Celebrating Variety: Making the Most of Your Teaching and Learning Context

Papers from the
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6th – 7th June 2015
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Bulgaria

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Editors’ Corner

Dear Readers,

This issue brings to you the selected papers from the 24th BETA-IATEFL Annual International Conference, held in collaboration with the University of National and World Economy in Sofia between 6th and 7th June 2015. Its general theme, *Celebrating Variety: Making the Most of Your Teaching and Learning Context*, is reflected in this conference collection, which presents an interesting mix of explorations: most of them teaching/teacher-oriented, but also a few language-oriented studies, with implications for foreign language teaching.

We start with several articles that speak to school teachers directly. First, Anna Parisi, Desmond Thomas and Zarina Markova report back on the progress made since the 23rd BETA-IATEFL conference, where the idea for the SEETA Teacher-led Research Project was born. The topic of teacher projects continues with Anne Wiseman’s paper, in which she describes an experimental project for dealing with the diversity of cultures and backgrounds in the ELT classroom. Next, Svetlana Dimitrova-Gyuseleva offers theory-supported practical activities for involving young adults in learning English through literature with both capital and small ‘l’.

Still on the topic of practical uses of literature, Zhivka Ilieva shifts the focus to young learners, and describes her experience in teaching English through extensive reading and storytelling. Then, following the bilingual pre-conference event, held on 5th June, for the first time in this e-newsletter comes an article in Bulgarian – a contribution by Mina Hubenova, who argues for the generation of more cross-cultural awareness in the Bulgarian education system. An interesting extension of
this topic is Irina Perianova’s article, which explores food as an area with its own niche in foreign language syllabi.

This is followed by an article with a different, linguistic focus: Dilyan Gatev examines attitudes towards immigration revealed through verbs of motion and restriction in recent articles in *The Telegraph*.

We continue with a few papers written with ESP in mind, but whose insights might be of relevance to a broader ELT readership. Galina Koteva discusses issues related to needs analysis and designing a successful ESP course; Boyan Alexiev and Dimana Keremedchieva consider how collocations can be best exploited when applying the lexical approach to teaching specialised terminology; Boryana Ruzhekova-Rогоzherova explores ESP curriculum design and cognitive skills formation. Next, we offer you two contributions related to medical topics: Valentina Raynova’s description of a set of activities to teach and recycle the parts of the body with students preparing for the healthcare professions, and Svetlana Taneva’s report on English and Russian non-anthropomorphic metaphorical models used in dentistry. We conclude the selection with another article in Bulgarian: Dimitrina Lesnevskа examines discourse, stylistic and methodological issues of contemporary Bulgarian and Russian commercial correspondence.

We hope you find this volume stimulating and thought-provoking.

Happy reading!

Zarina Markova and Sylvia Velikova
Editors of BETA-IATEFL E-Newsletter
Making the most of your teaching context: 

SEETA Research Project

Desmond Thomas, Zarina Markova, Anna Parisi

In many ELT contexts, research is often seen as highly theoretical, disconnected with the real world of teaching and learning. It is viewed with a certain level of distrust by the classroom practitioners who remain sceptical about its potential value to their concrete teaching situations. More often than not, teachers are also influenced by the academics’ complaints about the lack of rigour in teacher research, and do not regard themselves as potential researchers at all. This adds to other impediments that keep classroom practitioners away from active engagement in research: lack of time, lack of confidence, lack of appropriate levels of support and feelings of isolation. As a result, teaching and classroom research continue to be as separate as they have always been.

However, teachers’ involvement in TEFL/TESOL research can have a range of potential benefits. According to Nunan (1989), teacher-initiated research: (1) begins with and builds on the knowledge that teachers have already accumulated; (2) focuses on the immediate interests of classroom teachers; (3) bridges the gap between understanding and action by merging the role of researcher and practitioner. Kincheloe (1991) emphasizes the empowering effects of research in several ways: (1) it can liberate teachers from being deliverers of pre-packaged coursebook products; (2) students are more likely to learn from teachers who are actively engaged in asking questions about teaching approaches, activities and materials; (3) readers in the TEFL/TESOL field can gain from the perspectives of teacher-researchers relating to aspects of classroom practice. Finally, there are
great benefits to be gained at an individual level in terms of increased knowledge, highly developed skill sets, increased confidence and better employability prospects.

In the light of the above discussion, the SEETA small-scale teacher-led research project was started with the aim to encourage teachers to become active researchers and to add a local flavour to the TEFL/TESOL classroom-based research.

The project involves teachers engaging in small-scale rather than large-scale research, i.e. research aims will be very specific, will relate to designated groups of learners or teaching colleagues and will be completed within weeks or months rather than years.

The project includes two stages as follows:

1. **Collaborative Stage**: This involves EFL teachers in the state and private sector in schools in Greece, Turkey, Cyprus, Serbia, Romania, Bulgaria, Albania, Slovenia and Israel. The aim is to choose a common small-scale research focus to be carried out by individuals in collaboration with counterparts in other institutions. The results are expected to provide inspiration and ideas for Stage 2.

2. **Individual Stage**: EFL teachers will choose and develop their own research projects to be carried out in their institutions with the support of SEETA.

At both stages, the project aims to find similarities and differences in EFL classes in the region. It also aims to find out students’ opinion of current classroom approaches, methods, activities and practices.
Stage 1

Stage 1 of the project was launched at the end of September 2014 at a meeting of TESOL Thrace-Macedonia with an audience of teachers from Greece. Its topic area, ‘The changing uses of technology in the EFL classroom’, was chosen through a preliminary survey in which teachers suggested and then voted on the possible topic areas for the first stage of the project. The international launch of the project took place in the form of a SEETA webinar on 21.10.14. The following seven webinars were held on 21st October 2014 through 2nd March 2015 and decided the design of data collection instruments and the procedures to be followed. Each webinar led on to a series of practical tasks, including the piloting of data collection instruments. The webinars were repeated in June 2015. The recordings of the webinar series can be viewed in the SEETA Research area at www.seeta.eu. The accompanying online materials are available to download at the SEETA website.

Stage-one data collection has been taking place in participating institutions in all SEETA countries. At the time of writing this report, data is still being collected from materials evaluations, classroom observations and interviews with teachers. The following Stage-one Interim Report refers only to the survey, which closed in May 2015 and which presents a snapshot of teacher attitudes and practices.

Stage-one Interim Report

General information about the survey respondents:

- 219 completed surveys
- 173 female, 35 male teachers out of the 208 responses received
- A wide mix of ages, types of schools, levels of experience.
It should be noted that respondents were self-selecting. There was no attempt to achieve a statistically-significant representative sample of a much larger group of teachers. The responses of participants are of intrinsic interest but in no way will it be claimed that any of the views expressed must therefore be shared by others. However, where patterns of responses can be detected, this might well be an indicator of the feelings of other teachers who did not participate.

The breakdown of respondents according to countries was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer Options</th>
<th>Response Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Albania</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romania</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serbia</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other answered question</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>total</strong></td>
<td><strong>216</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There were also 51 responses from teachers working in other non-SEETA countries:

- Argentina, Colombia, France, India, Mexico, Poland, Spain, UK, USA (3 each)
- Chile, Czech Republic, Italy, Oman, New Zealand, Thailand, Switzerland (2 each)
- Australia, Austria, Ecuador, Hungary, Malaysia, Pakistan, Peru, Russia, Saudi Arabia, Ukraine (1 each)

Such a wide range of countries reveals the level of interest in the research topic area. It also indicates that SEETA as an organisation is able to engage with the wider world beyond its own boundaries.

The first part of the survey provided a snapshot of technology use in the EFL classroom. Here is a summarised version of the main findings concerning use of hardware, software and related materials.

Every week in English classes, out of the 213 responses received, it is reported that:

- 131 teachers use an audio or CD player
- 129 use a PC
- 127 use a laptop
- 91 use a data projector
- 82 use their own phones
- 62 use their own tablets
- 67 use students’ phones
- 31 use students’ tablets
Every week in English classes, out of the 215 responses received, it is also reported that:

- 157 use pictures from the internet
- 142 teachers use audio CDs
- 139 use videos from the internet
- 130 use on-line dictionaries
- 82 use educational platforms (*eg* Edmodo)
- 78 use learning platforms (*eg* Moodle)
- 71 use Web 2.0 tools (*eg* interactive blogs, wikis)
- 52 use mobile Apps

It appears from respondent comments that a range of different factors can affect technology use such as:

**Hardware availability:** *There are no funds allocated for the school equipment, we have only 1 laptop in school and 2 OHPs.*

**Changing circumstances:** *I used to use an audio/CD player for every lesson but now I can use my laptop and speakers instead. Similarly I use the Laptop and video projector instead of the DVD Player and TV.*

**Attitudes towards use of mobile devices:** *I think it is quite dangerous to use mobile phones by students in schools and especially in the classroom. While mobile phones today have the same work with a laptop computer I think that there are other modes that could serve the needs of a course using technology.*
Relevance and suitability for student needs: *One of the issues is finding an app/programme that fits your specific situation. While most that I have found are geared towards class-based teaching in an institution, for those of us that do a lot of one-to-one work, you need to be pretty creative with how you adapt the technology to your students. Given that, technology is generally very adaptable, even when it is not actually designed with the ESOL student in mind.*

The survey provides an interesting overview of how teachers make choices concerning technological hardware, software and related materials. Data from class observations, materials evaluations and teacher interviews (to be reported in early 2016) should shed further light on the thinking that underlies the choices that people make.

An interesting by-product of this section of the survey is the realisation that, for many teachers, their use of technology can be just as significant outside the classroom as part of lesson preparation:

*This question is not quite clear. I use most of the software from the list while preparing for teaching, but I do not use some of them during the class with my students.*

The next section of the survey reports teacher views concerning the benefits of technology. These are summarised in the table below:
Table 2
In your opinion, what are the main benefits of using technology in the classroom?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer Options</th>
<th>Response Percent</th>
<th>Response Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Raises motivation levels</td>
<td>80.6%</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gives access to authentic materials</td>
<td>79.6%</td>
<td>168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gives access to native speakers</td>
<td>56.9%</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brings real life into the classroom</td>
<td>73.0%</td>
<td>154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helps extend English language learning outside the classroom</td>
<td>73.5%</td>
<td>155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helps make English language learning more dynamic</td>
<td>69.7%</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enables communication and collaboration with people from other countries</td>
<td>59.2%</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you have any other comments to add?</td>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

answered question 211
skipped question 8

Additional perceived benefits included the following:

*Opportunities for asynchronous communication with the teacher, feeling of a better closer relationship with the teacher - they are always there to give students 'a pat on the shoulder' as well as more encouragement.*

*Enables creativity, esp. for those who are shy, reserved in real life.*
Technology: (1) provides immediacy (immediate access to information/explanations/solutions/answers to questions); (2) holds interest because through it the material can become animated in a multisensory way; (3) captivates attention because it may engage all learning channels; (4) enriches the learning experience by providing multi-level examples; (5) encourages hands-on participation and co-creation of the learning experience.

Finally, the survey also provides an interesting overview of teachers’ perception of the challenges that technology presents in an EFL context (fig. 1, table 3).

![Fig. 1](image)

**Table 3**

| Challenges in using technology in the EFL classroom |
|---|---|---|
| **Answer Options** | **Response Percent** | **Response Count** |
| Availability of hardware | 57.3% | 121 |
| Availability of software or materials | 41.7% | 88 |
| Cost of hardware | 48.3% | 102 |
Teachers who responded to the survey provided an interesting mix of concerns. The following comments present a selection of these:

**Often teachers assume young people are competent at using technology which is not always the case and considerable time is spent teaching students how to use the technology. In my opinion the trade-off is often worth it. Another negative is that using technology is often NOT seen favourably by students and parents of YL as this non-traditional method is just ‘playing’ and not ‘real learning’.

I am 45,5 years old at this point in time. I can see how older professors are treated in this world. It is not easy for them, the way they are treated by the young (both the students and young teachers). Technology does not help the ethos, the way people communicate to each other without technology. Like tests and assessment, it is still a tool. It is sometimes misused and even abused by both the young and the
old, for example for cyber-bullying. When one of the principles of pedagogy, ethics (and/or ethos) is in question, or empathy... is in question, it does not help much. Sometimes it destroys the bridges that connect two banks of the river ...

It would be a fallacy to assume technological tools will make up for poor content or inadequate methods; students tend to mistakenly assume that if they can locate a piece of information successfully on the Internet, this will substitute for knowledge. Technology is just another tool to bring the information across; over-reliance on technology in class may interfere with successful learning.

It can be overwhelming for teachers a) to keep up with the pace b) to prepare lessons via technology c) to keep updating their knowledge on the tools d) the focus can slide away from the teacher-kid interaction onto technology.

The conclusions from the survey might include the following:

1. Use of technology varies enormously, even considering a single teacher in a typical week. Availability rather than teacher choice is a key factor.

2. Attitudes to technology use are generally positive: there is a belief that technology really does enhance teaching and learner motivation. Not having access is seen as a real disadvantage.

3. There is an apparent division between ‘haves’ and ‘have nots’ with respect to technological hardware in particular.

4. Technology is used significantly outside class for teaching (preparation and communicating with learners) and learning.
5. There is some evidence of a transition phase in technology use: ‘old methods’ being used in new forms. Will new methods emerge eventually? The situation seems unclear.

6. Mobile technology use is being held back to some extent by institutional rules. It is unclear whether this will change in the near future.

**Stage 2**

In Stage 2 of the project (October 2015 – December 2016), teachers will carry out research within their institutions on a topic of their choice. As the EFL/ESOL classroom is a complex environment and as the focus of research will be small-scale rather than large-scale, it is envisaged that much of the data collected by teachers will be qualitative rather than quantitative. There will be no requirement to conduct any form of statistical analysis or demonstrate that the data are representative of a wider population of teachers and learners. The validity of the data will be internal rather than external. In other words, teachers will collect data from a small group because of the inherent interest of what these people say and do.

Five main data collection methods are suggested as a result of the webinar training in 2014-15.

2. Interviews with teachers and/or learners: can be one-to-one or in the form of focus groups.
3. Classroom observations: can be structured or unstructured.
4. Teacher/learner journals.
5. Questionnaires: can elicit facts and opinions from a wider group, if needed.

In Stage 2, it is envisaged that individual teachers (or pairs of teachers) will produce research journals in which they explore the process of doing research and at the same time report their findings. A template for the journal is available separately in the SEETA research area and consists of pages in which written tasks are completed based on the Stage-two series of webinars.

It is hoped that these research journals, once edited, will form the basis of a series of individual narratives which can be combined into a series of published papers. In this way, both the findings of individual projects and the ‘story’ of how the research was conducted can be disseminated to a wider audience.

**Webinar Schedule for Stage 2**

As teachers collect and analyse their data, they will be supported by SEETA in a number of ways. There will be a support discussion forum on the platform so that teachers can share their concerns and so that they do not feel isolated. This discussion forum will run until completion of the project in December 2016. In addition, the following training webinars will be offered by the SEETA research team:

1. Launch of Stage 2 with David Nunan *(Sat October 3rd 2015)*, sponsored by IATEFL Research SIG.

2. Training Webinar 1: How do I choose my topic? *(October 2015)*
   Task 1: Research rationale – What? Why?
   An extra follow-up webinar will allow teacher-researchers to present and discuss their provisional topics.
3. Training Webinar 2 with the participation of Emma Marsden, IRIS: How can I find out about other research projects connected to my topic? *(November 2015)*
   Task 2: Short report on teachers’ findings.

   Task 3: Short report on data collection design.

   Task 4: Short report on data collection.
   An extra follow-up webinar will allow teacher-researchers to present and discuss their data collection.

   Task 5: Data analysis and key findings

Tasks 1-5 will be combined into research journals, as outlined above.

**On-line conference**

Teacher-researchers will be invited to present their findings at an End-of-project Online Conference *(Dec 2nd – 3rd 2016)*. This event will be in collaboration with IATEFL Electronics Committee and IATEFL Research SIG.
Dissemination of Findings

Collections of research papers will be published. At the same time, conference presentations on specific projects will also take place. This will happen face to face, at annual conferences in the SEETA region, and online, at the End-of-project Online Conference.

The SEETA website address for the project

http://www.seeta.eu/

Project leader

Anna Parisi, SEETA Community Co-ordinator

Project collaborators

Desmond Thomas, University of Essex, UK.
Zarina Markova, South-West University, Bulgaria

Project credentials

The project is approved by the Greek Ministry of Culture, Education and Religious Affairs and is supported by the IATEFL Research SIG, the IATEFL Electronics Committee and the IRIS Database.

References

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Classrooms and contexts: how to make your mixed class a happy class

Anne Wiseman

This talk discussed our understanding of ‘context’ within teaching and learning and how an awareness of this can be integrated into teaching strategies and content. This was illustrated by describing an experimental project which focusses on integrating children from different backgrounds into the classroom. The project has raised teachers’ awareness of multicultural differences and social cohesion, which in turn has resulted in improved learning for the students and happier classrooms.

Background

In Lebanon English and French are taught as a second language from a very early age, whereas in Syria English is taught as a foreign language at a later age. This results in a situation where Syrian students arrive in the Lebanese classrooms with different levels of ability in English and French than their Lebanese peers. Teachers also have to deal with a diversity of language experiences accompanying the differing values which communities such as the Bedouins, Kurdish, and Syrians attribute to education. Additionally, there are intercommunal tensions between Syrians and Lebanese, which emerge in the classrooms and which the teachers have to deal with.
The project

In order to help the teachers within this situation the EU has co-funded a project with the British Council, entitled ‘Accessing Education’. It aims to assist teachers in the Lebanese classrooms to deal with the diversity of cultures and backgrounds which they are now faced with. By the end of the project in 2016 we will have reached 1,100 Lebanese teachers, and 60,000 Syrian refugee children, and it is envisaged that the national trainers will be able to train new teachers to integrate vulnerable students and refugees into Lebanese classrooms, thus ensuring long term sustainability.

In order to deliver effective training within this particular context the project has adopted a contextualised and sociolinguistic approach to training. Its aims are:

- To create positive attitudes towards other cultures/nationalities in the classroom by showing that language diversity is a strength, not a weakness;
- To show the (Syrian) children that they already have strategies for learning a foreign language, to motivate them;
- To show children they can use their knowledge of the world as a resource to understand a foreign language.

Language awareness (Hawkins: 1994) was a key element of the training programme and, in relation to this, a number of activities were created based on the Council of Europe’s CARAP Framework (2007). These activities help students develop language security by raising their self-esteem, by giving the same value to their home languages as for the languages of instruction. Both the languages the students are exposed to and the language they use in everyday life can be used as a support for language learning and changing attitudes. The approach also considers
diversity as a strength and not a weakness and focuses on the students’ own context as a key motivator. (For an example of some of the activities please see Appendix)

The training is implemented via a cascade system whereby the national trainers are trained in a sociolinguistic approach to teaching by the British Council recruited trainers. In order to follow up the teachers’ practice in the classes and to ensure the quality and effectiveness of the training, the project also trained 25 Guidance Counsellors in the practice and principles underlying the project’s aims.

Qualitative evaluation has been a major component of this project: feedback has been obtained via questionnaires; focus group interviews; individual interviews and observations.

Results

Results to date have been very positive: Both the trainers and the teachers have indicated a change in their attitude to the different cultures they have found in the classroom. For example, some have said that

- *The integration of the languages or the variation .... could be applied to the integration of different cultures from different areas of the world - it is not only for the Syrian people in Lebanon.* (Trainer)
- *Till now we talked about language teachers dealing with languages as material the student should learn - (they) should be able to talk, or write sometimes. They talk about culture but they never think about diversity or they never think about accepting the other.* (Trainer)
• This (training) really was excellent, especially with the pluralistic approach, showing us how we really had to take into consideration the cultural diversity and the self-esteem of the students while using their L1 (first language).(Teacher)

• I believe that this is a very good workshop for the Syrian student integration with the Lebanese students in the society….. to have (sic) integrated society later on ..(Teacher)

A full-scale evaluation will be undertaken at the end of the project and we anticipate a longer-term research study to evaluate the long-term impact of the training on both the teachers and the students.

What is different about this project?

There are a number of elements which have made this project successful and different from other teacher training projects.

Firstly, the project follows a ‘bottom-up’ model of development. Extensive research was undertaken before the project was fully designed and feedback from the research and from a pilot project was taken into account in the final design. Additionally, after the first training phase, further feedback was provided and the course designers adjusted the course according to the feedback. As part of this process the project staff undertakes continuous monitoring and evaluation.

Secondly, the pedagogy is based on a sociolinguistic approach using language awareness as the underpinning theory. Very few teachers are in fact trained in language awareness and are not aware how a sociolinguistic approach to language teaching can help them in a mixed and very diverse classroom.
Thirdly, due to the particular context we have found ourselves in Lebanon, one of the key foci has been on social cohesion. The training in this project aims to ensure that teachers accept the mixed or diverse class as a positive force, and provides activities and training which help make their mixed class a happy and cohesive class.

References

Council of Europe (2007). *Framework of Reference for Pluralistic Approaches to Languages and Cultures*. European Centre for Modern Languages


Appendix: examples of activities

1. Example of a cultural diversity activity
   
   Sociolinguistic Activity: BONJOUR! (HELLO)

   Watch the video and join each name to the “hello” they say with an arrow

   **Hello**
   
   • Alexandre   An yang
This activity makes the children aware of the many languages in the world, and that sometimes they can work out what some words mean even if they do not know the language.

2. Pluralistic Portraits

- Noah Kumusta
- Marlena Bonjour
- Nicole Hi
- Marie-Grace Chào
- Prathaban Buñaziua
- Charles Bonjou
- Andreea Merhaba
- Layla Vannakam
- Hasan Dobardan
Children are asked to draw themselves and colour different parts of the body portrait with the language they speak. It is often very interesting to see what languages they place in the heart area, and the head area.

3. Sociograms

Children are asked to draw a sociogram showing which languages they speak with which person in the sociogram, and which languages the other people use to communicate. This illustrates how languages are used and with whom we use them, depending on different social and cultural contexts. The sociogram above is based on the text below. Teachers use this as an example: students read or listen to the text below, and then write the language used between the people on the connecting lines. Following this activity the students draw their own sociogram.

**Adrien**

I was born in Haiti. I lived there until the age of 12. In Haiti my mother only spoke Creole. With my father I used to speak Creole and French. Actually, he was the one who helped me with my homework because at school the teacher taught us mainly
in French and little in Creole. With all of my friends I used to speak Creole. Creole was also the only language I used with my grandparents. When I arrived in New York with my parents, I went to a school where all the lessons were taught in English. It was difficult at first, but with the new friends from my class and neighbourhood, I quickly spoke English; in fact, I think I learned it quite fast! For my brother Paul it was even easier because he was born in New York. He immediately spoke English! With all his friends he speaks English and he speaks English with me too. My parents continue to speak Creole between them at home.....

Anne Wiseman is currently Manager for the EU/British Council project 'Acessing Education: Language Integration for Syrian Refugees', based in Lebanon. She has been involved in teaching and training in ELT and education for over 20 years in Europe, the Middle East, China and South Africa. She has written four ELT textbooks and presented papers at various international conferences.
A reactive approach to teaching English through literature

Svetlana Dimitrova-Gyuzeleva

Introduction

Like any other specimen of authentically used language, texts of verbal art have long found their rightful place in the FL classroom. They may serve as a rich source of FL-related historic, geographic and cultural information for the learners (thus contributing to their intercultural communicative competence as well), as a means of enlarging students’ knowledge of vocabulary and grammar structure in the target language (both consciously and subconsciously), and last but not least, as a powerful motivator for the learners to communicate and improve their language skills in an integrated way while reacting to the content and/or the aesthetic impact of the literary text, deciphering and (critically) reflecting on the author's message, reading between the lines, reviewing and evaluating, expressing their own ideas and opinions on the topic and sharing relevant personal experience, using the text as a springboard for their own creativity, and generally interacting with the text and the rest of the class and the teacher.

The question is how we get our students to actually read books and appreciate witty artistic texts, and how we ensure they reap the bountiful harvest outlined above to the benefit of their FL communicative competence? The aim of this paper is to provide some guidance to EFL teachers on how to exploit the potential of literary texts in their FL classroom by careful planning of activities and skilfully scaffolding learners' performance, and to share the author's personal experience of making
literature a powerful tool for adult learners' language learning and communicative competence improvement.

**Literature in the FL classroom**

1. The history of using literature in the FL classroom

The use of literature has formed a part of many traditional approaches to foreign language teaching, and literature has often been described as a powerful ‘ally of language’ in the FL classroom (Brumfit & Carter 1986: 1). In the grammar translation method literary texts in the target language provided the main learning materials: they were regarded as examples of good language use, illustrating the rules of grammar and the meaning of lexical items, so they were read, translated and even memorised (Richards & Rogers 1986). However, in this FL teaching method there was no significant interest in the content of the literary text and it was almost never used as a springboard for discussion or any other sort of communicative activities in the classroom.

Later on, the structural approaches to language teaching did not make extensive use of literary texts in the classroom as they worked on the assumption that target language can be best learnt through careful selection and grading of grammar structures and vocabulary, followed by various mechanical drilling activities leading to the automatisation of the presented patterns and utterances (Richards & Rogers 1986), and authentic literary texts were discarded as unfitting for either of these purposes. Still, it should be noted that stories (usually written specifically in a less demanding language to match the proficiency level of the learners) and other types of narrative (e.g. comics), as well as some poems and songs, featured high in many EFL coursebook series at the time (most notably in *New Concept English* by L.G. Alexander) and the first graded readers¹ (some of which were excellent adaptations
of literary classics, preserving the depth of the original and its complexity of themes) were published.

Literature was also excluded from the initial methodological paradigm of the communicative approach to language teaching, because artistic texts (especially canonical classical texts like those of Shakespeare, Dickens, Mark Twain or the Brontë sisters) were not considered representative examples of current authentic language use and in terms of content they fell somewhat short on the requirement for serving a communicative function in modern everyday settings. However, recently the role of literature in the FL classroom has been reassessed (Widdowson 1983, Sage 1987 and others) and now many foreign language teachers view literary texts as not only providing rich linguistic and socio-cultural input, but also as effective stimuli for students to practise and develop their communicative skills in an integrated way, motivating them to become more observant and to think critically, as well as provoking them to put language to more creative, personalised use - i.e. literature has become one of the most valuable language teaching and learning resources available in the FL communicative classroom and beyond it (Collie & Slater 1987, Duff & Maley 1990).

2. Definition of ‘literature’ in the FL classroom context

In 1994 John McRae made a useful distinction between literature with a capital ‘L’ - i.e. the classical texts by renown British and American authors - and literature with a small ‘l’, such as modern popular fiction and even song lyrics. He argued that the literature used in FL classrooms today should no longer be restricted to canonical texts, but it can and must include the works of contemporary writers from a diverse range of cultures and literary schools using English as their means of expression. Nor should FL teachers feel obliged to undertake that laborious literary analysis and
elitist discussion of the literary texts with their FL learners that they remember from their literature classes at school or teacher-training colleges (O'Connell 2009).

Furthermore, studies of the language of literature indicated that there is no such thing as a specific ‘literary language’ and the language used in most literary texts is not different from the ordinary language used by people in their daily life with perhaps only slightly higher incidence of ‘literature-/art- specific’ linguistic features like metaphors, similes or unusual syntactic and phonetic patterns, but these could also be found in nursery rhymes, proverbs or publicity slogans, which are not traditionally labelled as literary texts (Lazar 1993: 7).

So, in order to use literature to facilitate language learning, teachers need no expert skills of dealing with it. Selected literary texts (excerpts and adapted or abridged versions of originals are just as good for the purpose) can be by contemporary authors and on topics that learners find relevant and easy to relate to, and for good measure, students should also be provided with the freedom to choose titles to read and discuss in class. Last but not least, literary texts in the FL classroom can be supplemented by picture stories (incl. comics strips and calligrommes\(^2\)) and/or audio-recordings and film clips, thus enhancing the learning potential of the written text and providing learners with different learning styles with opportunities for multi-sensory classroom experiences (TE editor 2014). In today's communicative classroom, it is also essential that literary texts are not only read and retold or translated, but also critically appreciated, used to develop students' cultural awareness and understanding, serving as a springboard for discussion and expression of personal opinion, and eventually even provoking learners' own imagination and leading them to linguistic creativity. In this line of thinking, even street graffiti and sitcom scripts can be regarded as ‘literary’ and ‘artistic’ texts.
3. The benefits of learning language through literature

Duff and Maley (1990: 6) outline three main criteria that commend the use of literature as a tool for foreign language teaching (Collie & Slater 1987: 2).

The linguistic criterion relates to the fact that literary texts provide FL learners with genuine, authentic samples of language use, widely ranging in text type and/or genre, register and style. They are a rich source of contextualised linguistic input, exemplifying correct and situationally appropriate use of grammatical structures and lexical items. FL teachers generally agree that extensive reading helps learners (be it consciously or unconsciously - Krashen 1989, Coady 1997, etc.) acquire the target language better and integrate this knowledge of language form in improving their communicative skills (reading, listening, speaking and writing). In addition, literature often serves as a vehicle for FL-related socio-cultural information; it can subtly raise learners' awareness of 'difference', help them understand and accept it, and facilitate the development of their intercultural communicative competence.

The second criterion is more methodological in character: it refers to the fact that a literary text is open to interpretation and often there is a lot to be found by reading ‘between the lines’ and reflecting on it. Thus, a literary text can generate different reactions and opinions from the learners, paving the way for authentic and meaningful language exchange and real communicative interaction with fellow students and the teacher. The learners become personally involved and active, autonomous and central to the learning process; they get the unique chance to express their own ideas and share relevant personal experiences.

The final criterion is connected with the motivational power of the literary text. A well-selected piece of literature can put the learners in touch with the real world and provoke a strong emotional response. The texts included in traditional ‘global’
FL coursebooks are often censored or ‘sanitised’ (in observation of the ‘PARSNIP’ principle of being politically correct and avoiding potentially offensive topics, such as politics, alcoholism, racism, sex, narcotics, etc. - see Gray 2002) and may sound a bit artificial and detached from reality; in contrast, literary texts, albeit fictional, provide the learners with the opportunity to deal with universal themes and everyday facts of life such as love, war, loss, drugs and crime, and discuss them in the target language as freely and confidently as they do in their mother tongue, sharing personal opinion and/or experience. Thus, in terms of content, literary texts are capable of stimulating learner interest and involvement in a way that coursebook texts rarely do (Carter & Long 1991: 3); they also supply many linguistic opportunities to the language learners, and FL teachers should capitalise on this potential and design an array of language activities engaging the class in critical thinking, text reviewing and heated discussions (i.e. activities requiring the application of higher order cognitive skills and more communicative productive language use) along with traditional language analysis and revision of grammar and vocabulary.

**Implementing a reactive approach to teaching English through literature with adult learners**

Given the important role that literature can play in the teaching of English as a foreign language (especially when courses are run in non-English speaking countries), it is surprising that there are very few teacher-oriented resource materials and learner coursebooks facilitating the incorporating of literature in the EFL classroom. Teachers get very little or no preparation at all on how to deal with literary texts in practice during their professional training either: TEFL programmes traditionally include one or two literature courses familiarising the teachers with the most prominent British and American writers and their works, but future ELT
practitioners are mostly left to their own devices as to how to present these to their learners in the FL classroom so that they could truly benefit from it.

The following section is based on the author’s personal experience of teaching English through literature to adult language learners at intermediate to advanced level of proficiency and it offers some practical guidance to FL teachers on how to motivate their students to actually start reading literary books in the target language, and exploit the potential of literary texts to improve their learners' communicative competence. Admittedly, very little will happen if students just read a nice excerpt from a literary masterpiece in class and are invited to discuss its content or comment on its aesthetic impact. Even less will be achieved if learners are given a literary book (or, on a more optimistic note, a reading list with a few titles) to read for homework and then present / discuss it in class. Assigning a written book review without any preparation will most probably equal disaster with the aftertaste of frustration even for those learners who otherwise enjoy reading literature. In other words, in order to turn the encounter with literature in the FL classroom into a positive experience for the learners, i.e. one which they will both enjoy and benefit from, FL teachers need to carefully design and/or adapt the tasks on the literary texts they have selected for their learners to study, judiciously plan for both the classroom activities and the homework assignments, and skillfully scaffold learners' performance all along.

It is beyond the scope of the present paper to review the infinite variety of language activities that could be done in the FL classroom using literary texts as a main resource and/or a starting point (for a good overview of the main types of language activities based on FL literary texts, see Murat Hişmanoğlu 2005). Instead, we zoom in on some of the main challenges for the FL teachers embarking on teaching English through literature and offer them some practical tips for successfully dealing with
the problems and reaping the plentiful harvest of using literature to boost their students' language learning results.

1. ‘I like my facebook, but I hate to face my book!’
Teaching English through literature to young adults may actually take some fine methodological maneuvering on part of the FL teacher at the very start in order to clear some unexpected hurdles. Nowadays it is very often the case that digital natives have not read the compelling masterpieces we want to refer to and use in our language class (even translated in their native tongue) and are sometimes unfamiliar with their authors either. If you are not obliged to keep within the constraints of a pre-determined syllabus, but still wish to widen the cultural horizons of your students and get across an idea of what the core of ‘English literature’ is, it may be a good idea to provide your learners with a list of ‘recommended’ classical authors and their most representative works and ask them to choose an author who they feel passionate about, or who they would like to find more about in the course of your language classes and present to the group, and whose major work they will try to read and review in writing. The freedom of choice is a powerful motivator in itself for the learners and there is no need to worry if not all of the authors on your list are covered by the group of students - remember, you are teaching English through literature, not literature as such, and as long as passion in reading is (re)kindled, the learning process (of learning the language through literature) will gradually unfold of its own accord in the direction and at the pace of the learner's own choice; the only requirement at this stage could relate to avoiding overlapping in student choices, so that everybody gets a personalised task and as a group they cover a variety of authors and titles (they later pool and share the information, teasing each other's curiosity). Students should be provided with some time to make the choice, as some of them will probably need to do some research
on who is who (and what they wrote about) to make their tasks easier and/or more enjoyable for themselves.

Once learners select authors and titles they will need some time to get organised and prepare for the two tasks: it is a good idea to schedule individual presentations over time, so that students are not bored by the sheer amount of the information presented. This will also allow you to choose some texts from the same authors and bring them in (on the same day when a student is presenting that very writer) with appropriate language activities based on them (e.g. dictations, dictoglosses, reading comprehension tasks, listening comprehension tasks\(^5\), tasks for summarising or retelling the text from a different point of view, relevant topic discussions, distranslations, cloze and error correction activities, etc.).

If your students are ICT fans, you might wish to use their interests to their interest and your advantage. For example, you can ask them to prepare a powerpoint presentation for the author they have chosen - it will facilitate their presentation and also help the class focus and listen more attentively while following it\(^6\). Time allowing, they could also be invited to bring in a film based on one of the author's works and show a part of it to the group (preferably one which they liked most for some reason and comment on it). There are other ‘small ways’ in which you can employ your students' digital skills to broaden their knowledge of literature and improve their communicative competence: here are some ideas I have tried in my classes:

- **‘Google it!’** (e.g. What is *Fahrenheit 451* and why is it so significant in Ray Bradbury’s novel of the same title?; Where does the title of the novel *The Catcher in the Rye* come from?)
- **‘See what the wiki says about it!’** (e.g. Where does the title of the novel *To Kill*...
a Mockingbird come from and what are the symbolic associations of the bird in the book?),

- ‘Do some online research on …’ (Is To Kill a Mockingbird the only novel by Harper Lee?; What else did Oscar Wilde write apart from The Picture of Dorian Gray? Did he write fairy tales or plays? What is The Nightingale about? What does the bird stand for there?),

- ‘Blog with your friends about it and tell me what they think of …’ (e.g. Do your online friends approve of the Great Gatsby – do they empathise with him or completely denounce him?; What is the place of women in modern day society? What do your friends think of strong women like Scarlet O'Hara (from Gone with the Wind) or Jane Eyre and Tess of the d’Urbervilles?);

- ‘Do the book quiz on … and share your result’ (e.g. if you are a ‘vampire’ fan, you can do a quiz on the Twilight series - questions focus on the books' plot and characters and evaluate how knowledgeable you are about these - and, to make it more fun, they give you a personalised certificate of your Twilight IQ which you can share on your page/profile).

2. ‘We aren't literary experts!’

It is a fact that even those students who otherwise read literary texts with enthusiasm and welcome the integration of literature in their language classes may feel intimidated by the task of presenting an author orally in class and then writing up a review of his/her book (with some degree of literary analysis involved in it) for homework. They may feel that they lack the literary expert skills for doing so and/or that the requirements demand a far more advanced level of language proficiency than their current one. In order not to frustrate the learners and/or avoid pushing them into the ‘copy & paste’ bog (in which technique there is very little learning going on), the FL teacher should provide the learners with the necessary guidance and frameworks for producing a truly creative personal response.
The following is a sample of the guidelines I give to my students for preparing their oral presentations (Figure 1) and two of the scaffolding tasks we do in preparation for their written book reviews (Figure 2). It should be noted here that we first try applying these guidelines in class by discussing and reviewing together a short story (e.g. *Witches’ Loaves* by O’Henry) and then continue exploiting the same checklist of literary analysis questions whenever appropriate as we read and discuss other excerpts of literary texts of more or less coherent nature.
PRESENTING A CLASSIC AUTHOR & HIS/HER WORKS
(guidelines for the oral presentation)

I. INTRODUCTION

1. Topic: say who you are going to talk about

2. Motivation: tell us how/why you chose your author [Maybe you have read some books by him/her and enjoyed them? Or you are generally interested in the genre/literary period/theme? Or you have seen a movie based on one of his/her works and that sparked your interest? Or perhaps a friend recommended it?]

3. Presentation Outline: briefly describe how you have structured your presentation and what main aspects you are going to cover in it (incl. their order - i.e. “First, I shall offer some information about …”, “Then I'll turn to …”, “Finally, I'll give you an idea about …”)

II. MAIN BODY

1. Biodata: give some biographical details about the author’s life and his/her professional development (focus on the people and events that left a lasting imprint on his/her literary works)

2. Historical Context: you’ll be better able to understand and appreciate literary works if you place them in their historical context and examine its influence on the writer’s ideas and techniques [NB: even the escape from reality counts!]

3. Literary Movement: tell us what literary movement the writer is a representative of and how it is reflected in his/her works (it may influence their choice of topics, point of view [e.g. 1st person narrative vs 3rd person narrative], setting, character description, plot development, style and other literary techniques); say how this writer compares to/differs from other representatives of the same literary period/movement

4. Main literary works: the writer you have chosen may be a novelist, but he/she may also have written poems, plays, film scripts, etc.; they might also have tried their hand at different literary genres, so first offer an overall picture of their “complete works” and then give the titles of a few main works by the author; last but not least include a brief synopsis of their major, emblematic works emphasizing what made them so influential and/or memorable [make sure you include the recommended title from the author list ☺]

III. CONCLUSION

1. Summary of main points: tell us what you have told us

2. Offer personal opinion and/or evaluation of the author and his works [Would you recommend that your classmates also read his/her works and why?]

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Figure 1. Guidelines for the oral presentation
**WRITING A BOOK REVIEW**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. Author and title</th>
<th>D. Language</th>
<th>H. Point of view</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B. Central conflict</td>
<td>E. Other elements</td>
<td>I. Setting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Characters &amp; characterization</td>
<td>F. Personal evaluation</td>
<td>J. Theme</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. You write a book review, your task begins not with writing__2__ with reading and understanding the book. Follow these guidelines when studying the book 3 the classic author you have chosen:

1. Read the book through quickly to find 4 what happens in the plot — you will need that information for its summary later.

2. Meanwhile, look 5 any unfamiliar words whose meaning you cannot derive from context in 6 dictionary.

3. Read the book again, this time concentrating 7 how the writer has created its key features (see below) — you will need this information for your critical appreciation 8 the book.

4. Refer 9 the book for evidence as you analyze 10 evaluate its main elements.

**HOW TO ANALYZE THE BOOK**

The following list outlines the main elements of short stories and of longer fictional works as well. Once you have made pre-writing notes about these aspects of the book, you are prepared to think about how each contributes to the meaning of the narrative.

1. Who wrote the book? What is its title? Does the title suggest the subject or theme of the book?

2. What are the main events in the story? What happens during each part of the plot: the exposition, the inciting incident, the development, the climax, the resolution, and the denouement? [Try to draw a cognitive mind map of the plot.] Does the story use special plot techniques such as foreshadowing, flashbacks, suspense, or a surprise ending?

3. What is the central conflict? Is the conflict external? Is the protagonist pitted against another character, society, or nature? Or is the conflict internal? Is there a struggle between different emotions and feelings within the protagonist?

4. What is the place, time, and social situation of the setting? What details create the setting? What is the setting’s significance? Does it contribute to the conflict or mood?

5. Who is the protagonist? Is there an antagonist? If so, who is the antagonist? Who are the other major and minor characters? What roles do they play? What do the readers learn about each character’s appearance, background, personality, actions, words, relationships, motivations, conflicts, and changes?

6. Who is the narrator, or storyteller? Is the narrator omniscient or limited, first person or third? Is the narrator subjective or objective, reliable or unreliable?

7. Does the narrative contain figures of speech such as hyperbole, irony, metaphor, or simile? Does the story contain special structural devices of sound or sentence composition such as onomatopoeia or parallelism?

8. What is the theme — the story’s insight or central idea? How is the theme expressed?

9. Is the story addressed to a specific audience? If so, who? Is the book an example of a specific genre such as fantasy, science fiction, psychological fiction, mystery fiction, detective fiction, or regional fiction?

10. Aspects 1 to 9 of the analysis should provide a fairly objective picture of what your book is about, allowing your colleagues (who haven’t read it to appreciate it for themselves). In the final part of your book review provide your own personal opinion of the book. Did you enjoy reading it? Why? Would you recommend it to your colleagues? Why?

Figure 2. Preparing for the written book review (adapted from Thompson et al., 1991)
3. ‘Literature belongs to the past!’

This is a fair observation and it may be quite a daunting experience for many language learners to dive in at the deep end of the ocean of FL literature and try to swim across without drowning, but come out of it linguistically empowered and culturally enriched. Admittedly, literature was not created for the purposes of language teaching: if anything, it was meant to entertain the general public - very much like popular sitcoms or blockbusters today. So, FL teachers may be better advised to start in the present - with something thematically more modern and relevant to the learners, written by contemporary writers in an everyday style of language - and then, slowly wind back to the past, leaving the initiative to the learners themselves and making it very much a cooperative team effort where every student contributes to the common pool of literary knowledge (see the discussion in section 3.1 above).

To give you a feel of what may be a good starter, here is a sequence of activities designed on a modern ‘light’ literary text (Figure 3): variety of tasks is important (i.e. do not just read texts and complete traditional reading comprehension tasks - if you want students to pay attention to their form and learn the language, do ‘unexpected’ things with them, like distort their form in different ways and get learners ‘to fix it’), as well as splitting the text in easy ‘instalments’. You could kick the session off by asking the students to share what their favourite sitcom is and why. You will probably notice that the texts are usually cut off on ‘cliff-hangers’ - this is done on purpose: after learners do the first task and you check it for language performance, you may invite them to speculate what they think will happen in the next ‘episode’ and whether they empathise with any of the characters. You may play the ‘devils role’ and provoke them to react, by offering an extreme version of plot development.
Open the brackets and put the verbs in the right form:

If Jeffrey (not have) a splitting headache that night, he (not find) the letters, and (never know) that his wife was cheating on him. But he (have) a headache, and after (lie) restlessly in bed for over an hour, he (go) search for aspirin in Patricia’s drawers. She (keep) all sorts of drugs there, he knew; she (do) so ever since she (have) her first breakdown, and the doctors (start) stuff her with medication.

He (be) alone that night; she (go out) hours ago, (say) it (be) her girls’ night out. Every Friday (be) a girls’ night out, and up to that moment he (believe) her. In fact, he (feel) glad she met her friends once a week, even if only (play) cards and (talk) nonsense. She (deserve) some fun, he had thought.

As he (go) through the various boxes and jars of medicine, he suddenly (come upon) the envelope. Why would she hide an envelope there, he (wonder). Hesitantly at first, because he (never go) through her personal belongings before, he (open) it, and a photograph (fall out).

Fill in the blanks with one word only:

It was a colour photograph ... a smiling young man with blue eyes and fair ..... He was .... swimming trunks and was standing ..... the beach, leaning ..... some kind of palm tree. Wonderfully, Jeffrey ..... the picture around and read the writing on its ..... . "With love, always", the words screamed ..... him, "to the loveliest woman I have ..... known". Jeffrey dropped the picture ..... if it was full of germs, and then saw the letters in the envelope.

The oldest one was dated more than six months ..... and began with "My dear Patricia": the most recent ..... was from the day ..... yesterday, and was addressed ..... "The love of my life". The ..... 's name was Tony.

With shaking hands, Jeffrey ..... reading the letters in chronological ..... . They had met ..... the swimming pool, and Tony had supposedly fallen in love ..... her ..... first sight. From the ..... beginning he had known she was something special, he wrote. He knew there was a considerable age ..... between them, but that didn't matter ..... him ..... all. He just knew he ..... not live without her.

Their first afternoon ..... the motel had been heaven. He hadn't been ..... to sleep all week after that, just thinking of her. And the following life without her. And he knew she ..... his feelings. Couldn't she talk ..... her husband, tell him the truth and ..... a divorce?

A red-hot rage ..... Jeffrey. The young bastard clearly wanted to get his ..... on Patricia's money, and the old fool had ..... his shameless lies.

Correct any mistakes that you can find:

She came from one of the most rich families in the country, and she was only child, so she was inherited everything when her father died on the age of 91. Much houses, shares in all the best companies, a several-million-dollars yearly sum for pocket money. Jeffrey had once asked her if she actually knew how much money she did have, and she had just been laughing at his question and inquired was that the reason he married her. He hadn't spoke to her for days afterwards, and she finally had to come and apology. She said she is sorry, and that she knew he loved her deep and true.

And now here she was, having affair with one brainless, money-hungry beach-boy. No, he wasn't brainless at whole; on the contrary, he was clever and sly, and he had caught her in her trap.

Translate into English:

Нима да допусна това да стане, помисли си Джофер. Беше й последна целина си живот и толкова много грижи, беше повесела толкова много — болестите й, неловката й руствост, навика й да го ужива пред обещанията му приятелите. Но това последно ужение нямаше да изтърпи, реши той, и изведнъж се почуди как всъщност бе изтърпял всичко това през всичките тези години.

Качи се в спалнята, която от години не деличка — след като тя го обичаше, че хърка прехлебно сиенца и че винаги краде завинагите. Измъкна пръстите дълбоко вътре в колцото на която някога бе принадлежала на банката на Патриция. Избъкнаха от нея, завади към силен дул във въздуха.

Наля си малко уиски за кураж, седна на стълбата и се рови в пушката в потна дъга, зачака.

Finish the story, using as many of the words from the list — or their derivatives — as possible:

beg threaten forgive delight remorse accuse scream embrace joke split nap caress dream extinguish collapse malice enable crash smash stab claim confront deny offensive shrink soak ridiculous inferior destroy sparkle bite hound assault struggle reliable

Charades: Guess the movie! Mime the words from these film titles (one by one) to explain them to your team members in a way that they can guess them:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Team A</th>
<th>Team B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Four Weddings and a Funeral&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;Lost In Translation&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;The Sound of Music&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;The Silence of the Lambs&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Figure 3. The starter sequence of activities

If you wish, you could expend the suspense and do each of the tasks on a different day and then, before starting the new activity, get the students to either retell the story so far as it is, or to offer a summary of the events from the perspective of
different characters (e.g. Patricia or Tony). Never forget to make language learning fun and leave enough room for personal interpretation and creativity - adults are not any different from kids.

In addition to engaging the students in doing classroom activities based on modern literature texts (like the one above), FL teachers could capitalise on the potential of contemporary literature when assigning individual project work as well: they could invite each of the learners to choose a book of a certain length and on a theme that they find interesting/entertaining or could relate to, written by a contemporary writer who is a native speaker of English and read it in the original. Learners may be encouraged to keep a diary as they read their books and take note of the vocabulary items and grammar structures that they learn and/or revise, as well as comment on the interesting cultural facts that they come across in it, the development of the plot, the characters and/or on the author's style of language. The final aim of the project would be for each learner to be able to present their book and its author, review its content briefly and do some impromptu language analysis (based on a sizable excerpt from the book) to demonstrate their command of vocabulary and grammar structure. Again, in order to scaffold the learners' performance and facilitate their way through the book, the FL teacher may set up a Book Club and regular structured book appreciation seminars for the learners to present various aspects of their books and talk about what they have learnt from reading them.

Here are two examples of the frameworks used to structure the book appreciation seminars (Figure 4.1 & Figure 4.2):
THE BOOK CLUB: CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE

BOOK APPRECIATION Seminar 1 - Questions
(based on the first 30 pages of your book)

1. How did you choose your book? [Maybe you have read other books by the same author? Or you have already seen the movie the book is based on?]

2. Say a few words about the author, if you can.

3. Where and when is the story set? Do you learn anything about the people, customs and life of the country or region in which the book is set? What about the political or social events of that time?


5. Briefly describe the characters that have been introduced so far. Are they good or evil? Do you empathize with any of the characters? If so, why?

6. Choose 3 vocabulary items to teach to your classmates (include the word’s pronunciation and explanation in English, as well as some synonyms and/or antonyms and its BG equivalent; make sure you provide one or two examples of its use in context and list possible derivatives).

Figure 4.1 Structuring the Book Appreciation seminars
A final word of advice: if you have to formally assess the learners in your English through literature course, a similar form of continuous assessment, where the grade is multi-componential encompassing the appraisal of various language competences as displayed by the learners in a wide range of task formats, may be both more valid and far less stressful for the students.
Conclusion

For adult students at intermediate to advanced level of proficiency in the target language, literature (with both capital and small ‘l’) provides a rich source of authentic language material over a wide range of registers, which - if effectively exploited by the FL teacher - can help students improve their communicative competence and acquire a nativelike command of English: they learn the linguistic features of modern language use (both authentic and idiomatic in its essence) and become aware of how English is used for communication in real-life settings, they begin reading more analytically and critically, listening more attentively, speaking more clearly and fluently, and writing more precisely and creatively. Literature also opens a window to the culture of the target language and helps learners develop a better understanding of ‘otherness’ and enhances their intercultural competence. Literary texts are open to different interpretation - they provoke a more personal response in the learners, engage them emotionally, and motivate them to participate more actively in the classroom activities and get more personally and responsibly involved in homework assignments, exploring, discovering, creating.

If the FL teacher manages to (re-)kindle that passion for reading literature in his/her students by carefully scaffolding their first steps and turning the encounter into a positive learning experience, he/she will empower them to become autonomous language learners, set on their own unique journey through the compelling world of verbal art and target-language culture.
Notes

1 Graded readers are books that have had their language simplified to help FL learners read them.

2 Calligrammes (or "beautiful writing") is word coined by French poet Guillaume Apollinaire in 1918 for his innovative format of poems which combined poetic writing with drawing mirroring the topic of the poem. It is also known as "visual", "concrete" or "shape" poetry. The mouse-tail in Lewis Carroll's *Alice's Adventure in Wonderland* might be considered a shaped poem.

3 In some teaching contexts FL teachers may not be in position to choose the literature (writers and/or titles) to be incorporated in their syllabus; but if they do have this opportunity of selecting all or some of the literary texts to be used in their language classes, FL teachers should take into account the needs, motivation, interests, cultural background and language level of their students.

4 "Never do what you can get your students to do." (Mark Andrews) - the knowledge they gain in the process of doing this task will be far more lasting than any presentation of yours on the same topic, no matter how comprehensive, intriguing or passionate.

5 There are many audio books available now on the internet (in YouTube), some of the recordings have been adapted to suit learners of different language levels (e.g. "Learn English Through Stories").

6 Remember to always give the listeners a task in order to engage them and make sure they profit from their classmate's presentation. I give them a checklist to complete and evaluate the presentation they have just heard - both in terms of content and form; this is always followed by a Q-&-A session led by the presenting student and a whole group discussion, elaborating on the points raised in the student's presentation.

7 A cliff-hanger is a situation in a story or a film that makes you feel excited because you are uncertain what will happen next and you have to wait for the next ‘episode’ to find out.
References


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Variety of activities (and approaches) in teaching English to young learners

Zhivka Ilieva

Introduction

Children need variety. Various activities activate various types of memory and intelligence, illustrate different approaches. The ones most suitable for young learners are Total Physical Response (TPR) activities, storytelling and extensive reading, the lexical approach adapted for children, storybuilding and making a book.

TPR

Children love movement and play. Teachers need TPR activities, especially with younger learners, in order to attract and keep their attention, to provide a fast change of activities and allow them to relax, to channel or renew energy. After short action rhymes teachers often hear ‘Once more!’ or ‘Again!’ This way young learners learn the short phrases by heart. These phrases are learned in association with the corresponding movements. Thus, we activate various types of intelligence (see Gardner 1993) and memory (see Trifonov 1996), which contributes to longer memory retention. Leone Dyson claims that TPR activities are accessible, lively, attractive and, last but not least, enjoyable both for teachers and learners. (see references)
Appropriate rhymes and songs are *Head and Shoulders, Clap your hands*, (*Teddy Bear, Turn Around, Me and You*). (see resources) I can offer the following short action rhyme which stirs the children for less than a minute:

Stand up!
Jump up!
Raise your hands
And turn around.
Clap your hands
And now sit down.

Children jump, they turn around, clap hands, sometimes they stamp feet and then we resume the other activities again: reading a book or vocabulary revision or, with young students, (1st and 2nd grade) writing or colouring activities. As Bowen states, short TPR activities are ‘highly motivating and linguistically purposeful’. (see references)

Activities that could be combined with TPR are storytelling and/or reading books.

**Storytelling and extensive reading**

Reading books in this case is to be preferred to or combined with storytelling because of the presence of a real book. Bamford and Day (1997) view extensive reading as a communicative approach pointed at text meaning, they claim that authentic texts are examples of communication between the author and the audience. Krashen (2009) accentuates that this type of reading contributes to the acquisition of first, second and foreign language. Reading various books each time prepares children for extensive reading, builds interest in foreign picture books and
in reading books in general. We can use a few books in succession and here we can offer the following books: e.g. *The Best Bed* (Litton and Miller 2012), *Millie the Millipede* (Ranson 2013), and a youtube clip of the *Very Hungry Caterpillar* (see resources); or the monster group: *There’s a Monster Under my Bed* (Robinson 2015) and *Mess Monsters* (Shoshan 2008).

First we start with reading, then we continue with lexical approach activities during and after the second reading. These activities include developing intonation or using certain expressions.

**The Lexical Approach**

Reading authentic picture books to children we provide chunks, even whole sentences they can later use. Moreover, Lewis (2000) states that it is good to use suitable texts and to point the learners’ attention to lexical units useful in their context. Children’s books are familiar to children in their first-language context, they are attractive because of the pictures and the design.

The programme started with the book *The Best Bed*. The expressions we paid attention to are:

*Was having a lovely / wonderful day*

At the beginning of the next lesson, while discussing the weather, we practised *a sunny / cloudy / foggy day* using flash cards and the following pictures:
sunny  cloudy  misty

sunny  cloudy  foggy

*a charming / magnificent / better view*

The complex sentence provides a few slots for replacing:

```
Pip thinks  he knows  who might  sleep / be here
I think  I know  who might  dis/appear
You think  you know  who might  come?
what  will happen
where  to find his bag
```

This is followed by intonation practice.

With the next sentence animals and other creatures the students like are used:

```
His  spider  friend  who  has no fear
Her  fox  dragon  alien

Is so big
Is so sad
Is so happy
```
Other phrases that could be practiced:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>He / She isn’t sure that</th>
<th>they’ll be right</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>We aren’t sure that</td>
<td>they’ll be here</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>they’ll come</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>they’ll disappear</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

He needs to  
rest his aching feet / arms / head
stop and rest

Late that night easily becomes early next morning.

There are also phrases which, without being specially accentuated, are learned after the book is read many times:

It starts to rain and ....
To catch sight of ...
Wants to ...
took .... away

After reading the book and practising certain phrases the students are read the next book. In our programme this is Millie the Millipede. Through it the students practice the following expressions:

It’s a rainy night / day.

When she / he eats, her / his body begins to change
’s happy, hair
’s angry, eyes begin to change
She’s just had a … and a…  practise two types of food, e.g. a cake and (a cup of) hot chocolate.

It is such a pretty wonderful sight.

The students learn the following phrases:

It’s very dark
A little bit different
A little bit strange
Where daisies grow
Under the fruit trees the air smells so sweet.

After listening to the above two books, the students watch *The Very Hungry Caterpillar* on youtube and acquire:

But he was still hungry

| one piece of | cherry / apple pie |
| chocolate cake |

| one slice of | cheese |
| salami |
That night he had a toothache, etc.

He / She felt much better

Now he wasn’t hungry any more.

The second group of stories starts with There’s a Monster Under my Bed. The phrases that can be acquired are:

- under the bed
- on the table
- in the cupboard
- in the wardrobe
- in the cellar

Get louder / quieter / shorter / longer / taller.

I’m sure you’d taste horrible / wonderful / delicious.

Do you have something
- nicer to eat?
- better to listen to?
- sweet to watch?
- nice to drink?

Tasty cookies / candies / food

Naughty monster / fox / mouse / boy / girl

Fridge / Plate / Cupboard / Box / Bag full of fresh food
Oh, what delicious, tasty treats! Can be divided into two sentences:

Oh, what delicious + food and Oh, what tasty ... potatoes

It wasn’t me / him / her, mum

The monster
The toy was nowhere to be seen
My book
My brother

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I want</th>
<th>this</th>
<th>room</th>
<th>tidied up before</th>
<th>breakfast</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>you</td>
<td>cupboard</td>
<td></td>
<td>dinner</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>lunch</th>
<th>you go</th>
<th>you go to bed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

You keep getting me in trouble

talking
working

He said crossly / happily / angrily / sadly

Said the monster feeling a little embarrassed
sad
happy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>it better</th>
<th>it thinner</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

What can I do to make more interesting
The sentence *There are some cookies in the cookie jar* can be a start for the game *Who took the cookies from the cookie jar?* (see references).

The second book of this group is *Mess Monsters*. Two sentences can be practised:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>One day</th>
<th>said that</th>
<th>was a mess</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mummy</td>
<td>my room</td>
<td>my house</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>daddy</td>
<td>my bag</td>
<td>my cupboard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grandma</td>
<td>grandpa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the teacher</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The horrible monsters frowned at each other
   me / you / him / her us
   my mother

Expressions that the students acquire from the two monster books:

B. listened as he heard footsteps coming towards the door
   Please don’t eat me!
   I’m starving!
   I suppose you can have one.
   What’s going on in here?
   I see.

B. was fed up
   The monster looked around the room at all of the mess.
   I just wanted to make some fun.
   It’s in quite a mess.
   It’ll be done in no time.
   At top speed

   It’s better that way.
   What I didn’t know was that ....
   Enough was enough.
   So I shouted! Oi! Stop!
   They’re my things you’re breaking.
   I want you to stop.
   I’ll clean and I’ll tidy! To send you away.
   They knew they’d lose in a fight with MY mother!
   I want to make sure that they never come back!
Some phrases are met in more than one stories:

As white as snow
As orange as the fruit on the tree
As quick as flash

In the different stories the students meet different uses and different meanings of the same word:

He started to look for some food (The Very Hungry Caterpillar) – look, verb
He decided to take a look (There’s a Monster Under my Bed) - look, noun

We spare ten minutes at the end of the English lesson at least once a week to read a book and practise expressions. Finally, the students make a story and a book of their own. Usually, this is a group activity.

**Storybuilding and making a book**

Storybuilding and making a book combines project work with an integrative approach. This is a book made by a 4th-grade student:
This book makes integrative, or cross-curricular, links with the following subjects: Man and Nature, Arts and Crafts. The students make the book the way they want, using techniques of their preference.
In this example, the students have used chunks from the books read:

One sunny day
a little naughty spider
You, naughty boy
Oh, my naughty boy
started to **call his name**
started to **blow**
it starts to rain
I’m sure I’ll taste horrible
as blue as the sky
as yellow as lemons
as dark as the night.
I want you to stop this!
I just wanted to have some fun
and it flew away at top speed.

This proves Hoey’s (2015: 15) opinion: ‘as these encounters increase in number, we build a mental profile of the contexts that the word (or another bit of language) occurs in; we then draw upon this profile when we use the word ourselves.’

**Conclusion**

With young learners it is important to provide: movement and action; enjoyment from books; end product (crafts work, project work); cross-curricular, or integrative links; variety; and to develop love for books.
References


Resources

Clap your hands (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZBjFYW_TrdM)
Head and Shoulders (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=h4eueDYPTlg)
Teddy Bear, Turn Around (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7X0Q4F--gOs)
The Very Hungry Caterpillar read by Eric Carle (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vkYmvxP0AJI)
Who took the cookies from the cookie jar? http://supersimplelearning.com/songs/original-series/two/who-took-the-cookie/

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European cross-cultural competency for foreign languages

Abstract. The paper is about cross-cultural competency for foreign languages in the context of the Common European Framework of Reference for languages, and the European Language Portfolio. Learning about different cultures, attitudes, perspectives and ways of living should be included in the curriculum and respect for differences should be encouraged.

Keywords: multicultural education, language competence, the Common European Framework of Reference for languages, Language policy of the European Union, Multilingualism in the European Union

Междукултурна компетентност

Междукултурната компетентност е способността да се общува успешно с хора от други култури, в по-тесен смисъл способността за двустранен задоволителен контакт с представителите на другите култури. Тази способност може да бъде създадена още в детските години, или развита и насърчавана по-късно. Много често това развитие се обозначава като междукултурно учене. Основата за успешна междукултурна комуникация е развитието на емоционална компетентност и междукултурна чувствителност. Междукултурно компетентен е човек, способен да приеме и осъзнае специфичните за всеки индивид преживявания, мисли, чувства и действия. Създаването на опит и умения в по-ранна възраст е освободено от
Предразсъдъци и е белязано от готовност за разширяване на междукултурната компетентност.

Много често като синоним на междукултурната компетентност се използва транскултурната компетентност. При употребата на това понятие следва да се има предвид по-сило подчертаните културно обхващащи компетенции или социалната компетентност.

 За успешната среща с културните стандарти на други страни и хора човек се нуждае от умения и знания. В литературата по проблема авторите не са единни какви точно, но се е наложил като най-приемлив 3-факторният модел на Хамер, Гудикунст и Вийзман /1977/, доразширен от Щеламанс/2007/. Интеркултурната компетентност според модела се състои от три компонента – интеркултурни знания (когнитивен), интеркултурна чувствителност (афективен) и интеркултурна активност (поведенчески ориентиран). Първият елемент включва общокултурно и културно-специфично разбиране. Към общокултурното разбиране се причисляват културното съзнание или знания за културната зависимост от собствения и чуждия начин на мислене, действие и поведение. Културно-специфичното разбиране включва познания за чуждата култура, нейните ценностни, норми и традиции, както и за правилата й на комуникация. Описаните знания са основата за придобиване на интеркултурна компетентност.

Вторият, афективен, компонент сигнализира за положителна настройка към чуждата култура, толерантност, способност за предотвратяване на страх и стрес при евентуален интеркултурен контакт и уважение към нравите и обичаите на другата, различната култура.
Последният компонент, поведението, изразява мотивацията и интереса за контакт с хора от чуждата култура. Конкретно тук биха могли да се изброят фактори като приятелство и учтивост, както и емпатия към другата култура, но най-важното е развитието на способности за подходящи стратегии на действие при интеркултурна интеракция. (Stellmanns 2007:24).

**Културните различия – предпоставки, оценка и примери**

Всеки човек има своята история, своя живот и също така, в по-голяма или по-малка степен, своята култура (вкл. географска, етническа, морална, етическа, религиозна, политическа, историческа), респективно културна принадлежност или културна идентичност. Културната идентичност, респ. националната идентичност, не може да се разглежда само като принадлежност към определени общи етнични норми и стойности, тъй като тя регламентира и правила за поведение и отношение към „чуждото“.

В междучовешките контакти това естествено се проявява при хората от различни културни общности, континенти и страни, но също така и от различни бизнес среди, различен пол или малцинствени групи (т. нар. субкултури). Понякога и в самото семейство са валидни различни културни ценности. Чувствителността и самоувереността са основни предпоставки за изграждането на междукултурна компетентност, както и за проява на разбиране за други начини на поведение и мислене, изразяване на ясна позиция, разбиране, готовност за промяна в модела на възприемане на различията, където е необходимо и възможно. Става въпрос за една ситуативно-пригодена хармоничност между:
1. Знания и опит за общуване с други култури, лица, нации, видове поведение и т.н.;
2. Способност за вживяване, емпатия, възприемане на различното, разбиране към чувствата и нуждите на другите;
3. Самоувереност, познаване на собствените сили, слабости, нужди и емоционална стабилност.

В анализа на културните признаци (Holzbrecher, А. 2004: 27) се прави разлика между различни културни измерения и аспекти:

- индивидуализъм (индивидуални стимули) и колективизъм (групови стимули);
- феминитет (решаване на конфликти на принципа на равнопоставеност, обща отговорност и качество на живот) и маскулинитет (решаване на конфликти по правилата на честната борба, ориентация в конкурентна среда);
- преодоляване на несигурността (необходимост от или съпротива срещу формализма);
- диференциация на властта (фактическа или хипотетична между нивата в йерархията);
- монохронни (фиксиращи време, „едно след друго”) и полихронни (едновременност на много събития);
- структурни признаци (напр. ценностна ориентация, преживяване във времето и пространството, изборност на възприятията, невербална комуникация и примери за поведение). По тези и други по-разширен критерии могат да бъдат обхванати, анализирани и в по-голяма или по-малка степен съвместени в комбинации различни страни, региони, бизнес предприемачества, социални групи, но също така и отделни личности.
В чуждоезиковата дидактика съществуват различни представи за съдържанията, темите, методите и целите на междукulturalното учене. Открояват се две основни концепции:

1. Междукултурното учене дава познания за немскоговорящите страни. Към тях принадлежат информация за географията, политиката, историята, икономиката, обществото и културата. За обучението това означава междукултурно учене, успоредно протичащо с езиковата работа. Учебният процес се стреми към научаване на дати и факти и посредством това формирането на трайни знания;

2. Междукултурното учене е в подкрепа на процеса на усвояване на езика. Позицията, която се застъпва е, че за изучаването на един език са необходими и знания за културата и обществото. Още при ученето на чуждите думи например се установява, че значенията на думите не са идентични винаги в собствения и чуждия език. У обучавания се пробужда чувствителност за културните различия. Междукултурното учене, следователно, е интегрирано като съставна част на чуждоезиковото обучение. Цел на междукултурното учене при това не е само да се трупат знания от фактите, но да се събуди любопитство и се развият умения за общуване с чуждата култура. Споделят се не само езиково-дидактични възгледи, но и образователно-политически, за да се обединят езиковото и междукултурното учене. Чуждоезиковото обучение допринася за освобождаване от предразсъдъци и подпомага междукултурното разбиране. Изучаването на чуждия език много често се случва извън реалните езикови ситуации и далеч от страната и хората на езика-цел. Извън всяко съмнение е, че използването на автентични материали оказва силно въздействие. Понятието „междукulturalна комуникация” не е съвсем ново. Изследователи на различни дисциплини - психолози, социолози,
етнологи и езиковеди – го използват през 60-те и 70-те години на миналия век като разбиране между представителите на различни културни кръгове и нации, а някои го правят и свой предмет на изследване. Въз основа на тези изследователски резултати, езиковедите насочват своето внимание през последните години върху факта, че способността за разбиране означава повече от правилното използване на граматичните и синтактически правила на един език. Техният интерес се концентрира нарастващо върху връзката между езика и културата. Това води до ново подреждане на учебните цели в чуждоезиковото обучение, те биват и по нов начин определени, за да се насърчава способността за разбиране, наричана по-късно междукултурна компетентност. В по-широк смисъл междукултурното учене добива ново значение: езиковото и културно учене се свързват в едно цяло, за да развият комуникативните способности на обучавания при срещата му с другите култури. Междукултурното учене в чуждоезиковото обучение получава задачата да подготви обучаваните за среща с говорещите други езици във и извън границите на собствената страна. По-глобалната цел е да се разбере по-добре чужди начин на живот и норми на поведение и да се създават „мостове на разбирателството“. Опитът да се разберат другите обхваща едновременно и заниманието със собствената култура и общество. Обучаваните се подтикват да погледнат по нов начин и оценят като сравнение своята с чуждата култура. Това означава представите на обучаваните за език и култура да бъдат променени чрез съответни нови концепции за преподаване. Този процес на учене е ориентиран с това към концепция за „себеоткриване“. Интернационализацията в бизнес отношенията и бързо растящите възможности за комуникация в света водят до срещи с много хора от различни нации и правят по този начин сблъсъкът със собствената и най-вече с чуждата култура една необходимост. Толерантност и готовност за разбиране са основните предпоставки за това. Миграционните движения през 30-те години

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на миналия век в Западна Европа доведоха до необходимостта от възприемане на мултикултурността на обществото и да се научим да живеем в такова. Как практически да стане това междукултурно учене в обучението по чужд език? За съжаление, както преди, така и в по-ново време няма създадена цялостна и систематизирана концепция за това как да се изгради междукултурна компетентност на обучаваните. Повечето учени, занимаващи се с чуждоезикова дидактика, са съгласни с това, че традиционните форми на изучаване на чуждия език трябва да бъдат допълнени от „експериментиращо учене” (Michael Legutke 1989:103). Пак там пише „Последователно в центъра на дидактическите разсъждения се избутват съдържания и форми на учене и преподаване, които да активизират обучавания тук и сега по време на урока по чужд език...”. Волфганг Буцкам през 1990 година стига до извода, че поне всички са единни в следното: „че чуждите езици да се учат и преподават с разумната помощ на майчиния език и внимателното залагане на граматиката, но преди всичко обаче на комуникацията, отколкото и само на подготовени предварително упражнения.” както и „на много нерешени проблеми при прилагането на тези релативно абстрактни принципи в конкретната практика на преподаване....”/Butzkamm 1990:74/.

Чуждите езици често се упражняват в неавтентични ситуации. Немалка част от обучаваните никога не получават възможността да обсъхват на чуждия език извън класната стая, но въпреки това те познават целите на езиковите упражнения и ролевите игри. Фиктивните ситуации на действие са неизбежни за развитието на комуникативната компетентност. Остане ли се обаче само с такива симулиращи комуникация ситуации, чуждият език никога няма да се превърне в истински „медийум на разбирателство”. Чуждоезиковото обучение се нуди да от „нахлуване в истинския свят”, ако цели създаване на траен интерес у обучаваните. Какво би попречило на изучаващите чужд език да
бъдат оставени да действат в реални комуникативни ситуации? Необходимо е да имат информацията за чуждата култура и общество, но и да могат сами да я интерпретират. Това изисква предварително формиране на способност и готовност за „внедряване” в живота на другия. Една такава нова перспектива и подход улесняват придобряването на многостранни познания за собствената и чуждата култура. Методът на промяна на перспективата често е използван като художествено средство за получаване на т. нар. „ефект на отчуждаването”, т.е. прокарване на едно успешно чувство на несигурност по отношение на традиционните културни явления, задаване на въпроси пред самия себе си за утвърдените вече възгледи на общество. Примери биха могли да бъдат посочени започвайки от литературно-претенциозните Lettres Persanes от Монтескьо и стигайки до първите резултати от американската телевизионна поредица със скептичния извънземен Алф.

От друга страна, обучаваните трябва да бъдат и в състояние да дават диференцирана информация за своя собствен начин на живот и микросвят. Свързването на тези два начина на разглеждане е неразривна съставна част на междукултурната подготовка. Тази подготовка осмисля необходимостта от промяна от „външната” към” вътрешната” перспектива (Edelhof, 1987: 119), за да се изгради междукултурна компетентност.

Междукултурното учене изисква естествено толерантност, отвореност и готовност за привикване към „новото” не само от обучаваните, но и от преподавателя. Той от своя страна е необходимо да прибави и постоянно самоусъвършенстване и квалификация, т.е. интерес към своята култура, но и интерпретацията й в полза на обучаваните. „За да се стимулира способността за критичност у обучавания, то решението е в съпоставителния подход. Това поставя пред преподавателя високи изисквания за непрекъснат диалог с
културата на чуждия език, който преподава, но под водещото влияние на своята собствена.” (Husemann,1990:95).

Достигането на целите на междукултурното учене изисква отваряне „навън” на училището или университета и „вкарването” на различни аспекти от живота на чуждоговорящата страна. С други думи казано —извънучилищната реалност да бъде с по-осезаемо присъствие в обучението. Еделхоф (Edelhoff 1987: 119) разделя изискванията към преподавателя по отношение на настройките му, знанията и действията по следния начин:

-готовност да поеме активна роля в процеса на търсене на приносите на чуждоезиковото обучение към международните контакти на разбирателство и мир както в родната страна, така и извън нейните граници;
-знания за своята собствена страна и общество и как те се възприемат от останалия свят, какво се очаква и търси от тях самите;
-необходимост от развиване на собствените способности и умения, за да се осъществи връзката с околния свят извън неговите ограничени представи. Създаване на учебна обстановка, подпомагаща формирането на опитност и чувствителност към „различното” у обучавания.

Предварителните знания, включващи положителните и отрицателни представи за културата-цел, се при покриват и разширяват в диалог, както и диференцират. Преподавателят следва да подходи много предпазливо, тъй като твърде много „различно”, твърде много конфронтация биха довели до отблъскване и нетолерантност, доказано от опит.
Цитирана литература:


www.eurobarometer.europa.eu

www.sprachenportfolio.de
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Eating voices (representations of culture through food and FLT)

Irina Perianova

The lingua-didactic framework of foreign language teaching implies cross-cultural communicative competence. In fact, raising and then heightening cultural awareness is undoubtedly one of the main goals of foreign language teachers. Linking LC1 (source languaculture) and LC2 (target languaculture) seems to be far more important and relevant than focusing on language teaching only, without regard to the source culture and the target culture. (See, for example, Bennett 1997, Byram & Feng 2004, Dasli 2012, Liddicoat & Scarino 2013) Languaculture is a term meaning language that includes not only elements such as grammar and vocabulary, but also past knowledge, local and cultural information, habits and behaviours. The term was created by the American cognitive linguistic anthropologist Michael Agar (1994: 60). Some of the reasons highlighting the ultimate importance which should be attached to languaculture rather than just language per se in EFL are:

• Working internationally
• Interpreting the cultural other
• Cross-cultural communication in the context of student/teacher mobility
• Improving global competitiveness

When talking about the complex phenomenon embracing language and culture, it seems appropriate to discuss the concept of frames. Frame semantics was developed by Charles Fillmore (1976), who discovered that we think, largely
unconsciously, in terms of conceptual frames - mental structures that organise our thought, semantic fields based on common experiences. Frames are linked to both cognition and culture. Since they also possess pragmatic implications, they are highly relevant to language and literature teaching and learning. Undoubtedly, framing in social and political discourse is relevant not only to linguistics but to socio-cultural and political thought. The focus of my paper is food-related frames, which are often culture-specific. Cultures can almost be identified by what they eat and how they eat it. As Margaret Visser writes, ‘We are eating cultural history and value as well as family memories’ (Visser 1991: 30). The appropriate frames are ingrained in discourse. And to quote David Lodge:

We live in discourse as fish live in water. Systems of law consist of discourse. Diplomacy consists of discourse. The beliefs of the great world religions consist of discourse. And in a world of increasing literacy and multiplying media of verbal communication – radio, television, the Internet, advertising, packaging, as well as books, magazines and newspapers – discourse has come more and more to dominate even the non-verbal aspects of our lives. *We eat discourse* - mouthwatering menu-language, for instance, like ‘flame-roasted peppers drizzled with truffle oil’, *we drink discourse* (‘hints of tobacco, vanilla, chocolate and ripe berries in this feisty Australian Shiraz’); *we look at discourse* (those minimalist paintings and cryptic installations in galleries that depend entirely on curators’ and critics’ descriptions of them for their existence as art), we even have sex by enacting the discourses of erotic fiction and sex manuals. (Lodge 2008: 29, emphasis mine)

The above quotation illustrates an important similarity between the verbal discourse and the food discourse. As a reference to Deborah Tannen’s seminal book (1999/2007), which analyses verbal discourse, the title of this article is *Eating Voices*. 
A salient parallel between language and food may be provided by the following extract, where the use of the word ‘beginners’ highlights the obvious similarity. In Marion Keys *Sushi for Beginners* Jack brings Ashling a Bento box of what he calls ‘Sushi for Beginners kit, mostly vegetarian – avocado, cucumber, a little bit of crab’ and offers ‘to take her through it.’ (Keys, 2001: 488) When Jack and Ashling start dating, the sushi for beginners’ lessons continue:

On a small table, Jack arranged chopsticks and soy sauce and ginger and other paraphernalia, then with painstaking care he prepared the little rice parcels for Ashling: ‘It’s nothing too out there,’ he promised. ‘It’s sushi for beginners …’ (Ibid: 547)

Learning a new food culture, in this case sushi, seems like learning a new language. This is why, with Barbara Kirschenblatt, I believe that:

Not only does food organize and integrate a particularly complex set of sensory and social experiences in distinctive ways, but also (and perhaps for this reason) food experiences form edible chronotopes (sensory space-time convergences). The capacity of food to hold time, place, and memory is valued all the more in an era of hypermobility, when it can seem like everything is available everywhere all the time. Those sensory space-time convergences underlie social bonding when foods are shared that work mnemonically fusing the past, the present and the future as well as different places which may be far removed. (Kirschenblatt 2003: 2)

Awareness of the conceptual significance of food as social practice and a special type of discourse is important for teaching and learning languages because the familiar or unfamiliar foodways, food patterns and turns of phrases are an integral
part of one’s socio-cultural identity. This is why food descriptions and food-related practices are always included in course books on intercultural and cross-cultural communication and in culture studies curricula. (See, for example, Damen 1987; Byram 1989; Levine 1992; Valdes 1988). It should also be noted that phrases that prove the trickiest to decipher, even though the meaning of all the words may be clear, include references to meals, e.g. 'you must come for dinner', which foreigners tend to take as a direct invitation, but which is actually said out of politeness by many Britons and often does not result in an invite.

At the same time, it is not a secret that as a means of social interaction food is a way to bond and claim belonging to a group of people, a social class or even a nation, as well as a means of self-esteem and achievement of self-actualisation as well as a political statement (Perianova 2012).

Food staples differ in different cultures. Whereas bread as traditional breakfast food and accompaniment in many European countries is the centerpiece of life itself, as illustrated by many proverbs and idioms (e.g. not by bread alone, the bread and butter, break bread with somebody, breadwinner), rice is both breakfast and all-day food in many countries in Asia. Its importance cannot be overstated – for example, it is on the Indonesian coat of arms. *Have you eaten rice today* is a cliché greeting similar to *hello* in East Asia. Hence, breakfast frames are very different in different societies. Among English speakers, ‘breakfast’ may be used to refer to that meal or to a meal composed of traditional breakfast foods (such as eggs, fry-up, oatmeal and sausage) served at any time of day. ‘Full breakfast’ is regarded as a staple of traditional British and Irish cuisine. Variants include the full English, full Scottish, full Welsh and full Irish breakfasts and the Ulster fry (Wikipedia). Many British and Irish cafés and pubs serve the meal at any time as an ‘all-day breakfast’, which is somewhat of a paradox. Somerset Maugham quipped,
'To eat well in England you should have breakfast three times a day’. Currently, in Bulgaria on the menus of certain restaurants one may see ‘хем енд егз’ (ham and eggs) written in Cyrillic script to signify an elevated version of ‘smart modern foods’ as part of the diet of the respected culinary other (Perianova 2015: 248–266) and a component of new frames perceived as prestigious. This funny example of ‘globetalk’ (Georgieva 2011) as a denotation of well-known food allegedly transforms the familiar Bulgarian breakfast frames into something exotic.

At the same time, unlike in Bulgaria and on the Balkans in general, where cheese pies (phyllo pastries, banitsas, etc.) are a common breakfast staple, in the UK, cheese for breakfast would be an unusual choice, whereas coffee, tea and toast with marmalade are part of that semantic field. It is of interest that for those living in Europe breakfast foods listed in Wikipedia, for example, include both very familiar and totally unfamiliar items. Some examples of both, arranged alphabetically with and without explanations, are ackee, aloo paratha, bagels, areta, baked beans, chicken curry, croissant, deviled kidneys, eggs and brains, gliillades, halwa poori, Johnny cakes (a cornmeal flatbread), kedgeree, marmite, mohinga (a breakfast staple in Burma), upma (Shri Lankan Tamil breakfast semolina), mie goring and nasi goreng (Indonesian fried rice), simit (Turkish breakfast bread), tian mo (a traditional millet, peanut and tofu spices breakfast soup from the city of Jinan in China).

Significantly, holiday frames are very different from everyday frames. Some popular holiday dishes in English speaking countries include turkey with stuffing, mashed potatoes, gravy, squash, and pumpkin and mince pie for Thanksgiving in the USA, Christmas pudding in the UK; lamb with rosemary and mint for Easter, etc. Classroom discussions of holiday topics may refer to these dishes and their components.
Familiar British food icons include roast beef, spotted dick (typical old-fashioned British dessert), Worcester sauce, marmite, Stilton cheese, Yorkshire pudding, and, of course, fish and chips (bought in a chippy wrapped in a paper and eaten at home or in the street with salt and vinegar (Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture). Fish and chips, however, are generally viewed as a common everyday food without any implications of holiday lavishness or status. Another well-known British iconic eatery is a popular Indian around the corner – an Indian restaurant close-by. Culturally the term may provide a number of topics to discuss in the classroom, such as the historical connections between India and the UK and the rise in popularity of the food of the old colony. These links are also evidenced in the following description of the army ration pack which contains ‘a British favourite, tikka masala’:

The British pack is dotted with familiar brands from Kenco coffee and Typhoo tea to a mini bottle of Tabasco. The main courses include the British favourite, chicken tikka masala, and a vegetarian pasta. There’s also pork and beans for breakfast, and lots of sweets and snacks from trail mix to an apple ‘fruit pocket’ that looks like it might not be out of place in a school lunchbox. Plus packets of Polos and, of course, plenty of teabags. (the Guardian, February 19, 2014)

Of course, talking about British food is impossible without describing the quintessential social marker, tea. Stuart Hall, however, has shown that English tea - a signifier of ‘traditional’ English society - bears a mark of colonialism. Tea, which comes from former British colonies, is a culinary paradox. ‘Together with sugar and china it has played a central role in re-inventing the national identities of the metropolis and the practices of Englishness in everyday life.’ (Hall 1991: 27)
Yet, ritualistically tea has long served to provide comfort and security as illustrated by the mention of this drink in English literature, sometimes ironically. Saki’s hero in H.Munro’s (Saki) story *Tea* hated the afternoon tea ritual popular in England of that day thus representing a solo voice which ran counter to the general rule. As a single man in possession of a good fortune he was expected to marry because in Edwardian England it was thought that ‘a nab of good family’ had a duty to marry to please himself and his family and to satisfy the social conventions of the times. The idea of marriage was not disagreeable to James, nor was the idea of a Mediterranean honeymoon, but first, he had to propose:

His Mediterranean musings were interrupted by the sound of a clock striking the half-hour, half-past four. A frown of dissatisfaction settled on his face. He would arrive at the Sebastable mansion just at the hour of afternoon tea. Joan would be seated at a low table, spread with an array of silver kettles and cream-jugs and delicate porcelain teacups, behind which her voice would tinkle pleasantly in a series of little friendly questions about weak or strong tea, how much, if any, sugar, milk, cream, and so forth. Is it one lump? I forgot. You do take milk, don’t you? Would you like some more hot water, if it’s too strong?

..., thousands of women, at this solemn afternoon hour were sitting behind dainty porcelain and silver fittings, with their voices tinkling pleasantly in a cascade of solicitous little questions. Cushat Prinkly detested the whole system of afternoon tea. (Saki, 1993: 352)

Eventually, on the spur of the moment, Prinkley did not propose to Joan, but to Rhoda who, in contrast, pleased him by her natural conversation and picnic caviar (not tea!) which she asked him to help himself to. However, a month after the wedding he found Rhoda ‘seated at a low table spread with an array of silver kettles
and cream-jugs. There is a pleasantly tinkling note in her voice as she asks – More sugar?’ (Ibid). After the marriage the bonding patterns common for Rhoda’s class prevailed. Cushat Prinkley was stuck with the hateful ritual.

However, tea is a culture-specific drink. Until the last quarter of the 20th century the offer of tea in Bulgaria might have elicited the response, -I am not ill! – because tea, mostly herbal, was a popular medicinal remedy.

In the example that follows tea is intertwined with the national history of the USA: From the Governor’s wife, Simon accepts a cup of tea. He does not much like tea, but considers it a social duty to drink it in this country (Canada – IP); and to greet all jokes about the Boston Tea Party, of which there have been too many, with an aloof but indulgent smile. (Attwood 1997: 347)

For the Moslems tea is also a bonding drink but often, women are not supposed to drink it with strange men:

He sat down, across the table from her…. It was the first time he had sat down in her home. She thought about tea, but she was unsure what it would mean, to have tea with this boy. He was not a relative. (Ali 2004: 212)

Food idioms abound in all languages but the images conjured up by the same item often do not coincide. Thus even the most common (in our neck of the woods) fruit, say, apples, evoke different associations depending on where you live. Apples have bred a lot of positive metaphors in English, e.g., the apple of somebody’s eye, apple-pie order, etc. ‘As American as apple pie’ is a saying in the United States, meaning typically American although apple pies have been eaten since long before the European colonisation of the Americas. In the nineteenth and twentieth
centuries, apple pie became a symbol of American prosperity and national pride. The dish is commemorated in the phrase ‘for Mom and apple pie’ – an answer readily given by American soldiers in World War II, whenever they were asked why they were going to war. Some people consider pumpkin pie to be just as suggestively American. An article in the New York Times published in May 1902 declared that ‘No pie-eating people can be permanently vanquished’, because pie is the American symbol of prosperity and the ultimate home-baked treat. Its varying contents illustrate the calendar of the changing seasons (there’s a pie dominating each season); pie-eating festivals celebrate fun and food. The advertising potential of this patriotic connection led to the creation of the commercial jingle ‘baseball, hot dogs, apple pie and Chevrolet’ in the 1970s (Wikipedia).

The same goes for other fruit and vegetables which may be included in different socio-cultural frames. Thus, you are a cabbage and he is a real vegetable is negative in Anglo-Saxon context but (little) pumpkin is a caress in English. In Bulgaria as well as in Hungary, this versatile vegetable and its derivatives (тиква, тиквеник) imply an insult. Unlike England, beans in Bulgaria imply something easy – фасулска работа. (Cf. easy as a cake)

Both the use of certain words for some foods and meals and the actual food items are sometimes associated with class. See for example: ‘Tartufo was also supper dessert in Avice’s house, though she, to Marion’s mystification, called the meal dinner and the second course “pudding” ’ (Rendell 2008: 238). Marion, who is of working class origin, calls the evening meal ‘supper’ whereas Avice, who is upper-middle-class, insists on describing it as dinner. Hence, their different origin is apparent in the use of different vocabulary. See also the following extract:
‘Oh, don’t hurry off!’ my mother cried. ‘Stay for dinner! We are having shrimp salad. There’s lots.’

‘Thanks, but I already ate,’ I said.

‘... already ate? Ate dinner?’, she asked. She checked her watch. –‘It’s barely seven-thirty.’ –‘Right.’

‘Goodness, Barnaby. You’re so uncivilised!’ I looked at her. I said, - ‘How do you figure that?’ – ‘We always eat at eight,’ she said. –‘Dine,’ I told her. – ‘Pardon?’ –‘We always dine at eight. Isn’t that what you are supposed to say?’ She drew up taller in her seat. She said, –‘I don’t see.’- ‘Gram and Pop-Pop dine at five-thirty, however’, I said, ‘and what’s good enough for them is good enough for me.’ (Tyler 1999: 198).

In the extract above the linguistic discourse relating to the time of dinner highlights the class demarcation line between a well-to-do White Anglo-Saxon Protestant family of the father, and the mother’s parents’ working class immigrant background. Through the use of certain words the extract also illustrates the grandson’s rebellious nature. Significantly, St. Mennell traces the gradual change of the dinner hours in England – in the beginning of the 16th century dinner was normally served at 11 a.m. while in late 18th century the usual accepted time was 7-8 p.m. (Mennell, 1996: 130). Aristocracy was the first to embrace the change. In her uncompleted novel, The Watsons, Jane Austin describes the acute embarrassment suffered by the heroines due to the difference between the early hours of dinner for their modest country relatives and the late dinner time of the local nobility. (Ibid)

Consequently, people of different ethnicities and/or class or gender are expected to speak in a certain way, dress in a certain way and eat in a certain way because
these actions make up what is perceived as the Other’s identity. (For a description of food and class in England see, K. Fox 2004).

In many cases preconceptions make for deceived expectations. In *Sushi for Beginners* by M. Keys the table was turned on Oliver’s girlfriend Lisa. Since Oliver was black his white girlfriend Lisa had had a certain image of his parents as looking and behaving in what she perceived as a traditional way for UK blacks, for example, drinking beer for breakfast. *Red Stripe*, a popular brand of Jamaican beer, however, was not part of Oliver’s parents’ breakfast routine. In fact, apart from the colour of their skin, they looked and sounded like upper-middle-class Brits. The unexpected white-upper-middle-class values of the black family were further evidenced by their choice of sophisticated tea brands:

‘Tea?’ Rita suggested brightly, stroking the golden Labrador which had laid his head in her lap. ‘Lapsang Suchong or Earl Grey?’

‘Don’t mind,’ Lisa mumbled. What was wrong with PG Tips?

‘This wasn’t what I’d expected’, Lisa couldn’t stop herself from whispering when she and Oliver were alone.

‘What did you expect? Dat we be eatin’ rice’n’peas, drinkin’ rum,’ Oliver slipped into a perfect Caribbean accent, ‘an’ dancin’ to steel drums on de porch?’ (Keys 2001: 175)

The language, the dress, and the food were upper-middle-class and so was Father’s job – GP. Actually, it was Lisa’s background that was ‘a bit of a rough’ and not Oliver’s. Indeed, Lisa didn’t mind the common lower-middle-class variety of tea – the so-called PG tips. Even the food comparisons (Bounties are brown on the outside, white on the inside) reveal the all-pervasiveness of stereotyping and the new UK multiculturalism: ‘The correct name for us, so I’m told,’ Rita had reappeared
with a tray containing a plate of unsweet, no-fun, handmade biscuits, ‘is “Bounties”.
Or “Choc-ices” ‘(Ibid: 175).

Strange food is often an obstruction to acculturation. The Polish born writer Ewa Hoffman who had moved to Canada with her family at the age of 13 faced a difficult task of adapting to her new life. One of the most unpleasant bonding rituals she had to indulge in was a visit to the local ‘drive-in’ hamburger restaurant. This is her description:

It’s Saturday night, or rather Saturday Night, and party spirits are obligatory. We’re on our way to the local White Spot, an early Canadian version of McDonald’s, where we’ll engage in the barbarous – as far as I’m concerned – rite of the ‘drive-in’. This activity of sitting in your car in a large parking lot, and having sloppy, big hamburgers brought to you on a tray, accompanied by greasy French fries bounding out of their cardboard containers, mustard, spilly catsup, and sickly smelling relish, seems to fill these peers of mine with warm, monkeyish groupy comfort. It fills me with a finicky distaste. I feel my lips tighten into an unaccustomed thinness – which, in turn, fills me with a small dislike for myself.’ (Hoffman 1989: 117)

Many new immigrants express disbelief that they would ever be able to adjust to their new country through the vehicle of food. In the short film Hold the Ketchup, directed by Albert Kish in 1977, a new Canadian of Portuguese descent says: ‘We can dress like a Canadian but we can never eat like a Canadian.’

Pragmatically speaking, even a grocery list triggers off a host of interconnected images and is likely to provide a plethora of information about somebody’s real or ascribed identity. Deborah Tannen’s analysis (2007) of a short story by David Lipsky is a case in point: ‘I unload the rest of the groceries. There is a box of spaghetti,
Tropicana orange juice, pita bread, a few plain Dannon yogurts.’ (Lipsky in Tannen 2007: 151) According to Tannen, apart from the images of the packages, the specific items and the adjectives describing them suggest a kind of frugality (plain Dannon yogurt, spaghetti), a concern with health (brown rice), and even perhaps an alternative lifestyle represented by alternative food (pita bread). Tannen’s analysis without doubt would apply to a New Yorker but the shopping list will have a different significance in the Middle East where pita bread is traditional, or in Italy, where spaghetti does not imply frugality. Plain yogurt may indicate concern with health rather than frugality.

Another revealing interpretation in D. Tannen’s book involves visual shopping lists in Woody Allen’s Hanna and her Sisters and Manhattan (Tannen: 152). The former shows Woody Allen, newly and temporarily converted to Catholicism, withdrawing from his grocery bag a loaf of Wonder Bread and a jar of Hellman’s mayonnaise whereas in the latter a Christian orders a corned beef or pastrami sandwich (typical Jewish food) and asks to have it with mayonnaise on white bread. According to Tannen, while Jews would never eat Wonder Bread, Hellman’s mayonnaise is their preferred brand, and though the character played by Allen has converted his religion and attempted to change his eating habits, he cannot help but remain fundamentally a New York Jew. The order of white bread and mayonnaise with pastrami is also a cultural and religious give-away because it is a violation of Jewish dietary custom and preference which prescribes that it should be eaten on rye bread with mustard.

Another suggestive grocery list is that of a group of strawberry pickers in Marina Lewicka’s Two Caravans:
Yola as the supervisor is naturally in charge of the shopping, but in the interests of harmony she lets everyone have a say. They agree on five loaves of white sliced bread (better than coarse Polish bread and quite inexpensive), margarine (more modern than butter, and also cheaper), apricot jam (Tomasz’s favourite), teabags and sugar (they have been drying out and reusing their teabags, but there is a limit), bananas (Andriy’s choice, typical Ukrainian), salted peanuts (a special request from Emanuel), a large bar of rum and raisin chocolate (Yola’s little luxury), two large bottles of Coca-Cola for the Chinese girls, and a tin of dog food. (Lewycka 2008: 71)

The list tells us a lot about different strawberry pickers. Apart from the price of foods favoured by the equally poor pickers of different ethnicities, some revealing words, such as ‘typically Ukrainian choice of bananas’, a one-time scarce good in Ukraine, suggest that it is still linked to the historical symbolic capital of the Soviet Union for the Ukrainian boy, whereas ‘margarine’ (described as more modern than butter), and ‘coarse Polish bread’ point to poor health education for Yola, the Polish supervisor.

Food frequently becomes the centrepiece of cultural clashes in a multicultural society. In the extract below the leaflets written by the so-called ‘patriotic English people’ living in Brick Lane in Monica Ali’s eponymous novel show their perception of the immigrant threat through the food of the Muslims – kebabs or bhajis, which are othered and marked:

... It’s multicultural murder:
‘Do you know what they are teaching your children today? In domestic science your daughter will learn how to make a kebab, or fry a bhaji. For his history lesson your son will be studying Africa or India or some other dark and distant land. English people, he will learn, are Wicked Capitalists.’ (Ali: 251)
The ‘patriotic English people’ demonstrate a certain superficial knowledge of the food of the ‘dark and distant’ people, the minorities in England, which they regard as a danger to their future. Kebabs and bhajis, as the food of the other, are perceived as a threat to their autonomy and self-esteem.

All told, people of different ethnicities are often stereotyped through their meals. What one eats as a staple food (or is thought to eat) is perceived as disclosing what one is like, whereas beliefs about the food of the other often underlie stereotypes of the national character metonymically labelled through food: cf. frogs, (the French) krauts (the Germans), pasta eaters (the Italians). In this fashion the Other is denigrated and transformed into an opposing symbol of one’s values.

The transformation of food prejudices into identity judgements is still as common as ever. Africans, for example, are caricatured as brand mascots for fried chicken and melons, and by the same token, spare ribs are also stereotyped as quintessential soul food (Williams-Forson, 2008). Hence, the knowledge of the cultural icons and the inherent food symbolism may say a lot about the implied meaning in discourse.

In the context of history and politics, food provides many interesting details which show that its use as a weapon of war or as a peace offering is timeless. Some examples: During World War I, the persecution of Germans in American society was so pronounced that Germans were forced to abandon their language and customs, at least in public. German books were burned outside numerous libraries, while Beethoven was banned from symphonic repertories. The atmosphere was such that Germans hid the fact they were German and changed their own names - Schmidt to Smith, and so forth. For its part, the public renamed almost every German street...
and landmark and even altered menus, so that sauerkraut became liberty cabbage, whereas hamburgers were renamed as ‘liberty sausage’. (Mueller, 2002: 249) The camouflaged names were allegedly better suited to American sensibilities. Consequently, the renaming of French fries into Washington fries in the USA because of France’s ‘incorrect stance’ on the Iraqi war in 1990-ies rings quite a familiar bell. Since eating is probably the most important political act, it is not surprising that, for better or worse, social or ethnic identity may be imposed on some foods or withdrawn from them by virtue of political, socio-cultural or simply rhetorical manipulation. As noted time and again, food symbolises many aspects of everyday culture and is a vehicle for social relations.

To sum up: food talks. The relevance of food and food-related frames for discourse analysis both in language and in literature classes cannot be overemphasised and may provide a lot of ground for interesting and comprehensive comparisons and discussions. The use of food discourse, which is an important area of intercultural communication, contributes to the acquisition of new skills, knowledge and relationships.

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Verbs of Motion and Restriction Associated with Immigration in *The Telegraph*

Dilyan Gatev

**Introduction**

Immigration to the affluent countries of Western Europe has been a long-lasting process with peaks and recessions through time. In recent years, due to the widening disparity in income, the financial crisis and other political factors such as war conflicts in the East, migration has become an issue more and more topical because of its ever increasing dimensions and stronger effects on both the countries people are leaving and the ones they are trying to settle into. In this paper, we are going to focus on this rising problem from the perspective of one of the host counties – the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. We are going to trace its reasons, various aspects, consequences and possible solutions and how a specific attitude towards it is expressed through verbs of motion and restriction in a body of articles issued since September 2014 in *The Telegraph* – a conservative quality newspaper.

As a unit of analysis, verbs are chosen because they represent the kernel of the sentence to which all other parts are related and which contains most of the information. The predominant classes of verbs, associated with immigration in the selected articles, are from the domain of motion and restriction. In this paper, we will try to classify the verbs into several semantic categories and see how they correspond to the various aspects of the issue of migration and what inferences we can draw from those relations. The choice of newspaper was made on the basis of
its political stance, which is supposed to be closest to the one of the currently ruling Conservative Party, hence to the views of the majority of British citizens.

With regard to both market reach and political influence, the predominant press outlets across Britain are the national daily and Sunday newspapers, some of which have nationwide circulations of over a million. National newspaper provision is layered to provide for specific market segments. Among daily newspapers there are ‘quality’ titles (*The Daily Telegraph*, *The Financial Times*, *The Guardian*, *The Independent* and *The Times*), middle market papers (the *Daily Express* and *Daily Mail*) and popular tabloids (the *Daily Star*, the *Daily Mirror* and *The Sun*). Most of those titles have a Sunday equivalent (Kuhn, 2007). In general, across the UK it is the national (i.e. London-based) dailies which dominate the market and provide the main print-based source of political information on national and international issues and events (Kuhn, 2007)

The media, of course, do not simply report, in a neutral and impartial way, what is going on in the political arena around them. Despite protestations to the contrary by some journalists, there are more than enough analyses of the media in the communication studies literature to show that their accounts of political events (as of any other category of ‘reality’) are laden with value judgments, subjectivities and biases. (McNair 2007: 11)

The press were allowed, and indeed expected, to take up political stances. They were ‘partial.’ This meant that even after the British press abandoned direct organisational connections with political parties in the nineteenth century, individual newspapers continued to take political views and expressed them in their content (McNair, 2007). In the twentieth century, the media came to represent for
the majority of people, most of the time, their main source of political information (McNair, 2007).

Newspapers are politically biased in their support of a political party or policy option. This partisanship is usually (though not always) recognised by newspaper readers (Kuhn, 2007). Judging by Table 8.1 (page 214 of Raymond Kuhn’s book ‘Politics and the Media in Britain’), entitled ‘Party preference of daily newspaper readers,’ we can conclude that through the years from 1992 to 2004, *The Daily Telegraph* was supported predominantly by conservatively-oriented readers, with their percentage varying from 57 to 72. Judging by Table 8.3 (page 219), entitled ‘National daily newspaper partisanship by title,’ we can conclude that through the years from 1992 to 2005, unlike most of the other newspapers, *The Telegraph* remained loyal to the Conservative party all of the time. The same is true for *The Sunday Telegraph* as well (Table 8.4 ‘National Sunday newspaper partisanship by title’ – page 220). ‘The *Daily Telegraph* reader will expect columnists to review politics from a right-wing perspective, but also that they should do so knowledgeably and authoritatively’ (McNair 2007: 72).

Coverage of a particular kind of story often leads to a sequence of similar stories for several days because media interest is intensified, until news fatigue settles, the issue disappears from the headlines and a new cycle on another topic may develop (Kuhn 2007: 150). The articles which are the object of analysis were selected in the period from 1st September 2014 to 1st March 2015 because at that time the rate of immigration from both EU and non-EU states was at its highest due to complex sociopolitical and economic matters and the issue was the subject of heated debates.
The media are agenda-setters in their own capacity as providers of information, emphasising some issues and neglecting others, for reasons which are often beyond the capacity of politicians to influence significantly (McNair, 2007). The visibility of an issue in the news affects the perceived importance of that issue by the general audience: the more noticeable an issue is in the news media, the more salient it is for public opinion. So, by emphasising some issues and marginalising or excluding others, the news media contribute significantly to deciding what is – and what is not – a significant subject for public discussion (Kuhn, 2007).

Methodology

About one hundred articles on immigration were downloaded from the website of The Telegraph newspaper. Then the verbs associated with immigration were extracted – they were predominantly from the domain of motion and restriction. After that they were classified into several categories. The content of the texts was summarised and divided into sections presenting the various aspects of the issue of immigration. The next step was to look for relations between the different categories of verbs and the different aspects of the problem, with the ultimate goal of interpretation of those connections and drawing inferences from them.

Verb classification

Analysing the selected verbs associated with immigration, we can group them into the following categories (with the respective numbers put in brackets): verbs of inward motion (16), verbs of outward motion (9), verbs of forward motion (9), verbs of backward motion (3), verbs of upward motion (9), verbs of downward motion (8), verb of circular motion (1), verbs of sideward motion (4), verbs of stopping motion (3); verbs of restriction (50), and verbs of ending restriction (19). The total number of the verbs of motion is 62, and the total number of the verbs of restriction
is 69. From this quantitative approach, we can draw the inference that great emphasis is laid on the large influx of immigrants (represented by the verbs of inward motion) to the United Kingdom and its restriction (represented by the verbs of restriction).

To the category of ‘verbs of inward motion’ belong the following verbs: ‘to receive, to approach, to access, to arrive, to come, to get into, to reach, to bring, to deliver, to enter, to sneak into, to slip through, to let in, to absorb, to import, to put in.’ ‘To receive,’ ‘to bring,’ ‘to deliver,’ ‘to absorb’ and ‘to import’ bear the meaning that immigrants are unwanted, but must be accepted. They are ‘approaching,’ ‘accessing,’ ‘arriving,’ ‘coming’ and ‘entering’ Britain. The verbs ‘to get into,’ ‘to reach,’ ‘to sneak into’ and ‘to slip through’ are implying that getting into the United Kingdom requires effort.

The next category of verbs is ‘verbs of outward motion’ – ‘to flee, to leave, to deport, to send, to extract, to walk away, to crawl out, to take out, to leach off.’ On the one hand, immigrants are ‘fleeing,’ ‘leaving,’ ‘walking away’ from their home countries, seeking asylum and better life in Britain. On the other hand, they will be ‘deported,’ ‘sent back’ and ‘taken out’ of the United Kingdom if they are there illegally.

The ‘verbs of forward motion’ are ‘to accelerate, to run, to drive, to face, to travel, to go, to walk, to continue, to move.’ They are mostly associated with the ‘continuously’ growing trend of increasing immigration, which is ‘accelerating,’ ‘running’ higher and higher, ‘driving’ local people out of their places of living and working in the country, which is ‘facing’ more and more problems related to the people ‘travelling’ long distances, ‘going,’ ‘walking,’ ‘moving’ to Great Britain.
There are only three ‘verbs of backward motion’ – ‘to withdraw, to return, to send back.’ They are in the context of the ‘withdrawal’ of the United Kingdom from the European Union if the latter does not allow harsher restrictions on immigration, some of which include ‘returning,’ ‘sending back’ immigrants to their home countries.

All of the ‘verbs of upward motion’ – ‘to raise, to rise, to blow off, to grow, to lift, to double, to increase, to triple, to go up’ – are related to the ever ‘increasing’ number of immigrants to Great Britain, which is ‘rising,’ ‘blowing off,’ ‘growing,’ ‘doubling,’ ‘tripling,’ ‘going up.’

The ‘verbs of downward motion’ – ‘to clamp down, to reduce, to cover, to fall, to cap, to get down, to bring down, to decline’ – are associated with the desired ‘reduction’ of the number of immigrants to the United Kingdom, which should ‘fall,’ ‘get down,’ ‘decline’ or be ‘clamped down,’ ‘capped,’ ‘brought down.’

The only ‘verb of circular motion’ is ‘to revolve’ – the currently heated debate in British society ‘revolves’ around the immigration policy of the government.

There is also a group of ‘verbs of sideward motion’ – ‘to tear up, to hide, to displace, to move aside’ – most of which are related to the notion of illegal immigrants trying to ‘hide,’ ‘to move aside’ or be ‘displaced’ by the authorities.

The last group of ‘verbs of motion’ is ‘verbs of stopping motion’ – ‘to grind to a halt, to stop, to halt’ – all of them associated with the desirable concept of immigration ‘grinding to a halt’ or ‘stopping’ altogether.
The next big group of verbs is ‘verbs of restriction’ – ‘to force, to house, to ward off, to limit, to impose controls, to ban, to prevent, to tighten, to tackle, to jail, to cage, to cope with, to struggle, to close, to end, to remove, to abolish, to slash, to cut, to take measures, to curb, to control, to manage, to retain, to block, to oppose, to undermine, to bar, to blight, to save, to keep out, to destroy, to restrict, to keep down, to enslave, to bash, to stem, to fight, to deal with, to catch, to arrest, to detain, to press, to vie, to undercut, to impose, to regulate, to eliminate, to pressurize, to deny.’ Immigration must be ‘warded off,’ ‘limited,’ ‘imposed controls on,’ ‘banned,’ ‘prevented,’ ‘tightened,’ ‘tackled,’ ‘cope with,’ ‘struggled against,’ ‘ended,’ ‘removed,’ ‘abolished,’ ‘slashed,’ ‘cut,’ ‘taken measures against,’ ‘curbed,’ ‘controlled,’ ‘managed,’ ‘retained control,’ ‘blocked,’ ‘opposed,’ ‘undermined,’ ‘barred,’ ‘blighted,’ ‘destroyed,’ ‘restricted,’ ‘kept down,’ ‘bashed,’ ‘fought against,’ ‘dealt with,’ ‘undercut,’ ‘imposed limits on,’ ‘regulated,’ ‘eliminated.’ Illegal immigrants must be ‘forced to leave,’ ‘housed somewhere,’ ‘jailed,’ ‘caged,’ ‘kept out of,’ ‘caught,’ ‘arrested,’ ‘detained,’ ‘denied access.’ Borders must be ‘closed’ for immigrants, who are ‘vying’ for vacancies with local people and ‘pressurising’ the local economy, which should be ‘saved.’

The last category of verbs is ‘verbs of ending restriction’ – ‘to foster, to fuel, to open, to encourage, to re-establish, to benefit, to introduce, to support, to accept, to settle, to back, to enrich, to contribute, to welcome, to help, to obtain, to maintain, to create, to add.’ These are mainly associated with the positive aspects of immigration, which is ‘fostering,’ ‘benefitting,’ ‘contributing,’ ‘adding’ to the economy, ‘fueling’ the insufficient workforce. For those reasons, immigration should be ‘supported,’ ‘accepted,’ ‘backed up,’ ‘maintained.’ Borders should be ‘opened’ in order to ‘encourage,’ ‘introduce,’ ‘welcome,’ ‘help’ immigrants ‘obtain access’ and ‘settle’ in the United Kingdom, thus ‘enriching’ it with their own cultures (customs and traditions).
Immigration to the United Kingdom – statistics

Britain would receive two million immigrants over the following 10 years and 80 per cent of Britain’s population increase up to 2020 would be as a result of immigration.

Since 1997 immigration to Britain has been running at levels unprecedented in British history.

David Cameron has failed in his pledge to slash immigration after figures show the net flow in to the country in the last year stood at 298,000. The figure is a huge embarrassment for the Prime Minister and means immigration is higher than it was when he took office. He won power on a ‘no ifs, no buts’ election pledge to bring net migration – the difference between those arriving and those leaving the UK – to below 100,000. (Whitehead, T. 2015b)

Immigration from European Union countries is rapidly catching up with that from outside the EU.

The latest figures show 28,000 Romanian and Bulgarian nationals arrived in Britain in the 12 months to the end of March – more than double the previous year’s influx of 12,000. The number of people in Britain from the two former Communist states now stands at 177,000 – more than five times the level seven years ago. (Barrett, D. 2014a)

It is official: immigration is great. According to a new report from University College London, those arriving on these shores between 2001 and 2011 put roughly £25
billion more into the economy than they took out, creating millions of new jobs in the process. (Colvile, R. 06.11.2014)

**Content classification**

The summary of the content of the articles may be classified into the following categories: immigration to the United Kingdom as a problem; restriction of immigration to the United Kingdom; benefits of immigration to the United Kingdom.

1. **Immigration to the United Kingdom as a problem**

   Immigration is a subject no politician wants to talk about.

   Mr Cameron argued that unrestricted free movement within Europe had placed too great a burden on British communities, labour market and welfare system. He has warned that the ‘future’ of Britain in the European Union is at stake. (Telegraph View, 17.10.2014)

   On January 1, the people of Romania and Bulgaria will have the same right to work in the UK as other EU citizens. I know many people are deeply concerned about the impact that could have on our country. I share those concerns.

   The EU of today is very different from the EU of 30 years ago. We need to face the fact that free movement has become a trigger for vast population movements caused by huge disparities in income. That is extracting talent out of countries that need to retain their best people and placing pressure on communities. (Cameron, D. 2013)
Frank Field, a former employment minister, said that immigration is causing Britain's population to increase by the size of the city of Birmingham every two years. (Swinford, S. 2014)

It is hard to keep a lid on immigration in today’s globalised world. British politicians should tell the public the truth: immigration to the UK will remain high for the foreseeable future, even if the UK quits the EU. The effects of immigration are greater competition for housing, pressure on public services, lower wages for those at the bottom, changes to the character of communities. (Heath, A. 2015)

2. Restriction of immigration to the United Kingdom
There are tensions over Mr Cameron’s attempt to try to limit immigration from within the European Union. And he said that he wanted to ban foreign job seekers claiming benefits and deport them from the UK if they do not find work within six months. The proposals are an ‘absolute requirement in the renegotiation’ with Brussels, Mr Cameron said, warning that if they are not accepted, Britain could leave the EU. (Dominiczak, P. 2014)

Cabinet ministers had been urging him to announce plans for annual quotas of migrants or an ‘emergency brake’ system allowing Britain to close its borders if there is a spike in foreigners coming here from a particular country. (Dominiczak, P. 2014)

Mr Cameron’s plan to end access for European migrants to tax credits, housing benefits and social housing for four years is designed to dramatically reduce the ‘pull factors’ that encourage foreigners to come to the UK. Banning new arrivals
from claiming in-work benefits would mean many EU migrants on low-paid jobs would be worse off in Britain than if they remained at home. (Holehouse, M. 2014)

Mr Cameron also wants ‘tougher and longer’ re-entry bans for foreign rough sleepers, beggars and fraudsters and he wants stronger measures in place to allow EU criminals to be deported. (Dominiczak, P. 2014)

Crucially, the Prime Minister will also tell Brussels that he wants to prevent new member states from being given the same freedom of movement rights until their GDP reaches a certain level. This would prevent floods of migrants leaving the home country in order to take advantage of Britain’s economic success, Downing Street believes. (Dominiczak, P. 2014)

A month before transitional controls from Romania and Bulgaria ended, the Prime Minister announced new rules limiting the ability of people from those country to claim benefits. They included forcing EU nationals to wait three months before signing on, and deporting new arrivals found to be begging or sleeping rough. New EU migrants will be ineligible for housing benefit. (Holehouse, M. 2014)

Jean-Claude Juncker, the President of the EU Commission, slammed Mr Cameron’s plans to make European migrants wait for four years before receiving welfare or council houses and deport foreign job seekers if they do not find work within six months. (Waterfield, B. 2015a)

3. Benefits of immigration to the United Kingdom

Immigrants come to Britain to ‘work hard and make a very positive contribution’ and London would ‘grind to a halt’ without them, the head of the Roman Catholic church in England has said. (Swinford, S. 2015)
Professor Christian Dustmann, of UCL’s Centre for Research and Analysis of Migration, said: ‘Our new analysis draws a positive picture of the overall fiscal contribution made by recent immigrant cohorts, particularly of immigrants arriving from the EU.’ (Barrett, D. 2014b)

We should cease to see humanity as a burden, and treat a growing population as a wonderful opportunity. (Heath, A. 2015)

For all the furore over benefit tourism, it has long been clear that most migrants want to add to Britain’s wealth, not to leech off it. (Colvile, R. 2014)

**Analysis**

Having listed the different types of verbs, we can now match them with their respective categories of content:

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<tr>
<th>Types of verbs</th>
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<td>A. Verbs of inward motion – 1)</td>
<td>1) Immigration to the UK as a problem</td>
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<td>C. Verbs of forward motion – 1)</td>
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<td>D. Verbs of backward motion – 2)</td>
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<td>E. Verbs of upward motion – 1)</td>
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<td>G. Verb of circular motion – 1)</td>
<td>3) Benefits of immigration to the UK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. Verbs of sideward motion – 2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I. Verbs of stopping motion – 2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J. Verbs of restriction – 2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K. Verbs of ending restriction – 3)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Conclusion

The current study identified five verb classes that represent ‘immigration to the UK as a problem’; six verb classes that represent ‘restriction of immigration to the UK’; and only one verb class that represents ‘benefits of immigration to the UK.’ Judging by those observations, we can conclude that the greatest emphasis is laid on ‘restriction of immigration to the UK,’ followed by ‘immigration to the UK as a problem,’ and the least important aspect being ‘benefits of immigration to the UK.’ From this conclusion, we can infer that this is the dominant view of The Telegraph on the matter of immigration, hence the view of the currently ruling Conservative Party and the majority of the British population.

The predominance of various kinds of bias in the press and the broadcast news coverage evokes the question of whether news can ever be unbiased. It can be claimed that the concept of unbiased news is a myth. Because there is no objective reality for the news media to cover, there is no trustworthy portrayal of the real that is independent of interpretation. From this point of view, the concepts of impartiality and objectivity are just part of the professional apparatus of news media professionals, instrumental in the legitimisation of their work and the validation of the status of their product for audiences while simultaneously disguising what is, in effect, a concrete and partial version of events (which nonetheless may still be reasonably precise) (Kuhn 2007: 168).

In this research, we saw how the analysis of particular items of language (in this case, verbs) can reveal a lot about the attitude towards the particular issue expressed through them (in this case, immigration). All the selected material was taken from an authentic source – a quality newspaper in Britain, whose articles, as
well as ones from other similar newspapers and magazines, are used in class for the purpose of improving students’ reading comprehension skills and vocabulary, and as a source of debate on such topical global and local sociopolitical and economic problems.

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Developing an ESP course: setting goals and objectives

Galina Koteva

Modern education faces new challenges everyday because global changes create new demands on professional practice. Future specialists have to acquire English language competences to perform their professional duties. In order to better satisfy learners’ needs, the ESP practitioner has to conduct needs assessment and design a language course for a particular group of learners. Sometimes this course may be related to only one single subject from their curriculum.

As it is well-known, needs analysis (NA) is a major element of course design since learners’ needs are essential for determining the goals and objectives. NA also helps the preparation of language-use tasks where students are placed in situations similar to the ones from their occupational domain. For the EOP (English for occupational purposes) course, designed for our students of the program Industrial Management, we used a questionnaire to find our students’ needs. Identification of the needs using a questionnaire has a twofold role. On the one hand, it serves the trainer to prepare proper materials. On the other hand, it makes students reflect on their own learning needs. This also enhances students’ motivation by making them aware that they are following the goals they alone set for themselves. Performance also rises since students view it as a step towards their success in life.

The analysis performed in our university revealed that students expect to use English in a variety of professional communication acts, both written and oral. As we wish to prepare our students for their professional career, the emphasis falls on
the communicative functions of language. Thus, an EOP course is related to identifying and trying to meet the learners’ needs. In this case, language is taught for the purpose of using it in occupational setting. Unfortunately, the link between needs analysis and syllabus design is not that simple and straightforward.

One disadvantage is that identifying the individual needs of learners cannot be applicable to heterogeneous groups of learners. So, in order to match the needs of a group of learners, teachers should have enough time for the search and development of appropriate teaching materials. Another setback is the lack of experience of our pre-service learners since they are supposed to occupy positions in management but they are too young and unqualified for such positions. In order to partly overcome these problems, we administered the survey among students in their third and fourth year of study who are going to graduate soon as well as among students of distance learning who already have some experience in professional setting.

It is a well-known fact that a thorough organisational needs assessment lies at the heart of a well-designed and effective ESP course. By conducting it, the ESP practitioners try to find information not only about the needs of their learners but other stakeholders as well. Stakeholders, in their turn, may be all the people who have an interest in the specific ESP course and who want the training program to be successful. They include the university department that requested the course, a company or organisation, the learners, the teachers, etc. In our case, in order to guarantee the success of the course, we also gathered information from the content experts and students who have already taken the course. Also, sample materials relevant to the field were considered, such as textbooks, videotapes, business correspondence, to be used in the curriculum and materials designed for the target course. Ideally, future employers may be contacted and their needs may be
discussed, but we did not have the resources to do so and, therefore, we referred to the relevant ESP research in the field. As a result, we were able to design a task-based course that met the needs of both learners and stakeholders and focused on incorporating authentic materials and activities.

In the needs assessment process, the ESP practitioner has to find information about the needs of the organisation, the needs and wants of the learners and the context in which the learning will take place. To this end, a Target Situation Analysis is conducted which shows what the learners need to be able to do with the language in the future. Then follows a Present Situation Analysis revealing what the learners can do with the language now and a Context Analysis showing the environment in which the learning will take place. In our case, a questionnaire was used to establish what the learners need to be able to do by the end of the course and why they consider these tasks and related skills important for them. Their current level of English was assessed by means of a placement test, but also their learning experiences and personal expectations from the course were discussed.

The concept of learners’ needs is usually interpreted in two ways: as what the learners want to do with the language (goal-oriented definition), which relates to terminal objectives; and what the learner needs to do to actually acquire the language (a process-oriented definition), which refers to the means of learning. Hence, during course design a list of criteria has to be considered. The following questions (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998: 145) should be answered so that the course is properly shaped. By answering these questions the ESP practitioner will be better prepared to balance out some of the parameters of the course design so as to satisfy the institutional and learners’ expectations.

- Should the course deal with immediate needs or with delayed needs?
• Should the role of the teacher be that of the provider of knowledge and activities, or should it be as facilitator of activities arising from learners’ expressed wants?
• Should the course be common-core or specific to learners study or work?
• Should the course design be worked out by the language teacher after consultation with the learners and the institution, or should it be subject to a process of negotiation with the learners?

In our case, since our students are pre-service learners who are to start work soon, we can say their needs are delayed. However, as in their last year of study they are more or less aware of the duties and skills they will need to perform, the role of the teacher should be that of a facilitator who will work together with the students to find the solution to the tasks. The third question seems to be the most difficult since the lack of experience is an obstacle to distinguishing particular tasks. Thus, some more common-core ones were adopted in order to prepare students for a wider scope of duties. Finally, the course objectives were discussed with the students, but the institutional point was also considered.

It is generally agreed that the process of matching aim and method is not mechanistic and a problem of most needs analysis is the amount of vast information collected and, hence, the decision what may be included in the course and what should be left aside. So, the accumulation of information about the prospective learners and especially the application of which aims and methods should be put into practice is a trial-and-error period during which obstacles and observations are finely-tuned to suit the particular learning situation. All in all, by making the ESP course learner-centred, the focus is shifted to the constructive role of the learners. When ESP learners take some responsibility for their learning, and are allowed to negotiate some aspects of the course design, they are more motivated to get involved in their learning and participate more actively in class.
Next, we will look at the process of identifying learning goals and objectives. After selecting appropriate and achievable performance goals, the next step for the ESP practitioners is to break down these large communication tasks into their constituent parts in order to identify the learning objectives. Writing clear objectives is important because students will know what exactly they are expected to do. Also, objectives serve as a link between expectations, teaching and grading. The set of objectives determine the choice of materials and what and how it will be taught. Most important is that an ESP course should be purpose-oriented.

As Graves (2000) points out, goals are a way of putting into words the main purposes and intended outcomes in the course and they help to bring into focus the practitioners’ visions and priorities for the course. On the other hand, objectives show how the goals will be achieved. Through objectives, a goal is broken down into learnable and teachable units. So by achieving the objectives, the goal will be reached as well. In order to illustrate this point, I provide herewith some examples of EOP-Industrial Management terminal performance goals which may include skills to:

- understand and respond to requests for information over the telephone.
- follow the steps in an instruction manual to operate (a specific piece of equipment).
- write an appropriate (specific type of and to a specific person) e-mail following the guidelines for email communication within that specific content area.

Let us take the final goal as an example and look more closely at the behaviours to reach that goal. Supposedly, our target students need to be able to write an e-mail as an answer to a customer’s complaint. To this end, they will have to perform a series of tasks, namely, to:
• identify the structure and components of business e-mails by reading sample ones;
• identify and list opening / closing phrases as well as linking words in order to use smooth transitions;
• identify and list common ways to express unpleasant facts;
• identify the style/register of formal letters (e.g. use of polite modals; use of conversational tone);
• identify the use of active vs passive voice constructions and use of direct questions;
• complete the missing parts of a sample e-mail of complaint.

So, if all these objectives (tasks) are performed, the goal will be achieved as well. Students will be able to write a comprehensive, grammatically correct and register compliant e-mail.

Finally, when the goals and objectives are determined, their sequencing and grading should take place. Some criteria to prioritise and order items in a course may be grading the materials from simple to complex, or introducing them in accordance with urgency (if needed for learners’ other tasks), or may be dependent on other factors such as the time of the lectures. So, here is a list of target goals/tasks for a course of business English for EOP-Industrial management students of upper-intermediate level. The tasks are ordered and graded according to some criteria for prioritising, the main one being from simple to complex. On the left, the tasks are specified according to the needs analysis and on the right, the objectives are given that make the acquisition of language skills turn into a step-by-step onward and upward process.

| Table 1  |
| Course outline |
| Students will be able to (tasks) | Acquired skills (objectives) |

B E T A  E-N e w s l e t t e r  I s s u e  1 8
118 | P a g e
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Apply the rules of <strong>small talk</strong> at a business meeting</th>
<th>Initiating and keeping conversations going; gathering basic information about partners’ job and business interests; finding something in common with other people at an event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Apply the rules of making a <strong>telephone call</strong></td>
<td>Identifying oneself and stating one’s message; listening to the receiver’s respond and ending the conversation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Construct a public relation letter</strong> to seek potential customers/suppliers and establish business relations</td>
<td>Using standard business format, including correct placement of all letter parts and stating the reason for the letter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Make a presentation</strong> at a conference</td>
<td>Introducing the topic and main points at the beginning; organising details to support the main point; using visual aids, eye contact and gestures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Apply the principles of participation in a business meeting</strong></td>
<td>Using verbal and non-verbal strategies to interact with the other participants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Apply the principles of participation in face-to-face negotiations</strong></td>
<td>Proposing and evaluating solutions, agreeing and disagreeing with proposals, using body language to indicate willingness to negotiate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The rationale behind this ordering is as follows: first, students should be able to present themselves and get involved in a conversation. Next, they may interact with other people communicating their message over the phone. Then, the construction of a text follows, which will present students with the idea of structure and logic as well as how to give detail to support their main point. The next graded step is giving a presentation since presenting requires both good language skills, but also body...
language and contact with the audience. Participation in a business meeting can be the next step as this requires even more sophisticated skills such as stating opinions persuasively, using different strategies to interrupt or present ideas succinctly, or give explanation on the topics discussed and so on. Finally, taking part in negotiations can be even more demanding since students should be well aware of the possibility of conflicts or disagreements and be able to present their understanding of the situation and defend their point of view.

Last but not least, it is vital for written objectives to reflect the desired training outcomes and to be measurable. Hence, the learners must demonstrate their ability to do the communication task in a measurable and observable way. Once the objectives are established, as well as their degree of mastery, different types of assignments, tests, etc. may be prepared along with the respective methods of evaluating the student performance. The next question should be what the most effective materials are that will help reach the objectives defined in the needs analysis. The focus this time is on authentic examples of real communication and the language used in real life situations. Under authentic we mean materials which are not designed for the purposes of language teaching and learning. Authentic materials have an important role in demonstrating ‘real’ use of the language and through them students get involved in a context similar to that of their subject area. Performing tasks similar to the ones they would actually do in their work is both useful and motivating for the majority of students.

To sum up, a metaphor by Dudley-Evans (1998: 56) will be presented saying that designing a course is like ‘a dynamic mix of juggling and doing jigsaw puzzles.’ Different pieces of the puzzle are taken and shifted until they fit to make the desired picture. There are many factors to be considered in this process but the key ones are affected by the learners’ needs and the arranging of tasks should be such as to
enhance learning. In this process, while searching for authentic materials, ESP practitioners can always look at the decisions other course designers have made and adapt these to the particular parameters in their own situation.

References


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A lexical approach to teaching terminological units

Boyan Alexiev, Dimana Keremidchieva

Introduction

This paper discusses the importance of applying the lexical approach (from now on referred to as ‘LA’) to teaching technical terminology. The approach sees words and word combinations to be foundations of language. It finds more potential in lexis than in grammar since much of language consists of prefabricated or memorised chunks which learners need to pay special attention to. Since 1993, when Lewis first published his book on the LA (Lewis 1993), there have been a lot of followers of the approach in different areas of applied linguistics. The LA is gaining even more influence due to the field of corpus linguistics, which is making real language data more widely available.

In ESP teaching our ‘prefabricated’ and ready to ‘memorise’ chunks are actually what most terminologists would call terminological collocations. Students often find them difficult to spot or comprehend because of their great variety and usually lack of equivalence in Bulgarian. Advanced students have a good practice of word combinations in general English but we cannot expect them to always collate technical terms properly. Less advanced students need to acquire knowledge both in general and special English within their technical course. This is why we find the LA so helpful in the ESP classroom.

The aim of this paper is to show how collocations can be best exploited when applying the LA to terminology. Collocations are also discussed as terminological
units, and examples of tasks successfully used in our textbook for students of architecture, civil engineering and geodesy are provided (Alexiev et al 2011/2014).

The principles of the lexical approach

Lewis does not consider the lexical approach as ‘a new all-embracing method, but a set of principles based on a new understanding of language’ (Granger, S. 2011:2). The ten most famous principles of the LA (actually they are twice that number) which have entered modern textbooks, including those for ESP teaching, are presented below.

1. Language consists of grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalised grammar.
2. The grammar/vocabulary dichotomy is invalid; much language consists of multi-words 'chunks'.
3. A central element of language teaching is raising students' awareness of chunks, and also developing their ability to 'chunk' language successfully. (Lewis, M. ‘Pedagogical Implications of the Lexical Approach’, 1997, Cambridge University Press, p. 260)
4. Although structural patterns are known as useful, lexical and metaphorical patterning are accorded appropriate status.
5. Collocation is integrated as an organising principle within syllabuses.
6. The central metaphor of language is holistic - an organism; not atomistic - a machine.
7. It is the co-textual rather than the situational element of context which are of primary importance for language teaching.
8. Grammar as a receptive skill, involving the perception of similarity and difference, is prioritised.
9. Receptive skills, particularly listening, are given enhanced status.
10. The Present-Practise-Produce paradigm is rejected, in favour of a paradigm based on the Observe-Hypothesize-Experiment cycle. (Lewis 1993)

The first principle, which concerns grammar, is actually the most cited and, conversely, the most criticised one. Lewis’s great scepticism about ‘grammar teaching’ first led to considerable criticism of many language specialists. The author later presented a more moderate point of view on the matter: ‘The Lexical Approach implies a decreased role for sentence grammar, at least until post-intermediate levels. In contrast, it involves an increased role for word grammar (collocation and cognates) and text grammar (supra-sentential features)’. (Lewis 1997: 3)

The idea behind ‘multi-words chunks’ in the second principle is what matters most in the LA. Students’ main task is to acquire the ability to find ready-made ‘chunks’ in language which they will learn and later use easily in context. This explains the need for the existence of some other principles, such as principles 3, 7 and 10. As some authors state, the LA is a ‘wide phraseological approach’ which is one of its main advantages. ‘Incorporating a wide view of phraseology into teaching comes down to giving fluency a higher priority in teaching’ (Granger 2011). According to Porto, ‘Lexical phrases prove highly motivating by developing fluency at very early stages and thus promote a sense of achievement’. (Porto, 1998) This actually helps teachers a lot because a well-motivated learner is an ‘easy’ learner.

A key principle in our ESP course is principle 5. The aim of the course is raising students’ awareness of technical English, which more or less means ‘finding their way’ in specialised texts heavily loaded with technical terms designating special concepts in a specialised knowledge domain. In most cases they are specifically
collated and form the so-called ‘terminological collocations’. Recognition of the contextually appropriate use of terms, in our case terminological collocations, later leads to great accuracy of speech, oral or written, which is a decisive factor in, for example, technical translation and academic writing.

In recent years computers have had a wide application in linguistic, including applied linguistic, studies, thus making language learning much easier. This has given rise to a new field of exploration, namely, Corpus Linguistics.

‘Corpus’ can be defined as a collection of all the writings of a particular kind or by a particular person. After collecting the data of a particular language, a concordancer (a software program) analyses the corpora and lists the results. The gathered information actually presents discovered patterns of authentic language most used by native speakers. Corpus linguistics has had a dramatic effect on making dictionaries where an enormous number of word combinations have been introduced, including different collocates. This easily available data brings much greater motivation for applying the LA in the ESP classroom.

The four types of lexical items

Lewis (1993) identifies four types of lexical items:

1. (a) Words
Words are the largest vocabulary category. They have always been considered separate units and have long been introduced in all language textbooks and dictionaries.

(b) Polywords
Their place is between words and major multi-word categories *(by the way, turn off etc.)*

2. **Collocations**

Lewis calls them “predictable combinations of words” *(Lewis 2000: 52)*, e.g. *pay attention/ a visit*. They have a high frequency of occurrence in terminology. As the author states, students and teachers tend to look for and record only the new words in texts. This ‘misidentifies the constituent chunks’ which is ‘pedagogically unhelpful’. The recognition, generation and effective recording of collocations are essential elements of the Lexical Approach which, as mentioned above, is also applicable in ESP teaching.

3. **Fixed/Institutionalised Expressions** –

For example, *Have a nice day, How do you do?* They have a little place in Technical English, but are very useful in everyday speech when we welcome and address our students.

4. **Semi-Fixed Expressions**

They range ‘from very short to very long and from almost fixed to very free’ *(Lewis 1997:10)* and allow a number of different words or phrases to be inserted into them, e.g. *we are really/very fortunate/lucky to have him/her as...*

**Comparison between general collocations and terminological collocations**

Combinations of words in special languages have interested terminologists for a long time. Today most of them refer to specialised multi-word terms as ‘terminological collocations’ which, following the structural classification of general
collocations could be subdivided into verb-noun, adjective-noun and noun-noun terminological collocations (Alexiev & Hitcheva, 2012) as can be seen in the following classification:

1. **Verb terminological collocations** such as *blow/pour/rinse asphalt* or *asphalt softens/harden/s cools*

2. **Adjectival terminological collocations** such as *aerated/prestressed/reinforced concrete*

3. **Nominal terminological collocations** such as *concrete durability/foundation/slab*

General and terminological collocations share one common feature, namely, the occurrence of low-valence and high-valence bases in both types. For example, the term ‘pile’ in construction collocates predominantly with the verb ‘drive’, whereas the term ‘steel’ collocates with a large number of verbs such as ‘melt’, ‘cast’, ‘roll’, etc. The same applies to general collocations with a low-valence base (e.g. ‘take precaution’) and a high-valence base (e.g. ‘give/offer/provide/reject/etc. advice’). One major difference lies in the behavior of the collocator which in most general collocations undergoes semantic transformation by delexicalisation or acquiring a figurative meaning, e.g. ‘make an investment’, ‘pay attention’. In terminological collocations it always performs the function of involving the entity designated by the term in a conceptual scene.

**Terminological collocations as terminological units**

According to Cabré, terminological units ‘are simultaneously language units, cognitive elements and vehicles of communication’. (Cabré: 1999) She also distinguishes between simple and complex terms, the latter including...
terminological nominal and verb collocations. As Hitcheva states, terminological verb collocations, for example, do correspond to established concepts (unlike Cabré’s opinion). She points out two arguments in favour of that assumption. Firstly, purely pragmatically, this type of collocations have been part of the most modern computational terminological studies and most modern term extractors help learners extract automatically from text corpora terminological verb collocation (bigrams). Secondly, theoretically, Hitcheva recognises verb collocations as ‘terminological knowledge units’. Following Dahlberg’s conceptual framework (Dahlberg 2009), they belong to ‘larger knowledge units’ equating with ‘concept combinations’. This applies to nominal collocations as well.

Tasks with terminological collocations

Here are some activities we have designed for an ESP course meant for engineering and architectural students. These activities exemplify the actual application of the lexical approach and, in particular, the implementation of the Observe-Hypothesize-Experiment cycle (Lewis’s principle 10):

Matching

A very popular activity in our textbook is matching. It comes right after the reading comprehension of the main technical text. Students are asked to go back to the text and find collocations the way they appear in the text (this activity is called ‘scanning’); then they try to match them with their corresponding definitions. This task allows students to guess the meaning of collocations in a context, thus having a better understanding of how they are used. The activity is useful for both advanced and intermediate level students. It can be done as a group-work activity with students of lower levels or at the beginning of their Specialised English course.
Match each term collocation with its corresponding definition:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. urban planning</td>
<td>a. The boundary between an upland region and a coastal plain across which rivers from the upland region drop to the plain as falls or rapids</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. physical environment</td>
<td>b. Broad low-level plain between a mountain range and a seashore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. fall line</td>
<td>c. The external, tangible surroundings in which an organism exists and which can influence its behaviour and development, including landforms, soil types and climate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. coastal plain</td>
<td>d. A plan for a large area that may address land use, landscaping, infrastructure, circulation or services provision.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. land use</td>
<td>e. The science of managing and directing city growth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. master plan</td>
<td>f. The human modification of natural environment or wilderness into built environment such as fields, pastures, and settlements.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another activity is matching English collocations with their Bulgarian equivalents. It is a good preliminary practice for future translation tasks.

**Match the term collocations in the left-hand column with their Bulgarian equivalents in the right-hand one**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Multiword term</th>
<th>Bulgarian equivalent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. land tenure</td>
<td>a. водно огледало, ниво на подпочвени води</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. consolidation plat/plan</td>
<td>b. изтичане на подземни води</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. water uptake</td>
<td>c. комасационен план</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. surface runoff</td>
<td>d. земевладеене</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. water table</td>
<td>e. водовземане; поглъщане на почвена вода</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. groundwater outflow</td>
<td>f. повърхностен отток</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Gap filling**

Another activity suitable for vocabulary learning, especially technical collocations, is gap filling. This activity usually appears in A and B parts according to the students’ level of English proficiency. More advanced students are then asked to translate the text in Bulgarian. Gap filling broadens their awareness of technical terms and gives them the opportunity to find the most adequate translation equivalents.

*Read the text below and fill in the gaps with the suggested collocations and phrases. Then translate the whole text with the help of a dictionary.*

**Lightweight construction; ground shaking; vertical load; inertial force; seismic design; out of plumb; lateral forces**

**Effects of Earthquakes on Buildings**

The aforementioned seismic measures are used to calculate forces that earthquakes impose on buildings. *Ground shaking* ...... (pushing back and forth, sideways, up and down) generates internal forces within buildings called the ...**inertial force**...(Inertial), which in turn causes most seismic damage.
The greater the mass (weight of the building), the greater the internal inertial forces generated. *Lightweight construction*.....with less mass is typically an advantage in .....*seismic design*...... Greater mass generates greater .....*lateral forces*...., thereby increasing the possibility of columns being displaced, .....*out of plumb*...., and/or buckling under .....*vertical load*....(P delta Effect).

**The odd man out**

This is a very useful activity for teaching verb collocations. Not only does it summarise, but it also gives an overall picture of the main verbs that go together with common technical terms thus making important verb collocations. It can be presented in two ways:

*Spot the verb that does not go with the given term:*

- place, *install*, pour, lay  *concrete*
- *concrete* sets, solidifies/hardens, *extrudes*, cures
- *season*, cast, press, extrude  *plastics*
- fell, saw, season, *solidify* *timber*

or

*Spot the term that does not go with the verb:*

- *cast*   *concrete*

*timber*

steel

plastics

Other ideas for arising students’ awareness of collocations are:
• Ask students to find chunks in a text. If they work with different texts, they can swap their examples with colleagues later.
• Encourage students to work with dictionaries to find term collocations.
• Students can be asked to arrange jumbled cuttings in meaningful phrases.

**Conclusion**

Keeping pace professionally with the fast moving and developing world around us is a great challenge for ESP teachers. The LA gives the opportunity to be a step ahead with terminology. Its application in teaching technical English has proven to be very successful and encouraging. It has broadened students’ and teachers’ minds in understanding and using term collocations in both languages, English and Bulgarian. It also gives a better view of the structure of terminological units in the two languages, thus making the comparison between them easier, which is an advantage in translation. ‘Ready-made chunks’ are easy to remember and once students learn how to spot and analyse them, they are not afraid of the otherwise difficult technical texts. This is very stimulating for all students, especially those with a lower level of English proficiency. Computer-aided activities supply students with a greater variety of materials which are highly recommendable for further reading and mastering the language. The LA, although not ‘very new’ in all aspects, has found its place in the modern ESP classroom.

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ESP curriculum design and cognitive skills formation

Boryana Ruzhekova-Rozogherova

Introduction

Is formation of cognitive skills important in ESP and how crucial is it with regard to teaching / learning quality, various specialised and general spheres of communicative competence building, language learning motivation, learner independence and self-assessment, or in general, to the majority of factors strongly affecting the success of teacher/lecturer – student professional relationship, of both teacher and learner cooperation and mutual goal achievement? Which cognitive skills are the most essential in ESP and to what extent should they be present in the ESP curriculum? Which type of ESP curriculum, based on general English programmes, is the most appropriate not only in respect of pertinent content knowledge, but also of cognitive skills teaching, preconditioning their efficient mastering? These are some of the issues the current paper sets the objective to raise, consider and this way propose for further discussion.

The article will comply with the following rationale: Firstly, ESP essence, underlying features and objectives will be commented on in connection with cognition issues importance. Secondly, the essence of knowledge in general and language knowledge, along with its formation and stimulation will be treated. Thirdly, types of ELT curricula will be analysed and statements will be formulated in relation to an ESP optimised cognitive programme. Next, cognitive skills teaching will be exemplified through some procedures we apply in terms of language learning.
strategies (LLS) in the ESP (geotechnics) course due to the fact revealed later in the paper that LLS implementation is a corollary of cognition theory application. Finally, conclusions as to the ESP cognitive curriculum practicality and usefulness will be enunciated, based on examined theory and practice.

ESP essence and goals

ESP, a relatively new branch of ELT and applied linguistics, aims at meeting specific learners’ needs through the acquisition of communicative competence characteristic for a type of professional activity (rf. Dudley-Evans 1997 in Anthony 1998 and Sešek 2005). It has been proved on many occasions that ESP cannot adequately accomplish its objectives unless learners have obtained communicative competence equalling to at least A2 (A2+) or, much better, to B1 (B1+) level according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, since specific language competence in various fields, such as business, automobile equipment, civil engineering or medicine, for instance, can be built on already acquired lexical, grammar, functional knowledge, receptive, productive skills and strategies allowing students to ‘communicate successfully on basic themes ... interact with reasonable ease in structured situations’ (CEFR: 34) and better achievers to ‘cope flexibly with problems in everyday life’ (ibid). Thus, ESP courses are usually designed for intermediate or advanced learners.

It is vital in ESP characterisation to take into account the fact that although ESP makes use of its typical vocabulary in different spheres of knowledge and shows preference for some skills, language functions, grammar items or structures, ESP communicative competence largely intersects with general English one, both participating in a mutual interdependence relationship, promoting most often
positive leakage of knowledge in both directions, if accompanied by adequate teacher explanation of similarities, differences and common points of taught material.

ESP has been also related over the last decades to tendencies such as focus on the learners and investigation of learning attitudes and motivation (Hutchinson & Waters 1987 in Pradhan 2013); this way the emphasis on motivation and cognition is fully justified, the tight connectedness between language awareness (LA), LLS application and language studying motivation having been revealed on several occasions (rf. Ruzhekova-Rogozerova 2013, 2014a,b).

Knowledge and linguistic knowledge

What is knowledge? We deem relevant to dwell for a while on this concept - foreign language knowledge - notwithstanding its specificity, complying with it.

In Kant’s view (Kant 1908 in Davidko 2011) knowledge consists of seven degrees (which can equally well be applied in ELT, ESP and FLT), starting from (a) having some unspecified knowledge and proceeding with (b) acquiring a conscious concept, (c) having the ability to compare the concept with other constructs, (d) being able to apprehend it, (e) conceiving a construct through concepts, (f) grasping a concept through ‘reason’, analytical thought and arriving at (g) understanding a construct to the extent allowing its purposeful use.

Quite logically, contemporary educationalists (rf. Anderson & Krathwohl 2001 in Davidko 2011) likewise emphasise on knowledge acquisition consciousness, selective knowledge approach and its implementation in goal attainment,
distinguishing between four knowledge types, *factual* (knowledge concept basic components), *conceptual* (basic components interconnections), *procedural* (knowledge used in task fulfillment) and *meta-cognitive knowledge* (task accomplishment elaboration strategies). Knowledge acquisition, being a cognitive process, as it has been commented on many occasions, implies *active and conscious manipulation*, raising awareness procedures, such as providing definitions, explaining definitions, elucidating cause-effect relationships, establishing comparisons, hypothesising, making inductions and deductions, etc. Knowledge building consequently requires *individual constructs* (rf. Kelly 1955 in Davidko 2011) or the creation of *personal mental representations*, being ‘the basic units of human knowledge stored in the mind’ (Davidko 2011: 83), allowing the individual to form logically and coherently organised interrelated cognitive structures used in the purpose of more complicated or elaborated knowledge edification. All above enumerated cognitive procedures contribute to mental constructs formation and, thence, to a better and more advanced competence.

Language and linguistic knowledge, likewise, is invariably constructed and developed on the basis of mental or ‘cognitive representations’ (ibid.), destined to establish further concepts, this way promoting language knowledge elaboration. What are mental representations in linguistics like? Mental representations are ‘information-bearing structures’ (rf. Paivio 1990: 18 in Davidko 2011: 83-84) implemented in ‘recognition patterns’ (ibid.) construction aimed at further knowledge creation. In cognitive linguists’ view representations (concepts, constructs, or models) consist of non-linguistic information; though, when teaching we should be always aware of the fact that they are tightly related to vocabulary, periphrases, expressions, grammar categories and situational contexts. Thus, in Evans’ view, a cognitive model ‘represents an interface between richly specified
conceptual knowledge and nodes of access at particular points ... provided by specific lexical concepts’ (Evans 2007: 22). It must be also definitely borne in mind that not only vocabulary, but also

...grammar provides for the structuring and symbolization of conceptual content, and is thus imagic in character. When we use a particular construction or grammatical morpheme, we thereby select a particular image [equaling to mental representation, in our view] to structure the conceived situation for communicative purposes. (Langacker 2007: 455).

Consequently, when teaching, we should be trying to provide the most adequate connections between lexis, grammar structures, situations and cognitive models and use them in the numerous spheres of written or spoken communication. Learners’ language and linguistic knowledge improvement largely depends on an adequately established set of personal mental representations of language categories subject to further complication and sophistication with regard to progress. To make it efficient, new knowledge formation and progress are to be founded on good-quality prior knowledge construction (or successfully built representations), new information connection with already existent constructs, through comprehension and new/present concept relationship elaboration, and complete new representations integration into previously built ones to the extent of achieving new concepts usefulness (rf. Derry 1990 in Davidko 2011).

Thus, in cognitive linguistics perspective, LA and LLS teaching significantly supports and promotes all types of language knowledge, due to the enhanced understanding leading to conscious use, manipulation, successful storage and retrieval of data, or to further elaboration of mental representations. To put it differently, language
categories learning will be considerably boosted by the expansion and amelioration of appropriate mental representations of language categories. This statement, rather relevant to ESP, with respect to ESP commitment with specific and general communicative competence enhancement, will be exemplified later in the paper and supported by some cognitive skills formation illustration.

**ELT and ESP curricula. The cognitive ESP curriculum**

What does an ELT (general English) and ESP curriculum refer to? Which components does it comprise? How many models or approaches are there as to curriculum design and which one should we adopt to best suit our cognitive ESP teaching procedures?

There have been many definitions of *curriculum* so far, its restricted acceptation overlapping with *syllabus*, content which has to be taught (rf. Finney 2002), and the more comprehensive one, referring to ‘the planning, implementation and evaluation of an educational program, the *why*, *how* and *how well* together with the *what* of the teaching-learning process’ (Finney 2002: 70). We subscribe to Kelly’s view on curricula (Kelly 1989 in Finney 2002) that they must involve planners’ intentions, implemented procedures, learners’ experiences in response to teachers’ efforts, and to Richards et al.’s statement (Richards et al. 1992 in Finney 2002) that a language learning programme involves course objectives, corresponding content teaching approaches and learners’ appropriate needed experiences, and assessment of educational purposes achievement.
Indeed, to be successful, an EFL (and ESP) programme must comply not only with educational curricula requirements in general, but also with accomplishments in linguistics in general, and more specifically, in various fields of applied linguistics dealing with communication process, communicative competence, LA, LLS, motivation, learner independence, to name but a few, and in cognitive linguistics, involved with the process of language, second language or foreign language learning. Aims should be consistent with learners’ specific needs (really crucial in ESP); needs have to be investigated through needs analysis (rf. Songhori 2008 on needs analysis models, citing many researchers in the field), taking into account a course participants’ profile (source and target language (FL1, 2, n) competence, communication needs, settings of target language use, motivation for FL learning, learners’ learning strategies, etc.); content and implemented approaches ought to be in line with the set objectives.

Research literature has delineated three basic types of ELT curricula so far, each of them applicable in ESP cognitive programme development to a varying extent, due to their underlying features:

1. The forward design curriculum (rf. Richards 2013 who distinguishes between forward, central and backward design curricula) starts from course content determination, moves through the methodology implemented and arrives at expected results. What matters most is linguistic input (input and output terms belong to Wiggins & McTighe 2006 in Richards 2013), decisions about methodology stem from course content. There are not any specific recommendations as to teaching approaches as long as they conform with the essence of taught language material. Forward programmes are suitable to general English courses or courses the objectives of which correspond to ‘proficiency in language use across a wide
range of daily situations’ (Richards 2013: 9). Notwithstanding some forward design deficiencies, this approach has been successfully implemented in *communicative language teaching* as well as in *content based teaching* and *content and language integrated learning*.

2. *The central design curriculum* implements as its point of departure ‘the selection of teaching activities, techniques and methods’ instead of ‘a detailed language syllabus or specification of learning outcomes’ (Richards 2013: 13). Practitioners following this approach dwell on classroom activities and their development and adapt them to their particular groups of learners. Thus, central design turns out to be in Leung’s view (Leung 2012 in Richards 2013: 15) a ‘learner-focused and learning-oriented perspective’. Despite its disadvantages, which will be commented further on with reference to ESP, central design has been used in *Task-based Language Teaching*, primarily, characterised with the selection of specific tasks, involving some information gap, activating learners’ linguistic resources, or with specially developed activities aimed at specific language categories and strategies use (rf. Richards 2013).

3. *The backward design curriculum* has its starting point at a course outputs (or objectives) careful and motivated specification, content, methods and activities stemming from the expected results (rf. Richards 2013). As pointed out, this really successful, consistently and functionally developed curriculum approach involves a process of needs diagnosis, objectives formulation, content selection and organisation, learning experiences selection, learning experiences organisation, assessed knowledge determination and ways of its evaluation (rf. Taba 1962 in Richards 2013). The examined programme type has been implemented so far in methods such as *Task-based Language Teaching (2nd version)*, starting with
learners’ needs analysis, *Competency-based Instruction*, stating ‘learning outcomes in terms of ‘competencies’ – the knowledge, skills and behaviours’ learners are supposed to acquire’ (Richards 2013: 24), as well as in the *Common European Framework of Reference Standards*, describing objectives students are to achieve at various spheres of competence, though not providing instructions as to methods implementation and content selection.

**The best ESP cognitive curriculum development approach? Rationale**

Ideas as to cognitive ESP course design will be suggested in terms of strengths and weaknesses of presented basic types of curriculum approaches and their ESP suitability.

How does forward design intersect with *ESP essence* and the knowledge-acquisition relevant *cognitive skills* formation? Forward design model (or the ‘content model’ in Finney 2002: 71) does not contradict cognitive procedures implementation leading to more and more discriminate mental representations and, thence, to more perfected knowledge, the methodology applied not being object to restrictions. However, we do not consider this type of design the most applicable in ESP considering its essence and objectives. As stated above, ESP is destined to linguistically support a branch of science or technology, equipping learners with the required specialised (and also general) communicative competence. Thus, we firmly believe any cognitive ESP course must start with careful needs investigation and analysis, or with the objectives, stemming from the needs. Moreover, in Kelly’s view this model ‘does not take into account the abilities or problems of the individual
learner or the complexities of the learning process itself’ (Kelly 1989: 45-46 in Finney 2002: 71).

We cannot deny though forward design pluses, providing generally accepted valuable knowledge and skills, which may be implemented in ESP through specialised and purpose-oriented training. This type of programme planning has greatly contributed to some advances such as word lists, corpora elaboration, along with communicative models among which notional, functional, lexical, text and task-based ones (rf. Richards 2013).

Notwithstanding central design strengths related to learner-orientedness and cognition process stimulation, due to predominant emphasis on methodology, this model is ‘less attractive’ for curriculum design intended for ‘vocational training to meet employment needs’ (Finney 2002: 73). We consider this model even unsuitable for ESP purposes due to the fact that the lack of determined goals and corresponding syllabus undermines implemented cognitive methods and most logically predetermines poor specialised competence results.

Is adhering to backward design, giving priority to course objectives, the best cognitive ESP curriculum development option? This type of curriculum approach is usually considered appropriate and valuable in terms of specialised purposes achievement and thence, suitable in vocational training (rf. Kelly 1989 in Finney 2002). It is relevant in ESP programme development, being potentially preferable ‘where a high degree of accountability needs to be built into the curriculum design and where resources can be committed to needs analysis, planning, and materials development’ (Richards 2013: 29), and an ESP course creation is compatible with this description.
Yet, in an attempt to sum up, drawing on previous findings and our own research insights, a cognitive ESP curriculum should be complex; it has to be primarily developed following the above mentioned backward curriculum principles, but it also needs to comply with some positive features of forward and central design curricula. Which ones namely? Backward programme type (rf. Richards 2013 summarising the three approaches features), focusing on needs, objectives, real-life situations practice, accuracy, correctness awareness, mastery of taught patterns, among others, ought to combine with forward curriculum type essentials, such as key elements content division, linear progression, explicitness in rule presentation, rule understanding, as well as with central design cognitive features, emphasis on learning process and proceeding in agreement with its requirements, learner-centeredness, active communication, learning strategies development, learner autonomy, assuming learning responsibility, self-evaluation capacity.

Cognitive skills formation exemplification in the ESP (geotechnics) course

Before exemplifying some LA procedures within LLS teaching, vital as to linguistic mental representations formation (rf. section 3), we shall briefly comment on the ESP (geotechnics) course curriculum in terms of its essentials.

The English in geotechnics course curriculum, developed by the author at the Todor Kableskhov University of Transport (rf. Ruzhekova-Rogozherova 2014c), complies with the needs of MSc students, required to be able to communicate with a high accuracy degree on a wide range of topics related to geotechnics in general, soil and rock mechanics, slope stability, landslides, foundations, embankments, earthquake
engineering, geotechnical monitoring and probing, among others. Learners will need to work with specialised literature in English, maintain international contacts, translate, explain and comment on schemes, drawings and diagrams, formulate statements and decisions. Thus, the curriculum objectives, complying with the above requirements and demands, include not only specialised and general lexis acquisition through the selection and creation of appropriate teaching materials, but also learning the grammar allowing students to successfully implement vocabulary, enhancing the overall communicative competence with emphasis on functionally-oriented grammar, reflecting the form/meaning relationship and quite importantly, improved LA and LLS leading to cognitive skills development and amelioration, significantly preconditioning the achievement of all the other formerly enumerated goals; otherwise stated, a complex (built on the basis of the most essential features of the above three curricula types) cognitive ESP programme.

Here below we shall examine some LLS training procedures stimulating the formation of mental representations and elaboration in connection with the passive periphrasis teaching within the curriculum. Great emphasis is placed on the mastering of this category in view of its high frequency implementation in technical literature.

**LLS and the passive periphrasis in the ESP (geotechnics) course**

Prior to considering LLS teaching in connection with the elaboration of mental constructs, we deem necessary to concisely present LLS features, this way facilitating further discussion.
LLS (Rf. Ruzhekova-Rogozherova 2014b for details on LLS teaching citing renowned researchers in the field) are treated as ‘behaviours and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning’ aimed at affecting ‘the learner’s encoding process’ (Weinstein & Mayer 1986: 315 in Lessard-Clouston 1997: 1-2). LLS ‘contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs’ (Rubin 1987: 22 in Lessard-Clouston 1997: 2), as a result of their ability to represent ‘the special thoughts and behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn or retain new information’ (O’Maley & Chamot 1990: 1 in Lessard-Clouston 1997: 2). Logically, LLS can be also referred to as intentionally applied behaviour implemented in FL knowledge progress facilitating ‘the internalisation, storage, retrieval, or use of the new language’ (Oxford 1992/1993: 18 in Lessard-Clouston 1997: 2) and consequently, they can be viewed as ‘a useful toolkit for active, conscious, and purposeful self-regulation of learning’ (Oxford 2003: 2). Quite evidently, LLS do support cognition process, contributing to mental representations elaboration (rf. section 3) through LA enhancement promoting mutually influencing encoding / decoding processes.

Essentially LLS are categorized (Oxford 2003) into the following groups: cognitive, metacognitive, memory-related, compensatory, affective and social, each kind corroborating the others, though to a different extent, all types bearing mutually complementing features in specific contexts and thence, being not always easily discernible. Here below LLS varieties are commented on in terms of their intrinsic characteristics only.

To start with, cognitive strategies primarily include analysis, summarising, reorganising information, knowledge schemes development, practising structures,
comprehension strategies (making predictions as to categories use and functioning, inferences drawing based on prior knowledge and analysis of key words, word-formation, discourse markers, charts, illustrations (rf. Oxford 2003; FSL Guide 2008), target language – first language translation, contrastive and comparative target language – first language examination of categories in terms of form, semantics and function, etc.

Metacognitive strategies are basically responsible for learners’ needs of self-identification, task planning, materials organisation, achievement evaluation, knowledge self-assessment about a specific topic, hardships identification, asking for assistance, setting learning goals, among others (rf. ibid.).

Memory-related strategies promote information memorisation through associative concepts and keywords, taught items repetition, personal records of taught items, associating new material with similar material in the first language, new knowledge practice and use, etc. (rf. ibid.).

Compensatory strategies involve guessing from the context, rephrasing, circumlocution, etc. (rf. ibid.).

Affective strategies focus on learners’ mood identification aimed at anxiety level reduction and positive motivation boosting (rf. Oxford 2003).

Finally, social strategies comprise asking for elucidation, verification, sociolinguistic conventions studying, collaboration with other students to reach problem solutions, etc. (rf. Oxford 2003; FSL Guide 2008).
Here below we shall proceed by exemplifying cognitive and metacognitive LLS teaching in the process of English passive periphrasis instruction within the ESP (geotechnics) course. This paper discussion is limited to cognitive and metacognitive LLS as they strongly promote and precondition all the other types due to the great variety of LA activities they provide in the purpose of detailed elaboration of mental representations. It should be mentioned that LLS are basically taught at lead-in, elicitation, explanatory and practical implementation grammar teaching stages; at the highest level of creative use cognitive skills are frequently only perfected.

The following passive voice instances excerpted from course materials will be adduced to suit our purpose. Some utterances were deliberately simplified to better guide learners in analysis.

(1) *Geotechnical engineering is based on* the principles of soil and rock mechanics.
(2) *Soil has been used* throughout human history as a material for flood control, irrigation purposes, burial sites, building foundations, dykes, dams, and canals.
(3) *Geophysical exploration is sometimes carried out by means of* measurement of seismic waves, surface-wave methods, and electromagnetic surveys.
(4) *Footings are normally constructed from* reinforced concrete cast onto the soil, and *are typically embedded* into the ground.
(5) *Slab foundations are designed by engineers to support* the entire structure by a single slab of concrete.
(6) *Gravity walls are equipped with* a setback, or batter, to improve wall stability.
(7) *The wall face is made of* precast, segmental concrete units.

Cognitive LLS teaching

At lead-in stage learners’ attention is directed at pattern observation in utterances identical with or similar to the above ones; students are asked to read them and focus on highlighted structures; they are also referred to underlined prepositions (of, from, with, by) and required to notice they are different in analogous constructions.

At elicitation stage students are asked questions (rf. examples above) such as: ‘How can you explain differently underlined periphrasis components?’; ‘How many components do selected examples have?’; ‘Can you read aloud the sentences grammar subjects?’; ‘Do foundations or walls perform any actions?’; ‘Are they consequently active or passive subjects?’; ‘Who is the real doer in the above utterances?’; ‘Is the semantic doer mentioned and where exactly?’; ‘Which is the preposition introducing this argument?’; ‘Which tense or aspect are the utterances in?’; ‘Can you detect any similarities between the examined passive periphrasis and categories, such as, the perfect and –ed adjectives?’; ‘How are they similar?’ (provided appropriate examples and guidance); ‘Can you translate illustrative examples into Bulgarian (or French for French FL1 learners)?’ (offered assistance if needed); ‘Are there similarities between both languages structures?’; ‘Where exactly?’, etc.

At explanatory stage cognitive strategies involve: active voice utterances building with ‘they’ or ‘engineers’ as subjects; active and passive structure explanation (separately and jointly) in terms of form and semantics (rf. Ruzhekova-Rogozherova 2012); ‘switches’ of arguments analysis with respect to sentential functions; schematic presentation of active-passive transformations; passive voice formula
presentation ([grammatically active patient (subject)] + [to be] + [past participle] + [by] + [grammatically passive agent (object)]) and deduction supported by learners’ analysis (rf. ibid.); explanation of common features between the the passive and other linguistic features, and namely, acquisition of result; example transformations into the past, future or other forms, with the expected contextual alterations, etc., all activities being contrastively conducted with Bulgarian (French) counterparts analysis, this way benefitting from the contrastive teaching approach advantages as to LA enhancement, already described on many occasions.

At practical implementation stage learners are provided with structured or fixed format exercises involving specialised language, allowing students to practice cognitive skills and to benefit from correction if needed.

**Metacognitive LLS teaching**

Metacognitive skills formation within the ESP geotechnics course are connected with learners’ getting aware of the reasons predetermining the problems of passive periphrasis mastering, this way supporting already commented on cognitive LLS. The following approach of ours as to the presentation of the conscious and sequential active-passive transformation, basically implemented at the explanatory stage of teaching, has proved really useful, enabling the students to identify topics of misunderstanding and improve studied category awareness, through witnessing its components’ interplay and practical functioning. Learners are acquainted with transformation steps requirements and asked to follow them accordingly, in English first and then, in Bulgarian (French). Doing this, they get informed about the degree to which they have grasped individual components form and purpose not only in English, but also in their mother tongue and/or in FL1; this knowledge proves to be
really relevant as it definitely leads to more analysis (independent or guided) in terms of form and semantics, structure/meaning comparisons (with the active or related categories) in contrasted languages, as well as to comprehension questions. This way, lecturers not only perform as information providers, but also as counsellors, supervisors, motivators and independent learner activity promoters.

Let us refer to the illustrative active-passive transformation below, the reverse procedure following the same algorithm, though in the opposite direction. Instructions to learners, outcomes and explanatory notes, when needed, are provided for each transformation stage.

a) Read and analyze the example *Geotechnical engineers regularly perform site investigations through sampling and tests*. You will have to comply with the passive periphrasis formula (rf. above) in this transformation process.

b) Determine the semantic object of the action verb (AV). - *site investigations*

c) Place it at the passive grammar subject position. - *Site investigations* ...

d) Consider tense, aspect and modality of the verb. - *perform* (present simple, habitually repeated process)

e) Preserve the above characteristics of ‘*perform*’ in the copula verb ‘be’ and be careful as to singular/plural use. - *Site investigations are*...

f) Think about the passive participle of the action verb. - *performed*

g) Put together obtained passive voice components. - *Site investigations are performed regularly* ...

h) Determine the semantic AV sentence subject. - *Geotechnical engineers*

i) Incorporate it as an instrumental object. - *Site investigations are performed regularly by geotechnical engineers...*
j) Analyse the utterance in terms of sentence types and preserve this type while finishing your transformation. - A declarative sentence

k) Complete the passive utterance construction and reexamine its coherence with the original AV structure. - Site investigations are performed regularly by geotechnical engineers through sampling and tests.

l) Translate the active example into Bulgarian and then perform an identical active-passive transformation procedure.

m) Analyse the obtained Bulgarian passive utterance consistency with the original example.

**Conclusion**

The commented on procedures within the examined LLS are really efficient in cognitive skills formation within the ESP (geotechnics) course at the Todor Kableshkov University of Transport due to a stimulated process of grammatical mental representations formation and elaboration, stemming from an intense process of LA building and enhancement, always accompanying and preconditioning any type of LLS teaching. Practice, not just theory, though, reveals there is a stable relationship of symbiosis between the mutually promoting LA and cognitive skills. Improved cognitive skills turn out to be an essential prerequisite for the achievement of better and more relevant language knowledge and abilities not only in one, but in many spheres of communicative competence our MSc students are supposed to acquire. Learners not only improve knowledge, but also become more motivated and independent in language acquisition activities, more successful at self-assessment due to their heightened cognitive skills enabling them to more adequately understand language mastering problems, achievements and possible reasons. Learner-teacher cooperation grows better and more fruitful.
Crucial mental representations developed and perfected with respect to the LLS teaching of passive periphrasis are the constructs of doer and activity recipient, of result, result attribution to a passive doer through the most existential verb to be, grammar subject passivity, grammar object activity, attribution of a process result in compliance with adequate tense, aspect, modality concepts and utterance type. These constructs elaboration proves to be really efficient in the passive diathesis knowledge enhancement in terms of periphrasis components, their interconnection and functioning logic, inevitably leading to much better and appropriate use of this rather typical in technical literature category.

Practice, already successfully implemented cognitive ESP programmes by renowned researchers, as well as the above presented LLS training, on the one hand, and theoretical insights in the beneficial impact of improved cognitive procedures on the quality of ESP teaching and learning, on the other, have definitely proved the usefulness and viability of the ESP cognitive curriculum.

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Variations on teaching Body English

Valentina Raynova

Introduction

Having taught English in Bulgaria in a wide variety of contexts for a few decades and bearing in mind the ever changing English Language teaching and learning environment, I have decided to focus on one of the topics most frequently taught which happens to be Body English. Thus, the aim of this article is to explore this recurring theme that I had to teach to my students. So, some of the objectives of this paper are to share a number of activities on teaching Body English, to identify appropriate contexts for teaching and recycling it, to meet students’ needs in relation to their various multiple intelligences and, last but not least, to create opportunities for blended learning.

Students’ profile

The context in which I have taught Body English in the past seven years or so is the Medical University of Varna. My students study Medicine, Dental Medicine, Pharmacy, Midwifery and Nursing. Most of them learn English for Medical Purposes when they are in their first or second year at university and the better part are young adults, 19–24-year-olds, although of late more and more frequently we may have a 35-year-old student of Dental Medicine, a practising dental technician, or quite a number of students of Pharmacy who work as pharmacy technicians, as well as some middle-aged economists who decided to
become midwives or nurses at a later stage of their lives. The groups of students cut a very dynamic, ever changing profile and come from various educational backgrounds. Occasionally, some students have spent years working in Britain and/or the United States and have later enrolled as students of the Medical University of Varna. It so happens at times that some of our students have children at the age of seven or eight who help their mothers learn the English alphabet or the parts of the body for that matter.

**Timing of Body English teaching**

Usually this topic is introduced during the first few seminars in English, since all healthcare providers should be able to communicate with patients and should understand properly patients’ complaints about which part of their bodies hurts/aches. Once the topic has been introduced, there are lots of different contexts that could be provided during the course for teaching and recycling this language.

**Activities galore that display a variety of ways to contextualise the teaching of Body English**

Here are a number of activities that have been developed whose aim is to teach, practise and recycle Body English.

1. **Body English Alphabet**

Since some students of Midwifery at the beginning of their course of English for Medical Purposes need to revise and even learn the English alphabet, an activity that could be performed is as follows:
I am Ani. My letter is A. A is for arm, arteries;

I am Boryana. My letter is B. B is for bone, brain and breast, etc.

A – arm, arteries  
B – bone, brain, breast  
C – chest, collar bone, capillary  
D – duodenum, digestive tract  
E – eye, ear  
F – finger, follicle  
G – girdle, groin, gums, etc.

This activity personalises the language taught by relating the letters of the alphabet to the names of the students, but it also leads them to look for words related to medical English as well. Later, students who have A1 or A2 level of English according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages may focus on building their own e-vocabulary by adding more Body English terms as they learn English for Medical Purposes. Additionally, activities can be focused on raising awareness of register, and the different contexts for using common names related to parts of the body and their technical equivalents may be designed.

**Table 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Common name</th>
<th>Scientific term</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>chest</td>
<td>thorax</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>collar bone</td>
<td>clavicle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>breast bone</td>
<td>sternum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. **Matching / Labelling**

Another very typical technique for teaching, practising and recycling Body English vocabulary is matching terms from a box to a picture. In a typical mixed-level group this activity may be adjusted to more advanced learners by simply asking them to cover the box full of *Body English* words and label the picture.

![Fig. 1](image)

3. **Classifying / Categorising**

Yet another technique that develops thinking skills along with revising language is classifying or categorising words in different groups. Angelova, Svetla T. & Y. Rachovska, 2012) This is a fairly easy activity that even the beginner learners find amusing.
e.g. Add more parts of the body you can think of. Classify them in 4 groups under the following headings:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Head</th>
<th>Torso</th>
<th>Lower limbs</th>
<th>Upper limbs</th>
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In a big group if the task is to be made more easily manageable, the students may be divided into four smaller groups and each may focus on one part of the body.

4. **Solving a puzzle.**

Activities that focus on solving a puzzle have always been interesting for any age-group of students, young adults inclusive. Depending on the focus of the activity and the level of the students, the puzzle could be concentrated on matching pictures and providing the corresponding word/s, or it could be based on reading a description and then writing the word correctly. There are all sorts of puzzle-based activities and wordsearches that focus on contextualising and practising correct spelling of body parts. (Oxenden, C. Latham-Koenig, C. & Hudson, J. 2012)

e.g. **Complete the puzzle to find the hidden body part.**

Fig. 2
5. **Matching words and pictures**

A similar activity to the puzzle above, but on a sentence level is the one below. It involves students at B1 and B2 level to produce coherent sentences both orally and in written form describing patients’ health condition. (Oxenden, C. Latham-Koenig, C. & Hudson, J. 2012)

![Fig. 3](image)

1 **Symptoms**

a Match the words and pictures.
   - He has / He’s got...
   - a temperature / temper[ə] /.
   - a cough /kɒf/.
   - a headache (earache, stomach ache, etc.).
   - a rash.
   - a blister.
   - a pain (in his chest).
   - He’s being sick.
   - She’s sneezing a lot.
   - Her finger is bleeding.
   - His ankle is swollen.
   - Her back hurts / aches.

6. **The odd one out**, known also as the **intruder, the one man out** or **find the word that does not belong** is a comparatively easy task. Students are expected to read the words silently, choose the one that does not belong to the group and produce a short oral report.

   e.g. **Lips are different since they belong to the face and the rest are parts of the lower limbs.**
First more advanced and fluent speakers should be asked to give the explanations justifying their choice, thus providing a good model for the rest of the students. It is basically preferable to vary the difficulty of activities in the classroom so that students are not constantly involved in more and more difficult activities:

- **toes, foot, heel, lips**
- **fingers, thumb, hair, palm**
- **mouth, ears, thighs, forehead**

7. **Body quiz**

The Internet is full of activities of this type. The teachers’ task is to adapt and adjust the activity to his/her students’ immediate needs in practising and acquiring English.

e.g. _Which part of the body?_
- _the place where you wear a bracelet_
- _the two places where you might wear a belt_
- _you use these to breathe_
- _doctors listen to this to see if you have a breathing problem …_

8. A great number of tasks that contextualise different parts of the body are related to idiomatic expressions. One such activity is: **Right or wrong? Correct the wrong idioms.**

e.g. He’s starting _to get cold feet about_ the diving /paragliding expedition. v
That song is really starting to annoy me now. *I can’t get it out of my ears.* x
Don’t take it personally. Christian is only *pulling your hair.* __
Sonya *has got butterflies in her stomach* because she’s having a job interview tomorrow. __
If you don’t *learn* those formulae *by head,* you will fail the exam. __

9. A similar activity again focused on idiomatic expressions could involve students in reading a short description of a situation silently and then using the given prompt, which is part of the body, to try and remember the corresponding idiomatic phrase.

**Which idiom do you use...?**

*e.g.*

- when you have said something which you shouldn’t have said because it’s a secret or may cause embarrassment (*foot*) – *I’ve put my foot in it*
- when you can’t stop thinking about something e.g. particular song (*head*) – *I can’t get it out of my head*
- when you can’t quite remember something (*tongue*) - *it’s on the tip of my tongue*

10. **Focus on Pronunciation**

Another activity that might be useful for students when learning and especially when recycling parts of the body is to carry out an awareness-raising task of pronunciation of certain body parts and allow students to identify the silent consonants in some *Body English* words. This activity can be very useful at some stage of developing speaking skills when the focus is on accurate pronunciation.
e.g. Cross out the silent consonant in these words.
calf, palm, thumb, wrist, knee, womb

11. **From Body English to Body Language**
A typical context that allows for natural use of *Body English* is related to discussing Body Language. As a whole, it is worth discussing Body Language while focusing on doctor (dentist, pharmacist, healthcare worker) /patient communication and the signals that patients send to their healthcare providers and their proper interpretation and significance in conversation. Here is an activity for students of Medicine or Dental Medicine that encourages them to observe the behavior of patients in the waiting room of a doctor’s office: **Match the body language expressed in the drawings to the feelings.** With students of Medicine it is fashionable to focus on patients’ body language while communicating and to properly interpret the patients’ signals.

e.g. * feeling defensive - arms folded tightly over the chest
* thinking hard – a hand-to-cheek gesture, where someone brings a hand to his face and extends his index finger along his cheek
* making a decision or thinking about something important - when someone strokes his chin

12. Depending on the area of healthcare, a similar activity can be done with future midwives whose language awareness may be focused on interpreting the *Baby Body Language*. This is yet another context for natural recycling of *Body English*. 
e.g. Read the text on Baby Body Language and fill in the missing words that describe parts of the body (Angelova, V., Yoanna R., Trendafilova S., 2011):

A. What is my infant 'saying' to me?
For the first three months, it may look like your baby is giving you (1) _______ language cues. They may turn their (2) _______ quickly if you touch their (3) _______ or if they hear a loud noise. According to doctors, these actions are just your baby’s natural reflexes. Once they are three months older, some of these reflexes may disappear. Not all (4) _______ movement in infants are reflexes, however. Don’t worry, when they smile, they are truly expressing happiness, not acting on a reflex.

B. You might notice some of these actions as your baby grows:
• Arching of the (1) _______, flexing of the (2) _______ and (3) _______, and opening their (4) _______ wide. This usually indicates pain.
• Wrinkling the (5) _______ shows disgust.
• Your baby purposefully averting your (6) _______ -gaze could mean they want some alone time.
• If their (7) _______ are clasped in front of their (8) _______ it usually means they are ready to play!
• Covering their (9) _______ with their (10) _______ might be a way to block off loud noise or lots of movement. If your child does this, it might be a good opportunity for quiet time.
• If your baby squints her (11) _______, narrows and lowers her (12) _______, and opens her (13) _______ in a square shape, it probably means she’s angry!
Focus on listening

One way of contextualising the recycling of *Body English* is to combine it with developing listening skills as well. Listening to a song, e.g. Rihanna’s *California King Bed* lends itself to all sorts of techniques that can lead to designing interesting activities. One such technique is adding more words for students to cross out; another is replacing words that students have to listen to, identify mistakes and correct them; yet a third technique is for students to predict what the missing words for *Body English* are and then listen to the song and match predictions to the original lyrics.

*C California King Bed*

*Chest to ........ , nose to ........*

*Palm to ........ , we were always just that close*

*Wrist to ........ , toe to ........*

*Lips that felt just like the inside of a rose*

*So how come when I reach out my finger*

*It feels like more than distance between us?...*

Focus on reading skills

Reading is the major receptive skill that contextualises a lot of language-focused work. The following activities show a variety of approaches that involve students in reading and understanding as well as practising *Body English*. 
A. A possible reading task could be reading a poem, such as *The Microbe*, e.g. 

**Read the poem and draw a colourful picture that displays what it looks like (the way you imagine it).** The students take turns to read their part of the poem. Each of them reads two lines out loud just once by focusing on pronunciation, stress and intonation and if somebody is willing to draw a picture as close to the description of the microbe as possible, they do it. This may be one of the three compulsory homework assignments for students during each semester. Some students enjoy this opportunity to choose the type of assignment they would like to work on and admire their products. This academic year five out of seventy students opted to do the activity. It is obvious which of these two pictures corresponds more closely to the original poem. (Holt, R. & Winston, 1999)

*The Microbe*

The Microbe is so very small
You cannot make him out at all.  
But many sanguine people hope
To see him through a microscope.  
His jointed tongue that lies beneath
A hundred curious rows of teeth;  
His seven tufted tails with lots
Of lovely pink and purple spots,  
On each of which a pattern stands,  
Composed of forty separate bands;  
His eyebrows of a tender green;  
All of these have never yet been seen-
But Scientists, who ought to know,
Assure us that they must be so...
Oh! Let us never, never doubt
What nobody is sure about!

Hilaire Belloc
B. An interesting activity that develops reading skills but also contextualises the use of parts of the body is a gap-filling task called **Body Bits** that focuses on diagnosing a patient by examining his/her tongue.

*e.g.* Zetsu shin is used in traditional Chinese medicine. Practitioners examine the tongue in order to diagnose illness and to find out about the personality of the patient. Complete the text about zetsu shin using the words below.

**Colour**

Blood _________ (1) are associated with a white tongue. Yellow _________ (2) a disordered liver and gall bladder. Blue or purple shows up a _________ (3) in the digestive system. Purple on the underside shows the immune system is not working _________ (4) A dark red tongue can be a _________ (5) of inflammation or ulcers in the body. (6)

C. A third variety of a task focused on developing reading skills could draw students’ attention to a few short extracts from books. The extracts all contain *Body English* and students have to read and match the texts to the name of the author of the respective book and its title.
e.g. Read the four extracts from four contemporary novels in English. Underline the body parts and match the extracts to the corresponding title and author.

This task could be made interactive for the Blackboard Learn platform. Besides practising reading and some Body English vocabulary it will also hopefully make students aware of existing authors, their books and could encourage some further reading.

1. “His private-joke smile is etched on his beautiful face and his eyes are molten grey. In his hands he holds a bowl of strawberries.”
2. “All at once her palms, her elbows, her shoulders, her whole body began to tingle with a strange energy.”
3. “He has a wheatish complexion and cherubic face. He has curly, black hair, and when he smiles his cheeks dimple.”
4. “The mother opened her eyes….Lizzie felt her forehead with the back of her hand. It was very hot.”

Focus on writing skills

While developing the productive skills in relation to using *Body English*, a very natural activity that includes personalisation is the one for future midwives especially those who also have children. They usually provide an authentic picture of their babies and describe them. This makes the activity particularly memorable.

Focus on speaking skills

Speaking happens to be a very challenging productive skill for students of a foreign language. Those of them who are able would incorporate the *Body English* they have studied in an authentic presentation, and hence provide evidence of their spoken production skills.

A. Foods, Shapes and Parts of the Body

1. For example, students of Medicine sometimes investigate to find out how different foods contain nutrients that are good for the health of different body parts. More often than not, there exist patterns in Nature concerning these foods and some students are observant enough to draw a parallel between these shapes: e.g. the cross section of a carrot resembles the structure of the eye and it is a well-known fact that carrots contain vitamin A that is good for the eyes. Walnuts, on the other hand, look very much like the shape of the brain, and again they are known to be beneficial food for the function of the brain, etc. (actualno.com)
B. **Watching a video** YouTube is teeming with films on all sorts of topics some of which can be used in the foreign language classroom provided an interactive whiteboard is available. If we concentrate on body parts we may divide the class into three, four or more groups and ask each group to focus on a body part, e.g. skin, eyes, teeth, etc. After viewing, a short discussion may follow on how these parts of the body have changed throughout the short 6-min film. *e.g. The skin has aged and there are wrinkles. The man has problems with his eyes and has to wear glasses. His tooth was exfoliated when he was about 7 and then at around 70 he is wearing dentures..., etc. (vimeo.com)*

C. Another context that can stimulate spoken production is to use a series of pictures that show different physical exercises for pregnant women, the so called prenatal exercises, or yoga instructions, etc. The task is to explain the movements that should be performed. It creates a good context for recycling the parts of the
body by future midwives or doctors. (Angelova, V., Yoanna R., Trendafilova S., 2011)

D. Yet a different context for practising this vocabulary, which involves either spoken production or spoken interaction or both, is to ask students of Medicine to talk about innovations and latest developments in Prosthetic Medicine. A **pros** and **cons** artificial parts of the body discussion leads to an interesting exchange of ideas among future doctors. (see references, Google search for prosthetics) Another possible discussion could focus on the question, e.g. *How do you help a friend find her feet after she has had both her legs amputated because of severe circulatory disorder?*

**Conclusion**

There are a plethora of activities to teach, activate, recycle and learn vocabulary related to *Body English*. Providing a variety of appropriate contexts for natural teaching and recycling of the *Body English* or any other topic is a crucial skill especially for non-native teachers of English. If you take a textbook aimed at teaching Medical English to Midwives for thirty contact hours and thumb through the book you will find at least seven different contexts closely related to Midwifery that allow students to use the language describing different parts of the body.
There are basically two risks while exploiting a given context for language and skills developing purposes: a) to trivialise the topic and b) to overexploit the context and squeeze it dry. The latter used to be the case in the past when Internet was non-existent. Non-native teachers of English then had not enough materials and hence not sufficient amount of ideas for creating contexts for teaching and practising the English language. Nowadays, we are basically spoilt for choice, but because we are always busy multi-tasking we are in danger of not being able to select the most appropriate task for teaching certain grammar or vocabulary to a specific group of students. As far as learners are concerned, it is always a good and helpful FLT approach to trust our learners to find their best language learning strategy for acquiring and learning the specific vocabulary they need.

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Non-anthropomorphic metaphorical models in dentistry
(on English and Russian materials)

Svetlana Taneva

According to contemporary understanding, the role of metaphor in the nomination process is regarded as a cognitive mechanism by which abstract concepts are seen in more specific terms. Credit for all this goes to Michael Reddy, the founder of cognitive metaphor theory, who shows that English is more metaphorical than it was believed, that the metaphor has a leading role in the world conceptualisation, and that its sources should be sought not in the language itself but in thought (Reddy, 1979). Therefore, metaphor is one of the fundamental ways of cognition and conceptualisation of reality. According to George Lakoff, metaphor is the key mechanism by which we do not only realise abstract concepts, but also an opportunity for abstract thinking is created (Lakoff, 1993).

In his writings Hose Ortega-and-Gasset spoke about the communicative purpose of metaphorical nomination:

Metaphor is necessary not only because thanks to denomination our thought becomes available for other people; we need it in order the object to become available for our thought. Metaphor is not only a tool for expression, it is also an important tool of thought. (Hose Ortega-and-Gasset, 1990: 71)
E.S. Kubryakova highlights the dependence of the nomination act on communicative factor: ‘Aiming at simplifying things, new denominations are created not only to fix the results of cognitive and emotional activity of man but to make these results available for other people’ (Kubryakova 2004 : 63). As each science communication is based on mutual reflective dialogue and cooperation, we can assume that scientific metaphorisation provides that communicative strategy based on dialogue as a fundamental property of the metaphorical term. In the course of communication, scientific metaphor allows the speaker to define his/her discovery and the listener to understand the news and along with this to build new strategies for interpretation of studied phenomenon (Novodranova & Alexeeva 2000). At the same time, taking into account the scale of metaphorical nomination as one of the productive processes of generating linguistic units in today’s speaking practice, we should recognise metaphor as one of the most important sources for the formation of terminology (Lipilina, 1998).

The study of metaphorical terms in dental medicine materials in English and Russian enables us to foreground the enormous role of metaphor as a way of term formation. Metaphorical terms in dental medicine represent not just single or randomly chosen denominations, but a whole system within which by means of transmission metaphorical key concepts of this field of knowledge are verbalised. The number of identified terms, topical lexical variety, serve as a basis for metaphorisation. We have divided the studied metaphorical terms in English and Russian into the following metaphorical patterns:

1. Anthropomorphic metaphorical models
‘Man’
‘Buildings’
‘Everyday objects’
‘Occupation’
‘Professional tools’
‘Musical instruments’
‘Clothing and fabric’
‘Food’
‘War’
‘Orientation’
‘Mythology’
‘Letter’

II. Non-anthropomorphic metaphorical models
‘Landscape’
‘Water’
‘Fauna’
‘Flora’
‘Natural phenomena’
‘Sound’
‘Colour’
‘Nationality and geography’

The diagram and histogram below visually illustrate these metaphorical models. They both indicate the percentage and quantitative ratio of each one of them compared to the others.
A leading model in regard to quantity in anthropomorphic metaphor in dental medicine turns out to be the model ‘Man’, but in this report the emphasis is on non-anthropomorphic metaphorical models. They are not directly related to the human being and his/her behaviour, they are the result of human interpretation of the surrounding reality. In the course of the study, we came across the extremely topical diversity while examining the metaphorical terms. We set apart these terms in metaphorical non-anthropomorphic models according to the following area sources: ‘Landscape’, ‘Water’, ‘Fauna’, ‘Flora’, ‘Naturalphenomena’, ‘Sound’, ‘Colour’, ‘Nationality and geography.’
The group of metaphorical terms referred to the model ‘Landscape’ consists of 53 metaphorical units, which makes up 8.8% of all examined terms. They occupy one of the first places regarding to the number of terms in anatomical terminology – a fact that points out the importance of those terms in dental medicine terminology.

The group includes the following nouns: groove (борозда), tuberosity (бугор), tubercle (бугорок), lamina tecti=lamina quadrigemina (четверохолмие), eminence
Typical examples of this model are the following terms: *groove of the crus of the helix* – борозда ножки завитка; *maxillary tuberosity* (бугор верхней челюсти), *tubercle of the saddle* (бугорок турецкого седла), *corpora quadrigemina* (четверохолмие), *eminence of the concha* (возвышение ушной раковины), *area of the facial nerve* (поле лицевого нерва), *cup recess* (кратерообразные углубления), *facial cleft* (расщелина лица), *petrotympanic fissure* (щель каменисто-барабанная), *orbital floor* (глазничное то), *pterygopalatine fossa* (крыло-небная ямка), *cavernous sinus* (пещеристый синус).

We refer to this group the subgroup of metaphorical dental terms containing the component ‘soil, minerals and metals.’ The following terms we have identified as representatives of this subgroup which is not numerous: *sulcus sinus petrosi superioris* (борозда верхней каменистой пазухи), *sulcus nervi petrosi minoris* (борозда малого каменистого нерва), *acervulus* (‘мозговой песок’), *lens* (хрусталик), *impacted cerumen* (серная пробка).

The metaphorical model ‘Water’ is presented by a group of terms containing the so-called ‘water’ component. They occupy a certain place in dental anatomopathological terminology and their proportion compared to the total number of metaphorical terms is 7.2% (44 terms). The following metaphorical terms may serve as examples of this model containing ‘water’ component: *the cascade of vascular changes* (каскад сосудистых изменений), *lacrima lake* (слезное озеро), *venous lake* (венозное ‘озерцо’), *root canal of a tooth* (канал корня зуба), *sphenoidal*
fontanel (клиновидный родничок), cranial fontanel (родничок черепа), submandibular duct (подчелюстной проток), hydrops sacci lacrimalis (водянка слезного мешка); coast erysipelas (прибрежная рожа), water cancer (водянной рак), primary erythroblastic anemia (средиземноморская анемия).

The metaphorical term—mastoid fontanelle (родничок сосцевидный) – is the membranous interval on either side between the mastoid angle of the parietal bone, the petrous portion of the temporal bone and the occipital bone. The mastoid fontanelle is one of two areas of an infant’s head where the skull bones have not completely covered the brain. It is also known as one of the soft spots. There is one mastoid fontanelle on each side of the head, just beneath the parietal bone and between the front of the occipital bone and the lower rear edge of the temporal bone. The mastoid fontanelle has usually disappeared (because the plates of the skull grow and fuse together) by the time the infant is about a year old. Thus, in the process of semantic redefining, the metaphorical term illustrates clearly how fragile the newborn is. However, along with this, the term has lost its emotional coloration, taking its place in anatomical nomenclature.

Based on redefining zoonyms, which are the source for creating metaphors in all languages, we set apart a group of terminology units in dental medicine. It was named model ‘Flora’ with 13 % share of total quantity of terms and 79 metaphorical terms in the analysed material.

No doubt, the metaphorical language transfer is subject to very precise patterns and realised in a certain direction – from one semantic sphere to another. We have already discussed that the transfer from the sphere ‘animals’ to the ‘man’ sphere is one of the most common types of metaphorical transfer in language (Mishlanova
It is noted in a number of research papers that by means of zoomorphisms, different characteristics of man with metaphorical meaning can be made. It turns out that the sphere ‘Man’s appearance’ as an object of zoomorphic metaphorical understanding is relatively rare, and generates ‘clean’-shaped meanings in the linguistic system. Most commonly seen is the use of figurative and non-figurative terminology, or metaphor loses its connection with the object of initial meaning, becoming a general symbol of person’s negative or positive assessment (Mishlanova 2002: 44).

The following areas of metaphorical transfer were identified by us in the process of dealing with zoomorphic metaphorical terms:

1. Transfer from the parts of the body of an animal onto the parts of the human body. This metaphorical transfer is likely to happen due to the connotations that come from the animal and its name. A typical example is the term bird face (лицо птичье) – congenital facial malformation characterised by a high curve of nose, short lower jaw, cleft palate, glosoptoza. Other examples of zoomorphic metaphors are as follows: hair lip (‘заячья губа’/заешка уста), carp mouth (‘рот карпа’/шаранова уста), frog face (‘лягушачье’лицо/ жабешко лице – a disease caused by nose enlargement which is due to some polyps in the nasal cavity), mouse face (лицо мыши/лице на мишка – it occurs in chronic renal failure), monkey face (лицо обезьяны/ маймунско лице –it develops as a result of chronic malnutrition, weight below normal, lack of energy – state of ‘marazam’), etc.

The following are examples of the most popular metaphorical terms in dental terminology: Ammon horn (Аммонов рог), cock's comb (петушиный гребень), ala
of the nose (крыло носа), frontal squama (чешуя лобной кости), beak of the corpus callosum (ключ мозолистого тела), cauda helices (хвост завитка).

2. Transfer from the animal’s behaviour onto the person’s behaviour based on anomalies in the development. In such cases, ‘behavioral’ metaphorical terms can be detected, a typical example of which is the cat cry syndrome, cri-du-chat syndrome (синдром кошачьего крика).

3. Transfer from the animal’s appearance onto the person’s appearance. As a result of this metaphorical transfer, special metaphorical terms are formed they express pathological body changes: cat’s eye syndrome (синдром ‘кошачьих зрачков’), butterfly rash (‘кожная’бабочка), leonine face (‘львиное’ лицо), fish face (‘рыбье’ лицо), cow face (‘бычье’ лицо), risus caninus (собачий оскол), cochlear labyrinth (улитковый лабиринт).

The similarity between an object or phenomenon in the field of dental medicine and the appearance and behavior of an animal can serve as another prerequisite for metaphorical transfer. In this study, the following examples of metaphorical terms have been set apart for similar transfers – ‘rat tail’ rasp (рашпиль ‘крысинный хвост’), alligator forceps (щипцы ‘аллигатор’), caterpillar flap (гусеничный лоскут).

Zoomorphic dental terms, formed on the basis of metaphorical transfer, represent a version of motivated metaphor. In this terminology group there are terms for which motivation is not manifested in their interpretation. Fossa canina – собачья ямка (синоним: клыковая ямка) is such an example – a depression on the anterior
surface of the maxilla below the infraorbital foramen and on the lateral side of the canine eminence. In human musculoskeletal anatomy of the head and neck, lateral to the insicive fossa is a depression called the canine fossa. It is larger and deeper than the comparable incisive fossa, and is separated from it by a vertical ridge, the canine eminence, corresponding to the socket of the canine tooth.

The extensive research of zoomorphic metaphor in surgical dental texts allows to make a conclusion: zoomorphic metaphor is quite active and it concerns a deep layer in terminology units of dental medicine. It is used to describe medical conditions, pathological phenomena, to designate the concept standard in anatomical terminology, to denominate surgical dental tools, to depict surgical manipulations.

The next metaphorical model, which has been separated in the course of the study, is the model 'Flora' with basic component 'vegetation'. The number of detected metaphorical units is 71, which makes up 11.6% of total quantity of examined metaphorical terms.

Common outer signs of plants (wood, stem, root, leaves, twigs, bark, stem, bud) can serve for metaphorical transfer and lead to the formation of non-anthropomorphic metaphors. However, in this case, the model 'Flora' correlates with the metaphorical model 'Landscape' since the plant is regarded as a component of the Earth's surface. Typical examples in this respect are the following terms: tracheobronchial tree (трахеобронхиальное дерево), brain stem (ствол мозга/мозъчен ствол), cortex (кора головного мозга), branches of the facial nerve (ветви лицевого нерва), root of tongue (корень языка/корен на езика), taste bud
Extremely active in terminology are the metaphorical terms which stem from denominations of plants’ fruit (apple, lemon, strawberry, mushroom, olive, pear), seeds (barley, oats), vegetables (onion). In the current work, a set of meaningful units of similar kind has been separated, part of which we would like to give as examples *peel of lemon* (‘лимонная корочка’), *amygdaloideum nucleus* (миндалевидное ядро), *eye-ball* (глазное яблоко), *olivicerebellar tract* (оливомозжечковый тракт), *hair bulb* (волосистая луковица), *pyriform cavity* (грушевидная полость), *molars in the shape of mulberries* (моляры в виде тутовыхягод), *bulb of vestibule* (луковица преддверия), *strawberry tongue* (‘клубничный’язык/’ягодов’ език), *mycosis fungoides* (грибовидный микоз), *sty* (ячмень/ечемик), *oat cell carcinoma* (карцинома с овсяновидными клетками).

Thus, we can conclude that plant metaphors also express the concept ‘standard anatomical object and its normal signs’(*root of tongue, eye-ball, hair bulb*), and the concept ‘deviation from the norm, disease’(*oat cell carcinoma, mycosis fungoides, strawberry tongue*).

The model ‘Natural phenomena’ is represented by 9 metaphorical units that constitute 1.5% of total quantity of metaphorical terms in the studied section: *chalazia, chalazion* (градина), *flame bur* (пламевидный бор), *hiatus semilunaris*, *semilunar hiatus* (полулунная расщелина), *stellate fracture* (звездчатый перелом), *uranoschisis* (расщелина неба), *iris* (радужная оболочка глаза).
The metaphorical model ‘Colour’ can also be found in anatomical dental terminology and in denominations of particular diseases. 8 metaphorical terms illustrating this model (1.4%) have been found in the examined material: *purpura* (пурпурра), *raspberry tongue* (малиновый язык), *rubella* (краснуха), *gray matter* (серое вещество), *port-wine mark* (невус цвета портвейна), *black hairy tongue* (черный ‘волосатый’ язык), *linea alba colli* (белая линия шеи), *white blood cell* (белая кровяная клетка), *cafe au lait spots* (пятна цвета кофе с молоком).

We should note that in a number of cases metaphors of this pattern are not semantically redefined as colour may not be a characteristic feature of a certain phenomenon or an anatomical organ. An example of such a metaphor is the term *linea alba colli* (белая линия – *white line* is a term used in dentistry to describe a horizontal streak on the inner surface of the cheek level with the biting plane). It usually extends from the commisure to the posterior teeth and can extend to the inner lip mucosa and corners of the mouth. It is a common finding and most likely associated with pressure, frictional irritation, or sucking trauma from the facial surfaces of the teeth. It may be found in individuals who chew tobacco, and may be mistaken for a lesion requiring treatment.

The metaphorical model ‘Sound’ with its terminological units from dental medicine is proved to be extremely interesting for the present study. Only 6 terms were found containing the component ‘sound’ and making up 0.9% of the total amount of all concerned units.

The level of interpretation of the natural sign–disease symptoms is an important pattern of clinical diagnosis, which is a specific cognitive activity.
If the symptom is interpreted only on a phenomenon level, namely, as a sign of a certain disease, then the process of term formation in this case coincides with the process of recoding of the natural sign, creating a secondary sign, which exactly refers to figurative nomination (Mishlanova 2002: 71). Examples of a similar recoding and metaphorical process are the terms: симптом ‘шуму удаляющегося поезда’, cat cry syndrome (синдром ‘кошачьего мяуканья’), cracked-pot sound (симптом ‘шума треснувшего горшка’). Etnolinguistic differences observed in the formation of mental prerequisites for creating a certain metaphor are found to be interesting. For example, in the Russian medical literature, the metaphorical term ‘шумволчка’ is a sign of a rapid loss of massive amount of blood in auscultation; in English the term nun’s murmur (букв. щебетание болотной галки) is used for this concept.

‘Nationality and geography’ is the next metaphorical model which was found in the studied material and presented by 6 metaphorical terms (0.9%). Typical examples of this model are the following terms from dental medicine terminology: Turkish saddle (турецкое седло), Olympian forehead (олипийский лоб), tappy tongue (язык географический), geographical skull (географический череп), geographical tongue, lingua geographica (географический язык), German measles (краснуха коревая).

There are a number of diseases with non-dental genesis and their symptoms manifest in oral cavity and, therefore, occur in dental practice. The names of such diseases can be treated as national-geographic metaphors. We found cases in which the name of the country is used as a source for the metaphorical transfer: German
measles (немецкая корь), morbus gallicus (французская болезнь /сифилис), anthrax (сибирская язва), caused by Bacillus anthracis.

The classification of metaphorical units showed that the formation of terms in English and Russian dental medicine is characterised by specific cognitive strategies of metaphorisation, selective activity of metaphorical models demonstrating the presence of systematisation in term formation where key concepts from the studied field of knowledge have been examined.

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Търговските писма при обучението по руски език като чужд

Димитрина Лесневска

Commercial correspondence in teaching Russian as a foreign language

**Abstract:** The paper deals with the particularities of the contemporary Bulgarian and Russian commercial correspondence and touches upon issues of the educational-methodical, stylistic and discourse analyses of commercial letters. The term *discourse of business transaction* is examined as part of Economic Discourse.

Съвременната бизнес кореспонденция (делова кореспонденция) на руски и български език илюстрира големите промени в обществено-политически живот на двете славянски страни. Преходът към пазарна икономика наложи съществени промени в търговската кореспонденция (ТК) на руски и български езици, превръщайки я в настоящия момент в съвременна европейска кореспонденция.

Същевременно, както руската, така и българската ТК са продължение и резултат на вековните национални културни традиции на епистоларния жанр на деловия стил в рамките на двата славянски езици. Двете славянски кореспонденции имат общи корени: първите руски и български епистоларни сборници са ръкописните „Писмовници” през XVIII век (Лесневска 2002).
Търговската кореспонденция на руски и български език се подразделя на два сектора: I. Подготовка на търговската сделка (писма за проучване на пазара, свободни запитвания и отговори, свободни оферти и отговори, писма при обявяване на търг, търговски препоръки, рекламни писма; II. Изпълнение на търговската сделка (конкретни запитвания и отговори, твърди оферти, поръчки и отговори на поръчки, търговски договори, доставки и транспорт, застраховки, плащания, счетоводство, банки, рекламации, напомнителни писма при плащания) (Лесневска 2013: 75–83).

Според вида на търговското писмо (просто писмо, писмо-документ) рамката на композиционната структура е различна: свободното запитване, например, варира по композиция, съдържание и езикови средства, докато писмата на банковите институции относно извършваните банкови операции са със строго определена текстова структура и съдържение (Сологуб 2010: 244–256).

Рекламното търговско писмо на руски и на български език съдържа оценъчност и емоционалност; то е с по-свободна текстова форма и синтактичен строй на изреченията, допуска се образност на езика (метафори и др.).

Съвременната ТК на руски и български език е по-разнообразна по съдържание, по-малко официална, императивна, безлична и категорична от предишната официално-унифицирана и максимално стандартизирана служебна преписка. Междуфирмената преписка придобива и в двата езика личностен характер, където вежливостта не е безизразно клише на формата, а
необходимост, знак на колегиалност и взаимоотношения между партньори. Всяка руска или българска фирма - частно търговско дружество - има възможност да изгради свойствен стил при веднега на бизнес кореспонденцията.

Двете славянски кореспонденции имат, естествено, и различия, следвайки в своето развитие и оформяне своите писмене традиции и културно-исторически приоритети. Като илюстрация за различията могат да послужат рекламните писма, които са най-свободни по форма, съчетавайки официално-деловия, разговорния и публицистичния функционални стилове. Рекламните търговски писма илюстрират националния манталитет, социално-етническата специфика, фолклора на дадения социум.

Така, руските рекламни писма отразяват спецификата на руската търговска реклама (словесни шеги, загадки, акроними, фрази от прочутите „частушки” и пр.), сравн. пример за електронно шеговито рекламно писмо до потребителя: Хотите прорубить окно к соседу? Нет ничего проще! При помощи чудесной дрели „Изрешечу” Вы сможете сделать это без труда в считаные минуты. Любую дыру, любого размера в любой стене. Нужно сделать микроскопическую дырочку, чтобы воткнуть крохотную булавочку? Запросто! В прилагаемом БЕСПЛАТНО комплекте из 25 сверл Вы найдете уникальное микроскопическое сверло.

Българските рекламни писма отразяват балканските културно-исторически традиции, балканския мироглед и манталитет. Напр., електронно шеговито рекламно писмо до клиент: Червена роза-клуб-Казанлък. Аз и моят
весел, щур екип. Когато работят – работят перфектно. Когато празнуват – знам как да се веселят...

Съвременната руска и българска ТК има строго определена структура (композиция), формат (бланки по стандартни образци, определени от държавните стандарти и държавната система за деловодство), задължителни реквизити - структурно-семантични блокове, съдържащи самостоятелна текстова информация: адрес на подателя (адресант), адрес на получателя (адресат), регистрационни индекси, номер и дата на писмото (Наш знак), номер и дата на писмото, на което се отговаря (Ваш знак), анотация (относно), обръщение, текст, заключителна формула на любезност, подпис (длъжност, личен подпис, разшифровка), приложение, копие.

В българските икономически вузове търговската кореспонденция (ТК) е основан елемент на бизнес-езика (Business Language) при обучението по чужди езици за професионални цели (език за специални цели – Language for Specific Purposes), модул „бизнес“. Като синтез на лингвистиката и методиката на преподаване на чужди езици, „езикът за специални цели“ представлява ефективно средство за формиране на чуждоезикова професионална компетенция.

При преподаването на търговска кореспонденция на чужд език съпоставянето с родната българска кореспонденция е задължителен елемент, тъй като текстът на търговското писмо се състои от фрази-клишета, специфични за всеки език, които не се превеждат дословно. Съпоставителният анализ на формата и комплекса от реквизити на чуждоезикова и родната търговски
Кореспонденции, двустранният превод осмислят преподаването по чужд бизнес-език, подпомагат за придобиване на писмени умения за съставяне на бизнес-кореспонденция едновременно на български и чужд език.

Със своя лексикален конгломерат от търговски, икономически и делови термини, с пъстрото съчетание на изрази от търговската практика и официално-делови етикетни клишета с фиксирано разположение и формат, ТК привлича вниманието при преподаването. Интересен е новият хибриден вид „рекламни писма“, които заемат граничната зона между официално-деловия и публицистично-функционалния стилове. Рекламните писма на чужд и роден език съдържат изразителни метафори на съвременната търговска реклама и са актуални както в теоретичен, така и в прагматичен план като елемент на маркетинга.

От аспекта на лингводидактиката, лингвоикономиката и комуникативната стилистика предлагаме „Курс по външнотърговската сделка“ при обучението на студенти по руски език в българските икономически висши учебни заведения. Съвременните руски търговски писма заемат ключова позиция в дискурса на търговската сделка и са ефективен учебен материал при обучението по руски език като чужд за специални цели.
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