of propensity to psychological violence among young men and girls, and improve the psychological safety of the educational environment.

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References


The Development Of Psychological And Pedagogical Support For The Students’ Social And Professional Self-Determination System

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Abstract
The article is devoted to a very important problem of contemporary education – the problem of developing psychological and pedagogical support for the system of the students’ social and professional self-determination. The article provides the theoretical analysis of approaches to the problem solution of pedagogical and acmeological follow-up of the process of the students’ professional and social world view development. The theoretical analysis, psycho-diagnostic examination and educational experiment were used as the methods of research. The developed training program of psychological and pedagogical support for the social and professional self-determination system of students of higher education institutions was presented and results of its testing were provided. The conclusions were drawn that the most effective method of developing students’ professional and social perceptions was the method of modeling professional (problem) situations. The results of the conducted experiment showed that the students possessed the I-conception components’ actualization connected with perceptions of their professional goals, values, potential and important characteristics; the expansion of the role repertoire, skills of decision making and behavior in standard problem situations; teaching the main strategies of self-presentation; the need for creative self-realization. The modeling of professional situations of various complexity levels helped to demonstrate the complexity, ambiguity and poly-variety of the search for problem solutions. The integration of modeling into contemporary technologies of psychological follow-up is a promising area in the search for innovative work forms by a psychologist. This article can be of use to teachers of higher education institutions, social workers as well as psychologists-practitioners.

Keywords: social and professional self-determination of students, social and professional world view of students, modeling of professional (problem) situation.

Introduction
The creation of new educational space takes place in contemporary Russia, the major determinants of succession and variety of professional learning are considered with regard to the domestic specific character as well as in view of regional conditions. The study of psychological characteristics required for achieving success in one’s career determined an interest to the problem of psychological and pedagogical support for the students’ social and professional self-determination system.

In present day studies of the problem of the students’ professional self-determination special attention is often paid to a person’s moral qualities. Disclosing the fundamentals of morals and morality
development is impossible without understanding the formative factors and conditions of the professional world view as well as specific features of a specialist’s adaptation in the professional environment. In the studies of personality and professional development ideal models have been proposed that are based on the application of job requirement schemes (Alexandrova, 2003; Zeer, 2003). The specific character of a professional’s formation presupposes the integration into the cultural community in view of individual peculiarities, the requirements of a profession, specific features of the environment and also ethnocultural factors. Due to this problem some issues arise out of the search, identification and application of psychological objective laws of a young specialist’s professional world view development under the conditions of multinational culture. The specific character of Russian cities and towns is their multinational composition including a great number of bilinguals assimilating various cultural traditions. The analysis of cognitive, ethnocultural and behavioral factors will help to facilitate the discovery of university students’ personal and professional self-determination reserves (Vasyakin et.al., 2016; Lipatova et.al., 2015; Vasyakin et.al., 2015).

The theoretical analysis of the problem of the students’ professional formation allows us to speak that the concept «Professional world view» in psychological science and practice is applied more rarely than the categories «Professional self-consciousness » and «Professional I-concept». Nevertheless, the image of the world is a required component of professional perceptions. The image of a subject including a subject of professional activity is considered as a component of the world image (Zeer, 2008). Thus the specific character of professional activity is reflected in the specific nature of the world view possessed by a subject of labor, his self-consciousness and peculiarities of the I-conception. The most important stage of personalization is the end of the adolescence period the most significant new formations of which are: the developing world view, the formation of a holistic self-perception or the I-conception, the formation of his life plans, the progression of personal and professional self-determination processes. A.K. Markova considers the process of comprehending the norms, rules, the model of one’s profession as standard units for understanding one’s properties as one of the components of professional self-consciousness in which the foundations of the professional world view have been laid down. Owing to the professional world view development the personal model of a professional is formed which the students will orient themselves to in their professional development, in professional activity and communication (Markova, 1983). The process development of the professional world view is integrated with the development of self-consciousness and self-cognition of the subject the constituent part of which is the formation of the professional I-conception (Barabanova, 2002; Gnedova et.al., 2015; Mitin, 2016; Kalinina et.al., 2017; Masalimova et.al., 2014; Chen et.al., 2017). The final results of a person’s comprehending himself as the subject of activity are set in the professional I-conception and as well as a person’s personality at every stage of the professional formation, concretizing the models of professional activity and communication. Some definitions treat the I-conception as a component of the world image. Being the reflection of subjects’ professional affiliation it states in a specific way the characteristics of the way of describing objects in the world, personal semantic space and implicit theories of the personality and serves as the starting point for self-characterization and for characterizing oneself before another. The authors go to the level of analyzing the influence of conditions of culture, the professional environment on the development of students’ professional perceptions. The processes of socialization and individualization are treated as the fundamental ones. V.A. Yadov incorporates the mastering of professional activity and adoption of society’s cultural values into a number of socialization stages by means of incorporating
Social relations into a holistic system. The most significant factor of a person’s socialization is the process of language learning (Yadov, 1972).

An interest to the study of speech activity, semantic peculiarities of languages, the assimilation process in the cultural environment in psychology has had a long tradition. Classical studies at the turn of the XIX-XX centuries and the first half of the XX century gave rise to a number of trends and areas in psychology: the cultural and historical theory that treats the personal development and thinking development in the process of culture assimilation, the psychosemantic area (Vygotsky, 1972; Osgood, 1990; Luriya, 1972; Petrenko, 2010 and et.al) and subjective psychosemantics, the modeling of language processes. The development of diagnostic tools has a great significance that is continued at present by scientists-psychologists, linguists, sociologists.

Among the present day diagnostic approaches the most productive for the study of individual specific features are: the modeling method (Nikandrov, 2003), semantic differential (Ch. Osgood), G. Kelly’s (1991) method of repertory grids (in particular, there is a Russian adaptation of this technique «Kelly-98» by V.I. Vorobyov, N.L .Konovalova (2002) which was amended with new productive criteria for the assessment of the constructs’ system and enables one to work with various groups ) and others.

In domestic psychology there is a practical necessity and experience of studying the world image of specialists belonging to various profession types and with various specific features of their activity (Klimov, 2003; Holodnaya, 1997; Kornilova & Kornilov, 2009).

The choice of the research methodology is of great importance in the context of searching for the ways of diagnostics and development of students’ professional world view under conditions of multinational culture. O.S. Anisimov (2007), A.A. Derkach (2004) show the opportunities of related sciences’ methodology integration to solve the most significant acmeological problems for the purpose of obtaining new knowledge and forming a professional perception. Among the theoretical methods the following are distinguished: logical, mathematical and statistical, cross-disciplinary methods-approaches (for example, the modeling method), among the instrumental-practical methods there are: general scientific methods (including the expert assessment method), methods of other sciences and acmeological ones.

The modeling method is widely used in current approaches to the integrative study of the students’ professional formation. The use of the modeling method for a studied phenomenon allows one to adequately reflect essential characteristics of the objective reality. Classical studies in psychology of labor comprise explanatory models of professional activity, job and acmeographic requirements to professional activity and personal characteristics of a person. The volume and structure of professional activity and personal qualities in the aggregate characterizing a person as a member of society are reflected in the model of a specialist (Masalimova & Chibakov, 2016; Mitin et.al, 2017; Masalimov a, 2017 ; Yemelyanenkova et.al, 2017; Salakhova et.al 2017).

The method of modeling problem situations helps to trace the dynamic pattern of the studied objects. The prognostic and developing potential of the method is widely used in psychological theory and practice. The opportunities of the method’s applied use for the purpose of modeling professional situations of various complexity levels aroused our interest in the context of searching for effective methods of the professional world view development in students of higher education institutions. Specific features of the professional world view incorporate not only the aspects of external, objective conditions of professional activity but also insights into subjective qualities the specific nature of which is manifested in real situations of professional activity and communication. The study of individual variety
in professional perceptions is needed to develop the assistance techniques to young specialists in their adaptation to a specific character of professional activity and professional communication (Ovsyanik et.al, 2016; Mitin, 2014; Ivleva et.al, 2014; Khudyakova, 2015).

In connection with modern social and economic conditions professional activity for many students, and consequently, the stage of adaptation to it already starts in their third or fourth years at university. The works on personality psychology and developmental psychology (Yung, 1995; Erikson, 1996; Berne, 1977 and et. al) explore the specific features of the transition to a specialist’s new social role, the need of which is accompanied with the emotional experience of a normative crisis. The authors identify the following as essential characteristics of a young specialist’s crisis (Klimov, 2000; Pryazhnikov, 2012; Mogilyovkin, 2007): a mismatch of priorities, goals and «I-image» in a profession; comprehension of a significant gap between one’s own capabilities and career ambitions; the search for an opportunity for self-assertion, self-development of a man’s personality in a profession, integration into a professional community. The result of a crisis resolution – professional self-determination – is an important characteristic of a person’s social and psychological maturity.

Thus comprehending the extent of adequacy—inadequacy of perceptions about one’s own professional capabilities and achievements, the expansion of a student’s role repertoire contribute to a positive resolution of a crisis in professional adaptation, open up new possibilities for future-oriented goal setting, self-determination, self-analysis of professional and personal development areas.

A promising trend for psychological support of students with regard to identified specific features is the modeling of professional situations of various complexity levels. This aspect of applying the modeling method is closer to the present-day applied variant of problem learning – the so-called case-study or case-method the gist of which is the solution of problem situations, and also with use of elements of a role game and a project method (Salakhova et.al, 2016; Salakhova et.al, 2017; Ivleva et.al, 2016; Ganieva et.al, 2015; Khudyakova, 2014).

Methodological Framework

The study was conducted with the help of a modified variant of A. Gurevich’s (1988) technique for compiling case scripts. To develop scripts that allow one to model typical problem professional situations of various complexity the comparative analysis results of students’ polling and specialists-experts with various terms of service in professional activity (140 people).

The expert assessment method allows one to solve the problems with various kinds of analytical descriptions, the tasks of collecting empirical data in situations of the information limit about a studied object, the tasks of obtaining a subjective assessment about the manifestation of personal specific features and so on. The main content of the method of expert assessments consists in the rational work arrangement of one or several specialists over the problem set with the record and subsequent processing of the data obtained. The following indices were singled out:

- perceptions about professional activity (requirements which are set for professionally important qualities of a specialist),
- perceptions about typical problems situations.

Seventy students and seventy experts – specialists of professions «man-machinery» and «man-man» participated in the procedure of the expert assessment of professional activity requirements for professionally important qualities of a specialist and perceptions about typical problem situations. The questionnaire sheet of the signs dictionary (offered by Е.П.Ilyin, 2002) comprised 83 characteristics
combined in 11 baseline indices of a person’s professionally important qualities: attentive, perceptive, mnemic, motor, sensor, imaginative, thinking, emotional, willing, speech, communicative.

Results

The comparative analysis of students and experts’ assessments with the help of the methods of logical analysis and mathematical statistics (Mann – Whitney U-test, the cluster analysis) showed the significance of differences in students’ assessments (3-5 years) about the role of motor skills in comparison with specialists of professions «man-machinery»; perceptive abilities and power of observation for «man-man» professions. Specialists of technical areas emphasize the importance of thinking and communicative qualities, specialists in the area «man-man» - an ability for self-regulation, self-analysis and creative powers. Specialists also identified the typical problem situations that the majority of young specialists encounter in the process of their professional activity. Irrespective of the type of professional activity they are referred to situations of professional communication, conflict resolution skills, an ability to provide work conditions and self-discipline. Students more often identify such problem situations as the monotony of professional labor, dependence on the management attitude and a low level of labor payment. The analysis also showed an uneven differentiation of a profession’s specific character depending on individual features and experience: students sometimes found it difficult to give an assessment about typical problem situations.

According to V.A. Bodrov (2006), the image matching of the «I am a professional» to the standard model of a professional («image» of a professional) serves both as the regulation mechanism and the criterion of achievement in the formation process of a professional personality and his professional fitness. Main components of the image «I am a professional» and the standard model of a professional are reflected in experts’ perceptions about the development guidelines of young specialists’ professionally important qualities. The students’ overestimation of the role of activity’s operative components has been found (motor skills, perceptive abilities, power of observation and so on.) in comparison with specialists (the difference significance is confirmed with Mann-Whitney’s statistical criterion). Specialists emphasize the importance of characteristics close in the content to acmeological invariants of professionalism: intellectual, communicative qualities, abilities to self-regulation, self-analysis and creative powers.

On the basis of the experts’ assessment (students and specialists) of typical problem situations it was found that the situations of professional communication, conflict resolution skills, an ability to provide normal working conditions and self-discipline had been assessed as problem ones irrespective of the type of professional activity. Students also identify the monotony of professional labor, dependence on the administration attitude and a low level of labor payment.

Based on the analysis results the primary database of typical problem situations was compiled. Complexity levels of situations were identified on the basis of the following criteria: the frequency of occurrence, a subjective assessment of the complexity level by experts, the danger level of the situation. Besides, an additional division of situations was introduced according to main causes and qualities required for the problem solution: the necessity of expanding professional competence; the necessity of increasing the level of communicative competence; the necessity of self-regulation learning (will control, goal setting, self-discipline, an emotional self-regulation and so on.).

The modeling of problem situations was used as the main method in the framework of a training course «Psychological-pedagogical support of the students’ social and professional self-determination
system» organized by us for senior students. The testing of which was conducted in 2016-2017 with participation of six subgroups, the total number of participants amounted to 96 people. Main goals of the training course comprised: the updating of the I-conception components connected with perceptions of one’s professional goals, values, potential and important characteristics; the expansion of the role repertoire, the skills of decision making and behavior in typical problem situations; the learning of main self-presentation strategies.

The training program «Psychological-pedagogical support of the students’ social and professional self-determination system» incorporates 3 blocks on 10 exercises in each. While developing it both original and borrowed as well as modified (for the purpose of the program) adapted materials and exercises of many authors were used. The training course uses various activation means of the students’ professional formation (of various profession spheres) to solve a triple problem: understanding one’s professional I (goals, motives, values, a professional position), accepting oneself in a profession, controlling oneself in professional situations and in general managing one’s professional development.

We would like to remind that one of the ways of implementing the personality and activity approach in the solution of students’ psychological and professional problems is the creation of conditions to achieve a professional identity, to raise confidence in oneself, to develop professional competence. In the framework of the training course the work is carried out to create an image of a successful professional future, with understanding one’s motives of the choice of a profession, values, goals and with the detection and updating of professional resources, protection of the image of a desired professional future, its correction by the reality. The designed training course provided the formation of skills in students of taking scientifically grounded decisions that can be made in connection with the coping with life challenging difficulties. Group training classes encouraged students to take responsibility for the preparation for a future job, for their professional success and their well-being in life.

While designing this program we kept to theoretical knowledge according to which comprehended knowledge about one’s motives, goals, wishes and capabilities, about the resources of one’s development and ways of providing the effective interaction with people around serves as a foothold in devising a specific strategy of life activity (the strategy of professional self-determination including) (Mitina, 2004). Using this knowledge in his life, in building relations with other people a person becomes a true subject of his activism. Such an active position in life and activity emerges as a developing multi-aspect process of the personal self-determination, self-modification and self-development. An active qualitative transformation by a person of his inner world is understood by self-development in psychology. Self-development underlies professional development as a dynamic and uninterrupted process of a person’s self-projection.

The main goals of this training program were the following:

- to teach students to apply knowledge about personality development in the course of professional self-determination and realization of life plans in the process of continuous education;
- to help students devise their own professional style, comprehend their professional abilities, and determine areas for professional growth;
- a deliberate modification of the orientation in motives, values and professional preferences in the students’ personality through gaining their own life experience, its analysis and reassessment in the process of the group interaction;
• to give psychological support to freshmen while they are adapting to learning at an institution of higher education.

The assessment of the training results by participants with the help of Dembo Rubinstein’s modified scale was carried out on the indicators of viability, realism and practical application of knowledge obtained, and also on the indicator of creative self-realization in the solution of problem situations, flexibility of behavioral strategies. The results obtained showed a positive dynamic pattern on the indicator of creative self-realization (significant differences between senior students’ assessments and young specialists were not found). The modeling of professional situations of various complexity levels helped to demonstrate complexity, ambiguity and poly-variety of the search for problem solutions, each participant designed adaptive variants of goal setting and behavior. The content-analysis of participants’ self-analysis allows us to draw a conclusion about the effectiveness of modeling as a method of developing professional perceptions and world view of soon-to-be young specialists. The integration of modeling into modern technologies of psychological support is a promising area in search of innovative forms of a psychologist’s work. Modeling as a technology practice is of special interest for specialists designing training courses for the development meta-professional constructs (according to E.F. Zeer, 2008), the training courses of professional communication and self-presentation, in particular.

Conclusion

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The Postmodern Spatio-Temporal Narratology in John Barth’s “Lost in the Funhouse”

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Abstract
Based on the conventional theories of time, one of the narrative techniques was to change the temporal order of events by different analepses and prolepses. But postmodernist literature subverts all previous narrative spatio-temporal theories and imposes concepts of fracturing, fragmentation, and indeterminacy upon the narrative to bring about flickering temporal and spatial constructs. Being strongly influenced by the climate of postmodernism, John Barth in his collections of short story, “Lost in the Funhouse” manipulated time and space through narration and brought them to the foreground. As far as temporality is concerned, Barthian narratives are often non-linear and non-realistic: there is a discrepancy between the narrated time and the temporal time in their narration, and the order and frequency of events are playfully dealt with. When it comes to the question of space in his narratives, Barth’s postmodernist rendering of space divides a finite distance into an infinite number of small distances which bring about boundless and unlimited narrative spatiality. As a consequence of such a “play” with time and space, there exists a kind of instability in Barth’s narrative world. In other words, the modal structure of the narrative world is questioned and undermined by the spatio-temporal uncertainty induced by the narrative.

KeyWords: Postmodern narrative time and space, narrative spatio-temporal instability, postmodernism, John Barth

1. Introduction
Time and space, as the constituents of the physical world, are among the basic categories of human experience; individuals and societies experience time and space as they regulate their lives through them. Obviously, in order to create a fictional world in a narrative form, time and space are the rudimentary elements in the process. As Bridgeman asserted:
Narratives unfold in time, and the past, present, and future of a given event or action affect our interpretation of that action, while the characters who populate narrative texts move around, inhabit and experience different spaces and locations, allowing readers to construct complex worlds in their minds. (2007, 52)

In this case, authors have been dealing with many questions concerning the manipulation of narrative space-time since the very beginning of writing fiction. “Our civilization tended to think of narrative time as a one-directional and irreversible flow . . . Today we might add that not only the object of experience but also the experiencing subject is in a constant flux” (Rimmon-Kenan 2005, 46). In this vein, the manipulation of narrative time and space is “the dominant component of postmodernist poetics, since it has become a principle of systematicity, that is to say, it has become an underlying principle for governing the literary work, hence postmodernism’s subversion of the former conventions” (McHale 2015, 10) in a way that one can see “the difference between the time of fiction and the time of
phenomenological experience” (Ricoeur 1948, 2: 62). “The most exhaustive discussion of the discrepancies between story-time and text-time was arisen by Gérard Genette who viewed time in three respects: order, duration, and frequency under which he set out to examine the relations between story-time and text-time” (Rimmon-Kenan 2005, 47-48). On the contrary, by the coming of Postmodernism which is characterized by “a mode of subversion in the fiction of post-1945, non-traditional authors employ experimental techniques to bring about particular effects in their narratives” (Bradbury 1992, 164). In this way, postmodernist literature subverts all previous narrative spatio-temporal theories and imposes concepts of fracturing, fragmentation and indeterminacy upon the narrative to bring about flickering temporal and spatial constructs. In his three-volume book named Time and Narrative, Paul Ricoeur illustrates the complexity of the relation between the time of fiction and the story time -or between Erzählzeit and erzählteZeit in German (1948, 2: 77). In the chapter of “Games with Time,” he divides narrative time into three categories: “perspective or retrospective, zero degree, and anticipation.” "Fiction," in his words "continually makes the transition between the experience that precedes the text and the experience that follows it" (1948, 2: 73). Ricoeur’s theories of postmodern narrative time affected many writers of his time and, beyond any doubt, John Barth was no exception. Barth wrote not only critical essays from a postmodernist viewpoint but also some short fictions with playful representation of time and space.

In 1967, John Barth in his famous essay “The Literature of Exhaustion” wrote that the serious writers of the time had to come to terms with the overwhelming influence of the previous writers and the “used-upness” of certain forms (1984a, 64). Twelve years later, he writes a counter essay named “The Literature of Replenishment” in which he talks about the principles of literary recovery through fictional strategies such as mocking and undermining the inherited literary conventions so as to restore the fictional essence of story-telling and narrative (Bradbury 1992, 226). In this regard, in his two postmodern collections of short stories, Lost in the Funhouse and On with the Story: Stories, he tries, in a sense, to replenish the exhausted fiction by manipulating and bringing narrative time and space to the foreground. Accordingly, Barth’s narratives in his short stories contain games with time and space so much so that they form the general structure of his stories. As far as temporality is concerned, Barthian narratives are more often non-linear and non-realistic: there is a discrepancy between the narrated time and the story time, and the order and frequency of events are playfully dealt with. Moreover, at times there is a close correspondence between story time and narrative time or what is described as “zero degree” in narrative theory. When it comes to the question of space in his narratives, Barth’s postmodern rendering of space, Zeno’s Paradox, divides up a finite distance into an infinite number of small distances which bring about boundless and unlimited narrative spatiality (The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy, Zeno’s Paradoxes). As a consequence of such a play with time and space, there exists a kind of instability in Barth’s narrative world. In other words, the modal structure of the narrative world is questioned and undermined by the spatio-temporal uncertainty and indeterminacy induced by the narrative, considering the labyrinthine narrative of some of his short stories.

Furthermore, as far as cognitive issues are concerned, such fictional arrangements produce unstable cognitive formations induced by the poetics of the work and hinder the readers’ understanding of the story world. This difficulty in Barth’s narratives could be accounted for by exploring the way the “prefigured time,” as Paul Ricoeur explains, “becomes a refigured time through the mediation of a configured time” (1984, 1: 54). As a matter of fact, the cognitive modification of the stories are in line with the narrative spatio-temporal manipulation by Barth. Therefore, in this study an attempt is made to show
how Barth’s attitude towards narrative time and space in his short stories has shaped his postmodern narratives and the readers’ responses.
Postmodern Narrative Time and Space

As the key parameters for narrative world-building, time and space have been the main concerns of critics and writers since the beginning of writing fiction. Traditionally, it was believed that narrative time was a uni-directional and irreversible flow, a sort of one-way street. Such a conception was given metaphoric shape by Heraclitus: "You cannot step twice into the same river, for other waters and yet other waters go ever flowing on!" (qtd in Rimmon-Kenan 2005, 46). Therefore, narrative time was conceived as a linear succession of events. By the time of modernism, some fiction writers began to manipulate the use of time and space in the narrative world in order “to extend the narrative dimensions of the plot” (Dannenberg 2008, 9). One of the techniques was to change the temporal order of events by different analepses and prolepses, considering the fact “that time flows in a fixed direction” (Rimmon-Kenan 2005, 46) in a way that one can see “the difference between the time of fiction and the time of the phenomenological experience” (Ricoeur 1984, 2: 62). Therefore, critics claimed that “with the watershed of modernism did plot lose its linearity” (Dannenberg 2008, 2). Studying through such changes, Genette came up with such new kinds of structure that afforded world constructions through various analepses (flashbacks) and prolepses (flashforwards), “intercalated” mode of narration where the act of narration postdates some events but precedes others, and fluctuations in the speed of narration along with the manipulations of frequency in narrative time. Relatively, he reserved the general term “anachrony” to designate all forms of discordance between the two temporal orders of the story and the narrative. Since then narrative time has been defined as “the relations of chronology between story and text,”(Rimmon-Kenan 2005, 46), and one of the necessities for analyzing narrative was to examine the relation between the story time and the narrative time. “Temporally, the effort was to condense the complexity of time and history and make them apprehensible in a single frame. Spatially, modern literature was characterized by its striving to achieve a “spatial form,” which allowed and required the work to be seen all at once in a single cohering perspective” (Connor 2004b, 62).

In the final decades of the twentieth century, “postmodernity as a predominantly twentieth-century phenomenon” (Malpas 2005, 34) revolutionized structure in all its aspects and “modified the real living conditions and commonsense conceptions of space and time” (Francese 1997, 2). Likewise, postmodernist literature subverts all previous narrative spatio-temporal theories and imposes concepts of fracturing, fragmentation, and indeterminacy upon the narrative to bring about flickering temporal and spatial constructs. Basically, the major attempt was to blur the distinctions between the fictional time and the ‘real’ time. So much so that, in postmodernist fiction “both the text and the world are permeable, to the extent that we cannot separate one from the other” (Lewis 2001, 131). Therefore, “the subject of postmodernity was spatially disoriented, and the individual was made to live more intensively in the present by weakening the influence of the past and future expectations” (Francese 1997, 3). Gradually, such modifications introduced a new style of writing, i.e. postmodernism, which has given rise to a “feeling of anxiety, out-of-placeness, and the loss of temporal direction in fiction” (qtd in Francese 1997, 4). Considering narrative tense, postmodernist fiction “deviates narrative from its linear coherence by warping the sense of significant time, or the dull passing of ordinary time” (Lewis 2001, 124). In Connor’s words, "Postmodernism apprehends the unevenness of times, the mingling of old and new […] sees it [postmodernism] as a new development in the flow of time, a new kind of ‘now’" (2004a, 8). Paul Ricoeur, one of those literary critics who have worked on the postmodern manipulation of time, argued that games with time in postmodern fiction resulted from the split into “utterance” and “statement.” This “utterance-statement world of the text, to which correspond a time of narrating, a narrated time, and a
fictive experience of time projected by the conjunction/disjunction between the time it takes to narrate and narrated time" (1984, 2: 77). In this vein, he linked the time of the story with the time of the text by his threefold division: “prospective/retrospective, anticipation, and zero degree (1984, 2: 72) - coined to describe a condition of perfect temporal correspondence between narrative and story. According to Dannenberg, related to the fact that the multiple-world tendency grows apace in the postmodernist fiction, Genette's temporal model for narrative is insufficient, since anachrony is a narrative movement, backward and forward, along the single sliding scale of the past and future and not a portal to different world versions. In contradiction to Genette's concept of anachrony, the term “temporal orchestration” refers to the suggestion of more than one version of the past or future by the text. Also it "can be conceived of metaphorically as a kind of time machine that not only switches between past and future worlds but also switches between parallel worlds" (2008, 50).

As discussed previously, the postmodernist writer distrusts the wholeness and completion associated with traditional stories, and prefers to deal with other ways of structuring narrative. One alternative is the numerous forms of ending:

These include the ending that occurs but is not told to the audience (Thomas Pynchon’s The Crying of Lot 49); the ending that returns, Ouroboros-like, to the beginning of the story (Finnegans Wake); the ending that negates itself and presents a second, revised ending (John Fowles' The French Lieutenant's Woman); And a multiple ending which resists closure by offering numerous possible outcomes for a plot (Malcolm Bradbury's 'Composition'). (Herman 2012, 80)

Unfortunately, up to the 1960s, the fact that space too was a vital and creative experience had been ignored. As Michel Foucault explained, "space was treated as the dead, the fixed, the undialectical, the immobile. Time, on the contrary, was richness, fecundity, life, dialectic" (1980, 70). Conversely, the Bakhtinian theory of chronotope “depicted the deep integration of time and space into one unified "time-space" framework which plays a key role in the production of meaning” (Lorino 2012, 201). In other words, “time experience is embedded in space experience, and vice versa” (205). In that framework, “time and space are both considered as homogeneous variables,” (203) i.e., space as a trace of time and time as a marker of space. Thus, along with the temporal studies of fiction narrative, space came into fiction writers and critics' focus. As far as the fictional representation of space is concerned, in a postmodernist narrative, “a finite distance is divided up into an infinite number of small distances. Thus, space is infinitely divisible. Such a philosophical technique which is called 'Zeno's Paradox' brings about “boundless and unlimited narrative spatiality” (Dowden 2017). In addition, sometimes “nonspatial concepts are mapped using spatial metaphors. The more abstract phenomenon of time is often conceptualized in spatial terms, i.e., time is conceived as a path” (Dannenberg 2008, 252). Hence a game-like manipulation of time and space was brought to the poetics of postmodern narrative, and metafiction was the best platform for such a play in order to reflect the fragmentation of postmodernism. In other words, "postmodernist construction of narrative has cognitive, temporal and spatial aspects in order that narrative fiction, in the finite form of a book, represents the attempt to create miniature map or 'plot' of time and space with a beginning and an end" (13). Such manipulation of time and space is indeed a type of game in which authors invite readers to play with texts.

In what follows, John Barth’s fiction is centrally concerned with “The Literature of Replenishment” by “recycling elements of plot common to all narratives” (Francese 1997, 46). Therefore, his narratives
dominantly seek to play with time and space so much so that his stories are made of different narrative spatio-temporal techniques which are recognizable from the very overall view of the two collections to every single story within them. As an experimental postmodern writer of short stories, Barth presents a game-like form of narrative time and space in order to keep his short fiction away from previous narrative conventions. The fourteen stories of *Lost in the Funhouse* display a non-linear, non-realist, irregular and playful manipulation of narrative time and space.

**Discussion**

One may start with a mere compound sentence as follows "once upon a time there was a story that began" (1988, 1-2). This sentence has covered two pages of the story. In fact, the very beginning of the story, shatters our understanding of linearity, both in time and in space. In this vein, the reader is accustomed to read a story in a linear way, in which one follows the events of the story word by word, line by line, and second by second. But in the first chapter, the reader is faced with a mere sentence, covering the space of two pages with a big font, and also not horizontally, but vertically.

The reader has certainly moved and has tried to find a physical way to handle this dis-spacement of the language in space. There are instructions on how to twist the page to make it look like a ring of words, commonly called a Mobius strip. The page is not meant to be simply read and then turned. The author wants the reader to interact with the words and become involved in the material. On the other hand, the reader has to forget the previous way of temporal reading in which one passes through the words of the text, taking time to conceive a text that here is the story.

The instruction says that the sentence in two pages must be cut out by the reader, and its ends being fastened together, after being twisted once in a Mobius strip. Doing this, a regression *ad infinitum*, a loop with no beginning or end will come into existence. In other words, each turn of the Mobius strip is a retelling of the same story that has already been told. Although it says the same thing, it indicates that it renews itself each time.

Another important motif which turns out to be one of the most effective reasons of non-linearity of time and non-spatiality of space in Barth's collection is "circularity". With the aforementioned unconventional beginning, the author manifests to the reader that the structure of the series is a “spiral” one (Musarra 1987, 228). As Walkiewicz remarks, "Frame-Tale" serves as the emblem of the series, which contains a circular structure (1986, 89). This technique is absolutely entangled with the concept of *Mise en abyme* which later become an artistic and literary technique. "Mise en abyme" is a French term derived from heraldry, and literally means "placed into abyss". The term has developed a number of particular senses in modern criticism since it was picked up from heraldry by the French author André Gide" ("Mise en abyme").

In the second story, the narrator starts the story by asking some ontological and philosophical questions on which the reader must ponder. The questions clearly indicate the indeterminacy of time and space in the narrator's view. Anytime, the pleasure of the journey is certainly affected through these conscious questions:

> Is the journey my invention? Do the night, the sea, exist at all, I ask myself, apart from my experience of them? Do I myself exist, or is this a dream? Sometimes I wonder. And if I am, who am I? The Heritage I supposedly transport? But how can I be both vessel and contents? Such are the questions that beset my intervals of rest. (1988, 3)
The narrator is trying to make a distinction between objectivity and subjectivity by making a distinctive line between his own experience and what really exists outside. He is not sure about the objective and physical reality of the night, referring to time, and of the sea, referring to space. Later, the narrator, who has been putting under questions all the presuppositions, asks again: "but what if the Shore exists in the fancies of us swimmers merely, who dream it to account for the dreadful fact that we swim" (1988, 5). He is not sure about the existence of a space independent of our subjectivity, which he extremely presents it as a fancy and a dream.

One of the ways to blur the concept of space is to talk about the source and the target, and how they are lost or faded beyond the realm of hesitation and wilderness: "affirm in and for itself the night-sea journey; swim on with neither motive nor destination, for the sake of swimming" (1988, 5). Tracing back the origin of bewilderment, we can find some social and political reasons in a postmodern situation. "The geographic mobility of capital with investments spaced all over the globe intensifies the demographic mobility of industrial societies. The alienated, migrating worker of modernity further metamorphoses into his postmodern counterpart, who is taking along his family, fragmented by the loss of a sense of space and community. People are now faced with the dissolution of the traditional support system formerly provided by the extended family which is detectible in both modern and postmodern literature, and specifically in some novels analyzed by Brînzeu and GruicGrmuša" (Vukanović 2009, 13). "The weakening of the sense of belonging to a space and its people and temporal scales, constantly on the move, has made the individual spatially disoriented and temporally accelerated" (13).

Later in the story, we find the conceptualization of time and space as destiny and destination, but again, a time and space that cannot be limited to the presupposed definition of the concepts with a definite, conscious, and wittingly planned framework. On the contrary, both time as destiny and space as destination are unwittingly, profligately, and unconsciously, described with these expressions "one of which gives rise to seas and swimmers, the other to the Night-which-contains-the-sea and to What-waits-at-the-journey's-end" (Barth 1988, 10). In fact, time represents a certain construction which is formed by a personality. Thus, it is perceived differently by different people. The writer has paid special attention to the personal experience of time, describing various temporal experiences. Philip Rosen (2001) compares modern temporality to a battlefield: "Modern temporality is like a battle terrain on which the disordering force of time struggles with the need and desire to order or control time" (141):

Listen: my friend maintained that in every order of creation there are two sorts of creators, contrary yet complementary, one of which gives rise to seas and swimmers, the other to the Night-which-contains-the-sea and to What-waits-at-the-journey's-end: the former, in short, to destiny, the latter to destination (and both profligately, involuntarily, perhaps indifferently or unwittingly). (1988, 10)

“What-waits-at-the-journey's-end” and “Night-which-contains-the-sea” are destination which are deprived of any termination, toggled up in a labyrinthine atmosphere, not being capable to get out of it, there is no real destination as well as destiny. The presence of time and space in the story follows the classic and linear logic of narratology. Namely, it narrates, as we said above, the story of his birth and his condition with a definite beginning, a climax, and an end, accompanied by definite times and spaces in which the story goes on.

But it must be added that although the story is based on a classic and linear method of narration, it is narrated by a person who logically must not remember anything or must not tell the story in a way that
we read in the story, for instance Ambrose pretends that he knows some events and does not remember some others: "Of the interview with Erdmann I can give no details; my uncle, who rehearsed these happenings until the year of his death, never dwelt on it" (Barth 1988, 28). Ambrose tells the story from a psychoanalyst point of view, finding and reconstructing his own characterization and wilderness based upon some sign and events in his childhood and infancy: "Portentous or not, the events of that morning had two notable consequences for me, the point and end of their chronicling here" (29).

Barth in “Autobiography: A Self-Recorded Fiction” deconstructs what he had given through the narration told by Ambrose in the previous story by the multiplication of his birth and childhood story. The narrator knows a certain version of his past, and just plods on being the ‘he’ he has created, aware of his past and troubles, even burdened by his father’s lack of desire for his birth or his career. The reader is mesmerized which story and which time and space must he trust. This is the way Barth puts under question the authenticity of time and space, beside the story as a whole. Sarup, discussing postmodern fiction, believes that

The fiction of the creating subject gives way to the frank confiscation, quotation, accumulation and repetition of already existing images. Works such as these which bring together heterogeneous images and technologies not only undermine many modernist assumptions but also raise questions about originality and authenticity. (Sarup 1993, 173)

The reader in this story goes through a specific experience of time and consequently of space, because he is ordered by the narrator or the writer simultaneously, i.e., the time of the story is the time when the reader reads it: “You who listen give me life in a manner of speaking” (1988, 33). Apart from that notion, the disorderly order of the words juxtaposed is a postmodern technique in which the reader observes some empty spaces between the words. The time has also been brought to a halt. The reader, accustomed to a normal text with normal spaces between the words, is distracted by the tumultuous temporal and spatial distribution of the words. In result, the reader, like the writer, might say, "My situation appears to me as follows: I speak in a curious, detached manner, and don't necessarily hear myself" (33). This self-awareness of the writer and the indeterminacy of the character about his own identity and existence is obvious in the following lines: "Are you there? If so I'm blind and deaf to you, or you are me, or both're both. One may be imaginary; I've had stranger ideas. I hope I'm a fiction without real hope. Where there's a voice there's a speaker" (33). According to Hu (2000),

“Water-Message” is a tale of boys, one being the narrator, sort of a weakling who depends upon his brother for protection. The kids play around the edge of the waters and find a message in a bottle that is enigmatic and challenging. The narrator constantly enriches his own life with creating stories that surround what is actually going on. Such a creation allows the narrator accompanied by the reader to experience different spaces, though the plot is taking place by the seashore. “This kind of remembering the events and memories is of great importance in modern and postmodern literature.” (qtd. in Morrell 1975, 65)

Even the letter in the bottle that has amused and confused the characters for the whole story contains nothing but a meaningless beginning and end:

To Whom It May Concern
On the next-to-bottom:

Yours Truly (Barth 1988, 53)

Once more, Barth uses the page as a physical medium to formalize his narrator’s understanding of time and space; when we read the letter, we lose the conception of space in writing and it consequently breaks our conceptualization of time through space. “Lost in the Funhouse” also represents the instability of time and space. This confusion starts by the first sentence of the story: “for whom is the funhouse fun?” (Barth 1988, 69). When the name of a space is "funhouse" but you doubt whether it has anything funny or not, your understanding of such space is defaced and distorted: either you are disjointed of the space by some reason, or the space has been misnamed if it exists at all, or both: "For Ambrose it is a space of fear and confusion" (69).

What does actually happen to time and space in the story, when the writer decides to continue not with the narration time, but to continue with the story itself? Namely, as Barth talks about the medium of the story or its language, time and space are suspended until Barth comes back into the story. In such a linguistic condition, the reader seems to experience a timeless nowhere in which the story talks about the way a story or stories are written:

The function of the beginning of a story is to introduce the principal characters, establish their initial relationships, set the scene for the main action, expose the background of the situation if necessary, plant motifs and foreshadowings where appropriate, and initiate the first complication or whatever of the “rising action.” ... The beginning should recount the events between Ambrose’s first sight of the funhouse early in the afternoon and his entering it with Magda and Peter in the evening. The middle would narrate all relevant events from the time he goes in to the time he loses his way... Then the ending would tell what Ambrose does while he’s lost, how he finally finds his way out, and what everybody makes of the experience. (Barth 1988, 73-74)

Ambrose, like the other companions, is led by chance to the beach, and then to the funhouse. Chance, as we said before, is one of the most significant and effective elements of Postmodern literature. As they are running by chance, space and time cannot be identified easily like a linear narrative: “There’s no point in going farther; this isn’t getting anybody anywhere; they haven’t even come to the funhouse yet. Ambrose is off the track, in some new or old part of the space that’s not supposed to be used” (Barth 1988, 80).

According to Ma (2013), basically, postmodern fiction writers “oppose logic, coherence, and closeness in plot and believe that ‘a close structure’ that has a coherent meaning with the characters’ logical movements and an integrated plot is merely the writers’ own wishful thinking, instead of something based on real life” (1341). As Ma believes,

such a close structure should be broken and respaced by an open framework, and postmodern writers abandon logic and coherence during the process of novel creation only to permute historical time, present time and future time. With past, present and future randomly reversed and space constantly divided and severed, there arise various infinite possibilities in plot of postmodern literary works. (1341)
The structure of the funhouse is made up of a mirror that creates perplexity in people's minds. Both literally and metaphorically, the presence of a mirror indicates a multiplicity, wilderness, and chance in the destination of men: "In the funhouse mirror-room you can't see yourself go on forever, because no matter how you stand, your head gets in the way. Even if you had a glass periscope, the image of your eye would cover up the thing you really wanted to see" (Barth 1988, 81-82). Mirrors symbolize the fragmented world of Ambrose. Such fragmentation, which is another important element in postmodern fiction, involves both the space in which Ambrose has been located by chance and the time that Ambrose experiences due to his complexity, suspended in the past, present, and future; there is no "ultimate" image of himself that he can rely on. Then, as Ambrose is so self-conscious, he cannot experience the outside world as others do. He cannot either just focus on the moment, since his mind travels back and forth evaluating endless possibilities forever.

Some moments happen in the Funhouse that Ambrose wonders if he is lost and where to go: "At the time, Ambrose wasn't lost enough to rap or call; later he couldn't find that crack. Now it seemed to him that he'd possibly dozed off for a few minutes somewhere along the way; certainly he was exhausted from the afternoon's sunshine and the evening's problems; he couldn't be sure he hadn't dreamed part or all of the sight" (Barth 1988, 84). He is not actually certain about the time in which he is, not even about the events that happen to him.

Another story in the collection "Echo" reminds the reader of a linguistic disorder by the name of "Echolalia" which refers to autistic people who "repeat or echo the words and statements of the others, instead of trying to continue the dialogue" ("Echolalia"). When this linguistic phenomenon takes place, time and space become automatically distorted, because there will be no continuous flow of speech by which we trace the time. Also, the space as no space will be definitely clarified through Echolalia. Echo, our protagonist in this story, was cursed by Zeus' wife Hera and could no longer speak on her own. She could only repeat what others said and, in this part of the book, she is repeating the stories she has heard from Tiresias and Narcissus. Since she is repeating the tales, the reader must decide if the words are accurately duplicated or are being told in a way favorable to Echo. This story was written to be recorded and takes on the persona of the mythological nymph Echo. For instance, the following lines of the story give no definite place and time, even when a word like "spring" is uttered:

But Narcissus! What's become of contemptible, untemptable Narcissus, the drug so many have turned on on, and sung themselves on pretext of hymning him? Was Tiresias about to counsel him in obscurity? No. Except to declare that his true love awaits him in the spring at Donacon; discovering who he is will prove as fatal for Narcissus as it's proving for Oedipus. Queer advice! To see the truth is one thing, to speak it another. (Barth 1988, 98)

In the story "Title", Barth explicitly refers to the time of the story and believes it to be a tumult of times and linearity: "Beginning: in the middle, past the middle, nearer three-quarters done, waiting for the end. Consider how dreadful so far: passionlessness, abstraction, pro, dis. And it will get worse. Can we possibly continue?" (Barth 1988, 102). Tanner (1971) regards space - space in its universal sense - as an edifice of the fictions, and time tangled up in a mirror-maze room:

The Funhouse itself seems to represent a variety of structures, evoking associations both of Burroughs’s vaudeville and Borges’s labyrinth. From one point of view the Funhouse is an analogue of life itself, it which the relatively mindless or unselfconscious merrily and
energetically couple, while Ambrose is astray in the mirror-maze, vexed by endlessly receding ‘reflections’ and unable to disentangle dreaming from doing. But the Funhouse is also that pseudo-world which man invents for his own amusement, the edifice of the fictions with which we distract ourselves. (1974, 256)

In fact, Barth hopelessly tries to make sense out of a world that we do not really know whether it means anything. There seems to be an absurdist view in this story in which all the words signify nothing, along with the time that is not definite regarding the beginning, the middle, and the end. This meaninglessness of time and consequently space is manifest in the second paragraph of the story:

Plot and theme: notions vitiated by this hour of the world but as yet not successfully succeeded. Conflict, complication, no climax. The worst is to come. Everything leads to nothing: future tense; past tense; present tense. Perfect. The final question is; can nothing be made meaningful? Isn't that the final question? If not, the end is at hand. Literally, as it were. Can't stand any more of this. (Barth 1988, 102)

An impossible and fictitious space but at the same time a factual space –because the narrator believes in nothing meaningful and real– has been made by the words of the narrator in which contradiction and chance play to get into contact with the space, a timeless space:

The only way to get out of a mirror-maze is to close your eyes and hold out your hands. And be carried away by a valiant metaphor, I suppose, like a simile. There's only one direction to go in. Ugh. We must make something out of nothing. Impossible. Mystics do. Not only turn contradiction into paradox, but employ it, to go on living and working. (Barth 1988, 108)

The preceding chapters such as “Title, Echo, Glossolalia”, along with the present one are mainly about the absurdity which has engulfed our conceptualization of time and space, where anything has lost its stability and identity. Nothing is stable enough to cling to in order to define a specific character of time or a particular event in space, although the writer hilariously and consciously tries to give some precise time in this tory such as:

He happened at the time* to be in his study attempting to draft the opening pages of a new short story; its general idea had preoccupied him for some months along with other general ideas, but certain elements of the conceit, without which he could scarcely proceed, remained unclear. * 9:00 A.M., Monday, June 20, 1966. (Barth 1988, 113)

In these sentences the writer is in a self-wanted conflict with himself to be linear in time or to be nonlinear, while still giving a definite time referring to the time of writing: "It doesn't matter to me how naively linear the anecdote is; never mind modernity! How reactionary J appears to be. How will such nonsense sound thirty-six years from now?" (Barth 1988, 116).

Time and space are primarily the self-conscious options of the writer who wants to begin writing, but here the self-conscious narrator offers a rhetorical question pointing out his reluctance to present such self-consciousness because of the fact that literature as a mimetic art has come to an impasse:
Who doesn’t prefer art that at least overtly imitate something other than its own process? That doesn’t continually proclaim “Don’t forget I’m an artifice!” That takes for granted its mimetic nature instead of asserting it in order . . . to deny it or vice-versa? (Barth 1988, 114)

The more Barth goes into the stories, the deeper gets the concept of absurdity. In “Menelaiad” there are two dominant themes which are the same as the previous stories: “the unknowability of any possible meaning to human existence and the dilemma of the absurdity of an author telling the true story of an author telling a true story” (Corbett 2012). Barth has not hinted at the place and time without having in mind going beyond that, or impressing their imperfections and instability. Here, it firstly seems that the time of the story is the Trojan War. But as the reader gets more involved in the postmodern elements of the story, it becomes clear that it has never been Barth’s intention to take us back to an ancient time. That place and that time are excuses for him to talk about his linguistic and verbal complexities. The narrator wants to say what punctuation does regarding the content of the story: "No matter; this isn't the voice of Menelaus; this voice is Menelaus, all there is of him. When I'm switched on I tell my tale, the one I know, How Menelaus Became Immortal, but I don't know it" (Barth 1988, 127).

Barth has always had a problem of telling historical the time, and according to White (1973):

Like other postmodernists, these authors agree that nonverbal experience can only be described and not reproduced, even when history is in question. They believe history becomes highly distorted through language, which is why historical testaments must be regarded with a certain skepticism. Historical perspective is thus just a narrative, often based on political or social bias, a presentation of ideals, heroes and villains, but also providing moral and exemplary behavior for future generations. (149)

The following lines are clearly showing the uncertainty of time and space in this historical-mythological story:

"'('"("("What?")")"'"

"'"'"'"'"'"'"Why?' I repeated,"I repeated,' I repeated," I repeated,' I repeated," I repeat. ' '"

"'"'"'"'And the woman, with a bride-shy smile and hushed voice, replied: 'Why what?'"

"'"'"'"'Faster than Athena sealed beneath missile Sicily upstart Enceladus, Poseidon NisyrosmutinePolybutes, I sealed my would-widen eyes; snigger than PorcesLaocoon, Heracles Antaeus, I held to my point interrogative Helen, to whom as about us combusted nightlong Ilion I rehearsed our history horse to horse, driving at last as eveningly myself to the seed and omphalos of all. . . . ""("("("("("())))))"

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" 'Why?' "

" 'Why?' " (Barth 1988, 148)

There are three references to time and space in the following lines that indicated uncertainty once more: "I begin in the middle- where too I’ll end, there being alas to my arrested history as yet no denouement. God knows how long I’d been out of writing material until this morning, not to mention how long altogether I’ve been marooned upon this Zeusforsaken rock, in the middle of nowhere" (Barth 1988, 164). There are some references to time in the process of the story that the reader does not know how to draw a temporal plan to understand the story; "And next day we two set sail, and laughed and drank across the wine-dark sea to our first anchorage" (Barth 1988, 182).

On the whole, Barth’s series in Lost in the Funhouse avoids closure by leading back into itself; by denying beginnings and endings in a structural arrangement that is supported by its thematic circularity, the twist of the series enacts the twist of the moebius rip. Even though, the texts make their readers to supply meanings, they avoid being interpreted by accentuating their spatio-temporal ambiguity. Lost in the Funhouse, “deconstructs itself in the processes of its construction” (Edwards 285), creating its reader, a “dogged, unsuitsable, print-oriented bastard” (Barth 1988, 123), as the one who will join the games of narrative time and space that it offers. Such play is useful because it denotes activity rather than passive acceptance, fun rather that stolid gravity. There are uncertainties and instabilities within those endless spatio-temporal games.

Conclusion

In an attempt to reflect the postmodern manipulation of narrative time and space in the poetics of short fiction, the present study, having chosen John Barth as a postmodernist writer representing the concern of postmodernist fiction with narrative space-time, has sought to read Barth’s selected short, “Lost in the Funhouse”. Time and Space have been treated by Barth as poetic means so as to build the underlying structure of his short narratives. Accordingly, there are plurality of space and non-linear continuity of time which lacks coherence and consistency in the structure of his narrative worlds.

Barth also seeks to reflect upon the concern of postmodernism with the issue of beginning and ending. Beginnings are shown as problematic: the beginning is approached repeatedly; it is tried to begin the stories again and again but no beginning is satisfactory. In the same line with beginnings, endings seem inaccessible, that is to say, no single and definite ending is promised by Barth’s poetics, hence the obsessive treatment of ending in his short narratives.

As the result of such postmodern manipulation of narrative time and space there comes chaotic instability, uncertainty, relativization, entropy, and fragmentation within the fictional worlds of the postmodern narratives to the extent that a reader is lost in a labyrinthine time and space. “Lost in the Funhouse” distinguished by its exuberant invention and extreme playfulness, manifests games with time and space implicitly. Not only the title of the collection, “Lost in the Funhouse”, but also the title of every single story represents continuum and unending in the play of time and space. As far as narrative time is concerned there are heterogeneous temporality and chronological distortions (anachronies) in a way that it is sometimes difficult to find a boundary between the story time and the narrative time. In the debate about space, a finite distance is divided into an infinite number of distances in order to impose the sense of continuity once again. In this collection Barth dominantly seeks to play with ontology so much so that his stories are made of different worlds and each world has its own spatio-
temporal status. This multiplicity in the concepts of time and space brings about indeterminacy to the text and instability I the world of fiction. Therefore, time and space in postmodernist fiction are presented as complex, multilevel and multifaceted structure, like Barth’s manipulation of the two elements, which testifies that this complex phenomenon becomes more complicated in a person’s mind, and, hence, gets various forms of expression in the text, as a product of the mind. In addition, no true conception of the postmodernist fiction is possible without being fully aware of the playful manipulation of narrative space-time.

References
Computer Anxiety and Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety among Male and Female Engineering Students

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Abstract
Technology plays an important role in every day’s life of human beings. Since using any new issue leads to reactions, no matter positive or negative, engaging with social network devices brings some sort of anxiety to individuals’ life. Computer anxiety and foreign language classroom anxiety are the goals of this study which dominate learning and teaching. 48 bachelor students of Sharif University of Technology including 23 male and 25 females were included in this study. The validated computer anxiety questionnaire Heinssen, Glass and Knight (1987) along with the foreign language anxiety scale developed by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) were utilized. The data revealed that both computer anxiety and foreign language classroom anxiety were more evident among female participants. The result of this study is useful to teachers and language educators who want to enhance language teaching and being aware of these two phenomena among students in order to find solutions to cope with them.

Keywords: computer anxiety; EFL; social network; foreign language classroom anxiety; gender; language teaching

1. Introduction
In this modern era technology comprising computers, smart phones, and many other gadgets play a very active role in mankind life. It has its influences on people academic and personal life. Although many people are always attempting to be up to date and try their best to benefit from technology and various devices available. On the other hand, there are lots of other people who resist involving technologies in their life. The reason these group of people do not engage in utilizing technology and learning to benefit from this modern era’s endowment is anxiety, negative and illogical beliefs (Raub 1981, Beckers and Schmidt, 2000).

In order to maintain meaningful education, it is a must to facilitate the education system by computer mediation teaching and making both the teachers and the students to use computer and technology. According to Hong & Koh (2002), to be successful teachers should cope with computer anxiety and phobia besides changing their attitude toward using computers in their classrooms. On the other hand, Alfaki and Alharthy (2014) stated that the ideal place for learning is the class equipped with social networks.

Computer anxiety is the feeling of uneasiness, apprehensiveness and fear of using computer (Igbaria and Chakrabarti, 1990). As cited in Hong and Koh (2002), Chua & Chen 1997 define computer anxiety as a complex emotional reaction such as fear among individuals which consider interacting with computer as a threat. Hong and Koh (2002), define computer anxiety as an emotional fear, apprehension, and phobia a user has toward computer and using computer in their daily life.

Several factors cause computer anxiety among which prior experience, computer ownership, accessibility to computers can be mentioned and for teachers in specific the perceived school support toward utilizing computer at the side of the administrators of the school (Hong and Koh, 2002). Further Hong and Koh
(2002), stated that teachers who feel the support of their school toward using computer while teaching have more positive attitude toward this method and consequently this causes them to have less computer anxiety.

Computer anxiety causes individuals to avoid using computer and technology (North and Noyes, 2002), (Igbaria and Chakrabarti, 1990). Further, according to Fuller, Vician, and Brown (2006) computer anxiety remains consistent among the individual with such phobia and even it might increase if the person has more exposure to computer and technology. Plus, this causes the individual to avoid using computers and also decreases their learning opportunities compared to those individual who have lower computer anxiety.

Howard 1986 (as cited in Rovai and Childress, 2002) claimed that the reasons for the causes of computer anxiety maybe that the individual may not have enough experience dealing with computer and technology, lack of knowledge regarding computer and technology and utilizing them and some psychological background which influences the attitude of the users toward computer and other technologies. Further, he claims that among these reasons dealing with psychological makeup is the most difficult one compared to other reasons such as lack of encountering with computers and technology and their lack of knowledge.

Within the scope of foreign language learning and teaching, technology has played a very active role in the recent method being used in modern language classrooms. Beside individuals with computer anxiety, there are lots of people suffering foreign language classroom anxiety. Although many language learners may be motivated enough to attend language classes, there are always some barriers for some of them within the classroom. They simply get blank and cannot perform effectively in their class as if something is preventing them from performing the language ability. According to Tobias (1990), different kind of anxiety is associated with classroom tasks such as test taking. This can be clearly seen among students participating in TOEFL ibt classes which are preparing to participate in the actual test.

Bailey, Onwuegbuzie, and Daley (2003) stated that among the factors affecting second or foreign language, success anxiety is the most important factor. It may either enhance or worsen the language learning process. According to Winke (2007) a moderate level of anxiety is useful and helps the students to participate in the classroom activities and motivates them but the high level affects negatively and decreases the student’s motivation and participation, this sort of anxiety is named as debilitating anxiety by Yan and Horwitz (2008).

Classroom anxiety are also related to several factors such as the student’s personality, characteristics, learning motivation, self-esteem, and attitude toward foreign language learning (Liu and Huang, 2011; Von Worde, 2003; Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993). If such anxiety and tension is always accompanying foreign language classrooms after a period of time it would be considered as one of the core characteristics of language classrooms and it would prevent the learners from attending the classes and learning a new language because they will be under the pressure of their classmates and teachers (Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope, 1986).

Cubukcu’s (2008) study showed that the learners with foreign language classroom anxiety actually felt only the tension and stress while using the language in the classroom environment but they did feel this way while they were communicating with a native speaker of the language. Researches in the area of anxiety usually follow a quantitative method and employ anxiety questionnaires to investigate this phenomena (Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope, 1986).
The aim of conducting such research is to illustrate the computer anxiety and foreign language classroom anxiety among BSc engineering students of Sharif University of Technology attending language classes. This study can be helpful to give an insight to language teachers to be aware of such factors among language learners to think of solutions to reduce such variables in the language learning process of the learners. According to Kulik and Kulik (1991) results of such studies enhances student’s learning opportunities and education achievements. Since Horwitz (2001) claimed, researching and understanding foreign language classroom anxiety can help education system and teachers to get aware of such phenomena and also it can help the individuals to succeed in foreign language learning.

The researchers will attempt to answer the following questions:

1. Is there any significant relationship among student’s gender and their computer use, anxiety and achievement in English?
2. Is there any significant relationship among student’s gender and their foreign language classroom anxiety and its influence on their achievement in English?

2. Method

The participants of this study are 48 Bachelor engineering students of Sharif University of Technology selected randomly including 23 males and 25 females which are currently attending TOEFL ibt classes who intends to participate in the actual test. Based on Dornyei (2007) this study is done employing mixed method design using quantitative by means of questionnaire and qualitative design by means of interview. The data for this study is collected by means of two already validated questionnaire: one questionnaire for computer anxiety and the second questionnaire relating to foreign language classroom anxiety. The questionnaires are attached to the end of the paper as separate appendixes. In order to get more details regarding the participant’s responses the researchers have also interviewed the participants.

The data was collected by means of two questionnaires. First, validated computer anxiety questionnaire Heinssen, Glass and Knight (1987) (appendix A) was used. The questionnaire consisted 19 items which measured student’s computer anxiety. Second, foreign language anxiety scale developed by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) (appendix B) which had 33 items.

3. Results and Discussion

The answer to the first research question is as follows:

There was a significant relationship between the student’s gender and computer anxiety (r=0.2, p<0.05). According to the interpretation of the participant’s interview there are several reasons for this difference. Male participants owned computer devices much earlier than female participants and the male participants were highly motivated to use technology. Plus, the male participants had more general knowledge regarding computers and technologies and also they knew more trick regarding how to utilize computers and gadgets more effectively. In addition, the male participants spent more time on computers and different gadgets.

Further there was a significant relationship between participant’s computer use and their English proficiency (r=0.1, p<0.05). This means that those who used computers and other devices more than the others were much more successful in their foreign language acquisition. These participants used computer and gadgets to watch English movies with English subscription, surveying the internet, reading news, articles and texts in English and most of them joined some chat groups in order to communicate with native speakers to enhance their communicative abilities. All this improved their
English proficiency. Plus, computer anxiety had an opposite relationship with English proficiency $(r=0.21, p>0.05)$. This means that subjects with lesser computer anxiety were more successful than the other groups because the individuals without computer anxiety used computers more effectively for the above mentioned reasons and they are very effective in enhancing the learner’s English proficiency. For example individuals without computer anxiety dealt with the TPO test which are used to practice for TOEFL ibt tests much better and were not stressed while practicing the skill and this consequently caused them to get better marks on their TOEFL practice test.

Regarding the second research question:

According to the participant’s responses majority of them suffered from foreign language classroom anxiety. Most of the subjects comprising both male and female felt anxious while participating in classroom discussions. Regarding the participant’s gender and their foreign language classroom anxiety, female participants felt more anxious than male participants. Both male and female participants felt shy to participate in the classroom discussions and they had the fear of committing mistakes in front of the teacher or their classmates. Male participants were actually less shy and they could have better achievement in their English Proficiency. Participants’ responses showed that the one with lesser classroom anxiety was more successful and had better achievement.

4. Conclusion

In conclusion, both computer anxiety and foreign language classroom anxiety were more evident among female participants. Results of such studies are useful to teacher in order to find some solution to enhance participant language learning by coping with such anxiety. Plus, more studies should be conducted in regarding this matter in Iranian context with considering other variables as well.

Appendix A. Computer Anxiety Rating Scale – CARS (Heinssen, Glass & Knight, 1987)

1. I feel insecure about my ability to interpret a computer printout.
   a. strongly agree b. agree c. neutral d. disagree e. strongly disagree

2. I look forward to using a computer in my job.
   a. strongly agree b. agree c. neutral d. disagree e. strongly disagree

3. I do not think I would be able to learn a computer programming language.
   a. strongly agree b. agree c. neutral d. disagree e. strongly disagree

4. The challenge of learning about computers is exciting.
   a. strongly agree b. agree c. neutral d. disagree e. strongly disagree

5. I am confident that I can learn computer skills.
   a. strongly agree b. agree c. neutral d. disagree e. strongly disagree

6. Anyone can learn to use a computer if they are patient and motivated.
   a. strongly agree b. agree c. neutral d. disagree e. strongly disagree

7. Learning to operate computers is like learning any new skill – the more you practice, the better you become.
   a. strongly agree b. agree c. neutral d. disagree e. strongly disagree

8. I am afraid that if I begin to use computers I will become dependent upon them and lose some of my reasoning skills.
   a. strongly agree b. agree c. neutral d. disagree e. strongly disagree

9. I am sure that with time and practice I will be as comfortable working with computers as I am in working with a typewriter.
a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree
10. I feel that I will be able to keep up with the advances happening in the computer field.
a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree
11. I dislike working with machines that are smarter than I am.
a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree
12. I feel apprehensive about using computers.
a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree
13. I have difficulty in understanding the technical aspects of computers.
a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree
14. It scares me to think that I could cause the computer to destroy a large amount of data by hitting the wrong key.
a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree
15. I hesitate to use a computer for fear of making mistakes that I cannot correct.
a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree
16. You have to be a genius to understand all the special keys contained on most computer terminals.
a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree
17. If given the opportunity, I would like to learn about and use computers.
a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree
18. I have avoided computers because they are unfamiliar and somewhat intimidating to me.
a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree
19. I feel computers are necessary tools in both educational and work settings.
a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree

Appendix B. Foreign language anxiety scale developed by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986)
1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.
a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree
2. I don't worry about making mistakes in language class.
a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree
3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class.
a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree
4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.
a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree
5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.
a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree
6. During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.
a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree
7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.
a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree
8. I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.
a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree
9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.
a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree
10. I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.
11. I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.
   a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree

12. In language class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.
   a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree

13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.
   a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree

14. I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers.
   a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree

15. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.
   a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree

16. Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.
   a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree

17. I often feel like not going to my language class.
   a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree

18. I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.
   a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree

19. I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.
   a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree

20. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class.
   a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree

21. The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.
   a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree

22. I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for language class.
   a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree

23. I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do.
   a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree

24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students.
   a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree

25. Language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.
   a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree

26. I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.
   a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree

27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.
   a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree

28. When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.
   a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree

29. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher says.
   a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree

30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language.
   a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree

31. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.
   a. strongly agree  b. agree  c. neutral  d. disagree  e. strongly disagree
32. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.
   a. strongly agree   b. agree   c. neutral   d. disagree   e. strongly disagree

33. I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.
   a. strongly agree   b. agree   c. neutral   d. disagree   e. strongly disagree

4. References
Gain without Pain: A Study of Prevalence of Exam Cheating among English Translation Undergraduates and Their Perceptions of It

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Abstract
This study explores the incidence of exam cheating among English Translation undergraduates and their perceptions of it on a small scale. A questionnaire comprising 10 yes/no questions was devised and made available online so that students could participate using new technology products such as smartphones and tablets. The questionnaire basically sought to discover to what extent exam cheating is prevalent among the students in the Payame Nour university and how they feel about it. It was taken by 105 students of the English Translation course. A descriptive analysis approach was then used to interpret and discuss the results. The findings suggest it is a rather widely-practiced phenomenon in the university and about two-thirds of the respondents reported they had been engaged in exam cheating. All of them said they had been asked to help during exams. These findings also show the students may not condone the malpractice, yet most of them are not inclined to help stop it. Some of the findings are mostly in keeping with those obtained in other similar studies worldwide and can be used to help formulate policies to deal with the phenomenon. The findings could also be used to complement further research aimed at obtaining more information about the phenomenon and how to deal with it.

Keywords: cheating, perceptions, exam, students, academic dishonesty

1. Introduction
Exams could be described as a key feature of many common formal educational settings such as schools and universities, used to define and monitor educational standards (Cresswell, 2000). Designed in various forms, they are meant, among other things, to assess the students' knowledge or skills learned as a result of a certain course of study. As such, teachers may go to extreme lengths to make sure all students take the exam under equal conditions so that the results can constitute a true representation of the attainment of students. This means every effort is made to eliminate factors which may contribute to making the results less a true reflection of students' knowledge than a tarnished picture of their abilities.

Cheating is a key factor. Among definitions provided for it by the online Merriam-Webster dictionary is “to violate rules dishonestly.” It may be the single most damaging factor contributing to test results which do not mirror precisely the knowledge of students. Yet, cheating has been prevalent in almost all educational settings since probably the advent of formal instruction. Institutes of higher education have not been immune to it either. Today, university students cheat just like their predecessors. The only difference is probably that they now use more sophisticated tools and ways to this end. The spread of digital technology has led to the emergence of e-cheating, that is, the use of new technology products such as cell phones, tablets and internet to cheat on exams (King and Case, 2014). In simple terms, cheating can undermine “no pain, no gain” principle.

Exam cheating usually includes such methods as using crib notes, using electronic devices to communicate with others and copying from other students with/without their knowledge (Marden and
However, the list is obviously not exhaustive, since students continue to find or invent new ways to cheat on examinations. Exam cheating is considered a serious example of academic dishonesty. Educators have long been trying to find ways to stop or minimize exam cheating by students. The proliferation of institutes of higher education and the growing competition among graduates have seen the spread of various forms of cheating, which undermines quality of education. Many studies have addressed different aspects of cheating, including the why and the how. As an example of an unethical behavior, exam cheating distorts assessment results, which aim at setting a bar in educational settings.

Cheating is in stark contravention of moral values the universities and colleges are tasked with fostering and promoting as spirit of higher education. All students are obliged to comply with policies formulated by universities to counter academic dishonesty and that’s why any violation of the spirit in the form of different types of cheating is considered an educational offence punishable by various penalties. Many universities have drafted policies which address the problem by identifying what exactly constitutes cheating and what punishment the perpetrators are going to face (Kaufman, 2008). Some universities have issued separate anti-cheating policies, while others have tended to incorporate them within a broad code of academic conduct.

Still, having anti-cheating policies in place is not enough if sufficient efforts to enforce them are not made. In fact, the main challenge in countering cheating may be how to enforce such policies in the face of ever-evolving methods used to this end and other challenges, particularly the reluctance of non-cheaters to help identify perpetrators. For one thing, peer pressure prevents most students from divulging information about their cheating classmates. The tendency to avoid antagonizing offenders is also a common factor which discourages reporting of cheating behavior.

Another troubling fact with regard to cheating is that it now seems to carry less stigma that it did in the past as observations in academic settings suggest. In fact, some cheaters pride themselves on their ability and bravery to cheat on examinations under any circumstances, no matter how the exam is administered, how many invigilators keep watch and what precautions are taken to stop the malpractice. Obviously, students, particularly potential cheaters, should be made aware of the gravity of the offense and fully understand that such behavior is bound to carry serious consequences. In the meantime, measures should be taken to boost academic integrity on the campus. Despite precautions and warnings, cheaters continue to find new ways to elude preventive measures and gain undue advantage over non-cheaters.

In addition, facing stiff competition to attract paying students, campus officials may feel less inclined to deal effectively with exam cheating, since this could put pressure on the financial resources of the institutes as would-be students may opt for other rival campuses known for lax rules. As a result, they may choose to overlook what they see as routine cases of cheating, too unimportant to warrant action on their part. This tendency could reduce the policies to a virtual scarecrow.

Few experts would dispute the detrimental effects of cheating (Shon, 2006). Still, cheating is the order of the day in higher education contexts in many parts of the world as substantiated by various studies. In fact, academic dishonesty is not limited to students; it may be practiced by faculty, too.

Exam cheating is observed in academic settings in Iran too. It is a common experience of university teachers who see students try to use unauthorized tools or to engage in various ways to answer their exam questions. Given the detrimental effects of cheating, it is imperative to find ways to minimize the malpractice. A first step is to gain a general picture by measuring the scale of the problem and how students perceive it. This research is intended to answer two questions on the prevalence of exam...
cheating among English language undergraduates in Payame Nour university and how English Translation undergraduates in the university feel about exam cheating. A methodology to find answers to the guiding questions is explained and then the collected data are presented and discussed. The paper closes with conclusions and a reference section.

2. Review of Literature

The issue of academic dishonesty or integrity has recently gained increasing interest among educators, who believe it is an issue of critical importance, given its impact on the quality of education and other facets of life (Naghdipour and Emeagwali, 2013; Lau et al, 2012; Josien et al, 2014). Simkin and McLeod (2009) described college cheating as rampant and on the rise. These are just two reasons why the authors believed cheating in colleges warranted research. A third reason, it noted, is the suspected link between the malpractice in academic settings and subsequent unethical behavior at work after graduation. It cited research which indicated a strong positive correlation between cheating at college and unethical behavior at workplace. Cheating on exams can also compromise certification examinations. It reported cases in which surrogates sat for major certification examinations in return for fees which could reach up to thousands of dollars. The spread of new technology, particularly internet and cellphone, means that resourceful cheaters have found new ways around the preventive measures in place. Finding examples of exam questions and sharing answers have become a widespread practice among many university students. Finally, it noted a sixth reason for conducting research on cheating is to define what exactly constituted cheating or, generally speaking, academic dishonesty. For one thing, one practice may look as cooperation on a project or an exam to one and as a form of academic dishonesty to another. Therefore, it is essential to share a common understanding of the malpractice as much as possible. It noted widespread cheating at university leads to the demeaning of higher education degrees, the tarnishing of the reputation of the institution and disappointment of employers at the lack of job qualities that the graduates' majors promise.

Simkin and McLeod (200) also discussed deterrents of cheating behavior. It noted moral beliefs were discovered to be the single most statistically significant factor which may stop students from engaging in cheating. This is interesting, since two other factors thought to play a role in preventing such behavior, that is, culture and risk, were essentially insignificant. By culture, the authors meant “the acceptability of cheating as a cultural norm.” Furthermore, it was demonstrated that the risk of being caught while cheating is not considered an effective deterrent for potential cheaters. This may mean that either the risk of detection at exam is too low or the penalties for such action is not prohibitively severe.

The terms “academic dishonesty” and “cheating” are sometimes used interchangeably (Carpenter et al, 2006), while some scholars (Whitley and Keith-Spiegel, 2002) look at academic dishonesty as a broader phenomenon which includes cheating too. The latter provides a “typology of academic dishonesty” including definitions of plagiarism, fabrication, cheating, facilitating academic dishonesty, misrepresentation of work, failure to contribute to a collaborative project and sabotage (p 16-17). Diptyana and Spica Almilia (2008) cited Wood and Warnken (2004) which classified academic dishonesty into eight categories, including plagiarism, collusion, falsification, replication, taking unauthorized notes or devices into an examination, obtaining an authorized copy of an examination paper, communicating or trying to communicate with another student during an examination and impersonation and cooperating in doing the test or pretending to be ignorant of it.
A growing body of research literature exists which points to cheating practice in academic settings. Josien et al (ibid) describes cheating as a “cancer” which can be seen in various forms in many aspects of our daily life, including in the classroom. The research found that 35.54 percent of respondents admitted cheating, an amount which falls into the low range compared to other studies. Yet, various studies show different degrees of various cheating behavior in colleges. Some studies provide separate figures for different cheating behavior, whereas others report aggregate ratios. For example, on exam cheating, McCabe (2005) showed a 21 percent ratio among undergraduates. Carpenter et al (2006) believed upwards of 80 percent of undergraduates had committed cheating at least once, without giving breakdown figures on different cheating practices or the context of cheating. Josien et al (ibid) quoted McCabe and Trevino (1997) which reported a range of 13 to 95 percent of students cheated at least once.

Studies on cheating behavior also suggest it is influenced by such variables as gender, age, marital status, peer pressure and the race for securing a higher grade point average (GPA). Josien et al (ibid) pointed to research which showed unmarried and younger people tend to cheat more. With regard to gender, the situation seems to be far from conclusive, it maintained, adding some studies showed females were less willing to cheat, particularly when the risk is high, but others found no meaningful difference between the sexes with regard to academic dishonesty. Still, many studies suggest males tend to get involved in cheating more than females. As regards to GPAs, it cited research which suggested students with lower GPA were more likely to commit cheating than those with higher GPAs.

In addition, cheating seems to be affected by major. Carpenter et al (2006) cited McCabe and Trevnio (1997) as noting that 82 percent of engineering students, 91 percent of business students self-reported engaging in any type of cheating, compared to 73 percent of social sciences and 71 percent of natural sciences students.

When it comes to completing surveys regarding cheating, many researchers report little willingness on the part of students to participate. McCabe (2005), for example, cited a 10-15 percent average response rate.

3. Questions and Methodology
The purpose of the study was to examine the incidence of and attitudes towards cheating on exams among English translation undergraduates, using a survey research design. Specifically, it seeks to answer these two questions:

1-How bad is the prevalence of exam cheating among English language undergraduates in Payame Nour university?
2-How do English Translation undergraduates in Payame Nour university feel about exam cheating?

To answer these questions, a 10-item questionnaire was devised, based on this researcher’s observations in the classroom and similar studies. Like other similar surveys, the questionnaire is meant to gain a limited amount of focused information from a sample of individuals. The items were designed in a way as to make sure that they are not misinterpreted by respondents which could lead to misleading answers.

Given the perceived linguistic background, willingness and patience of the target students, the present researcher limited the survey items to 10 yes/no questions in an attempt to encourage more participation and avoid boredom resulting from too many items on the survey or from deciding the degree of agreement or disagreement with the survey items. A Likert-type scale could have reduced participation...
even further by posing rather complicated questions. Thus, it was avoided in favor of a simple yes/no questionnaire.

The items were reviewed by six other college teachers and modifications were made as per their suggestions. For example, 5 more items deemed unnecessary were omitted in the final version of the questionnaire. The reviewers endorsed the overall content and face validity of the questionnaire. As to the reliability of the survey, relevant calculations yielded a Cronbach alpha coefficient value of 0.73, which is acceptable for this type of survey (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011).

It was posted on surveymonkey.com website, which provides online surveying. The advantage of online surveying is that participants can respond to it at their own comfort, using smart phones, PCs and tablets wherever and whenever they feel like to. Another advantage of online surveying is that it provides analytical results, based on the type of service selected. Finally, the participants are not given a specified limited time to answer the items.

The relevant link was given to students in the classroom. Some others received it via their email. Still, the response rate was less than what the researcher had expected. On the whole, a sample of 105 students completed the survey.

Once the data were collected, a descriptive analysis approach was used to interpret the results. The interpretation of the results is based on the percentage of yes/no answers to each survey item.

4. Results and Discussion
About 300 English Translation undergraduates in the Parand branch of Payame Nour university were asked to visit the survey website, receiving the link to the survey. They were assured that their identity was not needed to complete the survey so that they would be encouraged to self-report with maximum honesty. However, only 105 students completed the survey, as shown in table 1. It seems a key challenge in such studies is to encourage as many students as possible to participate in the survey as indicated by most researchers.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Yes (percent)</th>
<th>No (percent)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1- Have you ever cheated on midterm exams?</td>
<td>71.43</td>
<td>28.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2- Have you ever cheated on final exams?</td>
<td>66.67</td>
<td>33.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3- I just cheat on the exam of the subject lesson in which I am poor.</td>
<td>61.90</td>
<td>38.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4- I cheat on the exam of any subject lesson that I can.</td>
<td>14.29</td>
<td>85.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5- I have seen other students cheating.</td>
<td>95.24</td>
<td>4.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6- Has anybody asked you to help him/her cheat on the exam?</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7- Have you copied from a student with/without his/her knowledge?</td>
<td>28.57</td>
<td>71.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8- I feel good after cheating.</td>
<td>23.81</td>
<td>76.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9- Are you upset when you see someone get a higher mark than yours by cheating?</td>
<td>57.14</td>
<td>42.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10- Do you report others students' cheating?</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>95.24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The rather low response rate is in keeping with many research findings on cheating which universally show a low response rate. The figure 1 gives a breakdown of yes/no answers to each item in the questionnaire.

Figure 1. Yes/No answers to the survey items

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The first item asked students if they cheated on midterm exams. In Payam Nour university, the final exams are administered nationally. This means a uniform set of questions is administered to students of the same subject lesson nationwide every semester. It is mainly in multiple choice form. The final exam is held typically in a large classroom or hall, sometimes along with students of other courses, watched by invigilators. However, a small number of final exams are designed and usually administered by the teachers themselves. The midterm exam, supposed to be administered by the faculty, is usually held in normal classrooms with far fewer students. The exam accounts for 6 points out of the 20 points of the final exam mark. Cheating on midterm exams was admitted by 71.43 percent of the respondents. It may be explained by lack of stringent supervision by teachers. A common observation in such exams is that the likelihood of cheating increases as the number of students rises. In other words, a positive correlation can be seen between the number of examinees and the likelihood of cheating. The midterm exam cheating rate is a significant proportion, though less than cheating on the final exam, which was the subject of the next item. The rate of cheating on final exams was 66.67 percent, which seems unusually high, given the fact that most final exams are in objective, multiple choice form, invigilators are keeping close watch and jamming devices are usually used to prevent communication among students by digital devices.

Most of the respondents noted they cheated on the subjects lessons in which they were poor. This is no surprise. After all, students cheat in order to raise their mark and they are likely to do so when they have less than a sufficient command of the subject lesson. However, 38.1 percent voted no, meaning they may even cheat in subject lessons which they have a good command of. This may indicate being unprepared, uninterested in the subject lesson or simply being too lazy to study for the exam. A small proportion, 14.29 percent, said they are likely to cheat on any exam that they could. Though small, this proportion sounds unusual, given the risks inherent in cheating.
Answering the 5th question, an overwhelming majority of respondents, 95.24 percent, said they had seen others cheat. This raises serious concerns about the conditions under which exams are held. Perhaps invigilators need to take their task more seriously. All respondents were unanimous in their observation that they have all experienced a situation in which they have been asked to help others answer questions on examinations. This suggests that cheating is not limited to friends and people who know each other and students may even ask strangers for such a purpose. Even more disturbing is the fact that few people may be ashamed of this behavior and a considerable number could feel bold enough to approach others for help.

The next question may show how students cheat. Some 28.57 percent answered yes to the question that asked respondents if they had copied from others with / without their knowledge on exams. This indicates that relatively a small number of cheaters tend to rely on others rather than themselves. Copying from others may be the simplest way to cheat, since it does not require preparation in advance and carries proportionately less risk of getting caught.

With regard to how cheaters feel after the exam, 76.19 percent said they did not feel good after cheating. This sounds puzzling. Why do majority of cheaters engage in a behavior that do not make them happy? They may explain it in part by claiming to be under time pressure or other constraints. The response to the item also shows only less than a quarter of respondents does not feel guilty after cheating and they consider it a normal activity. Answering the item if they are upset when they see someone get a higher mark by cheating, 57.14 percent said yes. The indifference of the rest is surprising, given the fact that individual marks contribute to the overall grade point average, which is a determining factor for many activities after completing studies, including finding jobs or pursuing a graduate degree. It may be a defensive reaction to the fact that they find themselves unable to stop others gaining an undue advantage by engaging in such malpractice.

The last item asked respondents if they report cheating by other students. An overwhelming 95.24 percent said they would not report cheating. They may want to avoid antagonizing cheaters or are simply disappointed in finding any use with reporting. Any policy to reduce cheating can not ignore the potential contribution of non-cheaters to its successful implementation. Yet, the difficulty of identifying cheaters and the risks involved mean invigilators still have to rely mostly on themselves to enforce policies.

These findings provide answers to two guiding question of this study. They clearly show exam cheating is practiced by English Translation undergraduates in Payame Nour university on a scale comparable to what is reported in similar studies in other countries. And when asked, students describe certain feelings about the malpractice.

5. Conclusion

Cheating on exams is a serious example of academic dishonesty. Giving its perpetrators an undue advantage over their counterparts and unsettling equal conditions under which performance of students are supposed to be assessed, it can contribute to a lowering of educational standards, leading to graduates who lack enough qualifications. Furthermore, many non-cheating students may lose their motivation to study and compete fairly after seeing their classmates cheat with impunity and get a higher mark. This could lead to a loss of badly-needed motivational forces in the classroom. At peril will also be the reputation of the institute of higher education from which such students are going to graduate. The
damaging effects of such practice means that it should be taken seriously and measures should be adopted to deal with it.

Finally, the employers hiring graduates based on their majors may also be disappointed when they discover that they lack the proper skills and knowledge as promised by their degrees. This can deal a serious blow to confidence in the higher education as a system working to meet the needs of the job market.

A successful anti-cheating drive depends on gaining an insight into the phenomenon first and foremost. This small-scale study is an attempt to find evidence about cheating behavior and basic perceptions among English Translation undergraduates and to gain a picture of the phenomenon in an academic setting. The findings of this research show what was already predictable, that is, the prevalence of such malpractice in academic settings, although research involving more respondents should be undertaken to validate and cement the results and gain a better picture. They demonstrated the incidence of exam cheating among English translation undergraduates and how they felt about it.

The present study provided answers for the two questions guiding it. It showed that exam cheating is common among English translation undergraduates at a level comparable to similar populations of other majors. It also illuminated how cheating and non-cheating students perceive the malpractice.

This research is not meant to explore reasons why students cheat, the variables affecting it, the methods they use to do it, or the policies needed to confront it. They obviously could be the subject of further research. The evolving nature of the methods used mean that the educators need to be one step ahead of cheaters by keeping informed about recent developments and to update existing policies. Further research on various aspects of exam cheating can shed light on how to help educators draft policies to promote academic integrity.

In addition to drafting and implementing policies, students should be made aware of the gravity of the problem by being taught about ethical issues and how they affect our lives. Many students may simply be unaware of seriousness of unethical behavior and its consequences or may not consider cheating an example of unethical behavior, because of the frequency of the malpractice around them.

Finally, a rigorous implementation of anti-cheating policies in the institutes of higher education is needed to guarantee a summoning of all students to a higher moral standard.

Reference


Josien, Laurent; Seeley, Eugene; Csipak, James and Rampal, Rohit (2015). Cheating: Students and Faculty’s Perception on Potential Cheating Activity. *Journal of Legal, Ethical and Regulatory Issues,*


Analyzing teachers’ emotional labor levels according to some variables

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Abstract
The purpose of this study is to examine emotional labor levels of teachers and the emotional labor dimensions of the scale with regards to the demographic characteristics of the participants. With this respect, the Emotional Labor Scale, developed by Diefendorff, Croyle, and Gosserand (2005) and adapted into Turkish by Basım and Beğenirbas (2012), was used in the study. The study sample consists of a total of 277 teachers from 21 schools selected through the random sampling method. According to the data analysis results, teachers avoided role making and behaved as required by their profession. A significant difference was detected in favor of female teachers only for the scale’s genuine emotions dimension with regards to the gender variable. According to the Kruskall Wallis-H test results, which was conducted according to the branch variable, with regards to the items of the deep role making dimension, there is a significant difference between classroom teachers and the science/math branch teachers in favor of classroom teachers and between science/math teachers and social science teachers in favor of the teachers from the social science branch. According to the Kruskall Wallis-H test results concerning the seniority variable, there is a significant difference only between the items of the genuine emotions dimension. Analysis results concerning the institution type variable show that as the age group of the students increase, the interaction created with students becomes more superficial.

Keywords: Emotional labor; teacher; public school; quantitative study

5. Introduction
When the change which emerged in the social and cultural domain and technologic innovations came together, certain changes also took place in the common terms. These changes also led to reforms in the perspectives concerning the duties and responsibilities of schools and teachers and new terms were introduced to the field of education. One of these terms is emotional labor behaviors. The need to revise the definitions of the traditional school and teacher terms emerged when the effects of the understanding of effective relationships on educational institutions became more observable. As a result of these changes, emotional labor became a crucial issue on the agenda of teachers, who are obliged to enter in social relationships with the students, parents, school administration and colleagues.

Teaching is a profession which embodies individual, social, cultural and technologic features within itself. The profession of teaching consists of various roles such as being a role model for students, furnishing them with positive attitudes and behaviors, guiding them and teaching them how to learn. It also has a structure which obliges teachers to collaborate with different groups and people. The school administration, students, colleagues, student parents are the shareholders they have to interact with. It is important for teachers to avoid displaying their personal problems in their professional life. Organizing one’s emotions is necessary in the profession of teaching, in which human relationships and interactions
take place very frequently (Yilmaz, Altinkurt, Guner & Sen, 2015; Yoon, Kim, Kim, Joung, & Park, 2013; Yorulmaz, Altinkurt, & Yilmaz, 2015).

According to the Turkish Language Association’s (2016) definition, emotion is the impression that a certain object, event or person causes to arise in the inner self. According to another definition, emotion refers to the ability to morally and esthetically evaluate objects and events. The term emotion has been the subject of research in many scientific fields because it has significant effects on the relationships that take place in daily life and work life. The term was examined as emotional labor in the year 1983. Together with the American Sociologist Arlie R. Hochschild’s book “The Managed Heart: Commercialization of Human Feeling”, studies on emotional labor and its effects on the work life increased.

Arlie Hochschild (1983, p.7) defines emotional labor as managing emotions through gestures, mimics and body movements so as to be observed by everyone. The aim here is to create a personal state within the person’s mind. Thus, it has the characteristic of a product that can be sold for a certain amount of money. Because it is an instrument for social change, it shouldn’t be regarded only as a personality trait (Hochschild 1979, p. 568). While Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) define emotional labor as the act of displaying the appropriate emotion throughout the serving process; Morris and Freeman (1996) define it as in interpersonal relationships, reflecting the emotions required by the organization after certain planning, control and effort. Wharton (2009) and Pala (2008, p.11) define the term emotional labor as, the tendency to display emotions that are identified by the organization rather than the emotions decided by the workers in cases where interaction with people is required.

More frequent one-to-one relationships between the served and the servicer became necessary as a result of the service sector and the concept of emotional labor gaining more importance. Emotions started to be considered more important after the efforts in striving to make the served more content and thus, emotions came to a position where they can be commercialized under a certain price (Hochschild (1983, pp.118-119). When the workers of an institution need to display positive emotions, they resort to deep acting, and resort to surface acting when they need to display negative emotions. When the emotions the workers feel are in accordance with the emotions they express and display, then genuine acting takes place (Diefendorff et. al., 2005; Kim, 2008).

In our current educational system, teachers are expected to do more than just convey information. There is an agreement on the competences that a qualified teacher should have. One of the competences of teachers, which were determined by examining the state in Turkey and by investigating international examples of implementation and conceptual documents, is creating an effective communication in the instructional environment and managing student behaviors. One other competence is related to working together with other teachers, parents and school staff, team work and collaboration. Thus, in order to support students’ self-developments, teachers get into good relationships with their colleagues, parents and other institutions. (TED, 2009: 7; Ekinci, 2012; MEB, 2002). Similarly, Murphy, Delli, and Edwards (2004), Celikten and Can (2005), Celikten, Sanal, and Yeni (2005), Polk (2006), Stronge (2007: 116), Stronge, Ward and Grant (2011), Walker (2012) listed the competences of effective teachers as given below.

Effective teachers:
- Understand the emotions of their students,
- Display a desirable sense of humor,
- Actively pay attention to their students both in and out of the classroom,
- Respond to students with respect even under difficult situations,
- Create an effective communication with the students,
Listen carefully to the questions, criticisms and demands of students,
Create a relationship of mutual respect and trust,
Are cheerful, tolerant and affectionate,
Are honest and friends with students,
Are successful in affecting students, parents and the environment,
Are a model and good example for students.

It is possible to add many more items to the list given above and make it even longer. The reason for this is because it is nearly impossible to limit the behaviors of effective teachers. Thus, the most frequently repeated items of the literature were included in the list. As Kiziltepe (2002) states, experts have come to an agreement that a good and effective teacher should be amiable, rigorous, cheerful, spirited, should support change and development, should be humane, should be thoughtful and reflect what he or she thinks. With this respect, it can be asserted that displaying emotional labor behaviors will pave the way for being a good and effective teacher.

The purpose of this study was to evaluate emotional labor levels of teachers who work in public schools and the dimensions of the scale. One other purpose of this study is to identify the level and dimensions of emotional labor and to determine whether or not these dimensions are related to demographic characteristics such as gender, type of institution and age. This study, which will display the current state of teachers regarding their emotional labor behaviors, is crucial in that it sheds light on the humane side of teacher competences and on the emotional dimension of the profession of teaching.

6. Methodology
This study which was designed according to the quantitative research method, was conducted through the screening model. Screening models are research approaches which display past or present events the way they are and aim at picturing the reality as it is (Karasar, 2012, p.77). Screening models enable a quantitative and numerical description of the tendencies, attitudes or opinions of a population through a sample selected from this population (Creswell, 2013). Screening models facilitate the process of gathering information and examining their relationships with the variables (Kaptan, 1998, p. 62).

The population of the study consists of primary, secondary and high school teachers working in the city center. The study sample consists of 277 teachers working in 21 schools which were selected through the simple random sampling method. According to Buyukozturk (2010, p.84), simple random sampling is a method in which each unit has the equal chance of being selected and only the selected units are included in the sample.

In collecting the data for the study, which is a quantitative study designed with the screening model, the Emotional Labor Scale, developed by Diefendorff et al. (2005) and adapted into Turkish by Basim and Begenirbas (2012), was used. The Emotional Labor Scale used in this study consists of two sections. The first section includes questions related to demographic characteristics of the participants. The second section consists of a total of 13 questions prepared according the 5 point Likert type (1=Never, ..., 5=Always) style. The scale has three dimensions, namely surface role making, deep role making and genuine emotions. There are 6 items in the Surface Role Making (SRM) dimension, 4 items in the Deep Role Making (DRM) dimension and 3 items in the Genuine Emotions (GE) dimension. The highest score that could be obtained from the scale is 65, while the lowest score is 13. The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient for the overall scale was .91; the reliability coefficient for each sub-dimension was .90, .91 and
.91 respectively. Because the Cronbach alpha value was >0.70 (Buyukozturk, 2010), the scale was accepted as reliable.

Participant opinions for the 5 point Likert type scale were expressed as quantitative data as “Never; 1”, “Rarely; 2”, “Sometimes; 3”, “Frequently; 4” and “Always; 5”. The score intervals of how much participants agree with the scale items are given in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score Interval</th>
<th>Level of Participation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.00-1.79</td>
<td>Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.80-2.59</td>
<td>Rarely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.60-3.39</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.40-4.19</td>
<td>Frequently</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.20-5.00</td>
<td>Always</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data were transcribed to a computer and were subject to statistical processes. After collecting the questionnaires, the data were transcribed to the computer and were analyzed through the statistical software. The scale was discussed under three dimensions (surface role making, deep role making and genuine emotions) when evaluating the data. With regards to the goals of the study, descriptive statistics were examined first. Thus, the general mean and standard deviation values for the three dimensions were examined with regards to emotional labor. Difference between means tests were conducted in order to determine the differentiation levels of participant perceptions concerning the emotional labor scale and its sub-scales with regards to the gender, branch, institution and seniority variables. However, normality and homogeneity tests which are related to the difference between means tests, were conducted before. The normality status of the dependent variable at the independent variable level was examined through the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test; the homogeneity status was examined through the Levene Test. Test results indicate that there was no normality and homogeneity. The state of differentiation concerning the gender variable was examined through the Mann-Whitney U test; the Kruskal Wallis H test was conducted to examine the difference concerning the branch, institution and seniority variables.

7. Findings

Demographic characteristics of the participants are given on Table 2.
According to table 2, 57.8% of the participants are male, 42.2% are female; with regards to the branch variable, 26% of the participants are classroom, 37.5% are Science/Math and 36.5% are social science branch teachers. With regards to the institution variable, 22.7% of the participants are primary school, 40.1% are secondary school and 37.2% are high school teachers; 27.4% have 0-5 Years, 20.9% have 6-10 years, 22.7% have 11-15 years, 13% have 16-20 years and 15.9% have 21 Years and Above professional seniorities.

Results of the descriptive analysis conducted to determine teachers’ emotional labor levels are given on table 3.
Table 3. Results of the Descriptive Analysis Conducted to Determine Teachers’ Emotional Labor Levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale and Sub-Scales</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Surface Role Making</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deep Role Making</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genuine Emotions</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The arithmetic mean and standard deviation values of the scale and sub-dimensions are given on Table 3. It is evident that teacher opinions concerning the Deep Role Making, Genuine Emotions and overall total were “Sometimes”. The arithmetic means of the opinions were observed as 2.89; 3.20; 2.74 respectively. Teacher opinions were observed to be at “Rarely” level for the Surface Role Making dimension (\( \bar{X} = 2.41 \)).

Results of the Mann Whitney U Test, which was conducted to determine whether or not there are any differences between teacher opinions on the emotional labor scale concerning the gender variable, are given on table 4.

Table 4 Teacher Perceptions on the Levels of Emotional Labor with regards to the Gender Variable-Mann Whitney U Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean Rank</th>
<th>Rank Sum</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Surface Role Making</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>138.07</td>
<td>22091.50</td>
<td>9211.50</td>
<td>.821</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>140.27</td>
<td>16411.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deep Role Making</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>136.58</td>
<td>21853.00</td>
<td>8973.00</td>
<td>.547</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>142.31</td>
<td>16650.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genuine Emotions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>124.90</td>
<td>19984.50</td>
<td>7104.50</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>158.28</td>
<td>18518.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>132.47</td>
<td>21194.50</td>
<td>8314.50</td>
<td>.112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>147.94</td>
<td>17308.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is evident on Table 4 that the gender of the teachers is not a variable that affects the Surface Role Making, Deep Role Making and Emotional Labor scale (\( x^2=9211.5; \ x^2= 8973; \ x^2= 8314.5; \ p>.05 \)). A significant difference was detected between male and female teacher opinions for the genuine emotions sub-dimension of the emotional labor scale (\( x^2= 7104.5; \ p<.05 \)). When the data are considered, female
teachers are observed to have higher positive perceptions for the Genuine Emotions dimension than the male teachers. Results of the Kruskal Wallis H test, which was conducted to determine the state of differentiation between teacher opinions about the emotional labor scale and its sub-scales concerning the branch variable, are given on Table 5.

**Table 5. Teacher Perceptions about Emotional Labor Levels with regards to the Branch variable- Results of the Kruskal Wallis H Test**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Branch</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean Rank</th>
<th>(\chi^2)</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Sig. Diff.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Surface Role Making</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>156.60</td>
<td>4.979</td>
<td>.803</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science/Math</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>130.12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social science</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>135.60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Deep Role Making</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>149.82</td>
<td>7.043</td>
<td>.030*</td>
<td>1-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science/Math</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>122.96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social science</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>147.80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Genuine Emotions</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>148.37</td>
<td>5.904</td>
<td>.502</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science/Math</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>124.97</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social science</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>146.77</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>154.56</td>
<td>7.661</td>
<td>.022*</td>
<td>1-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science/Math</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>122.55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social science</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>144.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results of the Kruskal Wallis H Test indicate that classroom teachers have the highest mean ranks overall and for the sub-dimensions, the science/math branch has the lowest mean ranks. There is a statistical significant difference for the Deep Role Making and the overall scale. The Mann Whitney U Test suggests that there is a significant difference in both groups and that classroom teachers have difference levels than teachers of the science/math branch; and teachers of the science/math branch have higher difference levels than teachers of the social science branch.

Results of the Kruskal Wallis H test, which was conducted to determine the state of differentiation between teacher opinions about the emotional labor scale and its sub-scales concerning the institution variable, are given on Table 6.
Table 6. Teacher Perceptions about Emotional Labor Levels with regards to the Institution Variable - Results of the Kruskal Wallis H Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean Rank</th>
<th>X²</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Sig. Dif.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Surface Role Making</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary School</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>160.87</td>
<td>7.692</td>
<td>.021*</td>
<td>1-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>139.13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>125.49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deep Role Making</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary School</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>151.80</td>
<td>11.313</td>
<td>.003*</td>
<td>1-3, 2-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>150.77</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>118.48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genuine Emotions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary School</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>153.24</td>
<td>31.026</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>1-3, 2-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>160.85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>106.75</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary School</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>159.19</td>
<td>18.784</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>1-3, 2-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>152.47</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>112.13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the Kruskal Wallis H Test, mean ranks indicate that there is a statistically significant difference for the sub-dimensions and the overall scale. According to the Mann Whitney U Test, which was conducted to determine between which groups the significant difference occurred, there is a significant difference between primary and high school teachers with regards to the Surface Role Making dimension. According to the findings, primary school teachers expressed higher levels of emotional labor than high school teachers. A significant difference was also detected for the Deep Role Making, Genuine Emotions and Emotional Labor scale. The Mann Whitney U Test suggests that primary schools had higher difference levels than secondary schools and secondary school had higher difference levels than high schools.

Results of the Kruskal Wallis H test, which was conducted to determine the state of differentiation between teacher opinions about the emotional labor scale and its sub-scales concerning the seniority variable, are given on Table 7.
Table 7. Teacher Perceptions about Emotional Labor Levels with regards to the Professional Seniority Variable- Results of the Kruskal Wallis H Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Seniority</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean Rank</th>
<th>$X^2$</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Sig. Dif.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Surface Role Making</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-5 Years</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>125.70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 Years</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>144.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 Years</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>134.68</td>
<td>5.05</td>
<td>.282</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20 Years</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>159.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 Years</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>144.51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Deep Role Making</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-5 Years</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>137.20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 Years</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>122.44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 Years</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>136.56</td>
<td>6.04</td>
<td>.196</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20 Years</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>158.24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 Years</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>151.69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Genuine Emotions</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-5 Years</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>157.63</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 Years</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>134.43</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 Years</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>114.84</td>
<td>11.</td>
<td>.018*</td>
<td>3-4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20 Years</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>145.94</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 Years</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>141.76</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-5 Years</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>140.55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 Years</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>130.36</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 Years</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>125.99</td>
<td>6.10</td>
<td>.192</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20 Years</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>163.43</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 Years</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>146.34</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Teacher perceptions about their emotional labor levels concerning the seniority variable were examined through the Kruskal Wallis H Test. The statistical analysis suggests that there is a significant difference only at the Genuine Emotions dimension. According to the Mann Whitney U Test, which was conducted to determine the source of the significant difference, there is a significant difference between teachers with 0-5 years and 11-15 years seniority. Teachers with 11-15 years of seniority were observed to have lower mean ranks than the teachers with 16-20 years and 21 years and above seniorities.

8. Conclusion And Suggestions

The purpose of this study, conducted on 160 male and 117 female participants, was to examine the emotional labor levels of public school teachers and the sub-dimensions of the scale; and to determine whether or not these dimensions are related to demographic characteristics such as gender, type of institution and age. When participant opinions that were collected with a data collection instrument consisting of the surface role making, deep role making and genuine emotion dimensions are considered, it is evident that the arithmetic mean of participant opinions are at highest level for the items of the
genuine emotions sub-dimension. This result indicates that teachers avoid role making and are more sincere in the relationships with their students. This is crucial for the sustainability and effectiveness of the relationship between teachers and the students. Students who feel that their teacher is behaving sincere and without acting will approach their teacher with trust and contribute to creating a positive communication setting. This way they can increase the possibility of attaining instructional goals. These findings of this study are in line with findings of studies in the literature. For example, studies conducted by Begenirbas and Meydan (2012); Yilmaz et al. (2015); Sutton (2004); Grandey (2000); Isenbarger and Zembylas (2006); Kaya (2009) suggest that teachers adopt emotional labor behaviors as a professional role.

As a result of the statistical evaluations, a significant difference was detected in favor of female teachers only for the scale’s genuine emotions dimension with regards to the gender variable. This indicates that female teachers are more sincere and frank with their students. Female teachers can be behaving more sincere and frank due to the sense of motherhood they have in their nature. Various other findings were suggested in studies examining the relationship between emotional labor and gender. For example, Kaya’s (2009) study conducted on teachers suggests that the gender variable causes no significant differences on emotional labor. No relationships between emotional labor behaviors and age, gender and seniority variables were detected in this study which was conducted on teachers working in private schools. According to Kaya (2009), even if educational institutions don’t use the term emotional labor behavior, the work itself requires emotional labor, sincerity and a willing effort. Teachers tend to comply with this opinion. Findings of the studies conducted by Yilmaz et al. (2015), Schaubroeck and Jones (2000), Colak, Altinkurt, and Yilmaz (2014), Brody (1985), Norsby and DeHart-Davis (2007) and Simon and Nath (2004) indicate that there is a significant difference between male and females with regards to emotion management and emotional labor. This is thought to be due to the biological, social and cultural role differences between males and females. Because males don’t fully reflect their emotions, it is reported that males have a higher tendency to display surface acting behaviors.

According to the Kruskall Wallis-H test results, which was conducted according to the branch variable, with regards to the items of the deep role making dimension, there is a significant difference between classroom teachers and the science/math branch teachers in favor of classroom teachers and between science/math branch teachers and social science teachers in favor of the teachers from the social science branch. This finding is supported by the study findings conducted by Yilmaz et al. (2015). Thus, teachers’ emotional labor levels are different with regards to their branches and the type of school they work in.

According to the Kruskall Wallis-H test results concerning the seniority variable, there is a significant difference only between the items of the genuine emotions dimension. It is interesting that this significant difference was observed to be in favor of teachers with 0-5 years, 16-20 years and 21 years and above seniority. With the regards to the seniority variable, the mean score of displaying genuine emotions of teachers with 11-15 years seniority was observed to be below the mean scores of teachers with different seniorities. This shows that teachers avoid role making and tend to be more sincere towards their students in the novice years and after a 16-20 year experience in the profession. This finding is in accordance with the findings of Brown (2011) and Boydak-Ozcan and Sener (2014). Brown (2011) states that teachers tend to avoid displaying surface behaviors as their professional seniorities increase.

Analysis results concerning the institutional type variable suggest that there is a significant difference against the teachers working in secondary schools for the Surface Role Making, Deep Role Making and Genuine Emotions dimensions of the scale. As the age group of the students increase, the interaction
created with students becomes more superficial. However, Brown (2011) emphasizes that teachers tend to display surface behaviors more frequently as the age groups of the students increase. In other words, as the ages of the students increase, teachers encounter undesired student behaviors more frequently and tend to subdue their real feelings. Teachers display surface behaviors in order to attain the goals of the school.

It is a known fact that effective teacher behaviors are crucial in school success and that teaching is a profession which embodies strong emotions (Hargreaves, 1998, 2000). However, studies on the role of emotions on teacher behaviors have a short history (Zembylas, 2004). In the profession of teaching, which contains characteristics of emotional labor, teacher emotions are not independent from moral values and goals. However, although they carry out actions which require strong emotions, teachers receive no support or training about how they can manage and cope with emotional interactions (Nias, 1999). Thus, giving support and training to teachers about emotional management will help them be more competent and acknowledged about emotion management. Thus, teachers can display effective behaviors, they can better interact with their students and more effective schools can be constructed.

9. References


Analysis of methodological aspects of e-learning courses development in teaching postgraduates foreign languages

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Abstract

It is difficult to imagine the future of education without information technology. Distance and online education have mixed reviews. The quality of teaching materials through the Internet is regularly investigated. Assimilation of material by students is assessed as well as the quality of training courses. Examples of the introduction of distance technologies in different countries in comparison with Russia are considered. This article discusses the advantages of on-line training and interactive training for postgraduate students in the study of a foreign language.

The expediency of teaching graduate students with the help of e-course and pedagogical aspects of development of E-learning courses "Foreign language in the professional sphere" are discussed. This article presents the results of research students and post-graduates of the Reshetnev Siberian state University of science and technology studying this course in distance mode. As a hypothesis it is suggested that the study of foreign language at the postgraduate level will be more effective if E-learning course on the Moodle platform is implemented into the educational process. Research methods included: a study of psycho-pedagogical and special literature; analysis and synthesis of existing views on the issue, questionnaire survey. The effectiveness of these courses on the server of distance learning was proved in the survey of students and testing of e-learning in educational process.

Keywords: E-learning course; distant Learning server; foreign language teaching; postgraduates.

1. Introduction

One of the most important problems of modern education is the process of applying information and computer technologies (ICT) in educational activities and educational process for all types, at all levels of education. It is relevant to emphasize that special demands are currently made on the electronic information and educational environment (IEE) of the university.

"Massive Open Online Course" offers students an opportunity to listen to star lecturers and get a degree for a small part of the cost of visiting the university. MOOC began in 2008; and as it is often the case with destructive technologies, they have not yet fulfilled their promises (Creative destruction. Reinventing the university, 2014).

The period of universal enthusiasm and euphoria about this type of education has already passed, and a sober assessment has shown that a massive transition to education using computer technology requires serious training of the participants. In particular, it is necessary to study not only the motivations of studying, but also the development of methods for determining the capabilities of both students and educators in mastering new technologies of teaching (Prinsloo P., Slade S., 2014). According to (ACEP Bahram Kamil, 2017), specialists should choose the teaching method based on the learning objectives. The
chosen method can significantly improve the success of a student. As a result of the conducted research it is revealed that there is no interaction between the teaching method and student motivation. A suitable method has a beneficial effect on the perception of information by the student.

As it is noted in the Programme E-Education Development for 2014-2020 “the introduction of e-learning courses and the development of virtual academic mobility, can focus the work and resources of higher education institutions on priority areas, while preserving or even expanding educational opportunities”. (The passport of the development program for electronic education 2014-2020, 2014). It should also be noted that in terms of the main activities for the implementation of the e-learning development program for 2014-2020 it is emphasized that the use of elements of e-learning (mixed learning) and the formation of an electronic portfolio will become mandatory requirements for the implementation of the Degree Programmes by 2017 (The passport of the development program for electronic education 2014-2020, 2014).

In the near future, on-line education will benefit the whole system of education. Among its advantages one can identify territorial accessibility and cost. Higher education with the use of distance technologies by young people is perceived as more advanced and modern. Thus, new generation is better at absorbing information and working more easily in the field of science. The system of on-line training is already compared with the hypothetical system of the ideal model of education (P. S. Aithal, Shubhrajyotsna Aithal, 2016).

In the study (Ainoutdinova Irina Nailjevna Ainoutdinova Karina Arturovna, 2017) the learning approach based on the Web of web learning (WBL) is analyzed. This approach is compared with the classical methods of teaching. The nature of learning is improved: the key figure is a student, not a teacher. Students learn the information in a comfortable environment for them without any restrictions on finding it. Interactive software improves understanding. Web-based learning develops a global cross-cultural critical thinking. Innovative information should be clearly structured and accessible for perception in a way.

Analyzing the foreign experience of colleagues in the field of determining the relevance of the problem of designing the information and educational environment, one can adduce the arguments of a number of scientists. P. Drucker points out that "the need for traditional higher education will disappear in the next 30 years," G. Dryident writes: "Training will very quickly turn into self-learning: self-directed and self-fulfilling". (Gordon T Vos, 2003). Such education is realized at the expense of students' own activity. The ideology of open educational resources and the ideology of the information and educational environment of the university in particular are developing.

Communications in the global world are extremely important for the economy, politics, and science. In order to become a successful specialist in almost any industry, you need to speak global English. Learning English becomes a strategic task for increasing the competitiveness of graduates. The study (Víctor Zamudio, María del Pilar Pérez Mata, Vic Callaghan, Shumei Zhang, Carlos Lino, 2017) emphasizes the importance of English as a second language among university graduates around the world.

2. E-learning system application in postgraduate education of Reshetnev Siberian state University of science and technology

Over the past few years, at the Department of Linguistics and Intercultural communication of the Reshetnev Siberian state University of science and technology (Reshetnev University) electronic training courses have been develop and implemented. Based on the experience of this work, we will consider...
some theoretical and methodological aspects of the development and implementation of training courses "Foreign Language in Professional Activity" and "Foreign Language for Post-Graduates" in the web-oriented e-learning environment of the MOODLe. This system implements the philosophy of "pedagogy of social constructionism" and is focused, first of all, on the organization of interaction between the teacher and students, although it is also suitable for organizing traditional distance courses, as well as full-time study (Pustovoitov V. N., 2011).

Based on the analysis of the requirements for electronic training courses, namely the availability of educational and methodological electronic materials for independent work; the possibility of access not only to basic, but also additional sources of information; the presence of tasks aimed at assessing the formation of different groups of competencies; availability of feedback; the teachers of the Department have developed and are currently successfully implementing distance learning courses "Foreign Language in Professional Activity" and "Foreign Language for Post-Graduate Students". In addition to the above mentioned requirements, it is necessary to highlight the most important principles that we have been guided by during creating these courses. They are the principles of interactivity, adaptability and accessibility. The principle of interactivity is the possibility of direct interaction of the user with the training course. This is achieved through the use of navigation on the objects of the presentation of educational material, such as, for example, slides or pages. Adaptability is the ability to interactively change the course as it passes through. The principle of adaptability is achieved only due to the possibility of the reciprocal interaction of the user with the training course and is presented in the form of guiding questions or tests. This allows the system of the training course to change its "trajectory" and, depending on some results, adapt to a specific user, providing an opportunity for more effective learning (Dneprovskaya N. Komleva N., 2017).

Let's present the distance learning courses listed above in more detail. For example, the course "Foreign Language in Professional Activity" contains: methodological recommendations for organizing the study of discipline, block-modular content of educational material. The experience has shown that each section of the block-module course should contain: basic terms and concepts used in the section; glossary to section; methodical recommendations for the student to study the section; test questions - a bank of control tasks corresponding to the goals set by this section, containing input and output control theoretical tests and special tasks of varying degrees of complexity, questions and tasks for discussion in practical exercises; scenario of building workshops for its implementation in an interactive form for distance education technologies; additional materials for in-depth study; individual tasks for independent study of additional material, a list of recommended literature, Internet resources. The course "Foreign Language in Professional Activity" contains 16 interactive tasks; the most interesting are the interactive tests that we implement in the LMS Moodle environment. Namely they are: a) dragging into text (this type of question allows you to create fields in the text that indicate a missed word or phrase, and at the same time create answer variants, in the form of blocks with words or phrases that can fill in blanks with drag and drop); b) compliance tests (the answers to the questions should be selected from the list of possible); c) a short answer test (allows you to enter one or more words as a response, and the responses are evaluated by comparison with different response patterns in which substitutive can be used).

Speaking about the distance learning course "Foreign language for postgraduate students" in the system of postgraduate education through electronic educational resources, we can't but mention the principles of working with graduate students. In this regard, it should be noted that in the previous studies we have already considered the use of the Internet, distance education technologies and e-
education both in the context of the androgogical model of education and the training of graduate students in a foreign language (Shumakova N.A., 2015). Having entered the server, a graduate student working remotely can independently master such topics as: getting postgraduate education, what is science, concepts and theories, academic writing principles, final papers. The topic ‘Academic writing principles’ is a separate one and includes the following subtopics: writing an annotated bibliography, writing an abstract with elements of review, writing an article. They are trained through the system of special exercises. The topic ‘Final paper’ contains two subtopics: the guidelines for the final paper translation and presentation of the research. The convenience of working on the server consists not only in the fact that the graduate student can work with materials on an individual trajectory, but also in the fact that it is possible to present written works in a remote mode, to watch video, and in the future to provide control tasks on the done topics. Each of the sections presented is structured and allows the interactive implementation of a two-way process of pedagogical communication between the teacher and the graduate student. The two-sidedness of this process is achieved through communication of the participants in the forum in a time-bound schedule.

Using the resources of the Distant Learning server, in our opinion, allows to optimize the control of the knowledge of graduate students, because according to the structure of the course, the teacher can remotely quickly evaluate the performance of various tasks, as well as send comments. (Shumakova N.A., 2015)

Fig.1. Element of the course «Foreign language for postgraduate students»

The degree of success in mastering the discipline in the credit system is estimated by the sum of points, starting from 100 maximum possible, and includes two components. The first component includes the teacher’s assessment student’s learning activities results to study all modules of the discipline during the
time period stipulated in the curriculum. The second component is the assessment of the level of independent work on mastering the discipline by scoring the quality of the presented reporting materials. Individual tasks are scored in points. The student can choose a task from the list of individual assignments for obtaining a higher grade. For example, the performance of one of the independently studied materials is confirmed by a computer presentation, including generalized material and presented to the teacher for checking and assessment.

3. Cloud technologies in the educational process at Reshtnev Siberian state University of science and technology

In the final part of our research it is necessary to present the experience of the teachers of Linguistics and Intercultural Communication Department of SibSAU in the light of integration of e-learning environment within the framework of Moodle on the above mentioned courses with cloud computing technologies, in particular Google tools. Cloud computing is a new service which involves the remote use of data processing and storage facilities. With the help of "cloud" services you can access information resources of any level and any capacity, with the sharing of rights of different groups of users divided into resources using only the Internet connection and a web browser.

Let's analyze the essence and the basic characteristics of cloud technologies in the course of their application in educational process of higher school on an example of the courses “Foreign language in professional activity” and “Foreign language for post-graduate students”. Currently, four models of deploying cloud systems are being implemented worldwide: a private cloud, a public cloud, a hybrid cloud, a community cloud. In our opinion, the most effective are Public and Community clouds.

Personal experience of educational practice, as well as the analysis of existing cloud technologies, made it possible to highlight such didactic advantages of using cloud technologies in the educational process of the university as a wide range of online tools that provide an interactive learning process through effective cooperation of teachers and students; the ability to quickly create, adapt and replicate educational services during the educational process; the opportunity for students to provide feedback to the teacher by assessing and commenting on the educational services offered to them, organizing various forms of control, the rapid incorporation of the products created, the educational process, due to the lack of a territorial binding of the user of the service to the place of its provision.

Let’s consider the above didactic advantages of using cloud technologies in the process of studying the discipline “Foreign Language” on the example of Google services.

1) Implementation of joint projects in groups: preparation of text files and presentations;
2) Discussion of proofread documents in real time with other co-authors, publication of the results of work on the Internet;
3) The use of Google Docs (Documents and Presentations) services gives the opportunity to implement practical tasks for processing information objects of various types: formatting and editing texts, creating tables and diagrams in a text editor.
4) Google Dos (Forms) allows to implement current, thematic and total control, as well as self-control, through which the teacher is given the opportunity to organize a test with different types of questions using special forms in the document (Application of cloud technologies in the process of teaching students, 2017).

Here is an example of one of the above listed practical assignments for students used by us in the process of studying the discipline “Foreign Language in the Professional Activity.” In one of the practical
classes, students were asked to perform a group project on the topic "An item that's been in our family for generations" as a homework assignment. It was necessary to create an electronic newspaper using the Padlet tool in the group. In the electronic newspaper it was necessary to write to each of the group members several proposals on the topic, attach pictures or photographs. The texts of students are placed in the newspaper in the form of columns. This type of work allows you to discuss ideas emerging in the groups, to carry out joint editing, to review the papers. Figure 2 shows an example of this type of work using the Padlet tool. The electronic wall newspaper is located at: http://padlet.com/wall/51eikamflfg9.

Fig. 2. An example of student work using a virtual interactive Padlet wall

4. Conclusion

In the final part of our article, it is necessary to discuss the importance of the evaluating the methodological effectiveness of distance learning courses process and its tools.

In our opinion, the most effective tool for evaluating distant learning courses is a questionnaire. First, the questionnaire allows you to get answers from students to such questions as: if the course is comprehensible, how effective the chosen teaching method is, how to improve the distance learning course, etc. Second, on the basis of the data obtained, it is possible to determine the directions for further improvement of the course as a whole and the training materials placed therein.

The organization of distant learning process and students' knowledge monitoring requires constant observation of changes occurring during the course. The following criteria are used in evaluating distant learning course effectiveness: subjective satisfaction of trainees; practical skills acquired by trainees; time required to study course materials; the ratio between the number of students who have started their studies and successfully graduated from it, etc.
Taking into account all the above mentioned, as well as the principles of the development of questionnaires for assessing the effectiveness of the distance learning course, at the final stage of practical classes in the discipline "Foreign Language in the Professional Activity" we included a survey of undergraduates and postgraduates. 29 students took part in the survey.

Let us analyze some data obtained in the process of questioning after passing the distant learning course in the subjects "Foreign language in the professional activity" and "Foreign language for postgraduate students". For example, when answering the question about the complexity of the course as a whole, we obtained the following data, presented in Figure 3. Almost half (42.9%) of the course participants assessed the course as an average difficulty. The highest assessment of the complexity of the course was given by 3 (10.3%) people, and the least difficult course was for 6.9% of respondents.

- **How would you rate the overall difficulty of this course?**

![Bar chart showing difficulty ratings](image)

Fig. 3. Results of the questionnaire to question number 1.

In the process of pedagogical evaluation of distance courses, it is important to formulate research problems that will allow comparison of distance learning with other forms of education. For example, we included such questions in the questionnaire that would help to compare distance and traditional forms of education, and received the following results: answering the question "Would you prefer to take this course online or in the classroom" (Figure 4), it turned out that 62.1% of the students were quite satisfied with the distance learning courses.
Fig. 4. Results of the questionnaire to question number 4.

Fig. 5. Results of the questionnaire to question No. 6.

However, when answering the question “Would you prefer to have the instructor physically present in the same room?” most of the respondents (58.6%) gave a positive answer (Figure 5). These results, in our opinion, may indicate that not many students are ready to work independently, to study and select the necessary material, to perform and hand over the work within the time frames indicated by the teachers, which was identified by the students themselves as one of the difficulties of studying in a distance form.

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Do English Language Teaching materials offer the vocabulary that students need?
A content-based analysis of three textbooks

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Abstract
The two-faceted nature of lexical frequency as the overarching factor in determining communicative usefulness and in contributing to vocabulary learning should be taken into account in language teaching textbooks. These constitute a basic tool of the teachers’ repertoire in Foreign Language Teaching (FLT) contexts. However, the number of textbooks’ lexical content analyses is not abundant and most of them yield non-positive results. The aim of the present study is to analyse the lexical profile of three well-known English as a Foreign Language (EFL) textbooks which belong to the same series and which are targeted at adult learners. The analysis examines which words are presented and how frequently they are included to verify whether such textbooks comply with the aforementioned two-faceted nature of lexical frequency. For that purpose, the amount of the lemmas, types and tokens and the frequency levels of the types of each textbook were computed by means of the computer programme RANGE (Nation, Heatley & Coxhead, 2002). Afterwards, the number of the lemmas of the three textbooks was a) matched with the number of lemmas assumed by The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (2001, 2017) in accordance with each textbook’s level and b) compared with the vocabulary growth rates (students’ lexical learning capacity) as determined by the specialised literature. Results showed that each textbook’s distribution of words per range was not entirely adequate in relation to their targeted levels of proficiency. Likewise, the textbooks exceeded the number of lemmas to be learnt from the perspective of both the quantitative requirements of the CEFR and learning rates. These results point to a certain authors’ pedagogical manipulation of the lexicon to comply with editorial space restrictions, which entails distorting the normal patterns of lexical distribution of texts.

Keywords: textbooks; content analysis; EFL; vocabulary; frequency; range

Introduction
Vocabulary has always been at the forefront of Language Teaching throughout history (Howatt with Widdowson, 2004; Sánchez, 2009). It has generally been assumed that the more words one knows, the higher his/her communicative efficiency will be. As Meara and Jones (1988: 80) stated, “[…] speakers with a large vocabulary perform better than speakers with a more limited vocabulary”.

Traditionally in Language Teaching, the most frequently occurring words have been considered those that should be learnt first (e.g. West, 1953; Gougenheim, Michéa, Rivenc & Sauvageot, 1954; Schmitt, 2000; Nation, 2013). Indeed, learning the most frequent words becomes a high priority in Language Teaching, since effectiveness in communication and lexical richness are intrinsically related to each other. However, information-processing based studies emphasise the limited capacity of the human brain in the acquisition of knowledge and the essential role of practice to consolidate it. Besides, in the case of vocabulary knowledge, as Ellis (2002: 152) maintains, “the recognition and production of words is a
function of their frequency of occurrence in the language” and that “each time we process [a word] there is a reduction in processing time”. Therefore, if we can only learn a limited amount of the input that is accessed by our mind, it is of paramount importance to select the right input—the most frequent words as a paramount criterion—and how we learn it—by means of frequent encounters with the targeted words.

This two-faceted nature of lexical frequency as the overarching factor in determining communicative usefulness (e.g. Dang & Webb, 2016) and in contributing to learning (e.g. Norlund, 2015), should be taken into account in language teaching textbooks. These constitute the key tool in the teachers’ repertoire, especially in FLT contexts (Tomlinson, 2012; Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013), where the amount and quality of input is meager in comparison with Second Language (SL) settings. However, the amount of textbook content analyses focused on studying their lexical profile (see Harwood, 2014, for a review) is not abundant and most of them report non-positive results.

The aim of the present study is to analyse the lexical profile of three EFL/English Language Teaching (ELT) textbooks targeted at adult learners and which belong to the same well-known series (for the purposes of this study, ‘EFL’ and ‘ELT’ will be used interchangeably). The analysis will centre on which words are included and how frequent they are to verify whether such textbooks comply with the aforementioned two-faceted nature of lexical frequency.

In order to accomplish our aim, we compiled a corpus with the words in the three textbooks and classified them into types, tokens, lemmas and word families. A word family is a headword or lemma plus all its derivatives; for instance, ‘learn’, ‘learning’, ‘learner’, ‘learners’. Types are different forms (spellings) of the same word; for example, ‘learn’, ‘learning’, ‘learner’, and ‘learners’ constitute four different types. Tokens are all the words that appear in a text (whether spoken or written), that is, the occurrences of the types. Then, the vocabulary of each textbook was correlated with the British National Corpus (BNC)-based frequency ranges provided by the computer programme RANGE (Nation, Heatley & Coxhead, 2002). Afterwards, the vocabulary of the three textbooks was matched with the quantitative requirements of lexical learning as derived from the CEFR (2001, 2017), taking into account each textbook’s level. Finally, the results were compared with the vocabulary growth rates determined by the specialised literature.

This work is structured in seven sections. After this Introduction, the second section includes a brief literature review. The third section details the rationale of this study, after which the research questions (RQ) are stated in the fourth section. The fifth one explains the method followed, that is, the materials that were analysed and the computer programme used to measure lexical frequency (RANGE. Nation et al., 2002). The sixth section jointly reports the results and discusses them. Several concluding remarks are offered in the final section.

**Background**

This literature review addresses the nature of frequency as a key criterion to determine the vocabulary to be learnt by students and to facilitate their learning, the students’ lexical learning capacity or vocabulary growth rates and studies dealing with textbook content analyses on vocabulary.
Frequency lists and communicative usefulness

Establishing the exact number of words students should learn per level remains a true challenge for linguists, teachers or textbook authors. The amount of factors implied in determining communicative needs (frequency, relevance, easiness of learning, etc.) makes it impossible to reach fully reliable conclusions. Nevertheless, frequency emerges as the prime criterion, as is the case with West’s (1953) landmark work A General Service List of English Words, which contained 2,000 word families. Traditionally, the most frequent words in a language are considered to be the most useful ones for communicative purposes, which accounts for the appearance of frequency lists targeted at specifying which words students should learn per level. In this respect, traditional teaching materials and praxis have conventionally relied on a three-level classification: elementary, intermediate and advanced levels, which were enlarged by the CEFR (2001, 2017) as A1+A2 (Basic User), B1+B2 (Independent User) and C1+C2 (Proficient User) levels. The Situational Language Teaching Method from the 1950s helped to consolidate the principle that, in the first level, students were expected to learn from 800 to 1,000 words, followed by up to 2,000 words in the second level and up to 3,000 words in the third level (Howatt with Widdowson, 2004; Sánchez, 2009).

Other larger and more sophisticated corpora-based studies indicate that the amount of vocabulary that people are exposed to in daily communication seems to be large in number of tokens (words) but reduced in types (different word forms). This implies that the amount of different words we use in daily communication is lower than often assumed (Nation, 2011; Aitchison, 2012). The Brown Corpus (Kučera & Francis, 1967), a one million-word corpus of American English, revealed that the first one thousand most frequent lemmas cover 72% of an average general American English text. The first six thousand lemmas account for up to 90% of it. A study based on the BNC (Leech, Rayson & Wilson, 2001) showed similar results. Furthermore, according to Nation and Waring (1997), if we were to consider word families instead of lemmas or word forms, three to five thousand word families would be required to cover an average written text. Nation (2006) concludes that reading a novel requires the knowledge of 8,000 word families approximately, which would cover up to 98% of text. In all, basic language communicative needs are considered to be covered with the first one thousand words of a service list (Dang & Webb, 2016), two to three thousand (Schonell, Meddleton & Shaw, 1956; Schmitt, 2000) and three thousand (McCarthy, 1998; Adolphs & Schmitt, 2003).

Frequency and vocabulary acquisition

Frequency affects not just which words are to be learned, but also how to help students maximise the consolidation of such words.

In terms of general learning, information-processing theories (Atkinson & Schiffrin, 1968; Baddeley & Hitch, 1974; McLaughlin & Heredia, 1996) highlight the limited capacity of human attention for learning skills, language mastery being considered one of them. For the full attainment of skills, controlled processes, which are very tight in capacity and require time to be activated, must be solidly acquired so that attention can be directed at further stages of skill learning requiring higher-level processing or at the learning of other more complex skills. The key factor in the process to automatise a skill is practice or overlearning, as it is empirically revealed in other cognitively based studies such as Rundus (1971) and
Kapur, Craik, Tulving, Wilson & Brown (1994). As to language learning specifically, usage-based theories also emphasise the importance of frequent exposure to linguistic items and constructions in order to consolidate their knowledge (Ellis & Wulff, 2015).

Thus, from a cognitive viewpoint, repetition or frequency is essential to learn both the form and meaning of vocabulary (Waring & Takaki, 2003; Norlund, 2015; Dang & Webb, 2016, etc.). Nevertheless, although researchers concur on the fact that frequency of encounters is a crucial factor in L2 vocabulary learning, they disagree as to the exact number of encounters needed: 5-6 (Cameron, 2001), 6-7 (Morin & Goebel, 2001; Gardner, 2008), 7 or more (Kachroo, 1962); 8 (Horst, Cobb & Meara, 1998), 8-10 times (Schmitt, 2008; Webb, 2007), 10 (Nation & Wang, 1999), 10-12 (Coady, 1997; Nation, 2014), 16 or more (Saragi, Nation & Meister, 1978), 20 or more (Waring & Takaki, 2003; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006). As Webb and Nation (2013: 4) summarise, there should be at least between 7 and 16 encounters with each word and repetition should be spaced rather than massed (or concentrated).

Students’ quantitative capacity of L2 vocabulary learning

Besides considering which words to learn and how to learn them, a very important issue in L2 vocabulary learning is the growth rates or how many words the students are able to learn throughout time.

Ito and Bauman (1995), in their empirical study with Japanese college students during an intensive six-week-period classroom setting involving 4 hours a day and 5 days a week, reached the conclusion that these subjects learnt one word per teaching hour. Similarly, research carried out by Waring and Takaki (2003: 148) on graded readers concluded that on average “the subjects learned one new word from an hour of reading”. Alcaraz’s (2011) results regarding the learning potential of Spanish elementary school children during a term with 4 weekly hours of instruction showed that children learnt 3.6 words per teaching hour during a three-month period. Other studies have revealed that, per year, L2 learners can acquire 500 lemmas (Milton, 2009) or 400 word families approximately (Webb & Chang, 2012). 500 lemmas entail learning almost 3.5 lemmas per teaching hour if considering an academic year as composed of 30 weeks, 5 EFL weekly hours.

Lexical textbook content analyses

There exist several corpus-based studies targeted at analysing the lexical content of EFL textbooks for General English. Their number is not abundant regardless of the importance of both the textbook as a core teaching instrument in FLT (Tomlinson, 2012; Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013), and the issues reviewed above in terms of the vocabulary the students should learn and how.

In one of the earliest, pioneering studies, Miranda (1990) analysed the lexical core of sixteen three-level course books published in the 1980s, which were targeted at Spanish Secondary Education. His results showed that different and unsystematic selection criteria were used, the consequence being that the textbooks did not share a minimum lexical core. Similar conclusions were reached by Rixon (1999), who...
found that there seemed to be a striking lack of agreement in terms of vocabulary selection in seven beginner textbooks for young learners; likewise, the opportunities for recycling words were deemed to be insufficient. This last result coincides with Matsuoka and Hirsh’s (2010) study of the lexical items of an upper-intermediate EFL textbook. They reported that “the text was found to offer few opportunities to expand vocabulary knowledge beyond the first 2,000 words and academic words” (Matsuoka & Hirsh, 2010: 67).

Koprowski (2005) obtained analogous results in his analysis of three intermediate and upper-intermediate textbooks for young adults and adults. He compared the frequency and range of the multi-word items in the three textbooks against the Cobuild Corpus. He found that more than 14% of such items were not present in the corpus, that no multi-word element was shared by any of the three textbooks and that the lexical selection criteria seemed to favour the general topic or concept underlying the lexical multi-word items, in the same line as Miranda (1990). This meant the inclusion of many non-frequent multi-word items for the sake of illustrating the general topic with as many lexical phrases as possible—regardless of their frequency and range, which are “both considered fundamental criteria for pedagogic usefulness” (Koprowski, 2005: 328).

Parallel conclusions to Koprowski’s (2005) were reached by Gouverneur (2008) and Jiménez and Mancebo (2008). The first one studied the phrases containing the verbs “make” and “take” in three intermediate and advanced textbooks. The patterns with “make” made up only 7% in the intermediate course books and 15% in the advanced textbooks, while the patterns with “take” were not present in any of the advanced course books. Jiménez and Mancebo (2008) compared the appearance and frequency of the first most frequent fifty function and content words in four textbooks from Spanish Primary and Secondary Education (two course books per educational stage). They found that the Primary Education textbooks differed more than the Secondary Education course books in terms of the words included. More specifically, the amount of the non-shared words between the two course books of the first educational stage was slightly higher than that of the textbooks pertaining to the second educational stage. The authors reached the unsatisfactory conclusion that the lexical items to be learnt by students who belong to the same educational stage may vary depending on the course book chosen. The Secondary Education textbooks also offered a higher difference in terms of the types and tokens included. In the Swedish context, Norlund (2015) studied the vocabulary from three EFL materials for students aged between 10 and 12. Her findings indicated that the amount of high-frequency words was scarce as compared with the total number of types in the word classes of noun, adjective and verb, thus diminishing the opportunities for recycling such words, like Rixon (1999) and Matsuoka and Hirsh (2010). As in Koprowski (2005), the choice of vocabulary did not seem to be driven by frequency criteria but by affinity with the topics. Besides the vocabulary choice and frequency of words plus the opportunities for recycling, other studies have also examined up to what extent EFL textbooks comply with the vocabulary acquisition rates indicated in the specialised literature (see above). Criado (2009) analysed the full lexical content of a textbook targeted at the last year of Spanish Upper Secondary Education, that is, mostly a B1 level (CEFR, 2001, 2017). Similarly to many of the previous works, the results showed that the material included too many words above the three first ranges or the three thousand most frequent words, which entailed that the textbook forced the students to learn words not pertinent to their level; there were not enough multiple instances of the same lexical types to ensure deeply-rooted learning and the amount of lemmas presented to the students was too high in relation to their assumed rates of learning. However, the
textbook did include a reasonable amount of explicit vocabulary-based activities—one third of all the activities. Besides, the conscious pedagogical manipulation of the lexical items in one of them was more evident since it displayed a higher amount of types and a lower amount of tokens, which distorts the normality of lexical distribution (Zipf, 1949).

Finally, from a different perspective from the previous studies, and based on Nation’s (2001) aspects of word knowledge, Brown (2011) examined the vocabulary activities of nine General English textbooks from beginner to intermediate levels. He found that the textbooks “give most attention to form and meaning, then grammatical functions, then spoken form” (Brown, 2011: 94), but the remaining six aspects (written form, word parts, concept and referents, associations, collocations and constraints on use such as register and frequency) were hardly attended to.

As can be seen, regardless of age groups and levels, the general findings from all the previous studies, which used EFL textbooks from the 1980s until the late 2000s, can be summarised as follows: a common lack of systematic criteria for the selection of vocabulary (Miranda, 1990; Rixon, 1999; Koprowski, 2005; Gouverneur, 2008; Jiménez & Mancebo, 2008; Norlund, 2015) and a scarce number of the opportunities for repetition and recycling of the words included (Rixon, 1999; Criado, 2009; Matsuoka & Hirsh, 2010; Norlund, 2015).

Rationale

The previous textbooks’ content analyses have yielded valuable insights as to the profile of such textbooks, both in terms of their lexical content and their underlying pattern of lexical repetition. Nevertheless, there is still an imperative need to conduct more related textbook content analyses due to several reasons: the non-high number of such works and the extreme importance of textbooks as the containers of the L2 input and practice opportunities in FLT settings. Moreover, FLT scenarios at a local or a national level require specific targeted studies to verify whether the officially prescribed textbooks comply with the requirements of the specialised literature as regards the two-faceted nature of lexical frequency—communicative usefulness and facilitation of learning. In this way, possible mismatches can be detected and attempted to be solved by the teacher.

Accordingly, in this study we will focus on one of these local FLT scenarios: Spanish state-run Official Schools of Languages, an institution where foreign languages have been taught to adults and young adults for more than thirty-five years.

Research questions

The research questions that this study pursues to answer are the following ones:

RQ1: What is the amount of lemmas, types and tokens in each textbook?

RQ 2: Does the actual amount of the new lemmas provided in each textbook match the amount of the new lemmas expected to be learnt according to the CEFR’s (2001, 2017) corresponding level of each textbook?

RQ3: What is the vocabulary distribution of each textbook per range?

This RQ is divided into two sub-RQs:
RQ3.1: To which range do the lemmas, types and tokens of each textbook correspond? RQ3.2: What is the frequency of the types of each textbook within each range?

RQ4: Does the amount of the new lemmas provided in each textbook match the lexical learning rates detected in the specialised literature?

Method

Analysed ELT materials

It should be observed that in order to avoid advertising issues and other conflicts related to the selection of these textbooks, all the information concerning such course books has been kept to a minimum throughout this article. The textbooks that were analysed belong a very successful seven-title series published by an international editorial house. The CEFR’s (2001, 2017) levels covered by the series range from A1 to C1. The series follow the weak version of the Communicative Language Teaching Approach (CLT) (Howatt, 1984) and all their units include a balanced number of skill-based activities and grammar and vocabulary exercises. The three textbooks analysed were the Elementary (2004), Pre-intermediate (2005) and Intermediate (2006) student’s book (Textbook 1, Textbook 2 and Textbook 3 hereafter).

Textbook 1 is targeted at the second half of A1 and complete A2, Textbook 2 covers the second half of A2 and the first half of B1, and Textbook 3 is aimed at the second half of B1 and the first half of B2. Such three textbooks were selected because the series they belong to are widely used in Spanish Official Schools of Languages, whose students’ age group, adults and young adults, is the same as that of the series. Specifically, we focused on the Elementary, Pre-intermediate and Intermediate textbooks because they cover from the elementary level to the crucial level from which the students become independent (CEFR, 2001, 2017): the Threshold level (and half Vantage in the case of Textbook 3). Accordingly, the three textbooks represent the Spanish population’s most frequent EFL levels.

The computational tool for the performance of the analysis

The analytical instrument of this study was RANGE (http://www.victoria.ac.nz/lals/about/staff/paul-nation), a computational tool designed by Nation et al. (2002). RANGE classifies the words of texts in three categories (tokens, types and word families). It also provides the quantity figures for each category and how often words appear in the texts. Although it does not register any lemma category, lemmas, as well as types, were adopted as the basic units to analyse the three textbooks’ vocabulary, given that both are necessary to examine the lexical learning units of the textbooks in an accurate way. For instance, “bake” and “baker” share the same lemma but constitute two different types. Just considering lemmas or types would incompletely reflect the lexical profile of the textbooks. Accordingly, we added a lemma category to Nation et al.’s (2002) categories of token, type and word family. The new lemmas in each textbook were manually calculated. A new lemma is regarded as that which has not occurred in any of the previous course books of those under consideration in this study. Secondly, RANGE classifies the words into frequency groups or ranges which are derived from BNC-based frequency lists. Each range has one thousand words (at present up to 14). RANGE identifies the
types found in the textbook and checks whether they are present or not in the BNC-based frequency lists and their corresponding ranges. The words in the texts which are not present in any of the ranges are classified as “off range”. Taking into account studies which indicate that high-frequency vocabulary should include the first 3,000 word families (Schmitt & Schmitt, 2014) or the first 1,000 most frequent words as a general service list (Dang & Webb, 2016), for the purposes of this study we will only consider the first three ranges, that is, the 1,000, 2,000, and 3,000 most frequent words.

Results and discussion

The results will be reported and discussed for each research question.

RQ 1. What is the amount of lemmas, types and tokens in each textbook?
As can be seen in Fig.1, the three textbooks are very similar regarding the amount of tokens included, particularly Textbook 2 and Textbook 3. However, they vary in the amount of types and lemmas: Textbook 3 includes a higher amount of both types and lemmas than Textbook 1 and Textbook 2. More specifically, the percentage of types out of all the tokens is 10.3% in Textbook 1, 11.7% in Textbook 2 and 14.3% in Textbook 3; the percentage of lemmas out of all the tokens is 7.3% in Textbook 1, 8% in Textbook 2 and 9.7% in Textbook 3.

![Fig. 1. Lemmas, types and tokens in Textbook 1, Textbook 2 and Textbook 3.](image_url)

Such numbers mean that the chances for repetition decrease in more advanced levels, which present more new types as well. The amount of types in each textbook increases from 1,925 in Textbook 1 to 2,897 in Textbook 3 (see Fig. 1). This is a sensitive result: the higher the level, the more new types are included. However, the amount of tokens is only moderately higher in Textbook 3 regarding Textbook 1 (20,272 as opposed to 18,752). The progressive increase in types of Textbook 3 does not seem to adjust to Zipf’s (1949) law of vocabulary distribution well, according to which more tokens of the same new types should
be required for such an increase. In other words, natural occurrence of lexical items in textbooks is not possible if a balance must be kept between both a moderate amount of very frequent lemmas and a moderate increase in the quantity of new, less common lemmas. This mismatch reveals a serious problem for textbook authors: if they want to augment the number of new types, they must increase the size of the texts included. Increasing the size of texts, however, does imply augmenting the number of common and basic words, in such a way that if less common words are to be presented and sufficiently practised, the size of the sample texts needed would exceed the possibilities offered by textbooks in terms of edition and format. Consequently, establishing a balance between both aspects requires the “pedagogical manipulation” of teaching materials, that is, texts, exercises, etc., which allows for the incorporation of less common and more new lemmas within the limits demanded by publishing houses. This is a standard practice carried out by textbook authors, consciously or not, and these course books’ authors certainly comply with such a standard practice. Similar results were obtained by Criado (2009).

RQ 2. Does the amount of the new lemmas provided in each textbook match the amount of the new lemmas expected to be learnt according to the CEFR’s (2001, 2017) corresponding level of each textbook?

For the purposes of our analysis, it could be assumed that Range 1 covers the first 500 lemmas in the textbook prior to Textbook 1 (full A1) plus the second 500 most frequent lemmas in Textbook 1 (full A2); that Range 2 includes 250 new lemmas in Textbook 2 (first half of B1) plus 500 new lemmas in Textbook 3 (second half of B1 and first half of B2) and 250 lemmas in the textbook immediately following Textbook 3 (full B2). Table 1 visually summarises these figures:

Table 1. Correspondence of each textbook with its CEFR’s level, Nation et al.’s (2002) ranges, the amount of new words to be learnt according to each textbook’s CEFR’s level and the amount of lemmas included in each textbook.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textbook</th>
<th>CEFR’s (2001, 2017) levels</th>
<th>Nation et al.’s Range (2002)</th>
<th>New (or expected-to-be-learnt) lemmas according to the CEFR’s level</th>
<th>Amount of lemmas included in the textbooks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Textbook 0</td>
<td>A1</td>
<td>RANGE 1: first 1,000 most frequent words</td>
<td>500</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textbook 1</td>
<td>A2</td>
<td></td>
<td>500</td>
<td>1,362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textbook 2</td>
<td>B1.1</td>
<td></td>
<td>250</td>
<td>1,628</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textbook 3</td>
<td>B1.2, B2.1</td>
<td>RANGE 2: second 1,000 most frequent words</td>
<td>250, 250</td>
<td>1,964</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textbook 4</td>
<td>B2.2</td>
<td></td>
<td>250</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
However, as can be observed in Fig. 2, Textbook 1 includes 36.2% more lemmas than students would be expected to learn following the correspondence between Nation et al.’s (2002) ranges and the CEFR’s (2001, 2017) linguistic levels. Textbook 2 reduces the surplus to 30.2%, and Textbook 3 further reduces it to 12.2%. This means that the expectations regarding expected vocabulary learning and the actual vocabulary load included in each textbook do not fully match, which coincides with Criado (2009).

![Fig. 2. Expected-to-be-learnt lemmas vs. amount of lemmas in the three textbooks.](image)

**RQ 3. What is the vocabulary distribution of each textbook per range?**

**RQ 3.1. To which range do the lemmas, types and tokens of each textbook correspond?**

Table 2 below completes the information about the amount of tokens, types, lemmas and word families in each one of the textbooks analysed as provided by RANGE. Figures refer to content words only, given that function words have been excluded. Also, off-range items in the analysis are not considered, since a review of the off-range lists revealed that most of them are proper names, foreign words or misspellings.

As can be seen, the number of types of the three textbooks belonging to Range 1 is the highest one out of the three ranges, 4,393 versus 1,989 and 822 types in Ranges 2 and 3 respectively. Let us explore in more detail the lexical distribution of types in each range for each textbook.
Table 2. Word counts for Textbook 1, Textbook 2 and Textbook 3.

### Textbook 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RANGE</th>
<th>TOKENS/%</th>
<th>TYPES / %</th>
<th>LEMMAS</th>
<th>WORD FAMILIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>one</td>
<td>15,493/71.6</td>
<td>1,243/41</td>
<td>815</td>
<td>649</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>two</td>
<td>2,403/11.1</td>
<td>470/15.5</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>347</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>three</td>
<td>856/4</td>
<td>212/7</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>170</td>
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<tr>
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<td>18,752</td>
<td>1,925</td>
<td>1,362</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>off ranges</td>
<td>2,888/13.3</td>
<td>1,104/36.4</td>
<td>835</td>
<td>?????</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand Total</td>
<td>21,640</td>
<td>3,029</td>
<td>2,197</td>
<td>1,166</td>
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</table>

### Textbook 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RANGE</th>
<th>TOKENS/%</th>
<th>TYPES / %</th>
<th>LEMMAS</th>
<th>WORD FAMILIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>one</td>
<td>16,980/73</td>
<td>1,447/43.3</td>
<td>930</td>
<td>737</td>
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<tr>
<td>two</td>
<td>2,585/11.1</td>
<td>657/19.7</td>
<td>481</td>
<td>442</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>three</td>
<td>865/3.7</td>
<td>278/8.3</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total 3 ranges</td>
<td>20,430</td>
<td>2,382</td>
<td>1,628</td>
<td>1,384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>off ranges</td>
<td>2,845/12.2</td>
<td>959/28.7</td>
<td>915</td>
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<tr>
<td>Grand Total</td>
<td>23,275</td>
<td>3,341</td>
<td>2,543</td>
<td>1,384</td>
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</table>

### Textbook 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RANGE</th>
<th>TOKENS/%</th>
<th>TYPES / %</th>
<th>LEMMAS</th>
<th>WORD FAMILIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>one</td>
<td>16,635/72.2</td>
<td>1,703/41.1</td>
<td>1,061</td>
<td>802</td>
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<tr>
<td>two</td>
<td>2,719/11.8</td>
<td>862/20.8</td>
<td>640</td>
<td>581</td>
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<tr>
<td>three</td>
<td>918/4</td>
<td>332/8</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total 3 ranges</td>
<td>20,272</td>
<td>2,897</td>
<td>1,964</td>
<td>1,653</td>
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<tr>
<td>off ranges</td>
<td>2,754/12</td>
<td>1,249/30.1</td>
<td>1,181</td>
<td>?????</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand Total</td>
<td>23,026</td>
<td>4,146</td>
<td>3,145</td>
<td>1,653</td>
</tr>
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</table>
RQ 3.2. What is the frequency of the types of each textbook within each range?

For the purposes of our study, three frequency bands were considered: 10 or more for high frequency, 9 to 2 times for middle frequency and 1 time for the absence of frequency. Figs. 3-5 illustrate the number of types per textbook distributed per frequency band in each respective range.

From such Figures it can be detected that the amount of types with the highest frequency band in the textbooks, more than 10 times, is far higher in Range 1 (a mean of 26.9%), while it sharply decreases in Ranges 2 and 3 (a mean of 9% and 6.3% respectively). Therefore, opportunities for repeating the same items within this band are higher in Range 1 than in Ranges 2 and 3. Accordingly, it seems that the words which are likely to be consolidated in the three textbooks are those belonging to Range 1—which constitutes the full target of Textbook 1 and partially that of Textbook 2, but not that of Textbook 3 (see Table 1).

As to the 9-to-2-times frequency band, the figures are more stable and higher than those of the previous and next frequency bands. The results show a mean of 48.9%, 49.2% and 43.6% in Ranges 1, 2 and 3 respectively. These figures imply that, across levels, the textbooks favour lexical enlarging rather than consolidation per se by means of repetition.

Regarding the types with only one occurrence, their number is higher in Range 3 (a mean of 50%). For Range 2, the figures moderately decrease to a mean of 41.9% and the drop is considerably tangible in Range 1 with a mean of 24.2%. This pattern of the 1-time frequency band seems to (at least) partially match the lexical objective of the textbooks (see Table 1). Range 3 is not the target of either textbook and, thus, it reflects the highest mean of types that are found once, the lowest mean of this frequency band being located in Range 1.

![Fig. 3. Frequency of types of Textbooks 1, 2 and 3 in Range 1 (in %).](image-url)
Fig. 4. Frequency of types of Textbooks 1, 2 and 3 in Range 2 (in %).

Fig. 5. Frequency of types of Textbooks 1, 2 and 3 in Range 3 (in %).
If we analyse the frequency of types within each range in each textbook, it can be observed that, for Range 1 (Fig. 3), the 10-or-more-times frequency band is higher in Textbook 2 and Textbook 3 than for Textbook 1 (31% and 26.2% versus 23.5% respectively). Thus, the chances for frequent repetition of types from Range 1 augment in more advanced levels. For Textbook 1 in Range 1 the addition of the figures of the 10-or-more-times frequency band and those of the 9-to-2-times reach 80.7% and the 1-time frequency band figure is the lowest one in Textbook 1 (19.4% versus 25.1% and 28.1% in Textbook 2 and Textbook 3 respectively). Regardless of the two previous results, the fact that the 10-or-more-times frequency band in Range 1 is the lowest in Textbook 1 out of the three textbooks seems to be a counter-intuitive fact, given that the lexical target of Textbook 1 is precisely Range 1 (see Table 1). That is, Textbook 1 should ensure the consolidation of Range-1 types by favouring a more abundant repetition of such types. A parallel pattern, that is, lack of opportunities for recycling, was detected in Rixon (1999), Criado (2009), Matsuoka and Hirsh (2010) and Norlund (2015). As indicated in Frequency and vocabulary acquisition, from a cognitive perspective, more frequent words have more chances to be learnt (Waring & Takaki, 2003; Ellis & Wulff, 2015; Norlund, 2015; Dang & Webb, 2016, etc.). Textbook 2 and Textbook 3 should not display a higher percentage of the 10-or-more-times frequency band for Range 1 than Textbook 1 but a higher percentage of the 9-to-2-times frequency band in this range so as to offer more new types to the students and thus favour lexical enlargement. In other words, especially Textbook 3 should display a higher percentage of the 9-to-2-times frequency band to allow for opportunities to widen the students’ lexical repertoire, regardless of the fact that the Range-1 types will necessarily be frequently repeated as they make up for basic language following the law of vocabulary distribution in texts (Zipf, 1949).

The fact that Textbook 2 and Textbook 3 present higher percentages of the 10-or-more-times frequency band than Textbook 1 can be accounted for by the explanation in RQ 1 about the apparently insufficient number of tokens of Textbook 3 in comparison with its number of types. That is, higher levels require using longer texts for the inclusion of newer types, and this also inevitably entails increasing the number of Range-1 items.

As to Range 2 (see Fig. 4), the pattern of results is reversed: Textbook 1 has the highest percentage of types in the 10-or-more-times frequency band, 13.7% as opposed to 8.7% and 4.5% in Textbook 2 and Textbook 3 respectively. Moreover, in this range the percentage of Textbook 1 in the 9-to-2-times frequency band is virtually the same as in Textbook 3 (49.3% versus 49.4%) and even slightly higher than that of Textbook 2 (48.9%). In all, the addition of the numbers of the 10-or-more-times frequency band and those of the 9-to-2-times frequency band in Range 2 makes 63% for Textbook 1, 57.6% for Textbook 2 and 53.9% for Textbook 3. It seems reasonable to have expected that Textbook 2 and Textbook 3 displayed a higher percentage than Textbook 1 in Range 2 of the 10-or-more-times frequency band in order to comply with such a range, which is the full lexical objective of Textbook 2 and 3 (see Table 1).

Regarding Range 3 (see Fig. 5), contrary to expectations, Textbook 1 shows the highest percentage of the 10-or-more-frequency band (9% against 5.2% and 4.8% in Textbook 2 and Textbook 3 respectively) as well as the lowest once-frequency band (47% versus 48.4% in Textbook 2 and 54.7% in Textbook 3). Given that Range 3 is not the lexical target of Textbook 1, the reversed pattern of results would have been more suitable and sensitive.

The results from RQ 3.1 and RQ 3.2 can be summarised as follows:

a) Globally, Range-1 lexical items are far more frequent in the three textbooks in comparison with Range-2 and Range-3 words. Given that the corresponding new lemmas in Textbooks 2 and 3 pertain to Range 2, the results should have reflected this fact more suitably.
b) Across levels, the three textbooks offer higher opportunities for lexical repetition of words within Range 1, which is the target of Textbook 1. Likewise, the three course books mostly favour lexical expansion rather than consolidation, due to their higher percentages of the 9-to-2 frequency band.

c) Within textbooks, Textbook 1 should have ensured the consolidation of Range-1 words by offering a more abundant repetition of such types; however, its 10-or-more-times frequency band is the lowest one of the three textbooks. Simultaneously, the frequency band of 10-or-more-times for Range 3 in Textbook 1, the highest one in the three course books, should have been much lower.

d) Textbook 2 and Textbook 3 should both have had a higher percentage of Range-2 words in the 10-or-more-times frequency band to comply with their lexical target as well as a higher percentage of the 9-to-2 frequency band in Range 1 to help expand the students’ lexical stock.

RQ 4. Does the actual amount of new lemmas provided in each textbook match lexical learning rates detected in the specialised literature?

The amount of new lemmas in each textbook must take into account the students’ learning potential or vocabulary growth rates as indicated in the specialised literature (see Lexical textbook content analyses). Let us assume that the average amount of lessons per school year is around 100 hours. Therefore, students are exposed to the following quantities of lexical input in each textbook:

Textbook 1 (1,362 lemmas). The students are supposed to face 13.6 lemmas per hour. Given that 862 lemmas are new (the 500 assigned in the textbook’s level plus the additional 362 included, as can be seen in Table 1), the students should learn 8.6 new lemmas per hour.

Textbook 2 (1,628 lemmas). The learners are assumed to handle 16.3 lemmas per hour. 628 are new (the expected-to-be-learnt 250 plus the additional 378), thus the students’ learning rate should be 6.3 new lemmas per hour.

Textbook 3 (1,964 lemmas). The students should deal with 19.6 lemmas per hour. 714 are new lemmas (the 500 new lemmas according to the textbook’s level plus the additional 214), which amounts to 7.1 per hour that should be learned by the students.

Table 3 below comparatively summarises the results of the research studies mentioned in Student’s quantitative capacity of L2 vocabulary learning with those of the three targeted textbooks. As can be seen, overall, the three textbooks analysed here supply the students with an amount of lexical input above their learning capacity, a similar result to Criado (2009).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Japanese college students</td>
<td>An intensive six-week-period</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graded readers</td>
<td>Extensive reading outside the classroom</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish elementary school children</td>
<td>A term period, 4 hours a week</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young adult / Adult learners</td>
<td>A 100-hour course</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
classroom setting, 4 hours a day, 5 days a week.

| Learning rate | One new word per teaching hour | One new word per reading hour | 3.6 new words per teaching hour | New lemmas (mean): 7.3 per hour |

**Conclusion**

This work aimed to study the lexical profile of three textbooks targeted at consecutive levels and pertaining to the same series. Such a profile is not fully positive. Results showed that the lexical component in each one of the textbooks did not quantitatively match the lexical target that each one them should aim at in accordance with their levels as established by the CEFR (2001, 2017), which means that the students are supposed to learn more lemmas than those assumed in their levels. Also, according to the level of proficiency claimed by each one of the textbooks, types per range were not suitably distributed as expected and the frequency of the types within the ranges theoretically targeted at by each textbook was not entirely adequate. Finally, the three textbooks pushed the students to learn at a higher rate than their learning potential as identified in the specialised literature.

On the basis of these findings, the following recommendations are suggested. The textbooks should include a more restricted number of words in accordance with the ranges corresponding to their claimed levels so that students do not get discouraged by an excessive amount of words to be learnt and so that they perceive the usefulness of the lexical items they are supplied with. A high number of non-frequent words or words belonging to Range 3, which is not the lexical target of any of the three textbooks, should be removed so that their learning does not interfere with that of the lexical items the students should learn. The latter should frequently be repeated and recycled in different aural and written texts and in receptive and productive modes.

By no means would I want to downgrade the effort that devising Language Teaching textbooks implies and even less in this case, as the targeted series is very successful worldwide, which certainly indicates that it manages to suit teachers’ and learners’ tastes. Indeed, choosing the right vocabulary and setting its optimal frequency is a challenging task for textbook authors, especially if they want to use authentic samples as recommended by CLT. It is well known in Corpus Linguistics that the normal patterns of distribution of vocabulary in authentic texts implies that they are made up of a small stock of very frequent words, both of a functional and lexical nature, and a larger amount of non-frequent words. Adding new types of a reasonable frequency of occurrence entails increasing the number of very frequent words as well, thus augmenting the tokens and the overall text, whose limits could fall outside those allowed by the editorial houses. Most probably, the results of this study, especially those referring to the mismatch between the textbooks’ levels and its corresponding ranges, could be due to a conscious pedagogical manipulation on the authors’ part to comply with the restrictions imposed on text length by the editorial house, which distorts the normal patterns of lexical distribution, or to the need to include certain words as contextually required by the topic of the text.
To conclude, textbook authors should use general frequency lists to choose the lexical items in their textbooks and set their frequency of appearance. At the same time, they should probably acknowledge the need for pedagogical manipulation when combining the criteria of the pedagogical usefulness of frequency, requirements of CLT and the patterns of normal lexical distribution.

Acknowledgements

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References


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Evaluation Of The Structure-Forming Ability Of Synthesized Catalytic Complexes During Paraffin Base Tar Upgrade

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I kazan Federal University

Abstract
The Combination Of The Synthesized Multicomponent Bifunctional Catalytic Complex (Mbc) Components With Heavy Oil Residues (Hor) Of Paraffin-Naphthenic (P-H) Base Leads To The Chemical Structuring Of Hydrocarbon (Hc) Segments Of Raw Material Molecules, And Hor Physical-Chemical Structure Peculiarities, Which Will Be The Criteria For The Selection Of Modifiers Of A Certain Chemical Nature [1,2,3,4]. It Has Been Established That The Introduction Of Catalytic Activators In The Tar Composition Promotes The Intensification Of The Oxidation Process And The Production Of Bituminous Insulating Material (Bim) With High Physical-Mechanical Properties [1,2,4].

The Raw Materials For The Production Of Special Bituminous Materials Must Be Highly Resinous With A P-Hc Content Of Up To 3% Wt. Based On The Work By A.S. Kolbanovskaya [6], This Is Explained By The Fact That The Dispersed Structure Of Bitumen Is Dependent On The Content Of P-Hc Significantly, Since The Dispersed Phase In The Oils Is Formed By Naphthenic (H-) And Pn-A-Hc With Side Chains Of The Paraffinic P-Hc Series At Certain Temperatures. If Their Content Is More Than 3% Wt. The Crystallization Skeleton Of P-Hc Appears, Which Gives Stiffness To A System And Reduces The Plasticity Interval. Together With This, It Is Known That In The Process Of Hor Oxidation The Amount Of Low-Molecular-Weight Oil A-Hc Decreases Continuously, And The Relative Amount Of Pn-Hc Increases. Due To This, The Affinity Of The Dispersion Medium (Dm) To Asphaltenes Decreases [7,8,9], Which, Moreover, Becomes Larger And Leads To The Deterioration Of Cohesion And Adhesion-Strength Properties Of Bim.

Key Words: Physical-Chemical Mechanics, Heavy Oil Residual Raw Materials, Paraffin Hydrocarbons, Catalytic Complexes, Pulsed Nmr Spectroscopy, Bitumen Insulating Materials.

Introduction
According To The Physical-Chemical Mechanics Of Petroleum Disperse Systems (Phcm Pds), A Correct Understanding About The Composition And The Structure Of Hor Raw Materials Makes It Possible To Solve The Problems Of Qualitative Bim Creation Scientifically [1,2,7,8]. The Raw Materials For The Obtaining Of Insulating Bitumen Should Be Highly Resinous With A Minimum Content Of Pn-Hc. In The Process Of Hor Processing, In Particular, The Tar Of The Elkhovsky Npjsc Tatneft Or Enpu, The Pn-Hc Base, It Becomes Necessary To Use Such Chemically Active Modifiers Which, Due To An Effective Intermolecular Diffusion, Would Subject The Paraffin Chain Segments To Chemical Structuring With The Subsequent Development Of Macromolecular Polycyclic Naphthenic Fragments [1, 2, 4, 5, 7].

2 Methods
During The Consideration Of Hor Processing Possibilities (Table 1) In The Activated State, The Chemistry Of The Oxidation Process Is Based On Radical Chain Reactions Of Oxidative Polymerization [1,2,7,10].
The Following Measurement Modes Were Used For The Analysis Of Tars: The Starting Period $T = 500$ Msec - 2 S, The Interval Between 900 And 1800 By The Pulses $N = 5 - 1000$, The Number Of Accumulations $N = 3 - 50$ [1,2]. The Analysis Time Did Not Exceed 3 Min.

During The Processing Of Hor, The Tar Of Enpu (Table 1), It Becomes Necessary To Use Such Chemically Active Modifiers Which, Due To Effective Intermolecular Diffusion, Would Subject The Segments Of Paraffin Chains To Chemical Structuring With The Subsequent Formation Of Macromolecular Polycyclic Naphthenic Fragments (Pnf). Since The Compounds Of The Naphthene Series In The Systems Under Consideration Interact Better With P-Hc Rather Than With Aromatic (A-) Hydrocarbons, Which In Its Turn Exhibit Weak Interaction Forces With P-Hc. On The Basis Of This Approach, The Structure Of Hor Should Acquire A High-Tar Type, And During The Oxidation The Structures Related To The Chemical Composition Of Asphaltenes Are Developed, But They Have The Physical-Chemical Properties Of "Heavy" Resins [10, 11]. Thus, An Obtained Sample Of Special Bitumen Should Be Characterized By A Rather High Content Of Film Former - Resins With A Small Amount Of P-Hc And Asphaltenes.

### 3 Results

**Table 1 - Physical-Chemical Properties Of Enpu Tar**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Density, Kg/M3</td>
<td>0,9878</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditional Viscosity, Cv80</td>
<td>51,76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Composition, % Wt.:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Sav</td>
<td>28,23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Sulphur</td>
<td>0,887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Parrafins</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asphaltenes/Resins</td>
<td>0,45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Picture 1 - The Change In The Relaxation Times $T_i$ As A Function Of Temperature
Picture 2 - Dependence Of The Populations Of Protons Of Oil Tar - Byproduct From Temperature

A - Spin Spin System
B - Spin-Lattice System
Picture 3 – Changing The Relaxation Times Oil Tar - Byproduct - Kpso Depending On Temperature
Picture 4 - Dependence Of The Populations Of Protons Of Oil Tar - Byproduct - Kpso From Temperature

A - Spin Spin System
B - Spin-Lattice System
Picture 5 – Changing The Relaxation Times Of Oil Tar - Byproduct - Kpso - Dm Depending On Temperature
The confirmation of a high degree of hor structuring is that (Fig. 5) at $500^\circ C \,(3,096K) > T_{\text{exp}} > 240^\circ C \,(3,367K)$ CCE in the structural-dynamic analysis (SDA) is a single phase, then in the interval $890^\circ C \,(2,762K) > T_{\text{exp}} > 500^\circ C \,(3,096K)$ two phases are shown - oily and resinous-asphaltene one. Small differences in the molecular mobility of phase B and C also determines their high degree of chemical affinity.
Discussion

The Regulation Of Oxidized Bitumen Properties Was Carried Out In Accordance With The Main Provisions Of Phcm [1,2,7,8,9,12] By The Directional Control Of Their Spatial Ds Changing The Size Of The Dispersed Phase (Dph) Particles With The Introduction Of Mbc Into The Process Of Joint Oxidation. Bifunctionality (Fig. 7, 8) Consists Both In Hor Oxidation Time Reduction, And In The Necessary Improvement Of The Basic Physical-Mechanical Properties Obtained At Its Bim. The Following Components Were Used As Mbk Components: Biopolymerization Process Component (Byproduct), The Synthetic Oil Production Component (Sopc) And The Metallized Dm Complex.

It Was Established That Byproduct Provides Easy Oxidizability To Coating, Since It Contains The Components Actively Interacting With Air Oxygen, Namely Unsaturated Acids, Mixed With Rosin Acids. To Ensure The Presence Of Ether And Acid In The Subsequent Film Development Of Bitumen Solution In Various Media, Sopc And Byproduct Were Introduced Into The Tar With An Intensive Stirring And The Temperatures Up To 180 °C, Since It Is Known That Unsaturated Acids Are Not Able To Form A Solid Film As The Result Of Oxidative Polymerization. The Violation Of Component Combination Process (Temperature Increase) Or The Change Of Additive Introduction Stages Led Both To The Course Of The Decomposition Reactions Dm, And Then To The Deterioration Of The Physical-Mechanical Properties Of Bim. The Confirmation Of Mbk Chemical Activity Theoretical Prerequisites Was The Study Of The Structural-Dynamic States Of Paraffin Base Hor By Nmr Method At Its Combination With The Mbc Components [1,2,13,14,15].

Picture 7 - Dependence Of The Softening Temperature Of Bitumen On The Duration Of Oxidation Of Modified Oil Tar

Picture 8 - Dependence Of Hardness Of Bim On Softening Temperature
During the analysis of Fig. 1, it should be noted that for the compared systems Tar and By-Product of phase A and C are detected at the same temperature. So for Tar at $T_{ksp} = 31.87^\circ C$ the spin-spin relaxation time $T_2 a$ makes 2.5 ms, and for the Tar-Byproduct system at $T_{ksp} = 310^\circ C$ $T_2 a$ makes 2.26 ms. The detection of phase C for Tar and Tar-Byproduct system occurs at $T_{ksp} = 49.58$ and 500 ms with spin-spin relaxation times $T_2 c$ 0.8 and 0.77 ms respectively.

The presence of $T_2 c$ 0.3 ms minimum at 2,85k for Tar is explained by the conformational difficulties of the spatial arrangements of paraffin-naphthenic chains in the molecules of asphaltenes. In the future, with the growth of $T_{ksp}$ the values of the relaxation times $T_2 a$ and $T_2 c$ are similar for the considered NDS.

The study of $T_2 b$ dependencies on $T_{ksp}$ (Fig. 1) shows that the phases B are revealed for the following systems: Tar at 47,51 0c, Tar-Byproduct at 310c, where $T_2 b$ makes 1 and 0,54 ms. At the same time Tar-Byproduct shows a slight increase of $T_2 b$ at $T_{ksp} \geq 900^\circ C$. The analysis of the thermal-dynamic features of spin-lattice changes with the increase of $T_{ksp}$ (Fig. 16) shows the presence of characteristic extrema for $T_1 a$ and $T_1 b$, which can be expressed by steric hindrances at the segmental mobility of the newly formed system. At that it should be noted that the introduction of Byproduct into the Tar does not fundamentally affect the thermodynamic stability of NDS as a whole, since the relaxation times $T_1 a,b,c$ for the Hor under study are in the similar limits of values.

Taking into account the fact that during the thermal treatment at $T = 250-280^\circ C$ the polymerization inhibitors break down and the transition of isolated double bonds in the acyl residues to the more active conjugate state occurs, it should be noted that analogous chemical transformations occur with Byproduct, but with multiply lower reaction rates. This is due to the fact that Byproduct refers to the group of saturated film-forming systems ($Ich_{nmp}=4,3664$). The reaction of isomerization during heat treatment is based first of all on partial transitions of isolated double bonds to a more active state, respectively, and the structuring of Hor at Byproduct introduction occurs insignificantly. However, byproduct use is advantageous by the fact that at low isomerization rates, low polymerization rates are observed during thermal-physical alignment with Hor. This fact, in its turn, plays an important role in Hor storage, since in this case there will be no sharp increase in acid numbers (An), viscosity, specific gravity during simultaneous $Ich$ decrease, which will subsequently deactivate Mdc for Hor.

The pronounced ordering of Hor chemical structure, represented by the system of Tar-Byproduct, is observed when it is combined with Kpso (Fig. 1b, 2-4). From the comparative analysis of the structural-dynamic parameters of Fig. 1-4 it follows that the branched structure of Kpso molecule has a structuring effect aimed at the isomerization of Pn-Hc structure of the most mobile phases A and B. This is confirmed by the data (Fig. 3, 4a) of the spin-spin relaxation $T_2 a,b$ and $P_2 a,b$, where the decrease of $T_2 a,b$ values and the increase of proton population $P_2 a,b$ is observed as compared to the values of Tar-Byproduct (Fig. 16). The study of the experimental data characterizing the change of proton $P_{2i}$ number with $T_{ksp}$ increase (Fig. 4a) Tar-Byproduct - Kpso shows the symbiosis of $P_{2b}$ and $P_{2c}$ and antibate nature of $P_{2a}$ values from $P_{2b,c}$. This is explained by the fact that the macromolecular mobility of the terminal groups of the structured phase A increases to a certain $P_{2a}$ limit with the growth of $T_{ksp}$, and then, as a result of their proximity to the segmental part of the kinetic chains of phase B, $T_{2b}$ precession frequency increases (Fig. 3) and, thus, the growth of $P_{2b}$ is observed (Fig. 4a).
Due to the affinity of chemical structures of byproduct and tar maltens, interfacial diffusion of the components takes place. We believe that when Kpso is combined with the Hor of Pn-Hc base at 80-100 °C, the physical-chemical structure changes by macromolecular isomerism of P-Hc structures into polycyclic napthenic ones with a high degree of a carbon chain isostructure, i.e. with the content of methyl and ethyl end groups. The presence of C=C double bonds in the composition of byproduct is expressed apparently by the extremes of the values T2i and P2i, which show their activity at Tэксп above 800°C, since they are located in newly formed Ptsn-Hc structures. At that, the contained double bonds in byproduct pass to Ptsn-Hc structures, which are referred within some limits of Tэксп at the measuring of P2i to P2a or to P2c. We believe that at the subsequent oxidizing of Hor, they are transformed without any special difficulties into the Ptsn-A-Hc of the asphaltene system, or remain in an original state, initiating a spin-lattice system to create related resinous structures. The last type of chemical structuring is the most acceptable one, because localized C=C double bonds in H-Hc structures experience spatial structuring only in the case of intense oxidation, which is ensured only after a solvent application and evaporation and the shrinkage of Bim on a substrate, where it proceeds at high velocities due to the small thickness of Bim (30-50 μm) and the maximum contact of Bim small area with air oxygen. This statement is based on the fact that liquid-phase high-temperature oxidation causes an incomplete use of air oxygen supplied to the reactor (up to 50% by weight), and, thus, thermal destruction over structuring predominates during the process. These assumptions are confirmed by high physical-mechanical properties of Bim, associated with a high degree of the film-forming material oxidation, the result of which is a newly formed (at the physical mixing of Kpso with tar-byproduct) Ha-Hc structure with C=C double bonds of byproduct.

A comparative analysis of the thermodynamic states of the spin-lattice systems of tar-byproduct and tar-byproduct - Kpso (Fig. 1b, 2-4) shows that the introduction of Kpso enhances the structuring effect of byproduct with the same extreme structural-dynamic states at the same Tэксп, but at lesser T1i.

It should be noted from Fig. 2b and 4b that due to the symbiosis of the phases B and C, the chemical inhomogeneity of the maltens is observed. Due to the fact that some part of the Hor system, mainly the phase A and B, as well as alkyl substituents of the phase C, tend to ordering, i.e. to the creation of Ptsn-Hc structures, then Tdo, expressed by the increase of P1b, is determined by Ptsn-Hc and the isomers of P-Hc structures that predominate in the maltens of a newly formed system. Thus, it can be seen from Fig. 3 and 4 that within the temperature range of 83,50°C (2,805K) > Tэксп > 450°C (3,145K) there is a single resinous-asphaltene phase P2a=44,4-53%, i.e. the sum of the phase B and C, and at Tэксп more than 83,50°C the phase C appears, at that the quantitative content of phase B decreases, and the quantitative content of phase A increases, i.e. P2a=51%, P2a=34%, P2c=15%. In this regard, the general definition of the most mobile phases A and B - “maltens” in Nmr relaxometry does not agree with the ongoing studies of chemical structural Hor. Since at the initial or final Tэксп the phase C falls out of Hor structural-dynamic analysis due to the chemical affinity and molecular mobility of resin and asphaltene components, and when the phase C response is observed, a characteristic decrease of P2b takes place, so a generalization must be made between the phases B and C - the resinous-asphaltene phase.

Introduced into Hor composition of macromolecular structuring reaction catalyzer concerning the components of byproduct, Kpso and tar leads to the newly formed Nds, respectively, and Cce in
The State Of Thermal-Dynamic Equilibrium, Which Is Expressed By The Decrease Of Relaxation Periods Of The Nds Spin System In Comparison With The Previously Studied Hor With The Participation Of Tar And Modifiers Introduced By Stages (Fig. 1, 3, 5).

An Important Distinctive Feature Of Hor Under Study Is The Disappearance Of The Spin-Lattice Relaxation Periods T1c (Fig. 5) And, Accordingly, The Population Of The P1c Protons (Fig. 6b). This Is Explained By The Initiation Of Deep Interphase Structuring Reactions, Aimed, In Our Opinion, To The Isomerization Of Long-Chain P-Hc Fragments Of Maltenes And Substituted Aliphatic Chains Of Asphaltenes With A Small Degree Of Branching.

5 Conclusions
It Is Established That The Following Takes Place During The Introduction Of Byproduct Into Tar: The Structuring Of The Most Mobile Phases A And B, Expressed By The Decrease Of Their Segmental Mobility, That Is:
A) Due To An Insignificant Decrease Of 68 (2,933) >Tэксп > 310с (3,289к). At Tэксп >680с In Tar - Byproduct T2a 8 Ms. Is Less Than T2a 8,5 Ms. For Tar, Which Is Associated Obviously With Steric Hindrances Of Alkyl Segment Molecular Mobility In Paraffin-Naphthenic Structures;
B) Due To A Mutual Diffusion And The Affinity Of Byproduct And Tar Components, Minor Differences Are Observed During The Periods Of Proton Relaxation T2b, Where The Values Of T2b For Tar Exceed Those For Tar - Byproduct To A Lesser Degree, Which Reflects The Ordering Of Hor Chemical Structure.

At The Stage Of Physical Combining Of Byproduct And Tar At 80-100 0с, The Initial Stage Of The Polymerization Reaction Takes Place (With An Insignificant Amount Of Atmospheric Oxygen), Which Subsequently Proceeds With The Thermal-Oxidative Degradation Of Hor And Ends On The Substrate Directly.

Summary
Ultimately, Based On Small Values Of The Molecular Mobility Of A Spin System (Fig. 5), With Simultaneous Absence Of The Extrema T2a,B And The Disappearance Of The Phase C Of The Spin-Lattice System T1c With The Increase Of Tэксп, It Can Be Concluded That The Predominant Fragmentary Structure Of A Newly Formed System Tar - Byproduct - Kpsy - Dm Is A Naphthenic One With A Developed Substitution System By Alkyl Chains, Which Is Proved (Fig. 6) By The Presence Of Extremes P2a And P2b. Thus, (Fig. 7, 8) The Introduction Of Activators Into The Composition Of Tar Makes It Possible To Intensify The Oxidation Process And To Obtain Bim With High Physical And Mechanical Properties.

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Metonymy: a different procedure to translate a metaphor

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This study addresses the transfer methods of metaphors. As semantic novelties, metaphors pose considerable challenge as they are with no immediate equivalents in the target language. Therefore, translators are always challenged in choosing the right way to translate metaphors. Like the other figurative languages, if metaphors are translated literally, word for word, into a second language, not only their message is missed but the translator may transfer an erroneous message. Due to inapplicability of literal translation, translation scholars have proposed different procedures to render a metaphor into the target language such as conversion of metaphors to sense, translation of metaphors by a different or the same metaphor, and translation of a metaphor by a simile. Yet, these figurative languages do not seem to be adequate for transferring Persian metaphors in English. The present study calls for further procedures like translation of a metaphor by a metonymy to transfer metaphors into the target language and suggests that a merely prescribed list cannot be a faithful criterion for the translation of metaphors. Then, that is all about the translator’s creativity which would settle reproducing metaphors in the target language.

Keywords: Translation, Metaphor, Transfer method, Metonymy

1. Translation of Metaphor

The word metaphor has its root in the Greek word “metaphora” derived from “meta” meaning over and “phora” meaning to carry (Hawkes, 1972). A number of definitions have been put forward for metaphor. Aristotle is believed to be the first to define metaphor, and his metaphor is giving something a name that belongs to something else (Grothe, 2008). Metaphor is described by Knowles & Moon (2006, p. 3) as “the use of language to refer to something other than what it was originally applied to or what it literally means, in order to suggest some resemblance or make a connection between two things”. Goatly (1997, p. 16) also states that:

Metaphors refer to cases where “an unconventional act of reference or colligation is understood on the basis of some similarity, matching or analogy involving the conventional referent or colligates of the unit and the actual unconventional referent or colligates”.

Metaphors, based on the above definitions, are used to explain something new by reference to something familiar, to obtain a new, wider, special and more precise meaning. According to Tajalli (2010, p. 106), “a description by metaphor is not only comprehensive and concise, but also graphic, pleasing and surprising”. A similar view is held by Newmark (1988, p. 84). He believes that "one serious purpose of metaphor is to describe an entity, event or quality more comprehensively and concisely and in a more complex way than is possible by using literal language". Therefore, it can be assumed that affective
attitudes and an abundance of preposition can be communicated by a metaphor. In the following example it is shown that how Shakespeare utilizes the metaphor “melting the darkness” to paint a scene, i.e., sunrise which can be visualized vividly and clearly:

The morning steals upon the night,


In the above example, Shakespeare paints a battlefield where the dawn trespasses furtively upon the realm of the night to kill the darkness. He likens the day and night to two warriors and achieves an uncommonly special effect which only a metaphor can afford.

2. Types of Metaphor

Traditionally two classifications have been considered for metaphor: dead and live (Larson, 1984, Golfam and Yousefirad, 2009). With regard to these classifications, Ortony (1998) states that dead metaphor is one that is commonly used and finally becomes an idiom or obtains a meaning different from the original meaning. Thus, it can be said that this kind of metaphor usually causes no hardship for a reader to understand directly, as there is usually an entry in dictionaries for this type of metaphor. An example of dead is “kick the bucket” that is a metaphoric expression for “to die”. Live metaphor, on the other hand, is one that is creative and its meaning is different from the meaning of words and sentences because the speaker intends to convey a different thing by them. For instance, in the metaphor “life is a yo-yo”, one can understand the metaphor’s ground based on “ups” and “downs” that are attributed to both life and a yo-yo. It should be noted that the metaphoric expression “kick the bucket”, which is regarded as a dead metaphor, can be as creative as a live metaphor. However, dead metaphors lose their effect due to overuse, and the speakers of a language are hardly conscious of their image.

3. Cultural consideration in translation of metaphors

Metaphors are amply widespread in any language and mostly possess local color and call for meticulous consideration and analysis if they are to be rendered into a second language. The considerable emphasis that is placed on the translation of metaphors is due to the fact that failure to transfer metaphors into a second language will affect the message of this figurative language. Here, the failure is mainly caused by the mismatches of the connotative meanings of metaphors within different cultures. The word “owl”, for example, holds the symbolic meaning of “bad omen” in Persian while in English it stands for “wisdom”. Here, reproducing such an image into English not only misses out the true sense of the image “bad omen”, it also brings about an erroneous concept, i.e. “wisdom”.

The aforementioned discussion stresses culture as an important element in rendering metaphors into the target language. Metaphors are considered to be of ample cultural connotations that pose hardships in the translation process. According to Larson (1984, p. 231), “most words in a language have absorbed cultural aspects and historical experiences”. Most metaphors are thereby culture-bound, and can only be understood in direct translation by those sharing the same language and culture. Snell Hornby (1998, p. 58) also considers culture as the most important factor in the translation of metaphor and says: “the essential problem posed by metaphor in translation is that different cultures, hence different languages, conceptualise and create symbols in varying ways and therefore the sense of
metaphor is always culture-specific.” As a result, reproducing the same image in the target language does not appear to be a valid option for the translator due to different connotations within cultures. In other words, a literal translation of metaphors into the target language can distort the true meaning of the receptor language image. See an example from the translation of the Shahname1.

Persian Text: کنیزک پسر زاد روزی یکی که ازماه پیدا نبود اندکی
Gloss: [handmaiden] [son] [gave birth] [one day] [a] [that] [than] [the moon] [he was not] [seen] [less]

English Translation: And this handmaiden bore to him a son as radiant as the moon (Warner & Warner, 1910, p. 263).

The expression “he was not seen less than the moon” is a metaphoric expression for “to be as beautiful as the moon” (Rastegar, 1989, p. 544). Warner and Warner rendered the metaphoric expression into a simile “as radiant as the moon”. This translation reveals Warner and Warner’s misunderstanding of the intended meaning of the image “moon”. While the symbolic meaning of “moon” refers to “beauty” in the Persian language, it has been considered “radiant” in Warner and Warner’s rendering. “Radiant” signifies “brightness” and “happiness” which ignores the intended figurative meaning of the source language image and conveys an erroneous concept in the target language. Thus, the first translators seem to misunderstand the metaphoric expression and fail to reproduce it in their translation.

According to Newmark (1988), when an image’s connotation is not universal in two languages, the translator should select an image that does not clash with the target culture. With regard to the above metaphoric expression, it would be more appropriate to change the image “moon” into “rose” which signifies “beauty” in English. Then the translation of the above couplet can be: “as beautiful as a rose”.

As noted above, metaphors have been argued to become a translation problem as cultural differences may hamper transferring them into the target language, and to apply a literal translation of metaphors into the receptor language does not usually seem a viable option. Translators are always challenged in choosing the right way to translate metaphors.

Considering the inapplicability of literal translation of metaphors into the target language, different procedures for rendering metaphors into the target language have been proposed by translation scholars which are discussed as follows.

4. Procedures for Translation of Metaphor

It is believed that one of the main contributions to metaphor translation has been made by Dagut (1976). He believes that “since a metaphor in the source language is, by definition, a semantic novelty, it can clearly have no existing equivalence in the target language” (p. 24). He argues that there is no

1 The Shahname, composed by the Persian poet Firdausi, is the longest and oldest national epic poem of Iranians and Persian speakers around the world. The Shahname is regarded by Persian speakers as a literary masterpiece; it is also a repository of Persian’s history and cultural values.
simplistic general rule for the translation of metaphor, but the translatability of any given source language metaphor depends on two factors: first, particular cultural experiences and semantic associations exploited by it, and second, the extent to which these can, or cannot, be reproduced non-anomalously into the target language, depending on the degree of overlap in each particular case.

Although Dagut does not explore strategies for translating metaphors, he implies that while dead metaphors should be substituted, live metaphors need a recreation job. Metaphor translation has also been argued by other scholars like Newmark (1988) and Larson (1984). They have suggested strategies to translate different metaphors which are discussed as follows.

The first procedure proposed by Larson (1984) is to keep the image if the target language permits. For instance, in the sentence “the road is like a snake”, “snake” means something like “crooked”. If snake has the metaphorical meaning in the target language, a literal translation is possible in some languages. Newmark (1981, p. 51) also mentions that the same image can be reproduced when “the image has a comparable frequency and currency in the appropriate target language register”. He explains that this approach can be employed to one word metaphors, whereas it cannot be the right way to convey complex metaphors or idioms mainly due to cultural overlap.

Larson (1984) proposes another way to translate metaphors. He asserts that, in order to keep clarity, it is better to change the metaphor into a simile: the road is like a snake since similes are more readily understood as compared to metaphors in most languages. In addition, when the topic, image, and point of similarity are all included, there is little possibility of misunderstanding, as it is transparent in the following examples: 1. He is a pig. 2. He is like a pig. 3. He is dirty like a pig. Newmark (1988), similarly, refers to the conversion of the metaphor into a simile when no equivalent in the target language is available for the source language image. He also maintains that a metaphor can be translated by a simile plus sense. Newmark (1988) believes that this procedure is “always a compromise procedure” in which both semantic and communication translations are combined. In fact, this procedure provides the knowledgeable reader with the foreign features of metaphors as well as the sense of the source language metaphors for the less learnt reader”. It should be noted that although Larson considers translating metaphor by a simile plus sense, it is not listed in her strategies.

The third procedure proposed by Larson (1984) is similar to Newmark’s (1988) second procedure, i.e. replacing a different metaphor in the target language that has the same meaning as the metaphor in the source language. For example, in the sentence there was a storm in parliament, in order to avoid misunderstanding, it might be good in some languages to change the metaphor from “storm” to “fire”: the parliament was on fire. As long as the non-figurative meaning of the metaphor is not lost or distorted, a metaphor from the target language might well be substituted. Newmark (1988) states that this procedure is applicable to translate proverbs and idioms whose images in most cases contain cultural connotation, and consequently these cannot be transferred semantically into the target language.

The other procedure proposed by Newmark and Larson (1984) is to keep the metaphor along with sense. Larson claims that this procedure is helpful to save the intended force of metaphor. Therefore, the sentence the tongue is a fire, can be translated: the tongue is fire, a fire destroys things and what we say can ruin people. Newmark asserts that the addition of a gloss or explanation by the translator is to ensure that the metaphor will be understood.
Larson (1984) in her last procedure states that there will also be sometimes when the translator should ignore the image in the source text. It happens when he translates the meaning of metaphor directly without using a metaphor, the source text “he is a pig” can be translated “he is a messy person”. Newmark (1981, p. 52) also declares that metaphors can be converted to sense, and he stresses that this procedure “is preferred to any replacement of an source language by a target language image which is too wide of the sense or the register (including here current frequency, as well as the degrees of formality, emotiveness and generality, etc.)”. Finally, Newmark (1988) expresses that metaphors can be deleted together with its sense component when the metaphor is redundant or serves no purpose. Compared to Larson (1984), Newmark (1988) includes two more strategies for translating metaphors which make it more comprehensive. These strategies are presented in the following table.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Procedures for Translating Metaphors</th>
<th>Newmark</th>
<th>Larson</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 reproducing the same image in the TARGET LANGUAGE</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 replacing the image in the source language with a standard target language image</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 translation of metaphor by simile, retaining the image</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 translation of metaphor by simile plus sense</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>•</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 conversion of metaphor to sense</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 deletion</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>•</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 translation of metaphor by the same metaphor plus sense</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is worth noting that there could be limitations with applying the above procedures in translation practice. Although different ways for rendering a metaphor have been presented, translators are always challenged in choosing the right way to render metaphors. It was stated before that as semantic novelty; a metaphor can clearly have no existing equivalence in the target language. In fact, there is no one simplistic general rule for translation of each metaphor. To shed some light on this problem, it is best to go through an example. In the following two different translations of the same metaphor have been given.

Persian Text:

لامورد شد رخ تا جنین کردارگرد لشکربه رفت همی

Gloss: [went] [army] [like] [dust]       [as] [till] [cheek of] [day] [turned to] [lapis - lazuli]
English Translation 1: Raised such a dust! But swift as dust they sped till day’s cheeks turned to lapis-lazuli (Warner & Warner, 1908, p. 67).

English Translation 2: They rode quickly until the day turned purple with dusk (Davis, 2006, p. 642).

The word لازورد is a metaphor for “night”, and it literally means “lapis lazuli” (Rastegar, 1989, p. 241). This is a semiprecious stone valued for its deep blue colour; by using this metaphor the writer is implying that it is getting dark. The first translator has used “lapis-lazuli”. Therefore, the same image has been reproduced through the same metaphor. The second translator, however, has converted the metaphor to its sense, i.e. the colour it represents that is purple.

This translation, however, is questionable. Albeit the conversion of metaphors to sense is done for reading ease, the aesthetic power of the original text is lost. The aesthetic value refers to that value which causes an object to be a work of art. Aesthetic values in a poem are conveyed in word order and sounds. These aesthetic values have no independent meaning, but they are correlative with the various types of meaning in the text. Newmark (1981, p. 65) argues that one of the factors that the aesthetic values are dependent on is metaphor. Thus, it can be said that using metaphor is one common way to achieve the aesthetic values and beauty. However, these values are ignored if metaphors are converted to sense. This is especially highlighted in literary works.

Another limitation with the aforementioned procedures is in close relation to live metaphors. The essential and undeniable trait of live metaphor, as Ortony (1998) states, is creativity. Live metaphor is coined by the writer or speaker and can be considered as “a new piece of performance”, “a semantic novelty” (Dagut, 1976, p. 24). Consequently, the transfer method calls for a recreation job in the target language. In this sense, translation of metaphors based on a prescribed list stands against the very nature of creativity. A proof for this argument can be seen in the following translation as Davis (2006) has rendered the source metaphor into the target language by a different procedure rather than those proposed by the translation scholars.

Persian Text: زتابوت زرین و در مهد ساج        فرستادشان زی خداوند تاج
Gloss: [in] [golden] [coffin] [and] [in] [teakwood] [litter]       [he sent them] [to] [God of] [crown]


English Translation 2: They send the two bodies in golden coffins, on teakwood litters, to the court (Davis, 2006, p. 407).

خداوند تاج “god of crown” is a metaphor for “king” (Rastegar, 1989, p.202). The reference to the metaphor خداوند تاج “god of crown” is made by “shah” in Warner and Warner’s rendition. Based on Oxford Dictionary (2011, p. 1355), “shah” refers to the kings of Iran in the past which is in line with the sense of original metaphor, i.e. “king”. So, Warner and Warner have reproduced the sense of the source metaphor accurately, and their translation matches Newmark’s fifth procedure, i.e. conversion of metaphor to sense (1988).
Davis employs “court” as an equivalent for خداوند تاج “God of crown”. “Court” refers to the official place where kings and queens live (Oxford Dictionary, 2011, p. 336). Here, Davis alludes to “king” by the name of “court” with which it is associated. In other words, Davis has employed a “metonymy”, to refer to the source metaphor. Therefore, although the metaphor has been reproduced, it does not match any procedures proposed by Newmark (1988).

This stands to the reason that metaphor and simile are two literary devices proposed as transfer methods, and rendering a metaphor by “metonymy” into the target language is not included in Newmark’s procedures. In fact, Davis’s translation refers to the possibility of translating metaphors by figurative languages other than simile and metaphor.

Conclusion

It is reiterated that due to linguistic and cultural mismatches between languages, a simple literal reproduction of metaphors and also holding the view of untranslatability of metaphors does not seem appropriate. As a semantic novelty, metaphors have no equivalents in the receptor language. Now, translator’s mastery over both languages and culture of receptor language can help him to handle the rendering of the metaphor, i.e., there is no equivalent to be found for the metaphor, but he has to create one.

With regard to the procedures proposed by scholars, it should be noted that although there are different procedures for rendering metaphors into the target language, translators’ choices are different, and no one single procedure can be considered as dominant. Thus, it can be concluded that translating metaphors cannot necessarily be decided on a prescribed list. Indeed, a better approach would be to assess each metaphor separately and contextually before choosing the right transfer method.

References


Analysis Of Multi-Criteria Methods For Supplier Selection

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Abstract

One of the most important tasks of an enterprise management system is to provide material and technical resources of the required quality in the required volume at a competitive price within the specified time. The solution of this problem is influenced by a large number of various factors, but one of the most important is the correct choice of supplier. The paper considers mathematical multi-criteria methods of supplier choice; in particular, the methods SAW, TOPSIS, ELECTRA, and AHP. A conditional example of supplier choice by these methods is presented and considered, on the basis of which a comparative analysis of methods is carried out, their advantages, disadvantages and specific features are revealed. Based on the results of the analysis of these methods, conclusions are drawn that: the results of calculations by the methods presented may not coincide; all methods are sufficiently universal, but differ significantly in the complexity of the calculations; the methods considered are subjective, since they are based on expert assessments; the choice of the supplier evaluation method should be based on an analysis of a number of factors (planned labor intensity of research, planned amount of research funding, availability of qualified researchers, and quality of expert assessments). The obtained results are the basis for improving the multicriteria methods of decision-making.

Keywords: supplier choice, multicriteria methods, enterprise management, mathematical methods, optimization.

Introduction

One of the most important tasks facing commercial organizations is the reasonable choice of suppliers. The solution of this problem is carried out by an assessment, the objectivity of which is determined by the chosen method. The most applicable in practice are the following multi-criteria methods: SAW, TOPSIS, ELECTRA, and Hierarchy Analysis Method. Let's consider them.

Main Part

Method "SAW".

The method SAW ("Simple Additive Weighting") is one of the most well-known and widely used methods of multi-attribute decision making [Assari, A., Mahesh, T., & Assari, E. (2012)].

Most often, an expert assessment of the indicators using a scoring scale is used to determine the rating. Criteria can be assessed on a five-point scale or a ten-point scale. Criteria for selection, weight and assessment are determined by a logistics manager, and then the total rating is calculated [Kirillina, Ju. V., Karataeva, E.N., Shatalova, Ju. E. (2010)].

The algorithm for calculating according to the SAW method is as follows:
1. The designation of the set of evaluated criteria in the form of a matrix
   \[ C = \{c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_m\} \]
   and, accordingly, the set of potential suppliers in the form of a matrix
   \[ A = \{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n\} \].

Then, the matrix \( X \) is constructed, where \( x_{ij} \) - the value of the criterion \( c_i \) for the supplier \( a_j \):

\[
X = \begin{pmatrix}
  x_{11} & x_{12} & \cdots & x_{1n} \\
  x_{21} & x_{22} & \cdots & x_{2n} \\
  \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
  x_{m1} & x_{m2} & \cdots & x_{mn}
\end{pmatrix}
\]

2. Finding the normalized values of the criteria estimator matrix.

3. For a more objective result, we introduce weight coefficients \( w_i \in [0,1] \) to each criterion. These coefficients allow for an assessment taking into account the priority and weight of the criteria.

For a visual representation, let's consider a conditional example of choosing a supplier based on this method.

There are five potential suppliers of the necessary logistical resources, the significant characteristics of which were ranked (in the form of weight coefficients) and are presented in Table 1. The suppliers were evaluated on a ten-point scale.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Weight</th>
<th>Assessment of the criterion on a ten-point scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Supplier A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product quality</td>
<td>0.267</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price</td>
<td>0.200</td>
<td>7th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timely delivery</td>
<td>0.167</td>
<td>6th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reputation</td>
<td>0.133</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System of discounts and bonuses</td>
<td>0.133</td>
<td>7th</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Then, the normalized estimates of the criteria are determined. Criteria in this case are maximized.
Table 2 - Standardized assessment criteria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Supplier A</th>
<th>Supplier B</th>
<th>Supplier C</th>
<th>Supplier D</th>
<th>Supplier E</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Product quality</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.750</td>
<td>0.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.400</td>
<td>0.600</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timely delivery</td>
<td>0.600</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reputation</td>
<td>0.600</td>
<td>0.400</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System of discounts and bonuses</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.333</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.333</td>
<td>0.333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td>0.286</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.571</td>
<td>0.571</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the next step, the normalized values of the criteria are multiplied by the weight coefficients, and the optimal solution is found.

Table 3 - Calculation of the rating of suppliers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Supplier A</th>
<th>Supplier B</th>
<th>Supplier C</th>
<th>Supplier D</th>
<th>Supplier E</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Product quality</td>
<td>0.267</td>
<td>0.133</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.200</td>
<td>0.133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price</td>
<td>0.200</td>
<td>0.080</td>
<td>0.120</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timely delivery</td>
<td>0.100</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.167</td>
<td>0.167</td>
<td>0.067</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reputation</td>
<td>0.080</td>
<td>0.053</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.133</td>
<td>0.107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System of discounts and bonuses</td>
<td>0.133</td>
<td>0.044</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.044</td>
<td>0.044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.100</td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td>0.057</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>0.809</td>
<td>0.311</td>
<td>0.387</td>
<td>0.602</td>
<td>0.528</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Thus, as can be seen from the table, suppliers' priorities are as follows: supplier A - 1; supplier B - 5; supplier C - 4; supplier D - 2; supplier E - 3. The supplier with the highest rating is the supplier A.

1. Method "Topsis".

The TOPSIS method was developed by Hwang and Yun in 1981. [Khodakovskij, Ya. F. (2014)]. The essence of the method consists in the search for alternatives, the values of which are closest to an ideally-positive solution and are the most remote from an ideally-negative solution. An ideally-positive solution is a vector involving maximum values for the matrix of weighted estimates of alternatives. The ideally-negative solution, on the contrary, is a vector of minimum values.

The algorithm of the TOPSIS method:

1. To obtain a matrix of normalized values of the criteria, the criteria are translated into a dimensionless form.

2. A matrix of weighted criteria values is constructed, where the weight coefficients are \( w_i \in [0,1] \).

3. There are ideally-positive and ideally-negative solutions.

4. Finding the relative closeness to the ideal-positive solution by the formula:

\[
P_j^+ = \frac{S_j^+}{S_j^+ + S_j^-}
\]

Then an alternative is chosen for which the relative proximity value will be closer to 1 [Krjukov, SV (2011)].

We consider a conditional example of the supplier selection by this method.

Weighted normative estimates of alternatives were obtained using weight coefficients.
Table 4 - Weighted normative estimates of alternatives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Weight</th>
<th>Supplier A</th>
<th>Supplier B</th>
<th>Supplier C</th>
<th>Supplier D</th>
<th>Supplier E</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Product quality</td>
<td>0.267</td>
<td>0.669</td>
<td>0.372</td>
<td>0.074</td>
<td>0.520</td>
<td>0.372</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price</td>
<td>0.200</td>
<td>0.642</td>
<td>0.367</td>
<td>0.458</td>
<td>0.183</td>
<td>0.458</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timely delivery</td>
<td>0.167</td>
<td>0.426</td>
<td>0.213</td>
<td>0.569</td>
<td>0.569</td>
<td>0.355</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reputation</td>
<td>0.133</td>
<td>0.439</td>
<td>0.351</td>
<td>0.175</td>
<td>0.614</td>
<td>0.526</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System of discounts and bonuses</td>
<td>0.133</td>
<td>0.592</td>
<td>0.423</td>
<td>0.338</td>
<td>0.423</td>
<td>0.423</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td>0.100</td>
<td>0.304</td>
<td>0.152</td>
<td>0.684</td>
<td>0.456</td>
<td>0.456</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the data obtained, the distances to the ideally-positive and ideally-negative solutions are calculated.
Table 5 - Determination of distances to an ideally-positive solution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Alternatives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Supplier A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product quality</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timely delivery</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier's reputation</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System of discounts and bonuses</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S^+$</td>
<td>0.051</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6 - Determination of distances to an ideally negative solution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Alternatives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Supplier A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product quality</td>
<td>0.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price</td>
<td>0.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timely delivery</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier's reputation</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System of discounts and bonuses</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S^-$</td>
<td>0.193</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Using the formula of relative proximity to an ideally-positive solution, supplier ratings are calculated.

Table 7 - Finding the relative proximity to an ideally-positive solution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alternatives</th>
<th>Supplier A</th>
<th>Supplier B</th>
<th>Supplier C</th>
<th>Supplier D</th>
<th>Supplier E</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$P^+$</td>
<td>0.793</td>
<td>0.409</td>
<td>0.354</td>
<td>0.586</td>
<td>0.533</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the values $P^+$ the following priorities are defined: supplier A - 1; supplier B - 4; supplier C - 5; supplier D - 2; supplier E - 3. According to the calculations, the supplier A is the closest to the ideal solution, and therefore it has priority 1. This choice coincides with the result of the previous method, but the supplier C in this case has the worst priority.

2. Method "Electre".

The method "ELECTRE" ("Elimination Et Choix Traduisant la Realite" - an exception and choice reflecting reality) was proposed in the mid-1960s by a French scientist B. Roy. The essence of the method consists in using more sensitive indicators of comparability: compliance and non-compliance indices [Gladkikh, BA (2012)]. The "ELECTRE" method has many modifications differing in the ways of calculating the data of the indices.
Algorithm of the ELECTRE method:

1. Designation of weight coefficients \( w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_m \) for each criterion and the construction of a weighted value matrix.
2. Calculation of compliance and non-compliance indices.

Let's consider a conditional example of supplier selection by this method. The compliance matrix and the non-compliance matrix are constructed in accordance with the formulas given above.

Table 8 - Compliance matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Supplier A</th>
<th>Supplier B</th>
<th>Supplier C</th>
<th>Supplier D</th>
<th>Supplier E</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supplier A</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.733</td>
<td>0.600</td>
<td>0.757</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier B</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.533</td>
<td>0.333</td>
<td>0.400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier C</td>
<td>0.267</td>
<td>0.467</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.467</td>
<td>0.467</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier D</td>
<td>0.400</td>
<td>0.800</td>
<td>0.700</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier E</td>
<td>0.233</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.733</td>
<td>0.433</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9 - Non-compliance matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Supplier A</th>
<th>Supplier B</th>
<th>Supplier C</th>
<th>Supplier D</th>
<th>Supplier E</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supplier A</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>0.200</td>
<td>0.200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier B</td>
<td>0.400</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.700</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>0.400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier C</td>
<td>0.800</td>
<td>0.400</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.600</td>
<td>0.400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier D</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>0.200</td>
<td>0.300</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier E</td>
<td>0.400</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.300</td>
<td>0.300</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For \( p \) and \( q \), the values 0.5 and 0.5 are accepted, respectively. By comparing the values of the cells with the values of \( p \) and \( q \), decision matrices are constructed.
Table 10 - "ELECTRE" decision matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Supplier A</th>
<th>Supplier B</th>
<th>Supplier C</th>
<th>Supplier D</th>
<th>Supplier E</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supplier A</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier B</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier C</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier D</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier E</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus, suppliers have the following priorities: supplier A - 1; supplier B - 4; supplier C - 4; supplier D - 2; supplier E - 3.

3. THE hierarchy analysis method ("MAI").

The hierarchy analysis method proposed by T. Saati, is becoming increasingly widespread in logistics when it comes to choosing suppliers, carriers, various schemes of commodity circulation, and warehouse sites. The decision making by this method is based on the assessment of uncertain, differently interpreted information [Hwang, CL; Lai, YJ; Liu, TY. (1993)].

Using a hierarchy allows us to divide the aggregate of analyzed data into clusters and subclusters. The main task of the method is to find the eigenvector and determine its largest value.

Algorithm of the hierarchy analysis method:

1. The set of pairwise compared elements is represented in the form of a square matrix of $k \times k$ size:

$$U = \begin{bmatrix}
    u_{11} & u_{12} & \cdots & u_{1k} \\
    u_{21} & u_{22} & \cdots & u_{2k} \\
    \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
    u_{k1} & u_{k2} & \cdots & u_{kk}
\end{bmatrix}.$$  

   $$u_{ij} = \frac{1}{u_{ji}}, u_{ji} \neq 0$$

   For any $i$ and $j$, ratio is satisfied.

2. Elements of the matrix $u_{ij}$ are expressed as the ratios of numerical weights $w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_k$, so the matrix can be represented as:
To assess the homogeneity of the expert's judgments \( \lambda_{\text{max}} \) from the order of the matrix \( k \) should be determined. The inverse-symmetric matrix \( X' \) will be agreed only in the case when \( \lambda_{\text{max}} = k \).

3. To aggregate the opinions of experts, the geometric mean is calculated by the following formula:

\[
g_i = \sqrt[k]{\prod_{j=1}^{k} u_{ij}}
\]

Where \( k \) is the number of elements considered.

The components of the normalized priority vector are calculated by the formula:

\[
y_i' = \frac{g_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{k} g_i}
\]

4. To determine the consistency of the values, the maximum eigenvalue \( \lambda_{\text{max}} \) is found for the matrix \( U' \).

The homogeneity of judgments is estimated by the consistency index (IC) or the consistency ratio (OC), which are found by the formulas:

\[
\text{IC} = \frac{\lambda_{\text{max}} - k}{k - 1},
\]
Where \( CC \) is the average value of the homogeneity index of a randomly constructed paired comparisons matrix which is based on experimental data (Table. 11) [Bhushan, N.; Kanwal, R. (2004)]. The OC value should not be more than 10-20%.

Table 11 - The random consistency values [Yoon, K. (1987)]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Matrix size</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6th</th>
<th>7th</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOP</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. The generalized priorities for each supplier are given by the formula:

\[ v(a_j) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_i^{w'} \cdot y_i^{w''} \]

Where \( y_i^{w'} \) - the values of the criteria priorities;

\( y_i^{w''} \) - the values of suppliers' priorities relative to the criteria.

Let's consider a conditional example of the supplier selection by the hierarchy analysis method. A pairwise comparison of the criteria on a ten-point scale at the first and second levels is carried out, and maximum eigenvalues for each matrix, consistency indices and co-ordination relations are calculated.
**Table 12 - Matrix of pairwise criteria comparison**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria for evaluating suppliers</th>
<th>Product quality</th>
<th>Price</th>
<th>Time delivery</th>
<th>Supplier's reputation</th>
<th>System of discounts and bonuses</th>
<th>Locati</th>
<th>g</th>
<th>Priority vector</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Product quality</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.698</td>
<td>0.267</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>1.414</td>
<td>0.222</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timely delivery</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.157</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier's reputation</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.794</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System of discounts and bonuses</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.794</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td>0.333</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.661</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.833</td>
<td>4.500</td>
<td>6.500</td>
<td>8.000</td>
<td>8.000</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>6.361</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[\lambda_i = 6.081\]

\[IC = \frac{6.081 - 6}{6 - 1} = 0.016\]

\[OC = \frac{0.016}{1.240} = 1.312\]
Table 13 - Matrix of pairwise comparisons of suppliers by the criterion "Quality of goods"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria for evaluating suppliers</th>
<th>Supplier A</th>
<th>Supplier B</th>
<th>Supplier C</th>
<th>Supplier D</th>
<th>Supplier E</th>
<th>The geometric mean</th>
<th>Priority vector</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supplier A</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>7.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>1.947</td>
<td>0.319</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier B</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>4.000</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier C</td>
<td>0.143</td>
<td>0.250</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.167</td>
<td>0.250</td>
<td>0.272</td>
<td>0.045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier D</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>6.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>1.888</td>
<td>0.309</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier E</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>4.000</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.143</td>
<td>6.250</td>
<td>22.00</td>
<td>3.167</td>
<td>6.250</td>
<td>6.107</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[
\lambda_i = 5,007,
\]

\[
HIC = \frac{5,007 - 5}{5 - 1} = 0,002
\]

\[
OC = \frac{0,002}{1,120} = 0,166
\]

Similarly, the priority vectors for the remaining criteria are calculated. The final result is reflected in table 14.
### Table 14 - Finding generalized supplier priorities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alternatives</th>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Product quality</th>
<th>Price</th>
<th>Timely delivery</th>
<th>Supplier's reputation</th>
<th>System of discounts and bonuses</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Generalized priorities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supplier A</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.319</td>
<td>0.369</td>
<td>0.184</td>
<td>0.218</td>
<td>0.227</td>
<td>0.136</td>
<td>0.266</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier B</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.164</td>
<td>0.184</td>
<td>0.090</td>
<td>0.190</td>
<td>0.198</td>
<td>0.076</td>
<td>0.155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier C</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.045</td>
<td>0.112</td>
<td>0.263</td>
<td>0.101</td>
<td>0.150</td>
<td>0.273</td>
<td>0.138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier D</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.309</td>
<td>0.161</td>
<td>0.303</td>
<td>0.272</td>
<td>0.198</td>
<td>0.257</td>
<td>0.251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier E</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.164</td>
<td>0.174</td>
<td>0.160</td>
<td>0.218</td>
<td>0.227</td>
<td>0.257</td>
<td>0.190</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus, based on the results of calculations using the hierarchy analysis method, the following supplier rating was obtained: supplier A - 1; supplier B - 4; supplier C - 5; supplier D - 2; and supplier E - 3.

The results of the calculations carried out by the above multicriteria analysis methods are given in Table. 15.
Table 15 - Comparison table of priorities when using different methods.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alternatives</th>
<th>SAW</th>
<th>TOPSIS</th>
<th>ELECTRE</th>
<th>«MAI»</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supplier A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier B</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier C</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier D</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier E</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 15 shows that the results of the TOPSIS and "MAI" methods were identical.

Based on the study of algorithms of methods and their practical application, the following advantages and disadvantages were identified (Table 16):
Table 16 - Comparative table of advantages and disadvantages of various methods.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method name</th>
<th>Advantages</th>
<th>Disadvantages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Method &quot;SAW&quot;</td>
<td>1. Simplicity of the method;</td>
<td>High level of subjectivity when ranking and determining the weight of each factor;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Usability and versatility.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Method &quot;TOPSIS&quot;</td>
<td>1. A simple, easily programmable computational process;</td>
<td>Subjectivity of determining the ideal point by the criteria of the alternative considered.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. The obtained scalar value allows the best and worst values to select simultaneously.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Method &quot;ELECTRE&quot;</td>
<td>1. Stepwise determination of preferences in the appointment of levels of consent and disagreement;</td>
<td>1. Difficulties in assigning weights;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Possibility of determining compromises between criteria;</td>
<td>2. Impossibility of full ranking for all variants of decisions;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. The method does not require a large amount of input data.</td>
<td>3. Low accuracy of the result.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Method for analyzing hierarchies</td>
<td>1. Universality, the ability to use for solving a wide variety of tasks;</td>
<td>1. Use of a large amount of information;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Consideration of the human factor in decision-making;</td>
<td>2. High complexity of the method;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Possibility of identifying data inconsistencies;</td>
<td>3. Limited scoring;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Quality control of the work of experts by calculating the consistency coefficients.</td>
<td>4. It is expedient to apply the method only in the absence of objective data; in the presence of objective data, it loses its meaning which leads to unnecessary work.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

methods

In the course of the study, the authors used the following methods:

1. A selective analysis of specialized literature with a high citation index for the topic indicated in the title of the paper. In particular, information was collected for the methods SAW, TOPSIS, ELECTRA, and AHP.

2. The formed array of information was systematized for the purpose of further analysis. Algorithms of these methods have been described and one conditional example has been solved.
3. An independent analysis of the collected information on criteria determined by the authors was carried out in order to identify the advantages and disadvantages of the methods considered and to assess the feasibility of their practical application.

4. The results of the study were given with the author's interpretation, and conclusions were drawn. In the course of the research, the most popular multicriteria methods of choice of alternatives were analyzed. Based on the results of the analysis of these methods, the following conclusions are drawn:

1. The results of calculations by the methods presented may not coincide. This is explained by the algorithms of calculation carried out in the methods.
2. All methods are quite universal, but they differ significantly in the complexity of the calculations.
3. The methods considered are subjective, since they are based on expert assessments.
4. The selection of a supplier assessment method should be based on an analysis of a number of factors (planned labor intensity of research, planned amount of research funding, availability of qualified researchers, quality of expert assessments).

Discussion

In our opinion, existing multicriteria methods need to be modified in order to minimize the distortion of the calculation results on the basis of point-wise expert assessments. One of the options for improving existing methods will be the use of probabilistic intervals of expert assessments. The most promising for improvement are the "AHP" and TOPSIS methods.

Conclusion

The paper analyzes the multicriteria methods of making managerial decisions SAW, TOPSIS, ELECTRA, and the "Hierarchy analysis method". For the purpose of comparing the methods, an example was considered of selecting a supplier by each method for a number of important parameters. On the basis of the analysis, a comparative table of the advantages and disadvantages of methods is compiled and conclusions are drawn.

Acknowledgments

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4. Bibliography


Gladkikh, BA (2012). Methods of optimization and research of operations for bachelors of computer science. Part 3. Tomsk: Publisher NTL.


The Analysis Of Mass Non-Infectious Morbidity Of The Population In The Oil-Producing Regions Of The Republic Of Tatarstan

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² Kazan State Medical University
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⁴ Kazan Federal University, University Hospital “Kazan”
⁵ Regional office of Rospotrebnadzor in the Republic of Tatarstan

Abstract

The analysis of the rate of non-infectious morbidity of population, living within the oil-producing regions of the Republic of Tatarstan (RT) was made in this paper. The investigation was performed by classes, in accordance with the International Classification of Diseases (ICD-10), for the period from 2006 to 2015, using the methodological recommendations of Rospotrebnadzor MR 5.1.0081-13 “Determination of the thresholds of mass non-infectious morbidity and their use in planning of supervisory activities”. The thresholds of mass non-infectious (ecologically determined) diseases were established, taking into account the sum of morbidity rates for all oil-producing regions, for the previous four years before the target year (2015). The priority areas were identified, which required the strengthening of hygiene measures, including while the supervision (control) in the sphere of ensuring the sanitary and epidemiological safety. The following exceedences of the incidence thresholds were revealed in the work: endocrine system and circulatory system diseases among children in Bugulinsky district, diseases of the circulatory system among the entire population in Cheremshansky district, diseases of the digestive system among the entire population in Novosheshminsky district, in Bavlinsky district - diseases of the nervous system among children, diseases of the genitourinary system among the entire population. The threshold of complications of pregnancy and childbirth is exceeded in Bavlinsky and Leninogorsky districts.

Keywords: sanitary-epidemiological safety, oil production, health, mass non-infectious diseases, morbidity, threshold.

Introduction

The Republic of Tatarstan (RT) is an oil-mining region with the annual production of about 30 million tons of oil. It is well known, that the oil industry has a negative impact on the environment. This affects the sanitary-epidemiological safety of the territory and the health of population (Berezin I.I. 2014, Artemyeva A.A. 2015, Artemyeva A.A. 2010). Motor transport, agricultural and industrial facilities are the sources of environmental pollution in the oil-mining regions, together with the objects of oil production (Kireenko A.P. 2014, Naz A., Chowdhury A., Mishra B.K., Gupta S.K. 2016, Y. Shi, S. Xu, L. Xu, Y. Cai. // 2015).

Morbidity is the most important indicator of the population health status. In recent years in the Russian Federation (RF) chronic non-infectious morbidity has become the leading cause of death of the population, which accounts for 75% of the total number of cases. At the same time, the structure of the
deaths by circulatory diseases accounts for about 55%, and the rate of deaths by the oncological disease is about 15% of all lethal outcomes. Annual economic damage of the Russian Federation caused by the non-infectious diseases, connected with the ecological and hygienic state of the environment, is about 1 trillion rubles or about 3% of GDP (Rakhmanin Yu. A. 2017).

1. Materials And Methods

The thresholds of mass non-infectious morbidity have been established for the oil-mining districts of the Republic of Tatarstan (Aznakaevsky, Almetyevsky, Bavlinsky, Bugulminsky, Leninogorsky, Novosheshminsky, Cheremshansky, Yutazinsky districts), in accordance with the Methodological Recommendations MR 5.1.0081-13 “Determination of the thresholds of mass non-infectious morbidity and their use in planning of supervisory activities” (Methodological recommendations. 2014), in order to identify the priority areas, for which the strengthening of surveillance activities is needed (Determination of the thresholds of mass non-infectious morbidity and their use in planning of supervisory activities: Methodological recommendations. 2014). At the same time, the official data on the incidence of statistical reporting of the State Autonomous Health Care Institution "Republican Medical Information and Analytical Center" of the Ministry of Health of the Republic of Tatarstan for 2012-2015 was used. It was divided on the following classes (according to the ICD-10): neoplasms, diseases of the blood and blood-forming organs and certain disorders involving the immune mechanism; endocrine, nutritional and metabolic diseases; diseases of the nervous system; circulatory diseases; respiratory diseases; diseases of the digestive system; diseases of the genitourinary system; pregnancy, childbirth and the puerperium. The choice of these classes of diseases was due to the presence of relation between the contraction of these nosologies and the state of environment, that allowed to characterize them as environmentally caused pathologies (G.G. Onishchenko, N.V. Zaitseva, I.V. May et al. 2014, G.G. Onishchenko, N.V. Zaitseva, I.V. May et al. 2014).

The thresholds of mass non-infectious (ecologically caused) diseases were defined taking into account the sum of morbidity rates for all oil-producing districts for the previous four years before the target year (2015). Calculations were carried out for the entire population and for children 0-14 years old, as one of the most vulnerable group of population to the adverse effects of environmental factors. Complications of pregnancy and childbirth were calculated for 1000 women, 15-49 years old. The territories were assigned with the choice markers: if the incidence does not exceed the value of the established threshold - "0", and in case of excess - "1".

2. Results And Discussion

Table 1 presents the established thresholds of non-infectious diseases for the above classes of diseases in the territory of the oil-producing regions of the Republic of Tatarstan.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter (ICD-10)</th>
<th>Threshold (P)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Neoplasms (Chapter II)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For the whole population</td>
<td>19,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For children (0-14 years old)</td>
<td>5,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diseases of the blood and blood-forming organs and certain disorders involving the immune mechanism (Chapter III)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For the whole population</td>
<td>21,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For children (0-14 years old)</td>
<td>54,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Endocrine, nutritional and metabolic diseases (Chapter IV)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For the whole population</td>
<td>17,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For children (0-14 years old)</td>
<td>33,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diseases of the nervous system (Chapter VI)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For the whole population</td>
<td>42,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For children (0-14 years old)</td>
<td>93,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diseases of the circulatory system (Chapter IX)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For the whole population</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For children (0-14 years old)</td>
<td>18,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respiratory diseases (Chapter X)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For the whole population</td>
<td>435,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For children (0-14 years old)</td>
<td>1461,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diseases of the digestive system (Chapter XI)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For the whole population</td>
<td>51,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For children (0-14 years old)</td>
<td>111,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diseases of the genitourinary system (Chapter XIV)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown by the conducted studies, the incidence of neoplasms and diseases of the blood and blood-forming organs on the territory of the studied oil-producing districts does not exceed the established thresholds among the entire population and among children (Tables 2, 3).

Table 2. Markers of indices of neoplasms in the population of the oil-producing regions of the Republic of Tatarstan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>The incidence rate for the target year</th>
<th>The marker of the incidence rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For the whole population</td>
<td>For children (0-14 years old)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aznakaevsky</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almetyevsky</td>
<td>15,5</td>
<td>0,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bavlinsky</td>
<td>9,9</td>
<td>0,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bugulminsky</td>
<td>10,8</td>
<td>0,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leninogorsky</td>
<td>13,6</td>
<td>1,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novosheshminsky</td>
<td>14,3</td>
<td>3,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheremshansky</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yutazinsky</td>
<td>12,2</td>
<td>1,7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3. Markers of indices of diseases of the blood and blood-forming organs and certain disorders, involving the immune mechanism of the oil-producing regions of the Republic of Tatarstan

The threshold of mass non-infectious morbidity for the whole population - 21.5 cases per 1000 population, for the children (0-14 years old) - 54.8 cases per 1000 population

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>The incidence rate for the target year</th>
<th>The marker of the incidence rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For the whole population</td>
<td>For children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aznakaevsky</td>
<td>18,1</td>
<td>26,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almetyevsky</td>
<td>3,7</td>
<td>9,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bavlinsky</td>
<td>7,8</td>
<td>11,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bugulminsky</td>
<td>2,7</td>
<td>6,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leninogorsky</td>
<td>4,6</td>
<td>19,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novosheshminsky</td>
<td>13,8</td>
<td>49,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheremshansky</td>
<td>17,9</td>
<td>33,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yutazinsky</td>
<td>7,3</td>
<td>23,9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The threshold of morbidity of endocrine diseases is exceeded among children in Bugulminsky district (Table 4). The incidence rate in 2015 was 2.7 times higher, than the average for the Republic of Tatarstan. It should be noted, that over the past 10 years, the incidence of endocrine diseases has significantly increased among the entire population in Bavlinsky district - by 1.6 times (in 2006 - 9.3 cases per 1000 population, in 2015 - 14.6 cases), in Bugulminsky district - by 1.3 times (in 2006 - 11.5 cases, in 2015 - 15.0 cases), and in Cheremshansky district - by 2.7 times (in 2006-5.4 cases, in 2015 - 14.7 cases).
Table 4. Markers of indices of endocrine, nutritional and metabolic diseases of the oil-producing regions of the Republic of Tatarstan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>The incidence rate for the target year</th>
<th>The marker of the incidence rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For the whole population</td>
<td>For children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aznakaevsky</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almetyevsky</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bavlinsky</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bugulminsky</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>36.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leninogorsky</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novosheshminsky</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheremshansky</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>18.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yutazinsky</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The incidence of nerve diseases does not exceed the established threshold for the entire population (21.4 cases per 1000 population), but among the children of Bavlinsky district, the threshold is exceeded by 1.6 times (Table 5). Compared to 2006, the incidence of diseases of the nervous system among children in this area increased by 17 times (in 2006 - 9.0 cases per 1,000 children, 0-14 years old, in 2015 - 153.2 cases). Bugulminsky district should also be noted, where the incidence of diseases of the nervous system in children has increased by 1.6 times during 10 years (in 2006 - 54.3 cases per 1000 children 0-14 years old, in 2015 - 88.3 cases), that exceeded the long-term annual average republican index twofold (31.8). On the territory of the above-mentioned regions, there is an unfavorable tendency to increase in the incidence of diseases of the nervous system among the entire population. For example, in Bavlinsky district, the morbidity increased threefold (in 2006 - 13.9 cases per 1000 population, in 2015 - 43.6 cases), in Bugulminsky district - by 1.7 times (in 2006 - 17.9 cases, in 2015 - 29.6 cases), that exceeded the long-term annual average republican indices (17.4).
Table 5. Markers of indices of diseases of the nervous system of the oil-producing regions of the Republic of Tatarstan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>The incidence rate for the target year</th>
<th>The marker of the incidence rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For the whole population</td>
<td>For children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aznakaevsky</td>
<td>28.3</td>
<td>26.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almetyevsky</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>24.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bavlinsky</td>
<td>43.6</td>
<td>153.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bugulinsky</td>
<td>29.6</td>
<td>88.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leninogorsky</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>14.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novosheshminsky</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheremshansky</td>
<td>24.2</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yutazinsky</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The incidence of circulatory system diseases exceeds the established threshold among the entire population in Cheremshansky district, and among children in Bugulinsky district (Table 6). In Cheremshansky district for the period from 2006 to 2015, the incidence of circulatory system diseases among the entire population has increased by 1.8 times (in 2006 - 39.6 cases per 1000 population, in 2015 - 70.6 cases). Significant increase in the morbidity of diseases of this class was also observed in Bugulinsky district, in 2015 the incidence rates increased twofold, compared to 2006 (in 2006 - 21.5 cases per 1000 population, in 2015 - 43.3 cases). In the territory of these regions in 2015, the incidence of circulatory system diseases exceeded the national average by 2.1 and 1.3 times, respectively. At the same time, nationwide, the incidence of circulatory system diseases has decreased (46.3 cases per 1000 population in 2006, 32.9 cases in 2015).
Table 6. Markers of indices of circulatory system diseases of the oil-producing regions of the Republic of Tatarstan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>The incidence rate for the target year</th>
<th>The marker of the incidence rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For the whole population</td>
<td>For children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aznakaevsky</td>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almetyevsky</td>
<td>37.2</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bavlinsky</td>
<td>37.3</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bugulinsky</td>
<td>43.3</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leninogorsky</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novosheshinsky</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheremshansky</td>
<td>70.6</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yutazinsky</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The threshold of mass non-infectious morbidity for the whole population is 57.0 cases per 1000 population, for the children (0-14 years old) is 18.1 cases per 1000 population.

The analysis of the incidence of respiratory diseases in the territory of the oil-producing regions did not reveal the excess of established thresholds, both among the entire population and among children. At the same time, it should be noted, that in Bugulinsky district, the incidence of respiratory diseases is higher (in 2015, 397.3 cases per 1000 population for the whole population, among children - 1314.8 cases per 1000 children, 0-14 years old), than on the average in the Republic of Tatarstan (346.4 and 1170.1 cases, respectively).

The incidence of digestive system diseases is characterized by the excess of the established threshold among the whole population of Novosheshinsky district (Table 7). In 2015 there was the incidence rate 1.5 times higher, than in the Republic of Tatarstan (36.0). An increased incidence of digestive system diseases (by 1.2 times) is observed within the territory of this district, compared with the Republic of Tatarstan in whole.
Table 7. Markers of indices of digestive system diseases of the oil-producing regions of the Republic of Tatarstan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>The incidence rate for the target year</th>
<th>The marker of the incidence rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For the whole population</td>
<td>For children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aznakaevsky</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>59.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almetyevsky</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bavlinsky</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>79.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bugulinsky</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leninogorsky</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novosheshminsky</td>
<td>55.4</td>
<td>82.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheremshansky</td>
<td>39.2</td>
<td>41.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yutazinsky</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>28.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The threshold of mass non-infectious morbidity for the whole population - 51.3 cases per 1000 population, for the children (0-14 years old) - 111.5 cases per 1000 population.

The incidence of genitourinary system diseases among the entire population is characterized by the exceeding of threshold in Bavlinsky district (Table 8). For the period from 2006 to 2015, the incidence of diseases of this class among the entire population has increased in this area by 2.9 times (in 2006 - 34.2 cases per 1000 population, in 2015 - 100.5 cases), and among children - by 1.4 times (in 2006 - 21.4 cases per 1000 children, 0-14 years old, in 2015 - 29.8 cases). It should also be noted, that the incidence of genitourinary system diseases has significantly increased among the entire population of Cheremshansky district, where the growth was 1.4 times (in 2006 - 32.0 cases per 1000 population, in 2015 - 45.0 cases), which was slightly higher than the index for the Republic of Tatarstan (43.2 cases in 2015).
Table 8. Markers of indices of genitourinary system diseases of the oil-producing regions of the Republic of Tatarstan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>The incidence rate for the target year</th>
<th>The marker of the incidence rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For the whole population</td>
<td>For children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aznakaevsky</td>
<td>66,1</td>
<td>16,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almetyevsky</td>
<td>59,7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bavlinsky</td>
<td>100,5</td>
<td>29,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bugulinsky</td>
<td>41,3</td>
<td>27,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leninogorsky</td>
<td>56,9</td>
<td>24,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novosheshminsky</td>
<td>37,1</td>
<td>15,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheremshansky</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>12,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yutazinsky</td>
<td>30,4</td>
<td>9,7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Bavlinsky and Leninogorsky districts, the rate of complications of pregnancy and childbirth exceeds the established threshold (Table 9). On the territory of these regions for the period 2006-2015, there was a significant increase in the frequency of complications of pregnancy and childbirth: in Bavlinsky district - by 2.8 times (in 2006 - 75.6 cases per 1000 women, 15-49 years old, in 2015 - 214.6 cases), in Leninogorsky district - by 2.3 times (in 2006 - 89.7 cases, in 2015 - 206.7 cases). Novosheshminsky district should also be noted, where the frequency of complications of pregnancy and childbirth for 10 years has increased by 2.5 times (in 2006 - 56.9 cases, in 2015 - 142.5 cases), while in whole for the Republic the situation was stable (in 2006 - 80.5 cases per 1000 women 15-49 years old, in 2015 - 89.6 cases).
Table 9. Markers of indices of pregnancy, childbirth and the puerperium of oil-producing regions of the Republic of Tatarstan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>The incidence rate for the target year</th>
<th>The marker of the incidence rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For women 15-49 years old</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aznakaevsky</td>
<td>73.9</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almetyevsky</td>
<td>130.9</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bavlinsky</td>
<td>214.6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bugulminsky</td>
<td>84.7</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leninogorsky</td>
<td>206.8</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novosheshminsky</td>
<td>142.5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheremshansky</td>
<td>32.6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yutazinsky</td>
<td>161.2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Conclusions
The following exceedences of the incidence thresholds were revealed in the work: endocrine system and circulatory system diseases among children in Bugulminsky district, diseases of the circulatory system among the entire population in Cheremshansky district, diseases of the digestive system among the entire population in Novosheshminsky district, in Bavlinsky district - diseases of the nervous system among children, diseases of the genitourinary system among the entire population. The threshold of complications of pregnancy and childbirth is exceeded in Bavlinsky and Leninogorsky districts. The obtained results testify to the necessity of further analysis of the risk indicators of these classes of diseases development, as well as the strengthening of control and surveillance activities, while ensuring sanitary and epidemiological safety within the above-mentioned territories.

4. Acknowledgements
The authors are grateful to the specialists of Kazan Federal University for their assistance in this study.

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Impact of on-line learning in internalization language according to Vygotsky

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Abstract
This paper aims to study Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory of learning with respect to how it relates to technology-based second language learning and teaching. From the social-cultural perspective, the integration of social, cultural and biological elements plays a vital role in learning processes. Vygotsky stresses the social nature of language learning and holds that children acquire knowledge as a result of engaging in social experiences. For Vygotsky, social interaction, especially scaffolding conversations with conscious members of the community play a fundamental role in the development of cognition, and help children learn ways of thinking (Forward, 2005; Turuk, 2008). Vygotsky held that when adults and more sophisticated peers help children to learn activities that are culturally significant, the relationship between them is part of children's thinking. After the children internalize important features of these talks, they can use their own inner language to guide their thinking and activities and learn new skills. In particular, Internalization is a central concept in Vygotsky's theory (Lantolf and L. Thorne 2007) that is particularly important for second language learning. This paper examines the relevance and implications of Vygotsky's sociocultural theory to L2 teaching and learning in an online learning environment for approving this, the researchers compare the effect of online learning teaching method on the students' English language institute. One research question guided the study and one hypothesis was tested at 0.05 level of significance. A quasi-experimental design involving experimental and control groups plus pre-test and post-test was adopted. Population of the study was 50 students. Instruments for data collection was English achievement test of Victorian curriculum and assessment authority 2016. Data were analyzed with mean, standard deviation and ANCOVA. It was indicated that online learning – teaching method improved student interaction performance. Finally, it was recommended that teachers should use online learning – teaching method and planned education programs are effective to improve students 'knowledge in dealing with online learning and internalize the language.

Keywords: Second Language Learning, Interaction, Social Activity, Social Group, online learning

Introduction
Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory (SCT) has had an important role in the process of learning and mental development. The theory describes learning as a social process and the origin of human intelligence in society or culture. It is based on the way in which cultures, values, beliefs, traditions, and skills of a social group are transferred to the next generation. Although Vygotsky's sociocultural theory (1978, 1986, and 1987) refers to human learning processes in general, a number of researchers (e.g. Donto, 1994; Gutiérrez, 2003; Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Dongyu, Fanyu, and Wanyiand, 2013, and others) applied the theory in the field of second language learning (SLL). These studies aimed to examine language learning as a social practice, consider students as active participants in constructing learning processes, and investigate the interaction between different factors involved (Kao, 2010). At least two Vygotsky's ideas are relevant to the aims of the present study: interaction and internalization. The
main focus of Vygotsky’s theoretical framework is the fundamental role of social interaction in the development of cognition (Donato and McCormick 1994). Vygotsky believed that the origin of human cognitive development is not based on physical maturity, rather it is rooted in social and cultural factors and these factors act through language and social interaction (Aimin, 2013; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). Learning, from the sociocultural perspective, is essentially a social term rather than individual in nature, where interaction constitutes the learning process (Lantolf and Pavlenko 1995; Lantolf and Thorne 2006). He believed everything is learned on two levels. First, through interaction with others, and then integrated into the individual’s mental structure. Social interactions occur in such places as schools, workplaces, Internet portals, social networks, or cyberspace. And all these communities are heterogeneous and individuals choose or are assigned to different roles in different institutions (Lemke, 2001: cited in Erdogan, 2016). According to Eun and Lim (2009), the process of second-language teaching is grounded in the sociocultural theory of Vygotsky, which emphasizes meaningful interaction among individuals as the greatest motivating force in human development and learning. Another foundational sociocultural theory concept is the notion of internalization, that is, the process by which instrumental functioning in the form of social relations among individuals and interaction with socially constructed artifacts is turned inwards and transformed into an intramental functioning (Vygotsky, 1978). According to Dillenbourg (1994), when an individual participates in a social system, the culture of this social system and the tools used for communication, especially the language, shape the individual’s cognition and constitute a source of learning. Internalization is a central concept in this approach (Dillenbourg, 1994; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). A pedagogical implication of internalization for second/foreign language classrooms is the enhancement of interactions among the learners (Aimin, 2013) Following the significance of interaction among the learners, it is also vital that teachers realize that the role of expert is not limited to that of a teacher, but it can also be applied to those learners who have internalized an aspect of the language.

Literature Review

Literature for this study was reviewed under goals of the online learning environment, collaborative learning, conventional education.

3.1-Online Learning Environments

The sociocultural theory provides some pedagogical implications for online language teaching (Hall, 2007; Lee, 2015). The sociocultural theory has gained increasing popularity in online language learning/teaching. Using online social media and interactive tools, an increased number of researchers extended various aspects of SCT to a wide range of language learning. Furberg (2009) demonstrated the value of the sociocultural theory for gaining a better understanding of students’ engagement with web-based learning environments. Tynjälä and Häkkinen (2005), and Remtulla (2008, 2010) give critical consideration to the "vagueness" of social theory and argue that a sociocultural perspective could be combined with cognitive theories of learning to develop successful e-learning solutions. Zou, Bin, Xing, Minjie, Wang, Yuping, Sun, Mingyu, and Xiang, Catherine H. (2013) provide a compendium of sixteen articles about computer-assisted foreign language teaching and learning (CALL). This comprehensive collection of research offers linguistic scholars, language teachers, students, and policymakers a better understanding of the importance and influence of e-learning in second language acquisition.

E-learning facilitates interaction and communication between teachers and students and among students as well as course development and improvement (Karinal and Cela, 2015). It can accommodate a larger
number of people, located potentially anywhere in the world, as reflected in the explosion of massive open online courses (ibid). Additionally, e-learning offers multimedia web resources for providing information and for supporting collaboration, which can significantly enrich the learner's experience (Casherio, 2011, cited in Kardinal and Cela, 2015).

3.2. Collaborative e-Learning
The constant interaction of persons and technology has made collaboration a core competency (Laal & Ghodsi, 2011), leading to a prominent role for collaborative learning in current educational trends (Karinal and Cela, 2015). According to Bruffee (1995), collaborative learning is an approach to teaching and learning that requires learners to work together to deliberate, discuss, and create meaning (cited in Karinal and Cela, 2015). Swain (1997, 2000) describes CL as one of the most important and most effective means by which learning can take place, and a focus on the mutual exploration of a subject by means of social interaction with peers and between learners and teachers has experienced a long history.

3.3. Conventional education
Traditional education refers to that group of teachings the basic portion of whose order is based on the teaching system. In another word, in traditional education, the learner is obliged to harmonize his own techniques and learnability with the types, techniques, skills, and desires of the teacher. The most important features of conventional teaching according to of Ranbo, (2001), adapted from Jafari (2003) are Traditional paradigm, Inactive learning based on subject matters narration, Teacher directed education, Individual work, Packages of scientific subject matters, Inactive learning sources with network, Computer lab, Indoor courses and Learning how to get ready for exams.

As these definitions indicate, the key point in collaborative learning is the interaction between teachers and students, as well as among students.

The main purpose of the study was to determine the effects of online learning of language institute in Isfahan. The difference in the mean performance scores in English achievement test between students taught with online learning teaching method and those taught with conventional teaching method. The following research question guided the study: What is the difference in the mean scores in English language institute achievement test of students taught with online learning method and those with conventional teaching method?

The following null hypothesis was tested: There is no significant difference in the mean scores in English language institute between students taught online -learning teaching method and those taught with conventional teaching method.

3. Methodology
Participants: two classes of advanced -grade students (N=50: 25 male, 25 female). The students of two groups were similar regarding age, sex, by the same instructor from Isfahan language institute participated in this study. The study adopted the quasi-experimental design involving two groups (experimental group and the control group) plus pre-test and post-test. The experimental group (E) was taught with online -learning teaching method while the control group (C) was taught with conventional teaching method. The pretest was carried before the experiment and post-test were administered after the experiment on the two groups. The participating student had learned about online teaching and learning. To ensure the students had the necessary skills, a brief training session on generating or answering the target question type on the adopted system was arranged before the students took part in the related online activities. The experimental group possessed the skills needed to participate in the
online activities designed in this study, including word processing, sentence pattern in the first phase, reading comprehension question, multiple choice question and matching questions in the second phase, open-ended question, essay type and use the taught vocabulary to describe their feelings and opinions in the third phase, finally in the fourth phase the students were assigned to groups of three or four to work collaboratively (i.e., for the first phase 3 weeks, the second phrase 5 weeks, the third phase 7 weeks and the fourth phase 9 weeks). In total, the students engaged in 60 min each session and three times per week administrated in the 24 weeks. In this model, each phase is represented that training can improve the individuals’ development through the phases. Each phase showed how much the training has been accepted by the individuals. Moreover, the participants should perform appropriate tasks in online media and interactive tools such as discussion Forums, Chat rooms, Private and Group messaging at the right time in order to move on to the next phase. The pre-test analyses revealed no significant difference between the two groups regarding knowledge score.

Instrument: The instrument used for data collection was English academic achievement tests (Victorian curriculum and assessment authority 2016) containing 40 multiple-questions that were used for experimental and control groups in pre and post-tests. Data analyses: The pre-test and post-test scores of the groups were collected and used in the analysis. Data were analyzed with the arithmetic mean and standard deviation to answer the research questions while analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used to test the hypotheses at 0.05 level of significance with the statistical package for social science (SPSS). The mean difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the experimental and control group was used to answer the research questions. Where the calculated F-value was equal or greater than the F-table value at 0.05 level of significance, the null hypothesis was rejected but where the F-calculated was less than F-table value, the null hypotheses was upheld.

4. Result And Discussion
Table 4.1, shows that the pretest and post-test mean scores of the experimental group are 16 and 17 with a mean difference of 1 while the control group’s pre-test and post-test mean scores are 16 and 12 with a mean difference of -4. Also, it indicates that mean difference in the experimental group is 1 and in control group is -4. As it showed the mean in pretest and posttest in the experimental group is the same and the mean in pre-test and post-test of a control group is decreased. According to the Vygotsky’s theory, Internalization is a central concept for second language learning (James P. Lantolf and Steven L. Thorne 2007) like the experimental group. This means that the online learning method was more effective than the conventional teaching method since the mean difference of the group taught with it is greater than that of the group taught with the conventional method. Therefore the strength of interactions among the learners will lead to internalization. As it was clear that, students are responsible for one another’s actions and task which encourage teamwork and learning community as well.

4.1. Table. Mean and standard deviation of the experimental and control groups’ performance in pre-test and post-test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching method</th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Post test</th>
<th>Mean difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental group</td>
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<td>2/084</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Control group</th>
<th>16</th>
<th>2/002</th>
<th>12</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>-4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conventional learning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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4.2. Table 4.2. shows that F-calculated value of 77 is greater than the F-table value of 4 for 1 df numerator and 47 denominators at 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, F-calculated is bigger than F-table, thus the hypothesis is approved. Furthermore, the experimental method is more effective than the conventional method. The null hypothesis of no significant difference between the two groups was, therefore, rejected. At last, findings of the study indicated that 1) language institute students taught with online teaching method higher mean gain than those taught with a conventional method in the post-test 2) teaching method significantly influenced students’ in the language institute in Isfahan. In this article, we will approve the pedagogical application of sociocultural perspective in online learning environments is more effective than conventional teaching.

The findings of the study showed that English language students with online learning method achieved a higher mean gain than those taught with a conventional method. Furthermore, online learning was a more effective method to enhance student English performance than the conventional method. The performance mean gain of the students taught with the online learning method and conventional method supports the views of Tebabal and Kahssay (2011) that the primary purposes of teaching are to bring fundamental change in learning. Specifically, the lower achievement by students taught with the conventional method (which is the teacher-centered method) confirms the observation of Bala (2006) that the method often creates frustration and learning difficulties for students leading to the low achievement test. Finally, the higher mean gain achieved by students taught with online learning method (which is the student centered method) goes a long way to show its efficacy in improving students’ as posited by Greitzer (2002) Hesson and Shad (2007) and Ganyaupfu (2013) among others. In contrast, the conventional activities had weaker effects on English performance and students engaged in repeated practice. When encountering problems, these students were less often seen to adjust online method, such as searching for resources, discussing things with peers, or asking the teacher question, than those in online learning method group. In sum, the different methods of learning may result in the different learning effects obtained in this study.

5. Conclusion
In view of the findings of this study was indicated the most important point in online learning is the interaction between teachers and students, as well as among students. Online social media and interactive tools such as Discussion Forums, Blogs, Podcasts, Chat rooms, Private and Group Messaging, and Web-Based Communication offer teachers and students to discuss, argue, and exchange ideas, and as a result to enhance and improve interactive teaching and learning activities. According to Aimin(2013), the enhancement of interactions among the learners will lead to internalization, which in turn enrich and strengthen their learning experiences. In collaborative e-learning situations, students are responsible for one another's actions and tasks which encourage teamwork and learning community as well. In this article, we will study the pedagogical application of sociocultural perspective in online learning.
environments. These include providing opportunities for learners to be exposed to the language using it in a communicative context and be motivated for learning. Based on the Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory of learning and teaching in an online learning environment effects in this study, it is suggested that online learning as an effective communicative approach to learning as a second language.

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Educational Resource Of Valuable Orientation And Attitude Development Among Modern Schoolchildren

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Abstract: The purpose of the research is to study the limitations and the opportunities of educational resource use in the development of value orientations among young people. The Internet survey of parents with school-age children was used as the leading method of the study. The total number of respondents was 775 people. In the course of the study, the authors confirmed the hypothesis of the modern school functional weakness, which is not able to provide the social-cultural development of younger generation completely. The majority of interviewed parents noted negative tendencies in the development of the social-cultural potential of schoolchildren: the decrease of interest in the cultural values of Russian society, the ignorance of key milestones for Russian civilization development, the predominance of consumer values, the absence or insufficiency of such norms as "respect for elders", "recognition of a teacher's authority", the decrease of family value prestige. The dysfunctions of school education have been revealed in the context of value orientation development among younger generation: the limited nature of disciplinary and organizational mechanisms of impact on students, the high level of stress on a modern teacher, the risks of professional burnout, the reorientation of the Russian education system from the cultural and historical education of youth to the development of an economically successful personality type of a graduate, the absence of social partnership between a school and parents. The unrealized expectations of the parental community in the context of educational service and educational work quality at schools initiate a teacher's authority decrease, significantly limit the possibilities of joint effort consolidation to develop value orientations and attitudes of younger generation.

Key words: school education, value orientations, value system, social-cultural risks.

Introduction
In the conditions of destructive social-cultural tendencies of social development increase and the actualization of global threats and challenges of modernity, researchers pay a close attention to the integration processes of social attitudes and values reproduction among youth (Comunian, A.L., 2000, Hansen, D.T. et al., 2009). A special place in this series is occupied by the process of infogenesis - the accumulation and the transfer of social experience, ensuring the integration and the preservation of the value-oriented structure among younger generation (Singh B.R., 1995). However, the degradation of the "heritage industry" inherent in most developed countries to the level of market products of social and cultural consumption, the wide distribution of marginal subculture and social stratum values provokes
the “blurring” of the social value structure and, as a consequence, the shift of the traditional value vector of youth (Kenway J. & Fitzclarence L., 2016; Tikhonova N.E., 2013).

The above-mentioned circumstances actualize the need for a state to take a number of measures to neutralize the causes of cultural and historical space disintegration and modernize social institutions that provide the development of value orientations and attitudes among individuals (Frolova, Rogach, 2017). On the one hand, the management of the country value potential is a fundamentally new task formulated for a state power, whereas on the other hand, the issues of person’s value orientations reproduction as the most important element of public consciousness are included in the functional of the education institution a priori (Valenzuela R.L. & Martin J.E., 2016).

Speaking about the educational resource for the development of value orientations and the attitudes of modern schoolchildren, it is worthwhile to note that the educational system, from a functional point of view, is included in the institutional structures that are responsible for the socialization of individuals by developing the qualities important for an effective life in society (Frolova, 2014). This means that school education, ensuring the processes of socialization of the younger generation, ensures both the continuity of the social-cultural heritage, the demonstration and the reproduction of the value-oriented structure of modern society (Lance A., 2010; Chiu Bonnie M.M. & Chow W.Y., 2011). In this context, the greatest cultural and social significance of school education is represented by the following functions. The first and most significant of them is the consolidation, the demonstration and the distribution of historical and cultural values and orientations of modern youth in society (Terrón A. & Álvarez V, 2002). Throughout the history of social development, the Institute of Education was the main instrument for younger generation and mass education (Vinichenko et al, 2017). The essence of this function is the transfer the cultural values to the younger generation through the institution of education, interpreted in the broadest sense: scientific knowledge, the achievements in the field of literature and art, norms of behavior and moral values, knowledge and skills inherent in various types of professional activity, etc. It is worth noting that the culture of each people has its own national-ethnic color, and therefore the educational system plays an exceptional role in the reproduction and the preservation of its unique traits, the cognition of which by a citizen turns him into the bearer of Russian people national consciousness (McIntosh K. et al., 2014). Secondly, the institution of education provides the development of social values and orientations, ideals and behaviors among new generation (Troman G., 1996). Due to the realization of this function, the young generation is socialized and integrated into the social system, studying the history of the fatherland and a native language. Besides, consolidating the principles of morality adopted in society, the institution of education determines the values of historical and cultural heritage perception, and serves as the basis for the development of shared value system among new generations (Lilja A., 2017). Recognizing the inclusion of value system formation processes as the constant for the perception of historical and cultural heritage of society in the process of an individual socialization, carried out by the modern school, it is legitimate to talk about the need to instill humanistic morals and human values in young people (Tkacheva A.N., 2012). To a large extent this is achieved in the course of humanities study: history, literature, the philosophy of world artistic culture. The third function of education institute, which should be paid with a special attention, is social selection, which, taking into account the structural development of the educational process, makes it possible to implement a differentiated approach to students at the very first stages, the end result of which is the reproduction and the renewal of the social structure of society (Hargreaves D.H., 1995). In fact, social selection becomes the barrier to the degradation of historical and cultural heritage and is the engine of any society.
development. At the same time, the prerogative of the modern institution of education is the function of social-cultural transformations, which is realized in the process of society cultural heritage enrichment and expansion. In this sense, the institute of education becomes one of the leading tools to combat various vestiges that prevent social progress. Thus, the institution of education also has a very important role, since it is called upon to develop a new type of personality, a new citizen, devoid of dogmatic stereotypes, capable of being an active participant in social-economic and political transformations. Despite a high relevance of educational resource consideration for the development of value orientations and the attitudes of modern schoolchildren, this aspect is only partially described in the studies of modern scientists. The accentuation of research attention only on the cultural and historical context of younger generation upbringing and the social-cultural risks of youth maturation does not allow to give a comprehensive presentation of education institution possibilities concerning the solution of social and intellectual capital reproduction issues for social development.

Methodological coordinates
The purpose of this work was to study the limitations and the opportunities of educational resource use in the development of value orientations among young people. The authors put forward the hypothesis about the functional weakness of the modern school that it is not able to ensure the social-cultural development of the younger generation fully. The territorial coverage of the study is represented by the subjects of Russian Federation. The Internet survey of parents with school-age children was used as the leading method of the study. The total number of respondents was 775 people. The sample is represented by female parents predominantly (63.5%). The average age of the respondents has the range of 31-40 years (66.1%). 72.6% of parents estimate their income as average, while the share of low-resource families in the sample did not exceed 18.5%.

The team of authors used the general scientific methods of research, they applied system, comparative and historical analysis. The data processing was carried out using the mathematical and the statistical methods of analysis.

Study results
According to the received data, the parental community determines the vector of social-cultural development of Russian society very ambiguously. So the opinions of the respondents were distributed in a polar way to the following question: "Do you think that Russian society has entered a new stage of its cultural development?": 49.7% of respondents agree with this statement, while 50.3% do not see significant changes. The obtained difference in answers can be conditioned by the differentiation of cultural space.

Specifying the abovementioned statement, the respondents were asked to evaluate the correctness of a number of statements. So the dominant share of the parental community believes that there is a decrease of interest in the cultural values of Russian society among young people (87.9%). Almost ⅓ of respondents expresses concern that young people do not have "historical memory", which is manifested in the ignorance of the key milestones in the development of Russian civilization and the lack of knowledge about significant events in the history of Russia. At the same time, half of the respondents believe that there are no positive images and patterns of behavior in Russian culture, while the rest of parents (49.7%) do not agree with this statement. At the same time, the dominant part of the parental
public is inclined to regard "Russian culture as a consumption culture", which conditions their reasonable fears in the future of their children. This was mentioned by 78.5% of respondents. The situation is aggravated by the fact that, according to the parents, the school has moved away from performing the educational function of the younger generation (77.4%). In the opinion of the respondents, this circumstance provokes the decline in the cultural potential of young people (69.2%).

During the study, the parents were asked to specify their ideas about the cultural potential of Russian schoolchildren. According to the information received, 77.4% of parents believe that consumer values flourish among the school community, while family values do not have an appropriate value for children (64.5%). At the same time, teachers can not cope with the low level of cultural communication of their students (61.3%), could not instill artistic and aesthetic taste (54.2%). The situation is aggravated by the desire of the adolescents to "imitate their idols blindly" (74.8%), whereas "the respect for the elders" and "the recognition of a teacher's authority" are mostly uncommon (61.3% and 80.2%, respectively). We believe that a teacher is limited in his opportunities for social-cultural education of youth under these conditions since the value orientations of the latter are formed outside the field of the educational space.

Basing on the parents' assessments of educational resource use limitations and opportunities in the development of value orientations for young people, one can conclude that there is no single idea from respondents about the key task of education as a social institution. So, in the opinion of 29.9% of respondents such a task is "the development of a new type of a Russian man personality", 28.3% believe that this task is "the preparation of "new" generations for adulthood". At that, the traditional functional of school education becomes less "demanded": only 11% of parents believe that a school should "determine and consolidate the values of young people." The share of parents who believe that a school should "transfer social experience and heritage culture" is declining. Today this share is represented by 20.4% of parents. The results of the study illustrate the emergence of a new trend in Russian society, namely, the orientation of the modern school on the success of its graduates, their preparation for adulthood. At the same time, the "economic success" of children is a priority indicator of education quality for the representatives of the parental community, while the cultural aspect of preparation plays a secondary role. In the opinion of 41.3% of the interviewed parents "they were taught better than now." In particular, it is noted that modern "school preparation limits a child's horizon" (76.4%). A particular discontent of parents is caused by the fact that "the school shifts some of its functions in education and training to parents" (71.3%), while "schooling requires significant financial investments from parents" (84.6%). It is noteworthy that the deceived expectations, the disrespectful attitude of parents towards a teacher and the general negative attitude towards a school is spread in a family circle. Pupils imitate the behavior of parents and reproduce a disdainful attitude towards a teacher's work.

Under these conditions, a school is unable to reduce the pressure of negative social-cultural factors, although there are some successful practices in this direction (50.5%). The limited nature of disciplinary and organizational mechanisms of impact on students does not allow the modern school teaching children to provide a real fight against various deviant behavior (smoking, drinking alcohol, profanity, excessive aggression, intolerance on a national basis, etc.). It is noteworthy that only 19.1% of parents support joint solution of the above problems (together with the school). And the dominant part of the parental community tends to reduce the degree of its
representation in the cultural education of children. Only a small part of parents is engaged in the cultural growth of a child actively and systematically, in some cases there is a fragmentary attention of the parents to bringing their children to the historical and cultural heritage, whereas for the majority of Russian children are independent in the field of cultural development.

Discussion
The issues of individual value orientations reproduction as the most important element of public consciousness in the context of social-cultural risks of youth maturation strengthening acquire a new sound. New guidelines for state construction draw the developed countries to the need to use all resources that ensure the preservation and the reproduction of the country value potential. The central part in these processes is the educational resource that provides the formation of value orientations and the attitudes of modern schoolchildren. The school is the key institution of an individual socialization, it determines the content of value orientations, norms and patterns of behavior (Sobkin, Burelomova, 2012). The materials of the study conducted on the basis of educational institutions of the capital of Russia indicate that the effectiveness of educational resource use is very low today. According to respondents, the content of training in the context of value orientation development among younger generation does not meet the needs and the expectations of modern parents for the most part. In addition to the traditional beliefs that the quality of education has deteriorated significantly, most of the interviewed parents are concerned about the lack of effective educational work at schools. The consequence of these trends is the prosperity of consumer values, an insufficient level of "respect for elders" and "low level of cultural communication" among young people. In the opinion of parents, a modern teacher does not have an appropriate authority, as well as resources and opportunities to consolidate the principles of morality, the formation and the development of personal qualities that are important for an effective life in society. "The value of modern education is being decreased rapidly, also because the pedagogical corps ceases to be the carrier and the repeater of cultural values, meanings and norms" (Mulyar and Skorokhod, 2014). A high level of workload for a modern teacher, the complication of his work evaluation system often initiate the processes of professional burnout, emotional decline and passivity in the processes of personal and career growth provision (Rogach, Frolova, Ryabova, 2017), which affect the quality of educational and upbringing activities. Parents believe that a teaching corps shifts its functions to the family in many ways, avoiding such a significant role as the development of value orientations among the younger generation. The situation is complicated by the increasing threats of the aggressive information space, the development of Internet dependencies, negatively stable dynamics of deviant behavior and the propaganda of consumer lifestyle.

Conclusions
In the course of study, the hypothesis about the functional weakness of the modern school was confirmed. The inability of modern education to ensure the social-cultural development of younger generation fully is conditioned by the dominance of the following factors: the orientation of the younger generation on consumer values and the products of mass culture, the decrease of trust in the experience of "ancestors", the preference of social networks to real communication. Besides, there is the reorientation of Russian education system from the cultural-historical education of youth to the development of an economically successful type of a graduate personality.
Thus, the educational resource for the development of value orientations and attitudes among schoolchildren is not fully used today. In the prevailing social-cultural realities, a teacher does not have a full-fledged opportunity to ensure the reproduction and the replication of cultural values and norms, since the orientations and the attitudes of young people are developed outside the field of the educational space. Blind imitation of idols replaces traditional social authorities (parents and a schoolteacher), provoking the emergence of social-cultural risks of modern children growing. The data obtained in the course of the study illustrate the low degree of parent participation in the cultural education of the younger generation. The proportion of parents who are focused on the joint solution of the problems concerning the formation of cultural values and attitudes of Russian youth is quite small. For the most part of the respondents, the consideration of the school from the position of "client-seller" concerning the educational services is inherent, which does not allow to establish constructive relations of social partnership and to consolidate efforts in order to eliminate the arising dysfunctions.

References:


Impact of sarcasm/irony on teaching: a case-study undertaken in Romania

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Abstract

Didactics presupposes that teaching involves an open, communicative style specific to teachers which should help the learner develop his/her intelligence, creativity and skills. Yet, the individual teacher is above all a human being, who is distinguished from his/her fellows by his/her personal qualities, weaknesses, defects, etc. Therefore, his/her personal teaching method will be a combination of what he/she represents as an individual and what he/she is obliged to aspire to in terms of professional requirements. It is commonly agreed that the teacher leaves his/her subjective marks on the discourse while teaching (Bell, Pomerantz: 2015). The study asks about the possible consequences of particular interventions such as sarcasm or irony which are generally not tackled when trainee teachers become specialized in pedagogy. Normally these linguistic phenomena are considered negative verbal behaviours (Reyes Pérez: 2012), but can they only be labelled negatively or do they also have positive sides? This study aims to examine the place of sarcasm / irony in the teacher-learner interaction and the impact of its use as perceived by students. A survey was undertaken in Romania (50 students were interviewed) in order to provide data on the perception of sarcasm / irony in teaching. The results should help teachers improve their teaching skills and their attitude towards students, and also raise the trainers’ awareness of the educational process so that they employ the best strategies for successful learning outcomes.

Keywords: sarcasm; irony; teaching; verbal discourse; behaviour.

Introduction

Teacher training is a very important part of the ulterior teaching-learning process as those willing to become teachers are taught the basics of this profession, both on a theoretical and a practical level. According to the Romanian Law of Education (1/2011, art. 235-242) this type of training may take place either during the university years, undertaken in parallel with the university curriculum or after the university years as a post-university training. Whichever might be the case, the same subjects and the same number of hours are taught, as they are compulsory at national level so that the future teachers may be provided with a unified preparation, no matter the scientific field they will be trained for. Thus, the total time included in the teacher training curriculum is 552 hours corresponding to 30 ECTS. All the subjects taught are compulsory: Psychology (56 hours), Pedagogy (112 hours), Class Management (28 hours), Didactics 1 (56 hours) and, for the minor field if applicable, Didactics 2 (56 hours), Computer-assisted training (28 hours), Practical teaching 1 (84 hours) and, for the minor field if applicable, Practical teaching 2 (72 hours).
Use of irony / sarcasm in teaching is a topic which may be approached in almost each one of the subjects included in the teacher training course. However, a careful analysis of the topics covered by each of them shows that no topic related to these linguistic/pedagogic phenomena is approached by the specific curricula. The proof is provided by the table below which presents the main topics according to the Teacher Training Department at the University of Pitesti.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The name of the subject</th>
<th>The main topics approached</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Class Management</td>
<td>The concept of “class management”. The teacher as a manager. Managing styles in school. The class as a social group. Educational relations. Research methods to know groups. Conflict management.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Didactics</td>
<td>Aims and objectives of the subject to be taught. From objectives to competences/skills. Teaching methods. Didactic means. Evaluation. Designing lessons.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical teaching</td>
<td>Getting accustomed to the school and the students. Attending teaching activities. Teaching. Student Counselling. The relationship with students’ family and other education environments.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The only topic which might approach such linguistic behaviours is “Communication” which is approached within the frame of the Pedagogy course. Another possibility for observing and analyzing such phenomena might be when students attend classes during their practical teaching internship, but this may happen only if such phenomena occur while they are in the classroom. Taking these into account, we consider that students who prepare to become teachers do not have a genuine opportunity to fully understand the negative and/or positive sides of irony/sarcasm in classroom.

Theoretical background: sarcasm and irony
Sarcasm and irony are generally considered negative verbal behaviours, being perceived as insulting and detrimental to the interlocutor. It is therefore said that sarcasm (and its corollary irony) does not (or ought not to) have a place in the discourse of the educational framework. Is this always the case? At the same time, the positive uses of sarcasm have not been debated to excess. The aim of this research is to examine how sarcasm / irony are used in face-to-face interactions in the language classes of three educational cycles and what students’ reactions to teachers’ sarcastic attitudes are.

In order to follow the thread of our research we will first proceed to the definition of the concepts involved in our study. We will treat sarcasm and irony together, as being two related phenomena, where this decision has come as a consequence of the fact that non-expert speakers could not clearly distinguish from each other impossibility of detecting and correctly interpreting, a fact which has also been documented by other researchers (Kim, 2013).

Therefore, from the beginning we would like to emphasize the idea that irony and sarcasm have in the literature definitions which are not agreed upon by researchers belonging to different scientific fields such as linguists and psychologists. Moreover, the studies prove the impossibility of yielding formal definitions of these concepts. Despite a commonly accepted definition, specialists and non-specialists can identify linguistic clues related to them.

Irony is a communicative act expressing the opposite of what is literally said (Wilson & Sperber, 2007). The literature evokes several types of irony: situational irony (Lukariello, 2007); poetic irony (Colston, 2007); cosmic irony (Attardo, 2007); dramatic irony (Attardo, 2007); verbal irony (Colston & Gibbs, 2007.). Our study will refer to the last category.

Verbal irony is a “playful use of language in which a speaker implies the opposite of what is literally said (Colston & Gibbs, 2007) a type of indirect negation (Giora, 1995) or expresses a feeling opposed to what is actually believed”. Humour and irony are phenomena in which literal and non-literal meaning might be simultaneously active (Cacciari, 1998). It is not clear where irony ends and sarcasm begins.

Sarcasm implies the ridicule of a person or a group of people (Katz, 2005). Kim (2013:15) considers that sarcasm is a “subcategory of irony in which a speaker produces an utterance that not only contrasts in meaning with what is actually said but at the same time imparts a sense of criticism, insult, and, at times, humour”. However, what may seem a sarcastic speech in one culture may not be in other cultures. For instance, in England this is often a source of humour while in other countries it may carry a negative value. In Romania, sarcasm can have a humorous effect but it can also convey a negative nuance, which may emotionally harm the speaker.

Reyes (2012:69) considers that “irony courts ambiguity and often exhibits great subtlety, whereas sarcasm is delivered with a cutting or withering tone that is rarely ambiguous”. This makes us conclude that sarcasm may seem direct while the irony is subtle.

We have considered useful to review and take into consideration some definitions provided by some prestigious dictionaries:
Irony is a form of humour, or an indirect way of conveying meaning, in which you say something in such a way that people realize that you are joking or that you really mean the opposite of what you say.

Sarcasm is speech or writing which actually means the opposite of what it seems to say and which is usually intended to mock or insult someone.

Irony: the use of words which are the opposite of what you really mean, in order to be amusing or to show that you are annoyed.

Sarcasm: a way of speaking or writing that involves saying the opposite of what you really mean in order to make an unkind joke or to show that you are annoyed.

Irony: expression of one’s meaning by language of opposite or different tendency, especially simulated adoption of another’s point of view or laudatory tone for purpose of ridicule.

Sarcasm: Bitter or wounding remark, taunt, especially one ironically worded; language consisting of; faculty of uttering, use of, such remarks.

Some of them present the concepts under discussion almost as synonymous but others present them slightly different. Togeby (2016, 424) draws the conclusion that the two notions can be settled in two circles which are overlapping:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IRONY</th>
<th>Common points</th>
<th>SARCASM</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(c) Expression using humour, (d) simulated adopting another’s point of view</td>
<td>(a) which is an indirect way of conveying meaning, (b) the meaning of which is the opposite of what is literally said</td>
<td>(e) taunting, mocking, insulting, hurting wounding (f) out of bitterness</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The analysis of these definitions suggests that sarcasm more than irony acquires negative nuances and has a more negative impact on the interlocutor because it is perceived as a “taunting, mocking, insulting, hurting, simulated adopting wounding, out of bitterness”.

All the literature proves, therefore, that these concepts are not agreed upon, remaining ambiguous; and in order to avoid questions such as “Is it an example of irony? Or is it an example of sarcasm?” the interlocutors might never know how to answer we have decided to treat them together and to focus more on their impact in the educational process.

Research methodology

Hypothesis

The hypothesis of our research regarding the impact of sarcasm / irony on the act of teaching is double directed: we predict and analyze its negative functions (aiming at eliminating them through self-control) and also highlight its positive values, rendering valuable / turning to good account its valences (while trying to make teachers aware of these consequences).

Methodology

In order to confirm or deny/refute our hypothesis we conducted a survey among the foreign language learners in the department of Arges, Romania. Since the teaching of foreign languages is done at all levels, we have decided to attend courses in all the three cycles: gymnasium, high school, university level, in order to come out with a quite significant range of uses. We attended classes of 15 teachers (5 in gymnasium, 5 in high school, 5 in university) and we recorded all the sarcastic/ironic replies or remarks so that we could subsequently be able to analyze and interpret them. This was made possible with the help of the interviews with the students involved in our study who were in fact the target of teachers’ sarcastic/ironic remarks. It was imperative to have their feedback, since what the teacher may consider humorous, can actually be perceived as the opposite or just be different for the interlocutor. We interviewed 80 students belonging to the three cycles. During the 42 hours of observations we recorded a corpus totalling 97 sarcastic/ironic remarks. These remarks of the teachers were oriented towards a student, a group of students, the whole class, a third party who was not present, or oriented towards themselves.

Analysis of sarcasm/irony in teaching

Sarcasm and irony have the highest brain functions. They also imply the existence of a carefully orchestrated sequence of cognitive abilities in certain specific regions of our skull. The sarcasm is linked to our ability to understand what is going on in the head of the other. It’s not just linguistics. Recent Canadian and American research suggests that the brains of people with aggressive personalities are more likely to identify a sarcastic remark. The brain of people with a highly aggressive personality reacts to sarcastic utterances very differently from those who are less aggressive, who may perceive them more
harshly. It seems that sarcasm/irony is seen as a communicative polysemy that engenders different functions as well as attitudes. Therefore, according to our corpus we could classify them into two categories: positive and negative uses.

**Positive Uses**

Our data reveal that the most frequent positive use of sarcasm is identified with the humorous intention of the teacher. Humour is most often associated with laughter. “We often laugh because something unexpected happens in the context in which we find ourselves and we feel delightfully guilty of this illicit pleasure because work and pleasure are too often antagonistic” (Décuré, 2003). We classified the positive uses in the following categories:

a. **Favorable climate, relaxed and cheerful atmosphere**

Building a positive climate in the classroom is a must for teachers. The main positive sarcastic remarks are humorous and they seem to be the main cause of the warm and fun atmosphere that can settle in the classroom.

“I think that water boils at 100°C?” “Does it? Wow! You discovered America!”

“Bonjour les enfants ou bonjour les éléphants?”

We thus observe the positive effect of sarcasm, the students smile, are attentive again, retreat, and finally they give correct answers. As Giora (1995) points out, using sarcasm/irony for a “surprise effect” allows teachers/professors/educators to be viewed as funny and witty and not boring and consequently this could be a useful teaching strategy.

b. **Avoid an uncomfortable situation for the student**

A student does not pay attention to the French class due to a bad grade obtained some time before. Each time, the teacher asks her to respond to the exercises:

“Miss, will you help us with the exercises?”

Even faced with a mistake, the teacher should act in a positive way so as not to block the learner and determine him/her in the future to study more and to be more careful during classes.

c) **Indirect reprimand**

Sometimes teachers choose not to reproach students directly a wrong answer considering that irony/sarcasm may be a way causing students think of the right answer.

“Very well. Well done!” or

“Why haven’t you done your homework? Did you have to go out? Or did you have to meet your girlfriend?”
The last remark is an indirect way of reproaching the student that he had not prepared the lessons implying that he might have done other activities.

d. Encourage and motivate students

The results teachers can obtain depend on their ability to motivate students. Sometimes, motivation may appear out of a certain type of irony which is meant not to cause any psychological harm, but to function as a kind of incentive.

“All the sharpest tool in the shed, are we?” or “Today, you are not at your best!”

Telling a student that he is not in the best shape ever involves a slight irony, but also suggests that the teacher knows that the respective student can perform a certain task better.

e. Emphasizing the moment

During classes, teachers may feel the need to emphasize certain moments so that students can understand that teachers’ expectations regarding their answers were different and they are supposed to think of another way of answering the questions.

“Eeeeee-i-dent-ly!”

By making this remark, the teacher indicates that he / she is expecting another answer.

f. Respond to minor irritations

When the student gives a wrong answer while tapping with his fingers on the desk: “Your rhythm is very good!” implying that the answer is not good and that the student’s behaviour is not appropriate.

“Wow! You look really busy!”

The best teachers seem to remain, in the opinion of the students, those who succeed in motivating them and energizing the class. The worst teachers are described as boring never using humour while teaching. Weaver and Cotrell (1987) emphasize the role played by humour in education:

“A warm, genuine, sense of humor can reveal humanness- a comfortable, secure attitude with themselves as instructors, with their course material (knowledge), with their students, and with their relationship with students. Certainly, one of the important benefits of humor is that it breeches the broad gap between instructors and students. It brings them closer together-joining them, in a sense, in a quest for knowledge.”

The problem of student motivation is not the same at university as it is at secondary level. While a large number of students suffer from demotivation upon their arrival in secondary school, university students generally enter university with a strong motivation. But it is decreasing over the years. We are inclined to think that in many cases, the factors are related to the courses taken by the students that are at
the origin of their demotivation. Among the main factors we also enumerate relation with the teacher, the climate of the class, the systems of rewards and sanctions.

**Negative Uses**

There are certainly pitfalls to avoid when using humour: that of negative irony towards learners which is at the same time self-proclamation of the superiority of the teacher, and of course that of the humour that denigrates. The negative uses of sarcasm in the form of cynicism serve to discourage the learners. It represses the interaction of learners during classes. The negative uses fall under the following divisions:

a. **Ridicule learners**

When being disturbed, some teachers may appeal to irony/sarcasm to make learners feel ridiculous in order to stop behaving in a certain way which annoys teachers; depending on the students’ psychological profile, this type of speech intervention may harm more or less.

“Liliana, are you a monkey?” “Why are you making faces like a monkey?”

“Have you finished making potato soup?”

The students’ answers prove that when hearing such remarks students feel ashamed and not confident in their abilities.

b. **Discourage learners**

Instead of motivating students, teachers may manifest themselves in a completely demotivating way which is clearly an inappropriate one if they want to improve their students’ results.

“What are you looking for here? How are you going to manage in this Humanities class where everyone speaks French perfectly?”

Students easily become frustrated and feel resentments and gradually give up making efforts in order to improve their skills in the respective field when they are treated like this. According to their answers, 92% of those confronted with such behaviour from their teachers’ part, felt like giving up learning the subject taught by a teacher having such verbal behaviour.

c. **Offending and denigrating learners**

Even worse than discouraging the students, offending and denigrating them have consequently worse effects as they do not act only upon the learners’ results in the respective field taught by the teacher, but they may influence (as it is deduced from their answers) their overall performance and may make them gradually lose their self-esteem.

“You will become salespeople at the supermarket!” (Uneducated people for any trade);

“With this kind of ability you can only work in the field!”
Apparently some innocent remarks may seem potentially damaging to the students. Many of the teachers’ / professors’ intentions are not disrespectful but students often perceive them in this manner.

d.  Scolding learners

Different remarks that teachers sometimes consider harmless, may be perceived completely differently by the students, especially by young students who seem not to discriminate between “offending” and “scolding”; this category may be affected by remarks which may be placed middle-way between joking and scolding.

“Are you having plums in your mouth?”

“Come on! You are wasting time…. It’s not that hard!”

This happens when teachers want to change something in the learner’s behaviour. It is usually the tone of the voice that makes the remark sarcastic. In many of the cases even if the sarcastic / ironic remarks are humorous and serve to entertain the audience it happens that the negative impact proves to install a lack of confidence and a fear of answering because of the feeling of shame. According to our survey, the most frequent negative uses are found in high school, then in university and then in college.

Conclusion

In this study we have analyzed two speech behaviours mainly considered as negative, used in face-to-face interactions in classroom of different levels and the repercussions of its use as perceived by students. Either having an adverse effect or a positive one on the students’, sarcasm/ irony can change the atmosphere of a class. It can make learners attend with pleasure or not the course. Who says fun, says motivation, who says motivation says easy learning. So what are we waiting for?

In point of style, the phenomenon of irony/sarcasm is rendered by antiphrasis as a figure of speech. Positive use of sarcasm/ irony is not only a means of mobilizing attention but also a paradigm of learning by associations of ideas. The goal of the irony is to denounce or criticize, but also to make laugh and especially get a reaction from the interlocutor. Sarcasm/ irony is not indispensable in teaching and is certainly not the most important quality of a good teacher: it should only be used by those who feel comfortable practicing it. All categories were established on the basis of what the learners felt and declared during the interviews and emphasized the effectiveness of sarcasm/ irony in teaching. When using irony/sarcasm, teachers do it, most of the time, without thinking of it and its consequences; so, they are neither aware, nor prepared of its effects; this happens especially because the curricula they study do not include topics which should explicitly deal with irony/sarcasm so that they could become aware of what these phenomena may cause, both positively and negatively. Thus, we consider that they should be taken into account and discussed about during one of the courses taught in the teachers’ training module.

This research ends by appealing to teachers to intervene in the language teaching process (and not only) in the sarcastic/ironic attitude towards the students, following the positive trend, as pointed out in our article, which holds a role in their acquisition of knowledge.
References


The Restructuring Energy Companies

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¹Kazan Federal University

Abstract

In this article authors offer an advanced method of restructuring the company with use of a scenario analysis method. This method considers many economic events and processes, unlike traditional approaches to restructuring which not always allow us to analyze and adequately react to the changing environmental conditions. For this reason by search of modern methodology which could analyze and consider adequately economic processes, it is offered to pay attention to the changes management theory. This theory is used in the method of restructuring the company offered by authors, namely, in article one of the main categories of the changes management theory - restructuring is considered. Authors suggest using the scenario analysis within strategic planning. It allows to predict possible alternative conditions of economic system and to consider volatility of the external environment for a certain period, to consider various events in the economic environment. In this article the offered technique is considered on the example of JSC Generation Company which realizes activity in the field of power system of the Republic of Tatarstan. On the example of JSC Generation Company the technique of restructuring the enterprise, with use of a scenario method is described.

Key terms: restructuring, a restructuring method, a restructuring model, a scenario approach.

Introduction

The process of a company's restructuring is studied in many national and foreign researches. In modern conditions of crisis acceleration and intensification in the global and regional economies, the issues of company’s restructuring studying are becoming vitally important. However, a large number of problems are being observed within the researches of the mentioned process. The most important of them, in our opinion, is the lack of proper attention to the practical features of the enterprise restructuring process. At the same time, the results of the existing studies are sometimes contradictory. It is worth noting that the content of the term "restructuring" is quite diversified. This fact can be explained by a variety of theoretical approaches to its content definition [1-10]. The authors consider restructuring "as a complex set of transformation processes planning, its rational organization fulfillment with the following monitoring and control which are carried out in the changing internal and external environment and provide sustainable competitive advantages" [11]. The scenario analysis in this case, plays a leading role in the scenario planning and makes it more likely to implement plans and to consider possible non-standard situations occurrence while enterprise restructuring.

Methods
The company’s market value is a key indicator that allows us to monitor and evaluate the restructuring reforms effectiveness. While accounting, it is offered to calculate the reconstructed company's price using an income approach. However, there are also disadvantages of this method. They include the difficulty in predicting the long-term income stream due to insufficiently stable current economic situation in Russia, the complexity of capitalization and discount rates calculations. It should be noted that, while OJSC "Generation Company" value calculating with the use of the income approach, the method of cash flows discount turns out to be more acceptable, as it takes into account the possible changes in the company's income levels at different times. The method of cash flows discount is focused on the property value calculating by summing the present value of expected income. In general, this formula can be represented as follows:

\[ PV = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{CF_i}{(1 + DR)^i} + \frac{FV}{(1 + DR)^n} \]

where \( PV \) - the company's value;
\( CF \) - the company's cash flows in the forecast period;
\( DR \) - discount rate;
\( FV \) - the company's value in the post-forecast period.

The main stages of the evaluation of OJSC "Generation Company" with the use of the cash flow discount method are as follows. If the profit (or cash flow) of the enterprise is formed mainly at its own expense without significant borrowings, the cash flow model to equity is used for the company's evaluation. If the profit is largely accumulated by borrowings, the enterprise should be evaluated using the cash flow model to total invested capital, i.e. excluding interest payments and long-term liabilities changes. At the second stage, the duration of a forecast period is determined. If there are no objective reasons for the company's liquidation, its existence is assumed to be termless. Thus, while OJSC "Generation Company" evaluating, the forecast period is to be 3 years.

The post-forecast period of OJSC "Generation Company" operation is also taken into consideration. The third stage is based on a retrospective analysis and forecasting. The fourth stage includes the calculation of the cash flow for each year of the forecast period. At the next step, the discount rate is determined (WACC model):

\[ WACC = Re \times Ve + Rd \times Vd \times (1 - t), \]

where \( Re \) - company's own equity cost;
\( Ve \) - company's own equity ratio to total capital;
\( Rd \) - loan capital cost;
$Vd$ - loan capital ratio to total capital;

t - rate of income tax.

The cost of the company's own equity is calculated according to the CAPM model:

$$r = Re + \beta \times (Rf - Re),$$

where $Re$ - risk-free rate of return;

$Rf$ - risk premium;

$\beta$ - industry coefficient characterizing the overall risk level.

The cost of the company's own equity, calculated according to the CAPM model, reflects an income, desired by a shareholder. At the sixth stage, the calculation of the value in the post-forecast period (reversion) is performed. The calculation of the company's value is performed with the following formula of Gordon model:

$$EV = \frac{CF}{(WACC - g)},$$

where $EV$ - company's value in the post-forecast period;

$CF$ - cash flow in the first year of the post-forecast period;

$WACC$ - weighted average capital cost (used as discount rate);

$g$ - rate of long-term cash flow growth.

At the end the present value of future cash flows and reversion and making final adjustments and elimination of the agreed company’s evaluation using the income approach is performed. The integral assessment of the value is to be carried out with the following weighting factors: income approach - 60%; cost approach - 40%.

**results**

Taking into consideration the proposed methodology characteristics for OJSC "Generation Company" evaluation, the possible internal and external factors that could have an impact on its value are evaluated in an expert way (Tables 1, 2, 3).

Table 1.

The analysis of the factors influencing OJSC "Generation Company" evaluation using the cost approach
### I. Assets

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Internal</th>
<th>External</th>
<th>Depend on</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intangible assets</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>the scientific activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fixed assets</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>the size of the investment program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction in progress</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profitable investments in tangible assets</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long-term and short-term investments</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Continuance of Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Internal</th>
<th>External</th>
<th>Depend on</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Other noncurrent assets</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stock</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Added value tax on purchased goods</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receivables</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cash</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other current assets</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### II. Liabilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Internal</th>
<th>External</th>
<th>Depend on</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Long-term liabilities for loans and credits</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other long-term liabilities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short-term liabilities for loans and credits</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accounts payable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Debt to participants (founders) for income payments</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future expenses provisions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Depends on the effectiveness of the credit policy
The analysis of the factors influencing OJSC "Generation Company" evaluation using the income approach (cash flow calculation)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Factors characteristics</th>
<th>Factors that can influence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Net profit</strong></td>
<td>External / Internal</td>
<td>Revenue, cost price, thermal power production, heat losses, investment and repair programs, accidents, heat sources number and so forth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Depreciation</strong></td>
<td>Internal</td>
<td>Depends on the accounting policies used and investment program size and intensity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Net working capital</strong></td>
<td>External / Internal</td>
<td>Partly depends on credit policy effectiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fixed assets investments</strong></td>
<td>Internal</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Long-term debt</strong></td>
<td>Internal</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interest payment of loans and borrowings</strong></td>
<td>External / Internal</td>
<td>Partly depends on credit policy effectiveness</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The analysis of the factors influencing OJSC "Generation Company" evaluation using the income approach (the WACC calculations)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Factors characteristics</th>
<th>Factors that can influence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cost of equity</strong></td>
<td>External</td>
<td>Risk-free rate, beta factor, risk premium - all parameters are fully formed by the market and shareholders and investors’ expectations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cost of equity ratio</strong></td>
<td>Internal</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Borrowed capital cost | Internal/External | Borrowed funds market value (average bank loan rate)
---|---|---
Borrowed capital cost ratio | Internal | -

To identify the studied indicators econometric dependency it is proposed to conduct a factor analysis using a specialized software SPSS Statistica 17.0 and encoding the factors considered (Table 4).

Table 4.
The factors encoding

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Units of measuring</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>F1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Produced thermal energy</td>
<td>Million. Gcal</td>
<td>F2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heating sources introduction</td>
<td>Pieces</td>
<td>F3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Replaced heat and steam networks in two-pipe-on-year</td>
<td>Km.</td>
<td>F4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thermal energy loss</td>
<td>Million. Gcal</td>
<td>F5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heat and steam networks length in two-pipe-on-year</td>
<td>Km.</td>
<td>F6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heat and steam networks length in two-pipe-on-year, replacement required</td>
<td>Km.</td>
<td>F7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thermal sources supply total power</td>
<td>Million. Gcal</td>
<td>F8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accidents number in heating sources, steam and heat networks</td>
<td>Times</td>
<td>F9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thermal sources number</td>
<td>Pieces</td>
<td>F10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revenue GC</td>
<td>Billion (rub.)</td>
<td>F11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revenue CPC</td>
<td>Billion (rub.)</td>
<td>F12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revenue NCHTK</td>
<td>Billion (rub.)</td>
<td>F13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost GC</td>
<td>Billion (rub.)</td>
<td>F14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The conducted factor analysis of the principal components shows the following results (Fig. 1, Table 5, 6, 7, 8).

![Component Plot in Rotated Space](image-url)

**Table 5.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Initial Eigenvalues</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cost CPC</td>
<td>Billion (rub.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost NCHTK</td>
<td>Billion (rub.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net profit GK</td>
<td>Billion (rub.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net income CPC</td>
<td>Billion (rub.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net profit NCHTK</td>
<td>Billion (rub.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income per capita</td>
<td>Billion (rub.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GRP per capita</td>
<td>Billion (rub.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GRP</td>
<td>Billion (rub.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1. Components transformation matrix

The full explanation of the factors variation
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>% of Variance</th>
<th>Cumulative %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>10,666</td>
<td>48,481</td>
<td>48,481</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>4,555</td>
<td>20,706</td>
<td>69,187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4,414</td>
<td>20,063</td>
<td>89,251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1,518</td>
<td>6,898</td>
<td>96,149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>5,847</td>
<td>3,851</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
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<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>17</td>
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<tr>
<td>18</td>
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<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.
The components rotation matrix
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component²</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F1</td>
<td>0.929</td>
<td>0.032</td>
<td>0.352</td>
<td>0.102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F2</td>
<td>0.902</td>
<td>0.410</td>
<td>0.128</td>
<td>0.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F3</td>
<td>0.101</td>
<td>0.719</td>
<td>0.317</td>
<td>0.207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F4</td>
<td>-0.310</td>
<td>0.317</td>
<td>-0.746</td>
<td>-0.090</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F5</td>
<td>0.171</td>
<td>0.373</td>
<td>-0.236</td>
<td>0.880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F6</td>
<td>-0.398</td>
<td>0.323</td>
<td>-0.823</td>
<td>0.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F7</td>
<td>0.814</td>
<td>0.386</td>
<td>-0.378</td>
<td>0.208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F8</td>
<td>0.836</td>
<td>0.523</td>
<td>0.120</td>
<td>-0.094</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F9</td>
<td>-0.905</td>
<td>0.063</td>
<td>0.382</td>
<td>0.088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F10</td>
<td>-0.005</td>
<td>0.821</td>
<td>0.185</td>
<td>-0.517</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F11</td>
<td>-0.257</td>
<td>-0.880</td>
<td>0.163</td>
<td>-0.333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F12</td>
<td>0.306</td>
<td>0.342</td>
<td>0.852</td>
<td>-0.247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F13</td>
<td>-0.332</td>
<td>0.257</td>
<td>0.857</td>
<td>-0.153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F14</td>
<td>-0.024</td>
<td>-0.977</td>
<td>0.045</td>
<td>-0.134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F15</td>
<td>0.720</td>
<td>0.376</td>
<td>0.496</td>
<td>0.305</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F16</td>
<td>-0.026</td>
<td>0.256</td>
<td>0.958</td>
<td>-0.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F17</td>
<td>-0.340</td>
<td>-0.889</td>
<td>0.218</td>
<td>0.204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F18</td>
<td>-0.409</td>
<td>-0.693</td>
<td>-0.393</td>
<td>-0.426</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F19</td>
<td>-0.270</td>
<td>-0.873</td>
<td>-0.286</td>
<td>-0.271</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F20</td>
<td>0.967</td>
<td>-0.089</td>
<td>0.228</td>
<td>0.070</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.
The components rotation matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.772</td>
<td>.560</td>
<td>.262</td>
<td>.143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>.134</td>
<td>-.528</td>
<td>.822</td>
<td>-.165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>.607</td>
<td>-.625</td>
<td>-.487</td>
<td>.062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>.129</td>
<td>.132</td>
<td>-.132</td>
<td>-.974</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8.
The components coefficient matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F1</td>
<td>.122</td>
<td>-.055</td>
<td>.049</td>
<td>.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F2</td>
<td>.113</td>
<td>.029</td>
<td>-.013</td>
<td>-.072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F3</td>
<td>-.045</td>
<td>.111</td>
<td>.060</td>
<td>.092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F4</td>
<td>-.031</td>
<td>.100</td>
<td>-.166</td>
<td>-.095</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Continuance of Table 8.

| F5        | -.045| .009| -.021| .509|
| F6        | -.052| .098| -.173| -.007|
| F7        | .106| .028| -.110| .030|
| F8        | .105| .061| -.020| -.146|

---

The factorial indicator analysis is conducted with the use of the specialized software. The analysis of the indicators, capable to influence the market evaluation, has revealed the following key factors: thermal energy production; restructured companies’ revenue; restructured companies’ net profit.

**discussion**

We believe that based on the identified key factors, having the greatest influence on OJSC “Generation Company” evaluation creating, the following possible scenarios, put under the basic restructuring model, can be made up:

**Scenario № 1.** It is characterized by the stabilization in energy intensity of GRP and as a result, by the stabilization in industry thermal energy consumption. The level of heat energy consumption by households is stable (Table 9).

**Scenario № 2.** It is characterized by the decrease in energy intensity of GRP and, consequently, by the decrease in industry thermal energy consumption. The level of heat energy consumption by households is stable (Table 10).
Let us consider in detail the effectiveness of the proposed basic restructuring model in heat power industry of the Republic of Tatarstan within proved scenarios № 1 and № 2.

Table 9.

Key parameters of Scenario № 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Indicators value</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Industry thermal energy consumption</td>
<td>~ 6700 thousand GCal</td>
<td>Consumption is stable (60% of total consumption)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Households thermal energy consumption</td>
<td>~ 4470 thousand GCal</td>
<td>Consumption is stable (40% of total consumption)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rate of revenue growth from selling thermal energy</td>
<td>No more than 6% per year</td>
<td>No more than the size of tariff indexation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rate of cost growth from selling thermal energy</td>
<td>No more than 6% per year</td>
<td>Depends on rate of cost growth of the main raw material - gas</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10.

Key parameters of Scenario № 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Indicators value</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Industry thermal energy consumption</td>
<td>~ 6700 thousand GCal in 2013 4% consumption decrease annually</td>
<td>Consumption is decreasing (60% of total consumption)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Households thermal energy consumption</td>
<td>~ 4470 thousand GCal</td>
<td>Consumption is stable (40% of total consumption)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rate of revenue growth from selling</td>
<td>No more than 6% per year</td>
<td>No more than the size of tariff indexation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thermal energy</td>
<td>Rate of cost growth from selling thermal energy</td>
<td>Depends on rate of cost growth of the main raw material - gas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SUMMARY**

The calculation of the efficiency of the proposed variant of the thermal power companies restructuring model within the designed scenarios:

1. Thermal power companies restructuring program evaluation within scenario № 1.

   1.1. Income calculation from a single technological policy fulfillment (Tab. 11). The positive effect is achieved by avoiding leaving major thermal energy consumers - OJSC "KAPO Gorbunova" and OJSC "KMPO" (Tab. 11).

Table 11.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>OJSC &quot;Generation Company&quot;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>under existing conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heat supply in hot water, thousand Gcal</td>
<td>5 522,97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The average tariff of OJSC &quot;Generation Company&quot;, rub./Gcal</td>
<td>584,25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>including fuel constituent, rub./Gcal</td>
<td>418,33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fixed costs and expenses from profit constituent, rub./Gcal</td>
<td>165,92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumers' expenses growth (or OJSC &quot;Generation Company&quot; lost</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.2. Income calculation with repair programs approval (Tab. 12). The positive effect is achieved due to fuel economy.

Table 12.
Economic benefit calculation with repair programs approval

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Kazan OJSC &quot;Generation Company&quot;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Electric power supply growth produced in condensing mode (TPP-2)</td>
<td>million kWh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specific fuel consumption for electricity generation in condensing mode, g / kWh</td>
<td>432,77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specific fuel consumption for electricity generation in heating mode, g / kWh</td>
<td>282,94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fuel consumption increase for electricity generation in condensing mode, thous.</td>
<td>24 864,02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equivalent fuel cost, thous.</td>
<td>2 997,63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fuel costs increase, thous. rub.</td>
<td>74 533,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total lost income, thous. rub.</td>
<td>106 184,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lost income per unit, rub. / Gcal</td>
<td>19,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5 522,97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heat supply in hot water, thousand Gcal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OJSC &quot;Generation Company&quot; average tariff, rub. / Gcal</td>
<td>584,25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>including fuel constituent, rub. / Gcal</td>
<td>418,33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fixed costs and expenses from profit constituent, rub. / Gcal</td>
<td>165,92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumers' expenses growth (or OJSC &quot;Generation Company&quot; lost income), thous.rub.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electric power supply growth produced in condensing mode (TPP-2) million kWh</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specific fuel consumption for electricity generation in condensing mode, g / kWh</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specific fuel consumption for electricity generation in heating mode, g / kWh</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fuel consumption increase for electricity generation in condensing mode, thous.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equivalent fuel cost, thous. rub.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fuel costs increase, thous. rub.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total lost income, thous. rub.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lost income per unit, rub. / Gcal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

conclusions
It is obvious that at present Tatarstan thermal power system needs a thorough reconstruction. The result of the authors' research is the development of thermal power industry restructuring program for the Republic of Tatarstan. The preliminary assessment of the effectiveness of the proposed restructuring programs is carried out with the use of the scenario approach. It shows its possible effectiveness and practical applicability. When united OJSC "Generation Company" market evaluation with the income approach, the most applicable method is the cash flow discount one, as it takes into account the possible changes in the company's income at different times.

Taking into consideration OJSC "Generation Company" economic activity peculiarities and industry-specific features, it is advisable to use a cash flow assessment model for the total invested capital. The cash flow for the total invested capital with scenario № 2 parameters is offered to be used as the cash flow calculation model.

acknowledgements

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Bibliography


Representation of the Topic of Preservation and Development of Languages in the Mass Media Discourse of the Republic of Tatarstan

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Abstract  
The article presents the results of analysis of the press of the Republic of Tatarstan on preservation and development of languages in the region. The relevance of the chosen topic is determined in many respects by the status of the very region being polyethnic, in which more than one hundred ethnic groups reside, the two main ones are the Tatars and the Russians. The languages of these peoples are recognized as state, which are required to be compulsorily studied at school. It is the officially proclaimed bilingualism in which the special status of the republic is manifested. The analysis of the press allowed to answer the questions posed at the beginning of the study: (1) what are the thematic priorities in elucidation of the topic of preservation and development of the languages in the Republic of Tatarstan; (2) what mechanisms of ensuring a symmetrical Russian-Tatar bilingualism are covered. The study used a mixed qualitative-quantitative methodology for analyzing the media materials - content analysis and discourse analysis. At the heart of the discourse analysis is an interpretive approach based on the theory of semiotics (F. de Saussure, C. S. Pierce, R. Barthes). The media materials are often ideological in nature, they hold a certain standpoint. Therefore, the basis for the analysis of the press was the idea of the English sociologist J. Thompson that the ideological strategies contained in the texts can contribute to or hinder the conducting of relations of domination in society. The results obtained have illustrated that the press often covers the topic of languages, touching in so doing upon a wide variety of issues - from the state language policy to the everyday practice of using languages. The positive aspects of bilingualism, as well as the problem moments, were covered, and the opposing viewpoints were also presented. Among the mechanisms of ensuring a symmetrical Russian-Tatar bilingualism, there were both the coverage of language policy and practices, and the questions of history and interfaith relations. This indicates that the coverage of the language situation is one of the directions for supporting the special status of the region as a multicultural one.  
KEYWORDS: bilingualism, multilingualism, language, media discourse, mass media, discourse analysis, the Republic of Tatarstan

Introduction  
The topic of development and preservation of languages in multinational Tatarstan is very popular in the discussions of politicians, experts, scientists, social activists. Attention to the problem under consideration is not accidental. Firstly, the Republic of Tatarstan is a polyethnic region of Russia. According to the
results of the All-Russian population census-2010, more than 170 nationalities live in the republic. The Tatars (53.2%) are on the first place in number, the Russians (39.7%) - on the second [1]. Secondly, the republic holds a variety of happenings to support the culture and languages of the peoples of Tatarstan. Thirdly, in the region there are two state languages - Russian and Tatar, and their compulsory learning at school are legally fixed. Fourthly, in the past few years, there were conducted the public actions by parents of schoolchildren, activists in furtherance of Russian culture, advocating an increase in the hours of teaching the Russian language. These and other reasons, from our point of view, actualize the necessity to learn mass media discourse, since it is the media that form the “picture of reality”, actualizing, popularizing some topics and ignoring and suppressing the others.

In the course of the study, we have analyzed 7 Russian-language newspapers and information portals of the Republic of Tatarstan: «Республика Татарстан» / “The Republic of Tatarstan” (an official printed publication), «Вечерняя Казань» / “Evening Kazan” (a socio-political publication of opposition), «Казанские ведомости» / “Kazan Gazette” (popular newspaper), «Звезда Поволжья» / “The Star of the Volga Region” (an opposition newspaper), «Бизнес Online» /“Business Online” (a rating Internet newspaper), «Pro-Kazan» / “Pro-Kazan” (an information portal), «Татар-информ» / “Tatar-Inform” (an information agency). The analyzed period encompasses the period from September 2015 to May 2016 (9 months). The choice of the period is connected with the fact that the information field in the summer time is considered less rich in events on the whole.

The selection of publications was according to the key words, the sample includes all the articles, which were concerned with multilingualism, bilingualism, individual languages of the peoples of Tatarstan. In all, 356 articles were analyzed for the mentioned period.

Within the study, the following issues were to consider: 1) to identify topical priorities in covering the topic of the preservation and development of languages in the Republic of Tatarstan, 2) to determine the mechanisms for ensuring the symmetrical Russian-Tatar bilingualism.

Research Methods

The research was based on a qualitative-quantitative strategy of the analysis. On the one hand, a quantitative calculation of the basic units of the analysis was used, on the other hand, the possibilities of the discursive approach were applied. This allowed to identify the statistical patterns of representation of the topic of preservation and development of languages, but at the same time, to reveal them and a qualitative component. A feature of discourse analysis is the possibility of interpreting the publication as an integral text that has a complete meaning; The discursive approach is based on the interpretation of the meanings contained in the text. It is the semiotic approach that makes it possible to “partition” the text into separate elements for thorough understanding them and, at the same time, to consider it as a compound element of communication. The founder of this school is considered to be the Swiss linguist F.
de Saussure [3, 4]. He viewed any text as a totality of interrelated elements - signs, each of which in its turn consists of the signifier (the mental acoustic image of the object) and the signified (meaning, content, embedded in this image). Despite the fact that F. de Saussure focused his attention on the study of the linguistic system, he wrote that non-linguistic systems could also be indicative. The successor of his ideas, French scholar R. Barthes, put the accent on forming meanings, fixing a certain meaning for a certain sign. He have come to the conclusion that there are two levels of signification - denotation and connotation, of particular interest is the second level, which appears in the form of ideology, myths [5, 6]. Actually, it is myths and ideologies studying in media texts which R. Barthes focused his attention on. American theorist Ch. S. Pierce also analyzed the language as a sign system, but went a little further. He singled out three types of signs - iconic, index and symbolic [7]. It turns out that the text can consist of different signs.

The text can be used as a way to convey and prove a concrete point of view, ideological techniques that help maintain or overthrow certain relationships in society are used in the text. English sociologist J. Thompson argues in this way. He adduces the classification of rhetorical data that can be revealed when representing practically any topic. J. Thompson offers five such techniques, each of which consists of a series of strategies. The first way - legitimization - consists of rationalization, universalization, narrativization. The second - concealment - includes substitution, euphemization, trope. The third - unification - is divided into standardization and symbolization of unity. The fourth - fragmentation - consists of differentiation and exclusion. The fifth - reification - is divided into naturalization, immersion in the timeless state, passivation [8].

Results And Discussion

In the framework of the content analysis, the columns containing the selected articles were studied. The topics are the most motley - education, science, culture, news, even sports, politics and health. Therefore, we can state that the subject under consideration is represented in a wide variety of spheres. The most popular columns proved to be society, culture, science and education, news.

Most often were the following topics reported by journalists (listed in descending order):

1) the popularization of the Tatar language in modern society: the conduct of a worldwide online-test in the Tatar language and the “total dictation” in the Tatar language, the Tatar language celebration on the birthday of Tatar poet and writer G. Tukay, the holding of free courses on the Tatar language, the popularization of the Tatar language and music through the media and the Internet, staging Russian performances in the Tatar language, renaming the streets of Kazan in honor of the Tatar writers, the holding of a fair of national design, the intention of the metropolitan to learn the Tatar language and conduct religious services in the Tatar language for the Orthodox Tatars, the Bible has been translated into the Tatar language;
2) The difficulties in the practical application of the Tatar language in society: the absence of demand of the Tatar language in practice (at work, other places), the problem of “voluntary assimilation” of the Tatars, ignorance of the Tatar language by officials, ignorance of the Tatar language by the peoples of the Republic of Tatarstan, refusal to the candidates for the post of the republic’s president in broadcasting in the Tatar language, mistakes in writing the names of the streets - the names of Tatar writers, Tatar Father Frost could not answer the question asked in Tatar;

3) The practice of using and supporting the Russian language: Russian is considered to be the language of interethnic communication for all the peoples of Russia, the predominance of the Russian language in the names of firms and street signs, the preparation of the officials for public performances in Russian, establishing the Russian language courses for foreign students, the holding the Russian language contests and competitions (in particular, “total dictation”), a literary flash mob on reading classical Russian literature;

4) Other languages in the Republic of Tatarstan: one expresses the idea that all peoples should have the right to get an education in their native language, but the State Duma of Russia did not adopt the law on the protection of the languages of other peoples; at the same time, it is written on the consideration of the Federal project “The Program for the Support of National Literatures of the Peoples of the Russian Federation”, on the holding of a conference for schoolchildren in reading in languages of different peoples, on the meeting of the Association of Finnic-Ugric Peoples and on the sharing of experience with the Udmurt delegation, on the organization of free Udmurt language courses and study groups on Tatar and Arabic languages, on the teaching of the Persian language at university, on the Chinese and Hebrew languages days;

5) Teaching languages in schools: improving the methodology of teaching the Tatar language, competing in compiling Tatar language textbooks for Russian-speaking children, abolishing the teaching of basic subjects in a native language, introducing the study of a second foreign language (for example, the Chinese language) in schools, the problem of teaching Tatar hours, lack of the teachers in schools capable of teaching individual subjects in the Tatar language, discontent of the population with the conduct of a unified regional testing on the Tatar language, the difficulty in conducting the USE in the Russian language for Tatar schools, conducting optional Russian and Tatar courses in schools, lack of significant results in learning the Tatar language by Russian-speaking children, introduction of the Komi language learning in the Komi Republic and parents’ dissatisfaction with it, the first textbooks for learning the Crimean Tatar language;
6) the development of the Tatar language: the building of an Islamic university including the Department of the Tatar language, the establishment of the G. Tukay Higher School of Tataristics and Turkic Studies, the meetings of the Tatar Alliance of Europe on the preservation of the Tatar culture and language, the Tatar community in Japan, the meeting of the Tatars in Kostroma;

7) implementation of the program “Preservation, Learning and Development of the State Languages of the Republic of Tatarstan and Other Languages of the Republic of Tatarstan for 2014-2020”, payments of the two state languages bonuses to the officials, discussion about giving to the Tatar language and other languages the status of state;

8) the problems of development of the Russian language: the appeal of public activists of Tatarstan to the President of Russia V.V. Putin on the question of studying the Russian language in schools and the criticism of this appeal, the problem of general illiteracy, the decrease in the results of the “Total Dictation” in the Russian language, the lack of simultaneous interpretation into Russian at a meeting in the State Council;

9) the history of the Tatars and the development of the Tatar language: the formation of the Tatar statehood, the struggle of the Tatars for the opportunity to learn the Tatar language, the 95th anniversary on the occasion of the adoption of the decree on the Tatar language, the days of remembrance of Tatar poets, writers and scholars of the Tatar language;

10) the practices of bilingualism and multilingualism in Tatarstan: performance production in Russian and Tatar, bulletins in elections in two languages, advertisements in buses and excursions in three languages (Tatar, Russian, English), grant support for bilingual preschools;

11) closing of the Department of Tatar Studies and Turkic Studies of the KFU: criticism from scientists, the consequences of closure for science;

12) the problem of state stability: there exists an opinion that the proposal of some public figures on the prohibition of Tatar and other languages can undermine the foundations of statehood, the federal structure of Russia is the only direction of development, the Tatar language as the protection of national self-awareness.

A thematic analysis of the articles showed that the problems discussed included a wide variety of aspects - progress and difficulties in the development of state and other languages, as well as the issues of language policy, the practice of bilingualism and multilingualism.
It is worth in this article dwelling upon the description of the nature of the presentation of a symmetrical Russian-Tatar bilingualism. Consider the mechanisms used for ensuring such bilingualism. First of all, it emphasizes the equality of two languages and two cultures. This is done either through the designation of a common between the two cultures or by mentioning the program for the development of languages in Tatarstan. In the first case there was used the ideological strategy of narrativization (the experience of the past appears as a part of important tradition), according to the classification of T.A. van Dijk: “Meanwhile, Russian and Tatar (to be more precisely, a group of Turkic languages) are two great and mighty languages that originated from the common Altai root. Only by feeding one another, they can be developed as great, powerful and competitive languages in the global world. The development of the strategy of modern Turkic-Slavic bilingualism is one of the priority resources for saving and developing the country” [9]. In the second case, the rationalization strategy was used (the construction of a logical chain of statements): “... in 2004 the Tatarstan laws on learning the Tatar and Russian languages as the state languages in equal amounts were recognized by the Constitutional Court of Russia being not inconsistent with the Constitution of the Russian Federation” [10].

Secondly, the topic of language teaching in schools was also used as a mechanism for declaring symmetrical bilingualism in the region; it was stressed that anybody’s interests were not infringed upon. it was even mentioned about the creation of its own education system, which also allowed to emphasize the special status of the region (the strategy of universalization - the representation of institutional entities as universal, but they serve the interests of individuals): “If to follow the Manheim's formula, education must form a person in the society and for this society. In other words, Tatarstan should have its own system of education, taking into account all-Russian values, but with its regional emphasis. And the whole point in this “accent”, it is neither Tatar, nor Russian, but one that takes into account the international consent in the republic. At the same time, the Tatar school will be in Tatar, the Russian school - in Russian, the Chuvash, Mari, Udmurt, Mordovian schools - all taking into account their own characteristics” [11].

Thirdly, the practice of using two state languages was noted: on television, public transport, on signs, in rendering of services in two languages, in providing information in two languages on websites, and creating regulatory documents, laws, working of bilingual pre-school educational institutions.

Fourthly, one stressed upon the stability of inter-confessional relations in the republic. It was noted that the Bible was translated into the Tatar language and the Koran into Russian.

Summary

The results of the analysis have shown that the topic of preserving and developing the languages of the Republic of Tatarstan is relevant and significant for the regional press. The subject matter of the articles demonstrated the variety of viewpoints in the field under investigation - from the implementation of state
programs for language support to the problematic aspects of bilingualism in the region. It is indicative that the topic under consideration touches practically upon all aspects of people’s lives - personal, family, educational, professional, public. Within journalists’ view fell all levels of society - from individual and group to institutional and societal. Accordingly, the actors participating in the actions are individual and group, official and unofficial persons and associations. This allows to summarize that the issue under consideration in terms of content is one of the key issues in the information agenda of the regional press.

The harmonious co-existence and interaction of the cultures of the peoples living on the territory of the republic, especially the Russians and the Tatars, is a “calling card” of multi-ethnic Tatarstan. Therefore, one of the tasks of official discourse is the identification of this harmony, and in particular, the symmetry of Russian and Tatar cultures. The analysis of the press has shown that in the coverage of the language theme this symmetry is emphasized. Thus, the status of the very region is affirmed.

Acknowledgements

The work is performed according to the Russian Government Program of Competitive Growth of Kazan Federal University.

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Poetic Text in the Light of Cognitive-discursive Research

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Summary Interpretation of basic poetry concepts with the help of conceptual and theoretical instruments of the dominant trend in modern linguistics that of cognitive discursive paradigm, allows to fashion an entire picture of poetic intellect continuum. For an all-round language interpretation of this or that poetic unit it is not enough to comprehend adequately only certain elements of the text. It is necessary to determine their place in the artistic speech system of the whole poetic intellect continuum. Such approach fully corresponds with the ideas of cognitive-communicative stylistics. In accordance with which originality of modern linguistic thinking is determined by the tendency to nonlinear representation of the emergence and functioning of holistic self-organizing systems. The system of artistic poetic thinking is one of them.

Poetic discourse is a complicated, nonlinear system of poetic texts. Its figurative elements of speech represent an integrative and systematically connected unity of their linguistic, pragmatic, socio-cultural, mental and paralinguistic characteristics. Poetic discourse treated as a system presupposes that it simultaneously contains a dynamic process of image creation in speech and integration into its social context resulting in a poetic text.

The existence of poetic discursive environment is determined not only by its cultural aspect and specific language basis but also by its associative-derivational nature. It is conditioned by the nonlinear interaction of the factors that generate it. Meaning producing energy of discourse is nourished by different energy flows: figurativeness imagery, sign and symbolic interpretation of initial images; form changing activity in texts and at last by the influence of the extra linguistic reality (situational, communicative-pragmatic and cultural contexts). In their unity the above mentioned energy flows represent the associative derivational essence of discourse. Owing to it the language signs used turn into imagery units capable of carrying not only rational information but also being able to express boundless spectrum of human emotions that represent the unity of the man’s ability to understand and experience the world around.

A poetic concept like any other artistic concept is a formation of a secondary nature. In the structure of speech consciousness it is a rhythm underground melodic embodiment of both heuristic process of word creation and hermeneutical perception of subjective poetic meanings.

To view the concept as being multilayered is important for poetic discourse modeling. As a rule poetic concepts are not numerous because of a limited number of topics in lyrical works. That is why in a poetic text typical standard meanings of a concept are not only actualized quite differently but there appear new ones as well. For a short «plan of subject matter» poetic text to become a masterpiece of art a poet has to introduce something personal, something unique into the stencil pictures existing in the minds of his readers. Sometimes he even has to change the existing image. The originality of a poetic work is connected with the fact that in each poetic text different content layers are actualized. This is determined by various combinatorics of its features. That is exactly what determines specifically «blurred» architectonics of a poetic concept.
Poetic linguistic personality is a unique type of a linguistic personality possessing a specific semantic structure of consciousness that can be realized in two hypostasis – that of the author and that of the addressee (the poet and the reader). This is a personality characterized by creative pragmatism, aesthetic motivation (pragmatic level), figurative thinking, imagination or creative fantasy (cognitive level). Outer mechanisms of communication are connected with meta-discursive environment, namely, the factors accompanying poetic communication by communicative interference, communicative mediators and inter-discursive dialogue.

**Key words:** poetic discourse, cognition, communication, concept, linguistic personality

1. Introduction

Two principal language functions are treated as equal within the cognitive discursive approach. They are cognitive and communicative (discursive) ones, constantly and invariably coordinating and interacting with each other. A poetic text like any other language phenomenon is regarded as being «at the crossroads of cognition and communication».

For modern cognitive research the following provisions are considered to be initial and methodically significant: (a) language as a heuristic component of a man's intellectual process; (b) mutual reversibility concept of language intentionality and association-verbal organization of poetic consciousness; (c) linguistic personality as a creative character of speech poetic activity (Alefirenko 2007: 219-220).

2. Research Methods

It is evident that portrayal of the man in an artistic text, the appearance of «I» in language communication and language creative activity are the problems that had been raised and solved long before the linguistics and stylistics of discourse emerged. Within the framework of discourse-dialogue paradigm conceptions by A.A. Potebnya (1976), G.G. Shpet (2007), O. Walzel, W. Dibelius, K. Fossler, and L. Spitzer (2007) and F. de Saussure (1977) are laid as the basis for their consideration. The discursive approach to the analysis of poetic texts has been beneficially influenced by some structural poetics provisions, and by the ideas of R.O. Yakobs (1975: 193-230), Yu. M. Lotman (1996) and others.

In addition, the following observation seems important. «The study of text and discourse has a much shorter history and has accelerated only in the past twenty years. It is perhaps not surprising that the field of discourse analysis and, more generally, the linguistic analysis of text have supplied neither comparably comprehensive studies nor comparably coherent definitions of the field of enquiry. Certainly, the term ‘discourse analysis’ is a contested one and various groups of linguists, literary and film theoreticians, cultural historians and semioticians argue that all their work is centrally concerned with the analysis of discourse, illustrating in the process the essentially interdisciplinary character of much work in discourse analysis» (Carter 1997: 13).
3. Basic Part

Let us examine basic conceptions of cognitive discursive research of poetic texts – *poetic discourse, poetic concept, poetic linguistic personality and poetic communication* – in terms of modern anthropological paradigm.

**Poetic discourse.** The essence of the poetic element of artistic speech is determined by functional shades of meaning of poetic discourse as of an integral unit, open and dynamic. From the very core of it there emerges a melted poetic word artistically and aesthetically polished. Quite an «ordinary» word which is not full of images in everyday speech in a poetic text turns into a bright verbal image sometimes with unpredictable augments of discursive nature. Thus the word *переправа* (crossing) – «a place where you cross to the other bank» (MAS) – in A.T. Tvardovsky’s «Vasilij Tyorkin» becomes a symbol of life and death in the war: «Переправа, переправа! Берег левый, берег правый, Снег шершавый, кромка льда... Кому память, кому слава, Кому темная вода, – Ни приметы, ни следа».

According to the researchers, the special position of literature is rooted in the most fundamental and General structures and processes of human cognition and experience, giving us the opportunity to interact with a particular artistic means of communication (Gavins, Steen 2003: 2).

A poetic text as a communicative event, being a unit of poetic discourse, exists in a discursive environment. It is an integrative formation or some substrate system in which processes of speech creation develop. Poetic environment is a unique discursive sphere of memory devoid of an agent in which there exists «a voice without a name» (Zh.-Zh. Kurtin). Poetic texts originated and drawn to some specific environment exist as objects of poetic culture determining their value-semantic nature.

Poetic discourse as sum total of poetic texts is a self-contained whole determined by its structure. The structured nature of poetic discourse is conditioned by cognitive reasons. Firstly, (special elements of poetic thinking or poetic concepts are explicated, among which universal ones stand out – existing inside the text «I-concept» and discourse forming concept «Поэзия» («Poetry»)). Secondly, it is determined by the outer field (communicative conditions characterized by the existence of a specific poetic linguistic personality represented dually – both by the poet’s personality and that of the reader).

In addition to this any poetic text is in itself a complicated communicative phenomenon containing social and historical context, author’s intentions and elements of biography. That is why the openness of the poetic discourse system is revealed in the ability of poetic texts to absorb and artistically reflect realities of the world around. Any text functions in a specific linguistic and cultural space, i.e. it is submerged into a universe of the mind of national and world culture. Such type of openness influences the formation of new or additional meanings of any artistic product.
For this reason, the cognitive linguistic study of the poetic text is very important in Russia and abroad today. This, in particular, shows a large number of studies in the field of cognitive poetics (Tsur 1992; Stockwell 2002; Turner 2002 etc.).

Direction of poetic energy flows constituting a discursive concept cover is to a certain degree determined by the semantics of a corresponding language sign. Thus, considering different meanings of the word *poetry* to be found in explanatory dictionaries a corresponding concept in language consciousness is realized at a number of levels: 1) cultural (arts level) – as a specific type of creative work of one or several poets; 2) axiological level – meaning elegance, charm, beauty; 3) emotional level – lyricism, cordiality; 4) epistemological level – as a sphere of imaginary existence, the world of fantasy.

In semiotic, figurative and symbolic sphere of culture artistic concept is interpreted in communicants’ minds and is transformed into a poetic image. Generalized, cultural meanings of «Poetry» concept represented by the lexeme *поэзия* (*poetry*) are formed by the following discursive factors:

| - symbolic and mythological | волшебница, богиня, царица (fairy, Goddess, tsarina) |
| - perceptual – sensory | огонь, жар, пламя; музыка (fire, heat, flames, music) |
| - axiological | святая, прелестная (sacred, charming) |
| - sensory perception | любимая, недостижимая (beloved, unattainable) |

Discursive space of a poetic text is a communicative event represented in it and interpreted by a linguistic personality. It is actualized by speech consciousness as an associative – shaped fragment of poetic communication. In the discursive space of a poetic text one can distinguish: 1) cognitive aspect – mental space, i.e. an element of linguistic personality’s consciousness; 2) communicative – pragmatic aspect – the space not locked inside a certain poetic text but connected with the conditions of its creation, aims and tasks; 3) linguistic and cultural aspect – space connected with a corresponding inner text.

To the factors that determine the existence of a poetic text’s discursive space one can refer (a) peculiarities of a concrete communicative situation; (b) specific activity of a creator’s and receiver’s minds aimed at representation of events in a poetic text; (c) its specific discursive resources.

**Poetic Linguistic Personality and Poetic Concept.** Poetic discourse as a cognitive phenomenon is created by individual perception and interpretation of reality inducing a poet to write poetry. Poetry is born in the co-ordinates that determine content and direction of poetic linguistic personality’s activity. They are: 1) an ontological co-ordinate which corresponds to the task of poetic world creation; 2) a verbal co-
ordinate corresponding to the language being a universal modeling system; 3) a cognitive co-ordinate that corresponds to a poet’s creative activity. In its turn the cognitive aspect of a poetic text is connected with the reflection of the poet’s specific intentions in its meaning structure. Specific character of his verbal reasoning with his aspiration to transmit information complex that includes conceptual, expressive and emotive components is oriented at perceiving thinking.

Principle mental unit of poetic discourse is a poetic concept forming discursive-cognitive space of a poetic text. It is an original form of an artistic concept possessing specifically blurred architectonics and is determined by associative shades of meaning mechanisms of its content structure formation (Chumak-Zhun 2009: 18-19).

Concept in a poetic discourse is not a rigid formation. Cognitive intentions formed on the basis of opinions and knowledge reflect the result of concept formation in genealogy (passed from generation to generation in the form of archetypical component); in ontogeny and ethnogenesis. These cognitive intentions appear at the initial stage of poetic concept formation in the individual consciousness of a poetic linguistic personality. This is some kind of a cognitive tuning-fork which is the basis for understanding of language expressions representing this or that poetic concept. The study of evolution and peculiarities of word representations in basic discourse concept «Poetry» showed that creation of the linguistic cognitive «concept image» in ethnic-cultural consciousness is a long process. On the one hand, it is closely connected with peculiarities of the inner form formation of each of the lexemes representing it. On the other hand, it is linked with extra linguistic factors determining the changes in Russian poetic discourse – cultural meaning space. An important role in formation of the concept’s cultural layer is performed by individual personal meanings that are to be subject to associatively shaped explication in connection with the cognitive pragmatic intentions of the poet.

Poetic communication. Communicative mechanisms of poetic discourse are realized in two dimensions – outer and inner ones. Inner communicative-pragmatic mechanisms are determined by the specific character of the poetic linguistic personality participating in the process of poetic communication. For an adequate comprehension of the specific character of inter-subjective communication in poetic discourse it is important to remember about at least two of its categorical properties. Firstly, besides the text, poetic discourse contains various extra linguistic information (knowledge of the world around, events, opinions, values) playing an especially important role in understanding and apprehension of poetic speech. Secondly, sum total of the opinions formed in a certain socio-cultural context; values that characterize the discourse, form a meta-discourse. On the analogy with the meta-language, the language of «a secondary order», in relation to which the language serves as an object. Meta-discourse can be called discourse of a secondary order. In relation to which discourse is an object. The meta-discourse space is a linguistic cultural space in which a certain type of discourse is subject to discussion and evaluation

4. Conclusion
Poetic meta-discourse that is the one, that includes texts about poetic texts, is an element of poetic inter-discourse which implies specific conditions for realization of discursive process (M. Peshe and K. Fuko). They are those factors that determine form and content of the discourse on the outside. The units of poetic meta-discourse are represented by various forms: critique, articles in journals, notes, letters, viewpoints about poetic creative work.

Meta-discursive processes are directly connected with the peculiarities of poetic communication. A communicative act in terms of cognitive-discursive approach is a complicated mechanism and its specific character is determined by lots of factors. The ones that come to the fore are numerous peculiar features of the person apprehending this text. The recipient, more often than not, is an «ordinary reader», a *homo poeticus*, whose ability to grasp and interpret is connected with lots of inner and outer discursive factors.

Besides, a recipient can be represented by 1) a member of another discourse whose communicative position does not coincide with that of the addressee; 2) a researcher whose intentions are directed at examining this or that component of poetic communicative act; 3) a poet who enters an inter-discursive dialogue with the author. Exactly these types of readers change standard model of a poetic discourse and cause the emergence of such a phenomenon of poetic discourse as an inter-discursive dialogue, communicative interferences, and communicative mediators.

5. Insights

Thus, cognitive pragmatic study of poetic discourse determined by the elaboration of general cognitive discourse theory moves this research beyond the framework of one field of knowledge and assumes research of numerous communicative, linguistic and many other factors that influence its emergence and perception.

List of Literature:


