СЪВРЕМЕННИ ИЗМЕРЕНИЯ НА ПСИХОФИЗИОЛОГИЧЕСКИТЕ ИЗСЛЕДВАНИЯ В ПОДВОДНИЯ ЕКСПЕРИМЕНТ „ХЕБРОС '67"
(40 години от експеримента в подводния дом „Хеброс '67")

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CONTEMPORARY DIMENSIONS OF THE PSYCHO-PHYSIOLOGICAL RESEARCHES IN THE UNDERWATER EXPERIMENT „HEBROS '67"
(40th anniversary of the experiment with the underwater home „Hebros '67")

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Abstract: *The paper is dedicated to the 40th anniversary of the underwater experiment "Hebros' 67". The achievements of the world nautical science and experience of the 60's and the contribution of the Bulgarian research-workers and experimenters to the golden century of the aquanautics are subject of research. Stress is being laid up on revealing the contemporary significance of the experiment with the underwater home "Hebros' 67".*
Key words: *aquanauts, aquanautics, underwater researches, underwater home, underwater divers, underwater technologies, survival at sea, rescue operations, life-saving remedies, human psyche resources, safety at sea.*

> *„Знаменити корабокрушенци, загинали стихийно, преждевременно, зная, че не сте умрели от морето, че не сте умрели от глад, че не сте умрели от жажда, понеже, подмятани от вълните, преследвани от крясъците на чайките, сте умрели от ужас!"*
>
> **Д-р Ален Бомбар (27.10.1924 - 19.07.2005)**

> *„Не ми дават покой огромните маси на океаните, очакващи своето изучаване!"*
>
> **Капитан Жак-Ив Кусто (10.06.1910 - 25.06.1997)**

> *"Много корабокрушенци умират много преди физическите или физиологическите условия да са станали сами по себе си смъртоносни. Как да се води борба с отчаянието, далеч по-силен и по-бърз причинител на гибелта от кой да е друг физически фактор?....*
>
> *Опитът, който направих върху себе си, беше направен преди всичко за да преодолея страха, а след това вече – жаждата и глада!"*
>
> **Д-р Ален Бомбар (27.10.1924 - 19.07.2005)**

1. ВЪВЕДЕНИЕ

Овладяването на Световния океан се оказа значително по-трудно и по-бавно за човечеството, отколкото овладяването на Космоса. Столетия наред хората са се стремили да покорят океанската стихия и да проникнат в морските дълбини, но успехите в тази посока нараснаха едва след 1950 година. Тогава човечеството сполучливо започна да намира решенията на трудни задачи, чиито отговори са търсени векове наред: надеждно оцеляване в морските катастрофи и проникване в дълбините на Океана с помощта на подводни съоръжения, акванавтиката и подводните технологии.

В периода 60-те - 80-те години на XX век се получи своеобразен бум с извършването на фундаментални изследвания в областта на акванавтиката и оцеляването на човека на море, които осигуриха качествен скок в овладяването на Световния океан и натрупването на знания за физиологията на човека и за резервите на човешката психика. Благодарение на тези изследвания интензивно започнаха да се развиват подводните технологии, подводните съоръжения и спасителните средства на корабите, създаде се ново познание за физическите и психическите възможности на човека, безопасността на мореплаването и опазването на човешкия живот на море.

През този етап Република България зае ключови позиции в световните морски изследвания благодарение на държавническия подход към науката по това време, на ентусиазма и дръзновението на морските изследователи, на обществения интерес към резултатите от морските експерименти. За да се разбере по-добре и за да се оцени по-пълно от позициите на XXI век значимостта на научните изследвания на българ-

ските акванавти от подводния дом "Хеброс' 67" е целесъобразно да се направи обзор върху подводните експерименти в света през периода 1960-1980 година.

Настоящият труд е посветен на 40-годишнината на подводния експеримент "Хеброс' 67", който по значимост е съеизмерим с проведените през 60-те години на XX век подводни изследвания в другите страни.

Цел: да се изследват достиженията в световната морска наука и практика в оцеляването на море и подводната дейност през 60-те години на XX век като се разкрие съвременното значение на експеримента в подводния дом "Хеброс' 67".

Методи:

- Библиографски метод и проучване на литературни източници у нас и в чужбина.

- Беседи и кореспонденция с акванавтите в подводния експеримент "Хеброс' 67" д-р Гарабед Томас Томасян, д.м. и г-н Иван Петров, и с ръководителя на медицинските и психологическите изследвания професор д-р Азаря Джалдети, д.м.н.

- Сравнителен анализ и синтез.

- Обобщение и прогнозиране.

- За пръв път у нас е събран и систематизиран богат снимков материал, илюстриращ творческите дръзновения на пионерите в подводните експерименти в периода 1960-1980 г. и техните материализирани мечти, намерили реализация в най-новите инженерни и архитектурни подводни проекти в края на XX век и началото на XXI век.

2. ОБЗОР ВЪРХУ ФУНДАМЕНТАЛНИТЕ ИЗСЛЕДВАНИЯ В ОБЛАСТТА НА ОЦЕЛЯВАНЕТО НА ЧОВЕКА НА МОРЕ И АКВАНАВТИКАТА ПРЕЗ 60-ТЕ ГОДИНИ НА XX ВЕК И МАТЕРИАЛИЗАЦИЯТА ИМ В УНИКАЛНИ ПОДВОДНИ ПРОЕКТИ ПРЕЗ XXI ВЕК

В периода 1950-1980 година в света се проведоха десетки морски експерименти в две главни направления, които дадоха силен тласък в развитието на морската наука и морските технологии:

- оцеляването при бедствия и безопасност на човешкия живот на море;

- акванавтиката и създаването на първите подводни домове.

Златният век на акванавтиката се предшества от смелите опити на френския мореплавател-изследовател д-р Ален Бомбар върху възможностите за оцеляване на корабокрушенци на море (2; 3). През 1952 г. двадесет и осем годишният д-р Ален Бомбар на малка надувна гумена лодка "Еретик" извърши 65-дневно плаване в Атлантическия океан с **цел** да докаже, че морето може да даде препитание на корабокрушенците за продължително време докато бъдат намерени и спасени. Избраното име на лодката "Еретик" точно отговаря на дързостта на мореплавателя и предприятия от него експеримент, както и на начина, по който другите отстрани са погледнали на това "налудничаво" морско изследване [2, 3].

Плаването на д-р Ален Бомбар с лодката "Еретик" наистина е ерес, т.е. невиждано отклонение от общоприетите правила и норми в корабоплаването и морските експерименти и не се вписва в тогавашните представи на морската общественост. Нещо повече, дори десет години след успешното завършване на експеримента, недоброжелатели на д-р Ален Бомбар, които не са могли да се примирят с неговите успехи и придобитата слава, са продължавали да тровят живота му, като са разпространявали различни клевети, сплетни, слухове, клюки, доноси, дори са направили запор върху негов кораб-лаборатория с цел да спънат дейността на учения. През 1962 година бивш негов приятел закупува на търг единият от двата изследователски кораба на д-р Ален Бомбар с цел да прекъсне проучвателната му дейност.

Така човекът, който бе дръзнал да излезе на самотен двубой с океана и донесе спасение на многобройни корабокрушенци, се почувства безпомощен пред човешката завист и злоба, пред враждебността и сплетните на хората, облечени с доверието му [2, стр. 244-245]. Каква мъдрост се крие зад латинската сентенция "ПОСРЕДСТВЕНАТА ИНТЕЛИГЕНТНОСТ НИКОГА НЕ ПРОЩАВА НА ТАЛАНТА!".
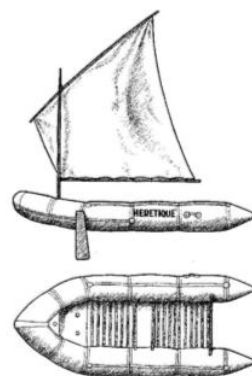
"Еретик" - надувната лодка на д-р Ален Бомбар

Логично беше успешният резултат от такъв експеримент през 1952 година да доведе до засилване на вярата на хората във възможностите за оцеляване при корабокрушение и даде нови знания за оцеляването на човека в екстремните ситуации, да им дава жизнена енергия десетилетия наред и да им помага да оцелеят!

Д-р Ален Бомбар доказа, че за корабокрушенците са по-опасни страхът и депресията, отколкото липсата на храна и вода. Неговото плаване потвърди, че човек, изпаднал в беда сред океана, може да се спаси, стига да запази силата на духа си и вярата, че може да бъде спасен.

Д-р Ален Бомбар отрази резултатите от своите научни експерименти и изследвания в книгата "Доброволец корабокрушенец" [2, 3]. Експериментът разкри широк психосоматичен толеранс на човека и убедително показа неподозираните резерви на тялото и психиката. В резултат на експеримента се направи кате-

горичен извод: главното оръжие в борбата с океана се явява мъжеството, волята, увереността в благоприятния изход, вярата и надеждата за спасяване, жаждата и борбата за живот.

Друг морски изследовател, който направи подобен експеримент върху себе си в Атлантическия океан е немският лекар д-р Ханес Линдеман. Той също е работил като лекар в Казабланка през 1952 година и лично се познава с д-р Ален Бомбар и неговия подвиг.

Доктор Ханес Линдеман с малка лодка два пъти преплава Атлантическия океан също в ролята на мореплавател-самотник - през 1955 и 1956 г., съответно за 65 дни и за 72 дни. По време на експериментите върху себе си д-р Ханес Линдеман значително обогатява изводите на д-р Ален Бомбар за психическата закалка и прави фундаментални открития за ролята на подсъзнанието за оцеляването на човека в критични ситуации на море - също чрез рискови експерименти върху себе си.

Двете плавания през Атлантическия океан дават възможност на д-р Ханес Линдеман върху основата на учението на Йоханес Хайнрих Шулц (20.06.1884 - 19.09.1970) за автогенния тренинг да открие и апробира в океански условия своя Системата за психофизическо саморегулиране [8]. Д-р Ханес Линдеман също така създаде и ефективна система за автогенен тренинг, която е предена на повече от 20 езика [7].

По време на експериментите д-р Ханес Линдеман открива пряка връзка между вътрешния монолог на човека и шанса за успешно оцеляване в критични ситуации. Когато настъпи фазата "не мога", непосредствено след нея настъпва и поражението. До подобни изводи е достигнал и немският лекар Виктор Франкъл, който е наблюдавал поведението на концлагеристите във фашистките "лагери на смъртта" по време на Втората световна война. Това негово откритие пък му позволява да открие ново психотерапевтично направление - логотерапия (лечение чрез смисъл). Своя опит Виктор Франкъл отрази в книгата "Смисълът на живота. Увод в логотерапията", издадена у нас през 1994 година.

В морските летописи плаванията на д-р Ален Бомбар и д-р Ханес Линдеман се определят като химн на човешкото мъжество и безстрашие. В своите експерименти те отиваха на смъртен риск в името на хуманни цели и спасяването на изпадналите в беда хора. Техният героичен пример вдъхнови и продължава да вдъхновява много корабокрушенци и им дава сила за живот.

Едно от най-ярките доказателства за това е героизмът на четиримата военнослужещи от ВМС на Русия, които издържаха суровите изпитания на 49-дневното аварийно плаване в Тихия океан през 1960 година (17 януари - 7 март 1960 г.). Това са Асхат Зиганшин, Филипп Поплавский, Анатолий Крючковский и Иван Федотов [1].

Корабът "Т-36" (17-метрова баржа, използвана за превоз на продукти) с четиримата моряци на борда на 17 януари 1960 г. е бил закотвен край един от Ку-

"Ние изчерпвахме водата, стоейки в нея до пояс..."

рилските острови (остров Итуруп), но поради силния щорм се откъснал от котвата и е дрейфал (англ. drift - отнасяне, отклонение на кораб от курса му, дрейф) 1020 мили в продължение на 49 дни, докато бъде спасен на 7 март 1960 г. от американския авионосец "Кирсардж" - Kearsarge [23, 24]:

Американския авионосец "Кирсардж" - Kearsarge, спасил бедстващите руски моряци на 7 март 1960 г.

USS Kearsarge Rescues Four Soviet Soldiers Adift in Pacific Ocean for 49 Days

DOD Press Release No. 257-60, 8 March 1960

The Russians gave their names as: Master Sergeant Victor Zygonschi, 21; Private Anthony Kruchowske, 22; Private Philip Poplavski, 20; and Private Fredor Ivan, 20.

http://www.history.navy.mil/wars/kearsage.htm

Главният извод от подвига на д-р Ален Бомбар, който придава и смисъл на неговия живот и оправдава предприетия риск си оставят хилядите хора, които са се спасили благодарение на неговия експеримент и са му изпращали след това в знак на признателност трогателни писма-откровения: *"Ако не беше Вашият пример, ние щяхме да сме загинали!"*.

При подготовката на настоящия труд бяха открити документирани от историята спомени на двама от оцелелите бедстващи моряци на кораба "Т-36", които съдържат дълбоки човешки изповеди и са много вълнуващи. Това са спомените на старшия на групата бедстващи военнослужещи - сержант Асхат Зиганшин и на редник Анатолий Крючковский (званията не са морски, понеже по тогавашните стандарти и щатове корабът се е числял към бреговата база, изпълняваща логистични функции). За всички хора, които са свързани с морето, техните разкази ще предизвикат размисъл и поуки:

Първо: През месец март 1999 г. киевчанинът Анатолий Федорович Крючковский в едно свое интервю посочи онази сила, която им е помогнала да оцелеят (1):

"Още в първите дни на дрейфа Иван Федотов си *спомни* за един френски лекар - Ален Бомбар. Той на гумена лодка, без продукти за хранене и вода пресича Атлантическия океан и доказва, че човек може да оцелее и в такива сурови условия." След убедителния разказ на Федотов изводът се налага от само себе си - *щом Ален Бомбар е оцелял, ние също имаме шанс да оцелеем!* Този извод дава вяра и надежда на бедстващите в морето в продължение на 49 сурови зимни дни!

Целесъобразно е да се поясни, че Иван Федотов е другият участник в бедственото плаване, който е бил семеен и е очаквал син. Надеждата и вярата, че ще оцелее и ще види сина си му е придавала допълнителна духовна енергия и жажда за живот в онези ужасяващи условия на екстремалната ситуация. Любопитно е и това, че Иван е очаквал раждането на сина си на 23 февруари - прогнозата се сбъдва със завидна за условията на бедствието точност - след спасяването на корабокрушенците на 7 март щастливият млад баща научава, че Саша се е родил на 24 февруари 1960 г. [11].

Този случай за сетен път потвърждава една древна истина, базирана на знанията, които Бог Хермес и Делфийският оракул са оставили на човечеството: Познай себе си! След като опознаеш себе си ще можеш, извиквайки тайнствените сили на душата си, да победиш отчаянието, страха, болестта, да измениш своето светоусещане. Древните истини намериха своето научно обяснение и развитие в една от най-модерните области на медицината и психологията - психосоматиката, която то разкри връзката между психиката и тялото и с успех сега се развива.

Анатолий Федорович Крючковский посочва и *друг силен фактор* - старшият на групата сержант Асхат Зиганшин е бил *признатият лидер*, което е помогнало в групата да няма конфликти, грубости, кавги и пр. Това е особено важно, защото в такива тежки ситуации сработват редица инстинкти и хората се проявяват по един животински начин, стига се дори до канибализъм, отнемане на спасителните средства, на храната и водата. Такива случаи са описани подробно в литературата за екстремните ситуации.

Второ: В бедстващата четиричленна група не се стига до тежки деформации в човешките взаимоотношения поради силата на морското възпитание, другарството и готовността за саможертва, вярата и надеждата в спасението.

На 13.06.2006 г. - в деня на своята 68-годишнина старшият на групата Асхат Зиганшин си спомня (17):

"Аз най-много се боях от *конфликти*. Затова веднага поставих цел: в никакъв случай да не ги допуснем!".

Другият от живите днес моряци от "Т-36" Анатолий Федорович Крючковский в деня на своята 67-годишнина - 27 януари 1999 г. споделя:

"Минаваха дни, седмици, а помощ все няма и няма. Но ние *не губехме надеждата, вярвахме*, че нас ни търсят. Както се изясни по-късно, това наистина е било така. Сред нас *нямаше паника* - ние вярвахме, че когато щормът свърши, нас ще ни открият. Нямаше отчаяние."

Няколко дни преди спасителния ден 7 март 1960 г., членовете на екипажа от време на време се поддават на *отчаяние*, възникват и *халюцинации*.

Вярвали са в девиза "Сам загини, но другаря си спаси!", който е крепял връзката между четиримата моряци на бедстващия кораб (1).

И днес в много учебници по оцеляване се отразяват онези *азбучни истини*, открити от д-р Ален Бомбар по време на неговия 65-дневен експеримент, известни като "петте пристъпа на болестта на корабокрушенците - по Бомбар":

1) Потъване - убива за няколко минути.
2) Студ и горещина - убиват за няколко часа.
3) Страх - убива също за няколко часа.
4) Жажда - убива за няколко дни.
5) Глад - убива за няколко седмици.

Откритията на д-р Ален Бомбар и трогателните послания до него, както и недвусмислените изводи, които е направил, трябва да се изучават от всички мореплаватели, защото дават вяра и надежда, изпълват човек с нова жизнена енергия и му помагат да оцелее.

Второто направление на фундаменталните изследвания през 60-те години е свързано с акванавтиката и създаването на първите подводни домове. Много бързо човечеството е обхванато от страст по "под-

водно домостроене", която през 2007 година намери върхова изява в проект за огромен подводен хотел.

Началото на експериментите в "подводен дом" е положено от френския изследовател капитан Жак-Ив Кусто през 1962 г. [9, 11].

- през 1965 г. - операцията "Преконтинент-3" с шест акванавти, сред които е и Филип Кусто - по-малкия син на Жак Ив Кусто.

Проведените опити позволяват да се изучи човешката психика в затворено пространство на дълбочина,
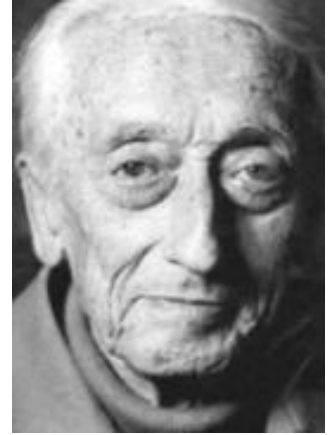
Легендарният опит на капитан Жак Ив Кусто по изучаване на пълноценния живот под водата започва през 1962 г. с подводен дом "Diogen" - експеримент "Precontinent-1", в хода на която двама плувци - Албер Фалко и Клод Уесли живеят една седмица в подводен дом на 10 метра дълбочина, а работят на 25 метра под водата [11, 4]. В следващите експерименти дълбочината се увеличава - "Precontinent-2", 1963 г. (27 метра); "Precontinent-3", 1965 г. (100 метра, продължителност 4 седмици);

Резултатите са обнадеждаващи и опитите продължават [11, 4]:

- през 1963 г. е проведена операцията "Преконтинент-2" с 5 души, в т.ч. двамата акванавти от първия експеримент;

както и много други поведенчески и физиологически характеристики.

Постигнатите резултати в подводните изследва-наия на капитан Жак Ив Кусто оказват силно позитивно въздействие върху десетки други акванавти от най-различни райони на света. В периода 1960 г. и 1970 г. много други държави изготвят свои проекти за под-водни домове и провеждат подводни експерименти с акванавти: Италия, Великобритания, Германия, Полша, Куба, България, Канада, Япония, Русия, ЧССР-Куба, САЩ [4].

Днес разбира се такива подобни домове не се строят, а се използват потопяеми капсули и управляеми роботи, което нямаше да може да стане без приноса на първопроходците - акванавтите в подводните домове на 60-те години на ХХ век.

На фотосите са показани някои от подводните домове, построени в периода 1960-1970 г.:

Интериорът на подводен дом "Diogen"
Експериментът "Precontinent-1", Франция, 1962 г.
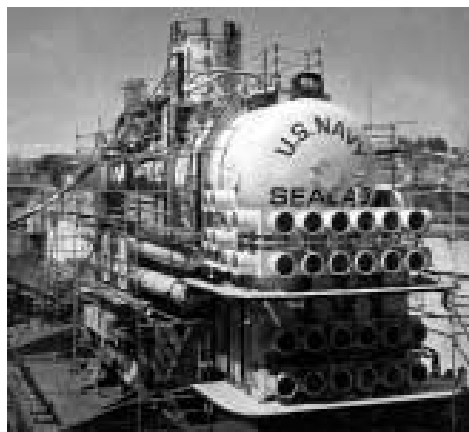
Подводна лаборатория "Sealab-3"
в сухия док

Подводен дом "Хеброс" - България, 1967 г.

Подводен дом "ВАН" - ФРГ, 1966 г.

Подводен дом "Meduza" - Полша, 1966 г.

Подводна лаборатория "Helgoland", ФРГ, 1966 г.
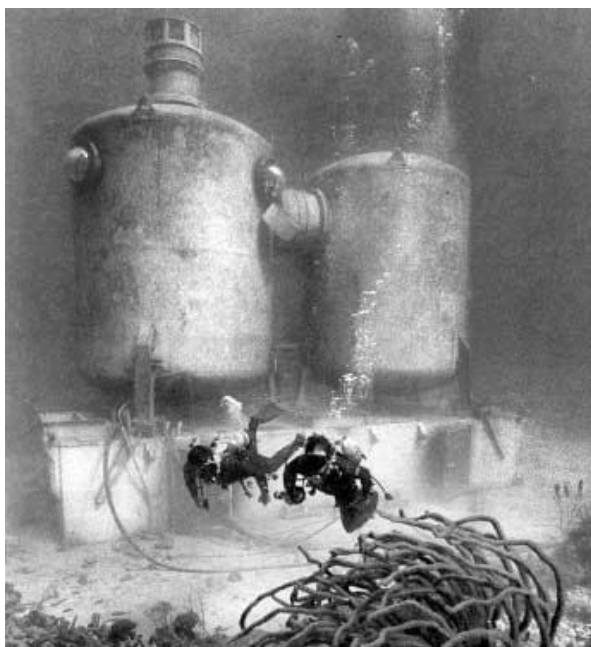*Биологически институт на о. Хелхоланд*

Подводен дом "Malter-1" - ГДР, 1966 г.

Подводна лаборатория "Hydr-lab", САЩ

*Подводна лаборатория "Черномор-2", Русия, 1969 г. -
Институт по океанология "П. П. Ширшов"*

Програмата "Tektite" е бюджетно финансирана от NOAA (Национално управление по изследване на океана и атмосферата) и NASA (Национална аеро-космическа агенция). Подводният дом "Tektite" представлява първообраз на чуждопланетна станция, в която се имитират условията на продължителен космически полет и пребиваване на човека в станция на друга планета.

Настоящето изследване показва убедително, че през 1960 г. - 1980 г. човечеството беше обхванато от страст към "подводното домостроене", което в началото на XXI век даде мощен тласък в развитието на грандиозно подводно строителство. Прототиповете на първите подводни домове се трансформираха в реални инженерни и архитектурни проекти: подводен дом "Jules Undersea Lodge" край Флорида - с действаща обитаема подводна лаборатория "Aquarius"; изследователска база "Ocean Base One", САЩ; хотелските комплекси "Посейдон" и "Хидрополис" [9, 22, 25].

В Дубай през 2003 г. започна строителство на екзотичеи подводен хотел "Хидрополис" във вид на огромен балон с 220 стаи и обща площ 107 700 квадратни метра, който се предвижда да бъде завършен до края на 2007 г. [9].

Подводна лаборатория "Tektite", САЩ

*"Hydropolis", Дубай
(в близост до изкуствения остров "Dubai Palm")*

*Петзвезден хотел "Poseidon" на о-в Eleuthera -
комплекс "Тайнственият остров Посейдон", Бахамски архипелаг, Атлантически океан*

Ocean Base-1, USA, The U.S. Global Ocean Observing System

Рискът на смелчаците акванавти през 60-те години на XX век се оправда, а трудът им се увенча с успех и слава. Техните мечти вече се материализират в уникални подводни проекти, чиято реализация стана възможна благодарение на синтеза и синергията от познанието на онези акванавти, които първи прокараха пътя в подводните дълбини и новите информационни, проектантски и строителни технологии.

3. ПРИНОСЪТ НА БЪЛГАРСКИТЕ ИЗСЛЕДОВАТЕЛИ И ЕКСПЕРИМЕНТАТОРИ ЗА ЗЛАТНИЯ ВЕК НА АКВАНАВТИКАТА. ПСИХОФИЗИОЛОГИЧЕСКИТЕ ИЗСЛЕДВАНИЯ В ПОДВОДНИЯ ЕКСПЕРИМЕНТ "ХЕБРОС' 67" И ТЕХНИТЕ СЪВРЕМЕННИ ИЗМЕРЕНИЯ

Началото се постави през 1967 г. от д-р Гарабед Томасян и учителя по физкултура Иван Петров от гр. Пловдив с експеримент в подводен дом "Хеброс' 67" във Варненското езеро [20].

Своя личен принос като първопроходци двамата акванавти са отразили изключително скромно в телеграфен стил [6, с. 158]:

"Първата българска подводна къща "Хеброс' 67" е конструирана през 1967 година. Дълбочина - 10 метра. Престой - 7 денонощия. Конструктори и акванавти - д-р Гаро Томасян и Иван Петров".

Първият български подводен дом "Хеброс' 67" е изработен от железопътна цистерна, съответно преработена. От долната страна е снабден с входен люк, който отвежда в двете помещения на дома: преддверие и същински дом. В него двамата леководолази д-р Гарабед Томасян, д.м. и Иван Петров престояха на 10 метра под водата от 16 юли до 23 юли 1967 г. - пълни седем денонощия, т.е. 168 часа.

Подводен дом "Хеброс' 67", акванавтите д-р Гарабед Томасян и Иван Петров, бащата на д-р Гарабед Томасян, д.м., който през цялото време на експеримента е бил на брега сред осигуряващия екип и е оказвал морална и психическа подкрепа.

На брега експериментът се осигурява от леководолазите Стойчо Христев и Стоян Бухалски, а също така от и от телефонисти, електротехници, компресористи. Лекар на групата е професорът от Пловдивската медицинска академия д-р Азаря Джалдети, д.м.н., който ръководи и научните наблюдения върху двамата акванавти.

Работният ден на акванавтите продължава от 6 до 22 часа. В дневния им режим влизаха 5 часа работа извън кабината на морското дъно (два часа сутрин, два - следобед и един - вечер), около 5 часа самонаблюдения и експерименти с д-р Джалдети, почивка, хранене, различни игри, четене книги и пр. Последните 24 часа акванавтите са поставени в пълна изолация - прекъсната е телефонната връзка и дори осветлението.

Опитът на подводен дом "Хеброс' 67" още веднъж доказа, че човек може за продължително време да се засели на морското дъно и оттам да извлича толкова необходимите за човечеството храни и суровини.

Изследването с подводен дом "Хеброс' 67" беше
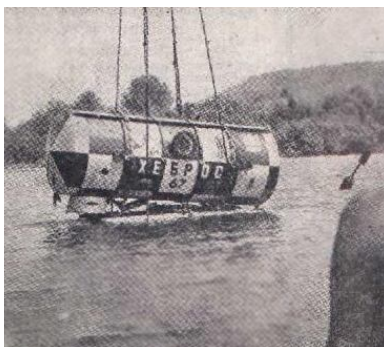
отразявано в редица чуждестранни научни трудове [21].

Научни издания, в които е отразен опитът с "Хеброс '67"

Д-р Гарабед Томасян провежда още *десетки други експерименти*, които са отразени в редица публикации у нас и в чужбина [5, 6, 7, 19].

Така например през 1982 година д-р Гарабед Томасян, д.м. проведе експеримент в Черно море, с който се доказа, че причина за загубата на сили и гибел на хората, които са претърпели корабокрушение, се явява не конкретната смъртна физическа заплаха, не липсата на храна и вода, а психическите претоварвания, предизвикани от съжителството на случайни хора на тясно пространство в екстремални условия.

Подробна информация за експериментите в Черно море и река Дунав с участието на д-р Гарабед Томасян се съдържа в издадената в град Пловдив тритомна поредица "Оцеляване на човека при екстремалните въздействия на морето" [5, 6, 7], както и в издадената в съавторство от Гарабед Томас Томасян, Анастасия Димитрова Карова и Светлозар Хараланов Хараланов книга "Оцеляване на човека при бедствие в морето" [19]. Книгите съдържат и богат доказателствен снимков материал от проведените експерименти.

Доктор Гарабед Томас Томасян е направил *лични авторски публикации* по десетки **теми**, които е изследвал в проведените от него **експерименти**:

- Медицински аспекти на оцеляването при бедствия в морето [19, с. 7-27];

- Влиянието на глада и жаждата като фактори за оцеляването при корабокрушение [19, с. 117-139]. Публикацията съдържа също практически препоръки за оцеляване при корабокрушение.

- Наблюдение върху ефективността на надувните спасителни салове и тяхното оборудване [19, с. 152-163[. Тази публикация съдържа общо 21 практически препоръки, свързани с използването на надувните спасителни салове;

- Морска надувни спасителни средства [5, с. 10-14].

- Проучване върху функционалното състояние на сърдечно-съдовата система при петдневен престой в спасителен сал в условия на "корабокрушение" [6, с. 41-53].

- Проучване на периферна кръв при петдневно преживяване в надувен спасителен сал [6, с. 138-141].

- Изследване влиянието на глада и жаждата при петдневно доброволно корабокрушение на надувен спасителен сал [7, с. 94-103].

В *съавторство* с други морски изследователи д-р Гаро Томасян е публикувал още **много други резултати от своите експерименти**:

- Информативност на психологическите проучвания [19, с. 72-103].

- Изследване на функционалното състояние на сърдечно-съдовата система [19, с. 36-60].

- Морска болест [5, с. 15-24].

- Върху някои медицински проблеми на оцеляването на корабокрушенците [5, с. 31-37].

- Относно някои психологични и физиологични показатели, изследвани при продължително плаване с гумена надувна спасителна лодка в Черно море [6, с. 38-48].

- Оцеляване на търпящите бедствие в морето при ниски температури [6, с. 49-58].

- Биохимичните изследвания като тест за оценка на някои от причините за гибелта на корабокрушенците попаднали върху спасителни салове и спасителни лодки [6, с. 59].

- Върху някои биохимични, електрофизиологични и клинични промени при продължителен престой на надувен спасителен сал [6, с. 67-77].

- Проучвания върху чувството за колективизъм при условия на корабокрушение [6, с. 91-97].

- Медико-биологични проблеми при оцеляването на оцеляването при корабокрушение [7, с. 14-46].

- Електрокардиографски проучвания върху доброволци корабокрушенци при петдневен престой в морето на надувен спасителен сал [7, с. 47-72].

- Психологични проучвания при доброволци в условията на имитирано корабокрушение [7, с. 137-181] и още много други.

За значимостта на експериментите по програмата "Хеброс" свидетелства и факта, тя е привлякла вниманието на международната морска общност. Д-р Гаро Томасян на 6 август 1979 г. получава приветствено писмо от д-р Ален Бомбар със следното съдържание [5, стр. 3]:

"Скъпи ми колега,

Смятам, че всички експерименти, които могат да усъвършенстват морското спасително дело, увеличават надеждата на корабокрушенците и правят огромна услуга на каузата за оживяването на човека.

Отправям Ви всичките си поздравления на Вашия кураж да се борите не само с глада, жаждата и морето, но също така и с всички административни трудности, на които сам се натъкнах и които така добре изпитах на времето."

През 2007 г. се навършват 20 години от един друг забележителен експеримент на д-р Гаро Томасян - експедицията с ладията "Перун". Историята на този експеримент е отразена през 2005 г. в три публикации в списание "Морски свят" от Теодор Роков [14, 15, 16]. На 22 юни 2007 г. в Археологическия музей на град Варна се организира изложба, посветена на този знаменателен юбилей, с личното участие на д-р Гаро Томасян.

След приключване на активната експериментална дейност д-р Гарабед Томасян за известен период се отдава на политиката и е кмет на град Пловдив от 1991 до 1995 г.

Другият акванавт от подводния дом "Хеброс' 67" магистърът по спорт Иван Иванов Петров след морския експеримент през 1967 г. посвети своя изследователски талант на спелеологията и написа впечатляващата монография "Небе от камък" [12]. В нея е отразен успешен спелеоложки експеримент с престой 30 дни под земята на 60 метра дълбочина, проведен от 21 април 1971 г. до 30 май 1971 г. в пещерата "Топчика" (намира се в землището на с. Добростан, м. Сушица, община Асеновград, Пловдивска област, на няколко стотин метра под хижа Марциганица).

Идеята да стане теронавт ("подземен обитател") се е породила у Иван Петров още през 1967 г.: "Мисълта да се изолирам под земята възникна у мене още по време на опита с подводния дом "Хеброс' 67". Дълбоко ме развълнува проблема за психологичната изолация. Да направя крачката от мечтите към действителността ме накара опитът на французина Мишел Сифър. Исках да докажа, че и ние българите можем да направим неежедневни неща, че и у нас има условия за творческа изява на личността" [12, с. 8].

Иван Петров е участвал в десетки международни и национални конференции по спелеология и се откроява като признат експериментатор в това дело, което е сходно по преживяване с преживяванията на акванавтите в подводните домове и доброволците-корабокрушенци. По този начин Иван Петров показа удивителна способност за трансфер и трансформация на поз-

нания от една научна област в друга, което несъмнено води до тяхното мултиплициране.

Значимостта на първите български експерименти нараства и във връзка с обстоятелството, че когато в България се правят изследвания в подводните домове "Хеброс' 67" и "Шелф' 1", в същия период (1962-1970 г.) в много други държави също се провеждат за пръв път изпитания на акванавти в подводни домове и лаборатории: САЩ - "Силаб' 1" и "Силаб' 2"; ЧССР-Куба - "Караибско море' 1"; Полша "Медуза' 1"; ФРГ - "Хелхоланд"; ГДР - "Малтер' 1"; Италия - "Атлантида"; Канада - "Сублимнос", Русия - "Черномор" (в експеримента с подводен дом "Черномор-74" участват двама български и двама руски акванавти, а осигуряването е осъществено от българския кораб "Херсон" и руския кораб "Орбели").

Така Република България зае достойно място сред челните страни, които проправиха пътя на човека към морските дълбини!

4. ИЗВОДИ

1. Подводните експерименти през 60-те - 80-те години на XX век доказаха, че човек може да живее продължително време под водата.

Подводният експеримент "Хеброс' 67", извършен във Варненското езеро на 10 метра под водата от 16 юли до 23 юли 1967 г. по значимост е съизмерим с проведените през 60-те години на XX век подводни изследвания в другите страни - Франция, Русия, Полша, Германия, ЧССР - Куба, САЩ, Великобритания.

Резултатите, които двамата акванавти д-р Гарабед Томасян, д.м. и магистърът по спорт Иван Петров са постигнали по време на експеримента в подводен дом "Хеброс' 67" са съизмерими с експериментите, постигнати в другите подводни домове, извършени през 60-те години на XX век:

- Франция - подводен дом "Diogen" - експеримент "Precontinent-1", 1962 г. (дълбочина 10 м, 1 седмица); "Precontinent-2", 1963 г. (27 метра); "Precontinent-3", 1965 г. (100 метра, продължителност 4 седмици);

- Германия - подводен дом "Malter-1", 1966 г.;

- Полша - подводен дом "Meduza", 1966 г.;

- Англия - подводен дом "Glaucus";

- ЧССР - Куба - подводен дом "Caribe";

- Русия - подводен дом "Ихтиандър", 1966 г. (дълбочина 10-12.5 м, 4 денонощия), 1967 г. (дълбочина 25 м), 1968 г., 1969 г.;

- Русия - подводен дом "Садко";

- Русия - подводен дом "Черномор-1", 1968 г. (дълбочина 10-14 м); "Черномор-2", 1969 г.;

- САЩ - подводен дом "Sealab-1", "Sealab-2", "Sealab-3".

След първоначалния успех на експеримента "Хеброс' 67" в Република България не се стимулира строителството на други модификации на подводния дом, докато в други държави като Франция, Русия и САЩ се построяват по три модификации на всеки един от подводните домове, всяка една от които е по-съвърше-

на от предишната и разрешава потапянето на апаратите на по-големи работни дълбочини, позволява многократното им използване, увеличава обхвата и мащаба на решаваните изследователски задачи и др.

2. Опитът на "Хеброс, 67" стимулира участието на ВВМУ "Н. Й. Вапцаров" съвместно с ИО-БАН за съвместни подводни експерименти.

3. В Република България експериментът с подводен дом "Хеброс, 67" не получи нужната държавна, обществена и научна оценка, а вследствие на късата историческа памет у нас подводният дом беше изваден от Военноморския музей и сега не е ясно къде се съхранява и какво е неговото състояние.

Известна е сентенцията, че който не познава своето минало не може успешно да гради своето бъдеще. Експериментът с подводен дом "Хеброс' 67" трябва да остане в паметта на българските граждани и на морската общественост.

В тази връзка е целесъобразно подводен дом "Хеброс' 67" да се издири и постави отново във Военноморския музей или на друго публично място в град Варна, а защо не и в град Пловдив - там, където се зародиха идеите и проектите на научната програма "Хеброс".

ВВМУ "Н. Й. Вапцаров" също не е за изключване като място за съхранение на подводен дом "Хеброс ' 67" и за това има своите основания - в училището се съхраняват голяма част от традициите на морска България, а подводния експеримент "Шелф" с участието на курсанти и преподаватели от Морско училище е наследник и продължител на експеримента в подводен дом "Хеброс' 67".

5. ЗАКЛЮЧЕНИЕ

Научната програма "Хеброс" включва десетки експерименти, свързани с проучване възможностите на човека за оцеляване при екстремални условия в морето и работата на акванавти в подводен дом. Програмата "Хеброс" има вече своята 40-годишна история, която за младото поколение мореплаватели е непозната. В интерес на морското възпитание и психо-физиологическата подготовка на моряците е целесъобразно основните теми от програмата "Хеброс" да се включат в учебните програми за подготовка на морски кадри с висше и средно образование, а така също и в програмите на различни курсове за следдипломна квалификация на морски специалисти.

През 2007 г. във ВВМУ "Н. Й. Вапцаров" се откри нова лаборатория по осигуряване мореходността на кораба с дарение от израелската компания "Рей шипинг". В лабораторията ще се симулира поведението на кораба в аварийни ситуации - пожари, наводняване, засядане, сблъскване. Чрез използването на съвременен софтуер обучаемите ще се учат да вземат адекватни решения за спасяване на кораба и екипажа. В тази връзка могат да се разработят ефективни тренингови програми, казуси и ролеви игри чрез включване

на резултатите от изследванията по научната програма "Хеброс". По този начин ще се постигне мултиплициращ ефект: обучаемите ще придобиват реална представа за сложността на спасителните операции на море и оцеляването на корабните екипажи, ще се мотивират да търсят съвременни решения, като същевременно ще се постига и възпитателен ефект, ще де развива усещането, че и "ний сме дали нещо на света" чрез научната програма "Хеброс".

От 2007 г. в Медицинския университет "Професор д-р Параскев Стоянов" във Варна започват да се обучават студенти по морска медицина, в чиито програми също е целесъобразно да се отразят резултатите от научната програма "Хеброс". При разработването на първата учебна програма ценна помощ може да окаже ръководителят на научната програма "Хеброс" - д-р Гаро Томасян.

През 2008 г. Варна ще бъде домакин на XI Военноморска медицинска конференция на НАТО. На тази конференция организаторите биха могли да поканят като почетни лектори двамата акванавти от подводен дом "Хеброс' 67" - д-р Гаро Томасян и Иван Петров - двама достойни български експериментатори, оставили трайна следа в морската наука и практика.

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НАБЛЮДЕНИЕ ВЪРХУ РАЗВИТИЕТО НА КАЧЕСТВОТО ЧЕСТНОСТ В ПРОЦЕСА НА ЛИДЕРСКАТА ПОДГОТОВКА НА КУРСАНТИТЕ ОТ ВВМУ „Н. Й. ВАПЦАРОВ"

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OBSERVATIONS ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE CHARACTERISTIC HONESTY DURING THE PROCESS OF LEADERSHIP TRAINING OF THE CADETS AT NAVAL ACADEMY „N.Y.VAPTSAROV"

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Abstract: *The processes of development of the characteristic honesty as a prime law of the modern military leadership are being examined in the paper. The conclusions and recommendations are being made considering the observations on the leadership training of the cadets at Naval academy "N. Y. Vaptsarov".*

Key words: *honesty, prime law, leadership model, three level characterization of the military leaders, leadership, training, testing.*

1. ВЪВЕДЕНИЕ

Като най-силен конкретен мотив за разработването на темата за честността и честта на военнослужещите послужиха няколко тренинга в занятията по "Военна психология и Военна педагогика" и "Лидерска подготовка" с курсантите третокурсници от класни отделения 311, 312 и 321 във ВВМУ "Н. Й. Вапцаров" през първия семестър на учебната 2005/2006 година, проведени от доцент д.пс.н. Илия Пеев [2]. Тренингите разкриха пред бъдещите морски офицери сложността на човешките взаимоотношения между хората в униформа и показаха водещата роля на личностни качества като честност, чест, доблест, дълг, отговорност, искреност, откритост. В тренингите пролича и болката на обучаемите, че в продължение на три години тези качества все още не са се изградили напълно у тях.

Курсантите констатираха, че въпреки съвместното им тригодишно съжителство те не се познават напълно, доверието между тях е недостатъчно. Стремежът на някои курсанти към бързо израстване във военната йерархия и лесна военна кариера засилва у тях егоизма, агресията, недоверието, нелоялността, а понякога непочтеността и нечестността.

Тези занятия послужиха като мотив да се потърсят конкретни начини за подпомагане формирането на отношения на искреност и доверие у курсантите-третокурсници тогава. В процеса на тренингите се създаде такава атмосфера в трите класни отделения, в която курсантите почувстваха, че човек може да израства в кариерата не чрез противопоставяне, злепоставяне, клеветене, злословене и подлост към другите, а чрез системен труд в който се доказва, чрез сътрудничество, взаимопомощ и откритост в отношенията. Удовлетворението беше взаимно, когато в заключителните занятия обучаемите разбраха, че от честния и доброжелателен курсант ще се изгради искрен и добронамерен към подчинените и колегите си офицер.

Обратната перспектива – от нечестния курсант да се развие нечестен офицер, който ще бъде непочтен към колегите, подчинените си и своите началници,

формира у курсантите една вътрешна невъзприемчивост, нравствена погнуса и психическа съпротива.

Тренингите по лидерска подготовка с курсантите-третокурсници послужиха и като мотив за разработване на доклад от доц. д.пс.н. Илия Пеев на тема "Честността - първи закон в модела на съвременното лидерство и най-важно качество на военните лидери от трите нива", който беше представен на заключителната научна конференция от Месеца на науката във Варна през 2006 година и публикуван в списание "Известия на Съюза на учените във Варна" (2).

В процеса на разработването на дисертационен труд от Иван Александров се породи потребността от съвместни изследвания върху лидерската подготовка на курсантите от ВВМУ "Н. Й. Вапцаров", част от които са представени в настоящия доклад.

Цел: Да се проследи ефективността на лидерската подготовка на курсантите чрез провеждане на психологически тренинги (*на входа*) и изследване въздействието им за формиране на лидерски качества (*на изхода*).

При разработването на доклада са използвани следните **методи**: психологически тренинг по лидерска подготовка; работа във фокус-групи; въпросник на Жак Мил за изследване на лидерската подготовка; библиографски метод.

2. ЗНАЧЕНИЕТО НА КАЧЕСТВОТО ЧЕСТНОСТ ЗА ВОЕННИТЕ ЛИДЕРИ. ЧЕСТНОСТТА КАТО ПЪРВИ ЗАКОН В МОДЕЛА НА СЪВРЕМЕННОТО ВОЕННО ЛИДЕРСТВО

Зад всеки стратег и обикновен войник стои човек, а личността се ръководи в своите действия и общите архетипове, по думите на Карл Густав Юнг, от чувство на дълг и морално-етическите представи за своята епоха. В съвременните войни повече от всякога умовете и душите на хората стават важно поле на битката.

Офицерите трябва да знаят силата на обикновената вяра и честното служене на своята страна и да разбират какви мотиви движат огромните човешки маси, кое хвърля в настъпление армиите, кое им дава енергия да превземат непристъпни крепости и понасят

огромни жертви и лишения.

Темата за *честността на военните лидери* придобива актуалност поради няколко *причини*:

а) В паметта на народа армията, честта и честността са неразривно свързани. Изразът "за честта на пагона" и до ден днешен символизира респекта, нравствената сила и чистотата на човека в униформа, който е посветил своя живот на свободата и независимостта на страната си. Това обяснява например защо военните, когато отидат на мисия зад граница и законно получават полагаемото им се по-голямо възнаграждение, много болезнено изживяват реплики по техен адрес: "печалбари", "наемници" и др. Съвременните мисии на въоръжените сили имат много по-големи мащаби, а грижите за свободата и независимостта надхвърлят националните рамки и придобиват транс-национални измерения.

б) Новите коалиционни задачи, които изпълняват Българската армия и Военноморските сили изискват определена стандартизация и унификация не само към въоръжението, оперативната съвместимост и оперативните способности с нашите партньори. Изпълнението на задгранични мисии в състава на многонационални военни формирования налага преоценка и хармонизиране на редица личностни характеристики на военнослужещите и преди всичко на такива важни нравствени черти като воинска и гражданска чест, честност, доблест, искреност, отговорност, дълг, лоял-

в запас, в неговата книга "Новото изкуство на лидера. Как да ръководим с достойнство и чест" [1]. В момента той преподава маркетинг и лидерство в Калифорнийския университет в Лос Анжелис.

Уилям Коен съставя военен модел на лидерството, който се гради на осем универсални закона. В процеса на работата над книгата, авторът открива, че лидерството се гради върху *честността* [1, с. 24]. Това откритие е направено чрез изследване мнението на 200 бивши военни лидери, от които 62 са генерали и адмирали. В 95% от отговорите се разкриват следните *осем универсални закона* (принципи) на военното лидерство [1, с. 24]:

а) *винаги бъдете честни*; б) познавайте добре работата си; в) изразявайте очакванията си; г) показвайте повече желание; д) очаквайте положителни резултати; е) грижете се за хората си; ж) поставяйте работата пред всичко; з) бъдете най-отпред.

Закономерно първият закон е свързан с *честността*, защото без пълно доверие между лидера и последователите му към лидера винаги ще има недоверие. Липсата на честност може да доведе до тежки последствия за всяка организация и всяко начинание – такива примери се посочват в третия въпрос на доклада.

Без *честност* не може да се развие *солидарност*, висок боен дух и дисциплина, които са в основата на успешните действия на всяко военно подразделение в мирновременни и бойни условия:

ност, вярност, коректност, надеждност и др.

в) Годините на прехода в Република България засегнаха из основи ценностната система на обществото, което се отрази и на армията. Много от нравствено-етичните категории като патриотизъм, воински дълг, воинска чест, другарство и взаимопомощ, чест и достойнство, поради дълбоката социална криза, не изпълняват напълно ролята на духовни регулатори. Качествата достойнство и чест в Българската армия не са еквиваленти на професионалното изграждане и развитие, а новата ценностна система все още не е изградена.

Съществуват различни *модели за лидерството*. За нуждите на настоящото изследване приемаме модела, разработен от професор д-р Уилям Коен, генерал-майор от Резерва на ВВС на САЩ, преминал

Честността способства да се развие солидарност в групата. Защо? Защото когато военният лидер е честен, хората започват да му се доверяват. Тогава всички подчинени (модерното лидерство се основава на екипността, при което подчинените се възприемат като последователи и сътрудници) ще знаят, че могат да се доверяват. Те ще бъдат честни когато говорят с лидера и когато разговарят помежду си, а това води до нарастване на солидарността и издигане силата на духа, в това число и бойния дух.

Професор д-р Уилям Коен извежда няколко *основни правила,* за да се изгради и поддържа *висок дух и солидарност* [1, с. 192]:

а) позволете на другите да участват във вашите идеи, цели и задачи; б) бъдете внимателни във всичко, което правите; в) разбирайте какво става и предприемайте действия за подобряване на ситуацията; г) ръко-

водете чрез личен пример винаги, когато това е възможно; д) *винаги бъдете честен*; е) изградете взаимна увереност, като проявявате истинска загриженост за подчинените си; ж) акцентирайте върху приноса, а не върху личната полза и насърчавайте всички във вашата организация да правят същото.

3. ЕКСПЕРИМЕНТАЛНО ПРОУЧВАНЕ ВЪРХУ ФОРМИРАНЕТО НА КАЧЕСТВОТО ЧЕСТНОСТ В ПРОЦЕСА НА ЛИДЕРСКА ПОДГОТОВКА

За проучване на лидерските качества, в т.ч. и качеството честност е използван Въпросник за изследване на лидерската подготовка, конструиран от професор Жак Мил [4], преподавател в Кралското военно училище в Белгия. Този въпросник е преведен и апробиран в България от доц. д-р Елена Бораджиева - преподавател по военна психология и лидерство във НВУ "В. Левски" - В. Търново [3].

Въпросникът за изследване на лидерската подготовка се състои от четири части. Пълното описание, резултатите и психометричните характеристики на въпросника се съдържат в доклада на професор Жак Мил [4].

В настоящето изследване прилагаме първата част на въпросника (част А). Тази част включва четири въпроса, насочени към проучване на представата и визията за лидерството.

Първите два въпроса са конструирани по типа на анкетите и представляват открити въпроси, в които изследваното лице следва самостоятелно да опише накратко представата си за лидерството въобще и представите си за лидерството в армията.

В *третия въпрос* са изброени шестнадесет думи свързани с лидерството и обозначават качества на лидерите. От изследваните курсанти се изисква, първо да посочат четири качества, които според тях са най-важни за лидерите и второ, две качества, които според тях са най-маловажни.

Въпросът е от закрит тип, тъй като не се предвижда дописване на качества. Положителната страна на този начин на конструиране на въпроса е, че се дава възможност за по-добра и опростена статистическа обработка на резултатите. Недостатъците са свързани преди всичко с това, че не се предлага дописване на качества, които на курсантите могат да се сторят важни за лидерството, но не фигурират сред описаните шестнадесет качества.

В *четвъртия въпрос*, последен от първата част на въпросника, се изисква да се посочат личности (от литературата, историята, политиката, армията и флота), които са истински лидери.

Тази първа част от въпросника дава представа за мнението, нагласите и представите на курсантите за лидерството. Въпросникът може да се използва за проследяване на развитието на тези компоненти по време на лидерското им изграждане и да диагностицира техните промени в процеса на подготовката. В нашия случай се анализират резултатите от отговорите по третия въпрос, които дадоха курсантите първи, втори, трети и четвърти курс във ВВМУ "Н. Й. Вапцаров".

3.1. Организация и провеждане на изследването

Изследването беше проведено сред курсанти от ВВМУ „Н. Й. Вапцаров". Изследваната съвкупност обхваща седемдесет и седем курсанта от първи, втори, трети и четвърти курс. Тестването на курсантите бе проведено по курсове, във времеви интервал от един месец, при стандартизирани условия.

3.2. Резултати и обсъждане

Резултатите са обработени със статистически пакет програми SPSS 12.5.

При първоначалната обработка на тестовите методики изследваните лидерски качества бяха заменени с числа както следва:

Упорит - 1, динамичен - 2, дипломатичен - 3, **честен - 4,** схватлив - 5, отстъпчив - 6, гъвкав - 7, сигурен в себе си - 8, стриктен - 9, амбициозен - 10, доброжелателен - 11, убедителен - 12, завладяващ - 13, организиран - 14, уравновесен - 15, общителен - 16.

Четирите най-добри лидерски качества са въведени в една обща таблица, без да се ранжират. По същия начин са въведени и двете най-маловажни лидерски качества (вж. таблиците на стр. 140 ÷ 143 вкл.).

Курсантите от първи курс поставят като *най-важни* за лидерите качества, на първо място - сигурен в себе си и организиран, на второ място - амбициозен, а третото място си разделят качествата упорит и гъвкав. Курсантите-първокурсници поставят като *най-маловажни качества*, на първо място отстъпчив, на второ място *честен* и на трето място *доброжелателен*.

Курсантите от втори курс поставят като *най-важни* за лидерите качества, на първо място - сигурен в себе си, на второ място - убедителен, на трето място – организиран, и на четвърто общителен. Курсантите-второкурсници поставят като *най-маловажни* качества, на първо място - отстъпчив, на второ място - доброжелателен, на трето място – гъвкав, на четвърто с равен брой точки – динамичен, *честен,* стриктен.

Курсантите от трети курс поставят като *най-важни* за лидерите качества, на първо място - сигурен в себе си, на второ място - организиран и уравновесен, на трето място - убедителен. Курсантите-третокурсници поставят като *най-маловажни качества*, на първо място - отстъпчив, на второ място - завладяващ, на трето място - стриктен и доброжелателен.

Курсантите от четвърти курс поставят като *най-важни* за лидерите качества, на първо място - организиран, на второ място - сигурен в себе си, на трето място - дипломатичен, на четвърто място - *честен* и убедителен. Те поставят като *най-маловажни качества*, на първо място - отстъпчив и завладяващ, на второ място - динамичен, гъвкав, доброжелателен.

При проследяване на динамиката на формиране на лидерските качества става ясно, че качеството *чест-*

ност в първи и втори курс се определя като едно от най-маловажните за лидерите качества. На преден план през този период излизат качества, които осигуряват първоначалната насока и адаптацията към военната среда с цел лидерска изява. В трети курс качеството честност не е предпочетено сред най-важните качества, но вече не е сред маловажните. Курсантите-трето-курсници извършват своеобразен преход от юношата към към бъдещия командир. Нашето наблюдение показва, че в трети курс започва хармонизирането на личностната ценностна система с ценостната система на въоръжените сили.

Курсанти I-ви курс
Най-важни за лидера качества

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	8	9,1	9,1	9,1
3,00	5	5,7	5,7	14,8
4,00	4	4,5	4,5	19,3
5,00	2	2,3	2,3	21,6
7,00	8	9,1	9,1	30,7
8,00	15	17,0	17,0	47,7
9,00	4	4,5	4,5	52,3
10,00	9	10,2	10,2	62,5
12,00	6	6,8	6,8	69,3
13,00	5	5,7	5,7	75,0
14,00	15	17,0	17,0	92,0
15,00	3	3,4	3,4	95,5
16,00	4	4,5	4,5	100,0
Total	88	100,0	100,0	

Курсанти I-ви курс
Най-маловажни за лидера качества

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
2,00	3	3,4	6,8	6,8
3,00	1	1,1	2,3	9,1
4,00	5	5,7	11,4	20,5
5,00	1	1,1	2,3	22,7
6,00	17	19,3	38,6	61,4
7,00	4	4,5	9,1	70,5
9,00	3	3,4	6,8	77,3
10,00	2	2,3	4,5	81,8
11,00	4	4,5	9,1	90,9
13,00	3	3,4	6,8	97,7
15,00	1	1,1	2,3	100,0
Total	44	50,0	100,0	

Курсанти II-ри курс
Най-важни за лидера качества

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	5	5,7	6,0	6,0
2,00	2	2,3	2,4	8,4
3,00	4	4,5	4,8	13,3
4,00	4	4,5	4,8	18,1
7,00	4	4,5	4,8	22,9
8,00	13	14,8	15,7	38,6
9,00	2	2,3	2,4	41,0
10,00	3	3,4	3,6	44,6
12,00	16	18,2	19,3	63,9
13,00	4	4,5	4,8	68,7
14,00	12	13,6	14,5	83,1
15,00	5	5,7	6,0	89,2
16,00	9	10,2	10,8	100,0
Total	83	94,3	100,0	

Курсанти II-ри курс
Най-маловажни за лидера качества

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	2	2,3	4,8	4,8
2,00	3	3,4	7,1	11,9
4,00	3	3,4	7,1	19,0
5,00	1	1,1	2,4	21,4
6,00	12	13,6	28,6	50,0
7,00	5	5,7	11,9	61,9
9,00	4	4,5	9,5	71,4
10,00	1	1,1	2,4	73,8
11,00	8	9,1	19,0	92,9
13,00	3	3,4	7,1	100,0
Total	42	47,7	100,0	

Курсанти III-ти курс
Най-важни за лидера качества

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	4	4,5	6,3	6,3
2,00	1	1,1	1,6	7,8
3,00	3	3,4	4,7	12,5
4,00	2	2,3	3,1	15,6
5,00	1	1,1	1,6	17,2
6,00	1	1,1	1,6	18,8
7,00	5	5,7	7,8	26,6
8,00	10	11,4	15,6	42,2
9,00	4	4,5	6,3	48,4
10,00	5	5,7	7,8	56,3
12,00	7	8,0	10,9	67,2
13,00	2	2,3	3,1	70,3
14,00	10	11,4	15,6	85,9
15,00	8	9,1	12,5	98,4
16,00	1	1,1	1,6	100,0
Total	64	72,7	100,0	

Курсанти III-ти курс
Най-маловажни за лидера качества

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	1	1,1	3,1	3,1
2,00	3	3,4	9,4	12,5
3,00	1	1,1	3,1	15,6
4,00	2	2,3	6,3	21,9
6,00	9	10,2	28,1	50,0
7,00	2	2,3	6,3	56,3
9,00	4	4,5	12,5	68,8
11,00	4	4,5	12,5	81,3
13,00	5	5,7	15,6	96,9
16,00	1	1,1	3,1	100,0
Total	32	36,4	100,0	

Курсанти IV-ти курс
Най-важни за лидера качества

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	3	3,4	4,4	4,4
2,00	1	1,1	1,5	5,9
3,00	9	10,2	13,2	19,1
4,00	6	6,8	8,8	27,9
5,00	2	2,3	2,9	30,9
7,00	5	5,7	7,4	38,2
8,00	11	12,5	16,2	54,4
9,00	1	1,1	1,5	55,9
10,00	1	1,1	1,5	57,4
12,00	7	8,0	10,3	67,6
13,00	5	5,7	7,4	75,0
14,00	12	13,6	17,6	92,6
15,00	3	3,4	4,4	97,1
16,00	2	2,3	2,9	100,0
Total	68	77,3	100,0	

Курсанти IV-ти курс
Най-маловажни за лидера качества

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	1	1,1	2,9	2,9
2,00	4	4,5	11,8	14,7
3,00	2	2,3	5,9	20,6
4,00	1	1,1	2,9	23,5
5,00	1	1,1	2,9	26,5
6,00	6	6,8	17,6	44,1
7,00	4	4,5	11,8	55,9
8,00	1	1,1	2,9	58,8
9,00	1	1,1	2,9	61,8
10,00	1	1,1	2,9	64,7
11,00	4	4,5	11,8	76,5
13,00	6	6,8	17,6	94,1
16,00	2	2,3	5,9	100,0
Total	34	38,6	100,0	

В **четвърти курс** курсантите определят качеството **честност** сред първите най-важни качества за военния лидер, а само един курсант го е избрал сред маловажните лидерски качества. Наред с другите промени, които настъпват в личностното изграждане на курсантите-четвъртокурсници, изследването показва позитивната роля, която играе психологическият тренинг за формирането им като военни лидери, в т.ч. и развитието на качеството честност като фундаментално качество за офицерите от армията и флота. Четвъртокурсниците, при които се наблюдава развитието на качеството честност през 2006/2007 учебна година са същите онези курсанти-третокурсници от класните отделения 311, 312 и 321, с които беше проведен тренинг по проблемите на честността на военния лидер през 2005/2006 учебна година.

4. ИЗВОДИ

1. Качеството честност като първи закон на военното лидерство се формира трудно и продължително. Значимостта на качеството честност за военния лидер се развива като продължителен възходящ процес - първоначалното усещане на потребността от честност започва при курсантите, продължава да се развива от военните лидери на тактическото ниво и придобива най-висока степен в ценностната система на офицерите от стратегическото ниво.

2. Отсъствието на ясно разбиране за ролята на честността у курсантите от младшите курсове води до затруднена адаптация и конфликтност във взаимоотношенията. Това показва потребността от ефективна работа с курсантите още в първи курс на висшите военните училища по формиране на качеството честност, което ще допринесе за подобряване качеството на учебно-възпитателния процес и личностното изграждане на курсантите като военни лидери.

3. Да се засилят възпитателните функции на командирите и преподавателите. Да се хармонизира военно-педагогическия процес като се постига баланс между обучение и възпитание. Да се издигне ролята на възпитателната работа в системата на подготовката на войските и силите и обучението във ВА "Г. С. Ра-

ковски", НВУ "Васил Левски" и ВВМУ "Н. Й. Вапцаров" за формиране качествата честност, чест, достойнство, доблест, искреност, вярност, лоялност, надеждност, дълг и отговорност. Мисиите зад граница са ясно доказателство за непреходното значение на тези нравствени воински качества и добродетели.

5. ЗАКЛЮЧЕНИЕ

Военнослужещите носят голяма отговорност пред своя народ, коалиционните си партньори, пред своите подчинени, колеги и ръководители. Особено голяма е отговорността, която носят офицерите от трите нива – тактическо, оперативно и стратегическо. Воинският дълг изисква от военнослужещите вярност, лоялност, честност, искреност, благонадеждност, добросъвестност.

За да може Българската армия да изпълнява успешно съвместните задачи със сили на НАТО, е необходимо единство в "общуването", което се осигурява от средствата и системите за управление и нов тип човешки отношения. Те се изграждат на основата на доверието и честността, лоялността и искреността, надеждността в партньорството.

Лидерската подготовка в Българската армия и Военноморските сили навлиза в нов, по-висок етап в своето развитие, което изисква и качествени промени в съответствие със Стратегията за лидерска подготовка на офицерите и сержантите от Въоръжените сили на Република България.

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СИСТЕМНИ ОТНОШЕНИЯ НА ТЕРМИНИТЕ ЗА МОРСКИ МИНИ

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SYSTEM RELATIONS OF THE TERMS FOR NAVAL MINES

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Abstract: *The paper analyzes and presents system relations of the main Bulgarian terms for naval mines following a model. The purpose of the analysis is systematization of the concepts from the specified field, respectively the terms that represent them, as well as achieving greater effectiveness of communication between the specialists.*

Key words: *systematicity; system relations; generic relations; partitive relations; concept; terminological system; effectiveness of communication; naval mine.*

1. ВЪВЕДЕНИЕ

Настоящето изследване си поставя за цел да анализира и представи в схематичен вид системните отношения между основните български термини в областта на морските мини. Отправни моменти в анализа са следните теоретични постановки:

1. Описанието на вътрешната системност на разглежданата съвкупност от термини следва модела, предложен от М. Попова [1, 3].

2. Пак там е застъпено мнението, че "всяка система обикновено започва от един термин, който задава или поражда всички останали, някои - пряко, но повечето - косвено чрез сложно разклонение на признаците си в определена йерархия, т.е. в посока надолу." [1:9] В настоящето изследване ще приемем за основен родов термин *морска мина*, а не *мина*, който стои по-високо в йерархията на системните взаимоотношения, поради следните съображения:

- знанията от областта на морските мини представлява особен интерес във ВВМУ поради спецификата на обучението на морски, а не сухопътни, военни и граждански специалисти, респективно се изучават в дисциплината "Минно-трално оръжие".

- изследването на термините от по-широката професионална област, включваща и сухопътните мини, би била обект на по-обстойно изследване.

2. ИЗЛОЖЕНИЕ

2.1. Основни цели на изследването

Изследването на терминологичната подсистема в специфицираната по-горе област от военната терминология има следните основни цели:

1. Поради факта, че учебният материал, предвиден за усвояване от курсанти и студенти във ВВМУ по дадената дисциплина се характеризира с висока терминологична наситеност, от една страна описанието на системните отношения подпомага по-лесното изучаване на учебното съдържание, тъй като представя в систематизиран вид основните понятия и съответните им термини. Представянето на системните отношения между термините по своята същност е невъзможно без предварително *систематизиране на съответните понятия или концепти*, т.е. "единици

знание" или "конструкти на човешките когнитивни процеси, които подпомагат класифицирането на обектите посредством системна или случайна абстракция" [4:15, 22], и представлява систематизиране на качествата и свойствата на концептите.

2. *Практическите цели* на систематизирането на термините за морски мини могат да се сведат до следното:

- постигане на ефективност на комуникацията в най-общия смисъл между всички ползватели на дадена терминосистема, в настоящия случай комуникация между български военни и търговски морски специалисти. Тази практическа цел на терминологията е подчертана от Сейгър: "да се постигне по-голямо единство, постоянство и яснота на изразяване в специализираната комуникация" [4:7] и Попова: "Терминологичната система има смисъл за науката само ако изпълнява тези две главни задачи: 1) фиксира, респ. изразява знанията чрез термини и 2) осъществява комуникация" [1:6];

- в по-широк смисъл ефективността на комуникацията може да бъде повишена ако се съпоставят терминологичните системи в областта на морските мини на българския и английски езици. Откриването на еднакви или сходни системни отношения между термините в двата езика би довело до по-лесното усвояване на английската терминология от обучаемите, което би било от огромно практическо значение за българските специалисти.

2.2. Видове системност

Както бе упоменато, анализът на системността следва модела, предложен от М. Попова, където ключово значение има разбирането на видовете системност и са дефинирани следните типове системност: (вж. фиг. 1)

Вътрешната системност е свързана с изразяване на понятийно-семантичните отношения в съответната предметна област, а външната - с осигуряването на комуникация. Импликационната системност е свързана с такива отношения между термините, които моделират реално съществуващи отношения между обектите от действителността. Подтипът партитивна системност се отнася до типа отношения 'част-цяло' и
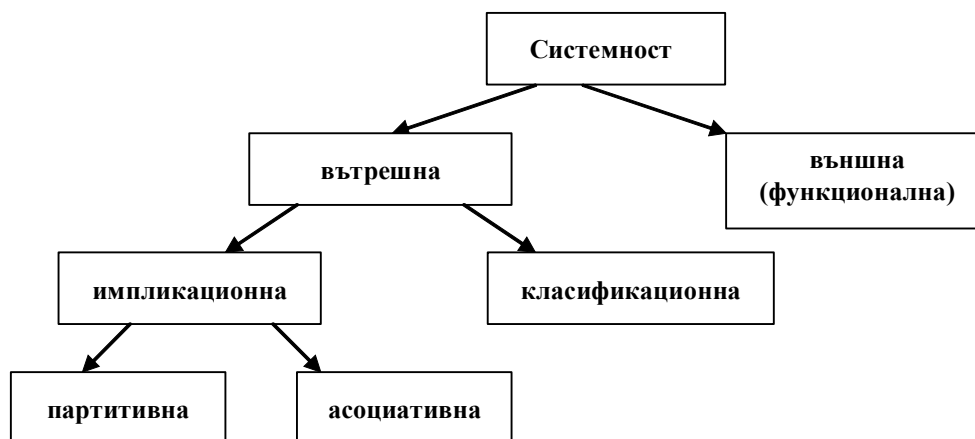
Фиг. 1

'цяло-част', а асоциативната системност касае разнообразни отношения, като напр. 'действие-вършител', 'действие-резултат', 'действие-обект', 'действие-място', 'вършител-обект', 'причина-следствие', 'материал-продукт' и др. От своя страна, класификационната системност моделира сходството и различието между обектите в действителността, като отношенията са от типа 'род-вид'.

По-опростено представяне на най-често срещаните отношения между термините е за отношения от типа 'род-вид', 'част-цяло' и комплексни [4:30-35], които отразяват отношенията между понятията/концептите в дадена концептуална система.

2.3. Схема на системните отношения

Първият етап при анализиране на системността е схематично построяване и представяне на съвкупността от термини в дадена област.

Приехме за отправен терминът *морска мина*, който ще зададе схемата, по която се разгръщат системните отношения. Поради това е особено важно да посочим неговата точна дефиниция, тъй като в нея ще се съдържат системообразуващите признаци. "...Значението на термина (респ. и дефиницията) се състои само от най-необходимите, най-съществените признаци: 1) за идентифициране на означения обект чрез причисляването му към по-общ (който и да е по-висш в системната йерархия) клас и 2) за разграничаването му сред групата от еднородни на него подкласове." [1:9].

В различни източници открихме следните дефиниции на *морска мина*, които, въпреки различията в тях, позволяват извеждането на основните родови и видови признаци.

- "Морската мина е херметически затворен съд, снабден с взривно вещество и взривател, поставен на позиция под водата с цел разрушаване на корпуса на подводницата или на надводния кораб" [5:11].

- "Взривно устройство, поставено във водата с цел повреждане или потапяне на кораби или за възпиране навлизането на кораби в даден район" [6:339].

- "Мина - бойно средство; състои се от корпус, заряд от взривно вещество и специално устройство за взривяване. Използва се при устройване на заграждения." [7:170].

Характеристиките, изведени като важни при дефинирането на термина *морска мина*, представляват изброяване на основните системообразуващи признаци, които предават съдържанието на референта на този термин. Според Сейгър [4:24], "характеристиките, които са достатъчни и необходими за идентифициране на концепта, се наричат съществени (essential), за разлика от несъществените (inessential), които са видими в единичния обект." В допълнение, "характеристиките могат да бъдат изразени като качества на концепта; те също могат да бъдат изразени като отношения спрямо другите концепти". Ако анализираме дефинициите на термина *морска мина* ще установим, че важните характеристики на този термин, които го разграничават от други сходни военни термини (като напр. *ракета, бомба, торпедо*), е особената комбинация от качества (*бойно средство*), функции/отношения (*разрушаване/потапяне на кораби и подводници*), позиция (под водата), съставни части (*съд, корпус, заряд, взривно вещество, взривател*).

Изхождайки от факта, че значението на термина се състои само от най-необходимите признаци, които образуват сложна семантична структура, Попова [2] въвежда термините **видов признак от I равнище**, който е такъв видов признак, който характеризира непосредствено родовия признак; **видов признак от II равнище** - характеризира непосредствено видов признак от I равнище и опосредствено чрез него родовия признак; и **видов признак от III равнище**, характеризиращ непосредствено видов признак от II равнище и опосредствено чрез два предходни видови признака характеризира родовия признак.

Базирайки се на гореупоменатите теоретични постановки и на съдържанието на учебника [5], по който се обучават студентите във ВВМУ и в който има предложена класификация на морските мини по основни признаци и предназначение, предлагаме следната схема на системните отношения, без да претендираме за изчерпателност на абсолютно всички термини от областта на морските мини (вж. фиг. 2).
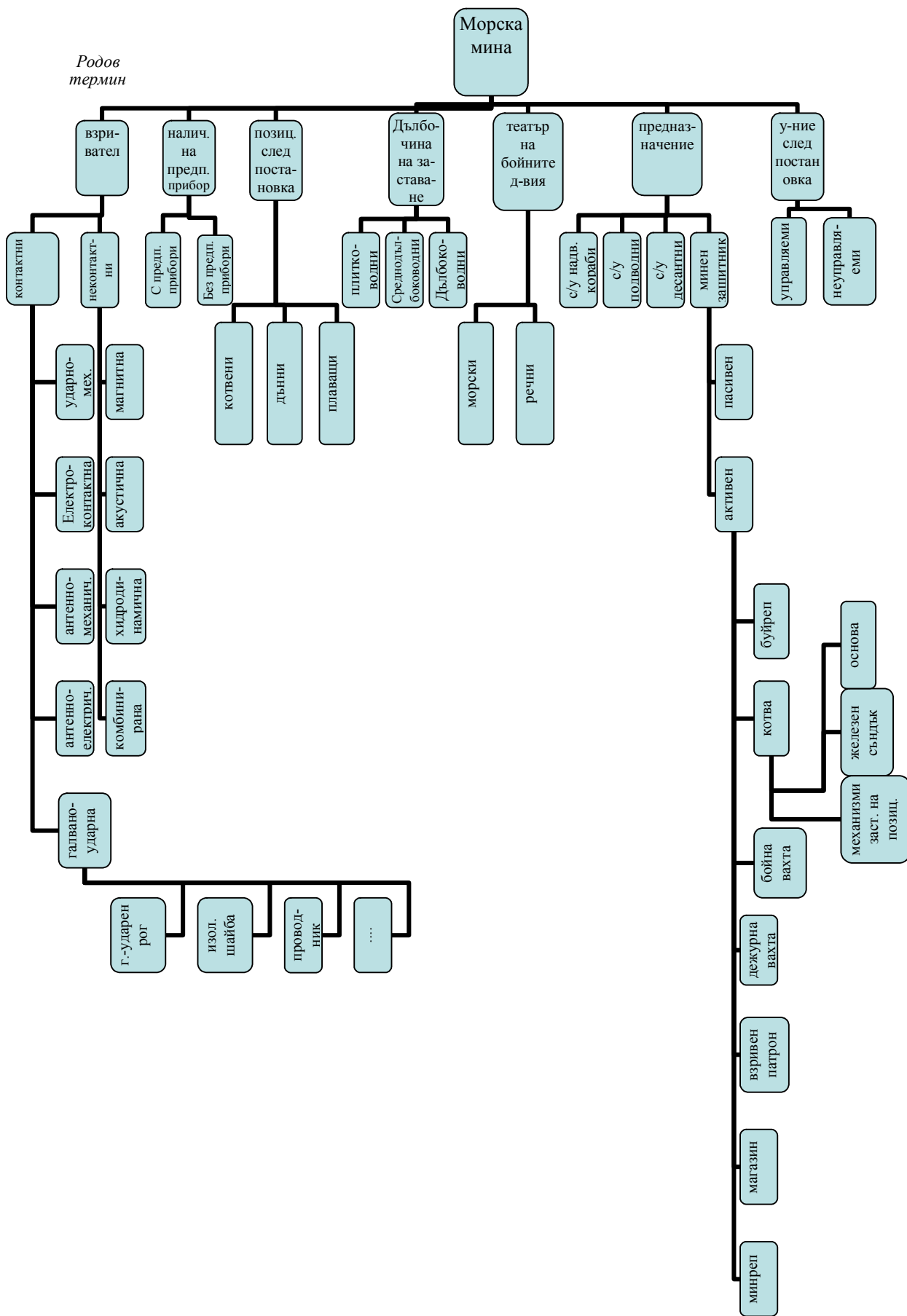
Родов термин

Видови признаци от I равнище

Видови признаци от III равнище

Видови признаци от III равнище

Морска мина

- взри-вател
- налич. на предп. прибор
- позиц. след поста-новка
- Дълбо-чина на застава-не
- театър на бойните д-вия
- предназ-начение
- у-ние след постан овка

- контактни
- неконтакт-ни
- С предп. прибори
- Без предп. прибори
- Плитко-водни
- Среднодъл-боководни
- Дълбоко-водни
- с/у надв. кораби
- с/у подводни
- с/у десантни
- минен защитник
- управляеми
- неуправля-еми

- ударно-мех.
- магнитна
- Електро-контактна
- акустична
- антенно-механич.
- хидроди-намична
- антенно-електрич.
- комбини-рана
- галвано-ударна
- котвени
- дънни
- плаващи
- морски
- речни
- пасивен
- активен

- г.-ударен рог
- изол. шайба
- провод-ник
- …

- буйреп
- котва
- бойна вахта
- дежурна вахта
- взривен патрон
- магазин
- минреп

- основа
- железен съндък
- механизми заст. на позиц.

Фиг. 2

2.4. Анализ на схемата

Системообразуващите признаци на родовия термин *морска мина* се разгръщат надолу, като се създават класификационни отношения с термините, назоваващи видовете морски мини. *Родовият признак* е 'съд'или 'средство', даден в дефиницията на термина и е в независима позиция, тъй като не характеризира друга дума от дефиницията.

Видовите класификационни признаци от I равнище са:

а) съставни части

- 'взривател': според взривателя морските мини са *контактни* и *неконтактни*;

- 'предпазителни прибори': според наличието на предпазителни прибори морските мини са *с предпазителни прибори* и *без предпазителни прибори*.

б) позиция

- според 'позицията след постановката' са *котвени, дънни, плаващи*;

- според 'дълбочината на заставане' са *плитководни, среднодълбоководни* и *дълбоководни*;

- според 'театъра на бойните действия' са съответно *морски* и *речни*.

в) функция

- според 'предназначението': *срещу надводни кораби, срещу подводници, срещу десантни кораби и минен защитник;*

- според 'управлението след постановка': *управляеми* и *неуправляеми*.

Видовият класификационен признак от II равнище е 'принцип на действие':

- според 'принципа на действие на контактния взривател' морските мини се подразделят на: *ударно-механични, електроконтактни, антенно-механични, антенно-електрически, галвано-ударни*;

- според 'принципа на действие на неконтактния взривател' морските мини се подразделят на *магнитни, акустични, хидродинамични* и *комбинирани*;

- според 'принципа на действие на минния защитник' има два типа: активен и пасивен.

Йерархичните системни връзки продължават по линията на партитивните импликационни отношения. Така например, галвано-ударният взривател на контактната мина се състои от следните главни части: хидростатичен предпазител, галвано-ударен рог, запално устройство, зарядна камера, чугунен предпазител, пружина на предпазителя, оловна обвивка с галваничен елемент, ампула с електролит, въгленов електрод, цинков електрод, изолационна шайба, проводник. По подобен начин могат да се опишат съставните части, респ. термини, на антенно-електрическия взривател, електроконтакния взривател, магнитния неконтактен взривател, акустичния неконтактен взривател, хидродинамичния неконтактен взривател, но целта на настоящето изследване е не изчерпване на цялата съвкупност от термини, свързани с морските мини, а принципен анализ на системните им отношения. В резултат на схематичното представяне на системните

отношения се налагат следните **изводи**:

Структурата на термините за морски мини представлява единство от:

А. Позиционни отношения

1. Йерархични позиционни отношения (вертикално разположение на термините един спрямо друг), напр.:

мина → морска мина → контактна морска мина (респ. неконтактна морска мина) → галвано-ударна контактна морска мина (респ. електро-контактна, антенно-механична, антенно-електрическа, ударно-механична) → галвано-ударен рог

мина → морска мина → неконтактна морска мина (респ. контактна морска мина) → магнитна неконтактна морска мина (респ. акустична, хидродинамична, комбинирана) → магнитно-механична неконтактна морска мина (респ. магнитно-динамична)

мина → морска мина → минен защитник за унищожаване на контактни тралове → активен минен защитник (респ. пасивен минен защитник) → активен минен защитник с многократно действие (респ. с еднократно действие) → магазин → двураменен лост с пружина → вилка.

2. Съподчинени позиционни отношения (хоризонтално разположение на термините един спрямо друг) - когато термините произлизат от един по-горе стоящ (родов) термин и имат общ признак за деление, напр. морските мини се подразделят на котвени, дънни и плаващи според позицията след постановка и на управляеми и неуправляеми според управлението след постановка.

3. Опозиционни отношения, при които признакът за деление се реализира в неговите опозиционни варианти, напр.:

- с признака [± контакт с обект] при термините контактна морска мина [+] и неконтактна морска мина [−];

- с признака [± управление след постановка] при термините управляема морска мина [+] и неуправляема морска мина [−].

Б. Семантични отношения

1. Класификационни отношения от типа 'род-вид', напр.:

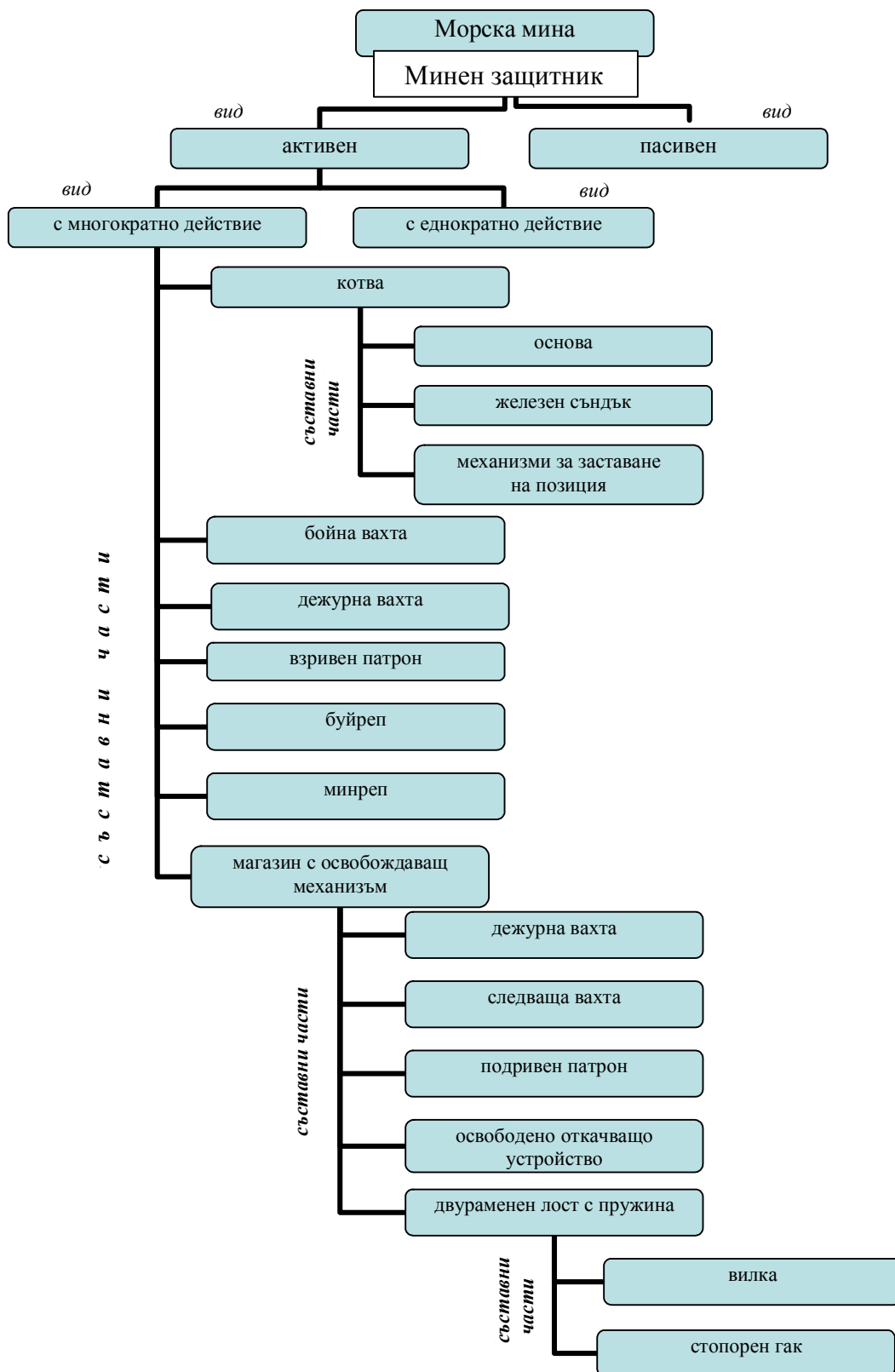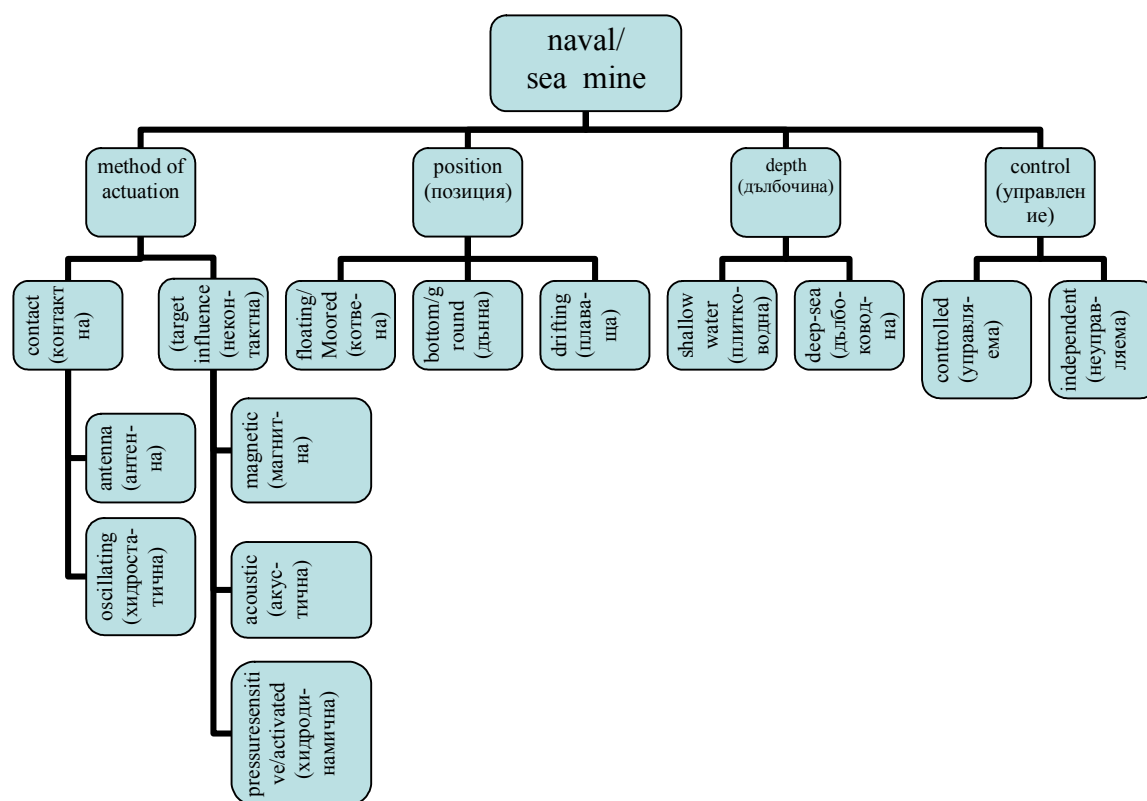*мина - морска мина*

морска мина - котвена морска мина

минен защитник - активен минен защитник

2. Партитивни импликационни отношения, напр.:

- главните съставни части на *активния минен защитник с многократно действие* са: *магазин, котва, бойна вахта, дежурна вахта, взривен патрон, буйреп, минреп*, като съответно частите на магазина са: *дежурна вахта, следваща вахта, подривен патрон, двураменен лост с пружина, освободено откачащо устройство*, а на *котвата*: *основа, железен сандък, механизъм за заставане на позиция* (вж. фиг. 3).

Фиг. 3

naval/ sea mine

- method of actuation
  - contact (контактна)
    - antenna (антенна)
    - oscillating (хидростатична)
  - (target influence (неконтактна)
    - magnetic (магнитна)
    - acoustic (акустична)
    - pressuresensitive/activated (хидродинамична)
- position (позиция)
  - floating/ Moored (котвена)
  - bottom/ground (дънна)
  - drifting (плаваща)
- depth (дълбочина)
  - shallow water (плитководна)
  - deep-sea (дълбоководна)
- control (управление)
  - controlled (управляема)
  - independent (неуправляема)

Фиг. 4

3. Голяма част от термините разгръщат отношенията си в разглежданата система, т.е. налице е вътрешна системност. Има и такива термини, обаче, които имат своята определеност в друга система, т.е. наблюдаваме елементи на външна системност, като в случаите:

- *морски мини с предназначение срещу надводни кораби* - частта *'надводни кораби'* е дефинирана в системата на 'транспортни средства';

- *бойна вахта* като част от устройството на *активен минен защитник с многократно действие* има дефиниция, която е различна от значението на терминологичното съчетание *'нося (бойна) вахта'*, което се отнася до изпълнение на задълженията на дежурния офицер на борда на кораб;

- *проводник* като съставна част на *галвано-ударна неконтактна морска мина* има своята дефиниция в други области на човешкото познание (физика, електротехника).

2.5. Схема на основните английски термини за морски мини

Както бе посочено в началото, от особена практическа важност за българските специалисти, боравещи с термините - обект на настоящото изследване, е тяхната съпоставка с английските им еквиваленти с цел повишаване на ефективността на комуникация и със специалисти от страни-членки на НАТО. Представена схема се базира на различни източници ([6], [8], [9]), в които се употребяват и обясняват най-често употребимите термини, и не претендира за изчерпателност (вж. фиг. 4). По-подробното описание на системните отношения между английските термини и съпоставка с българските би била обект на друго изследване.

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МИСЛОВНИЯТ ЛЕКСИКОН НА ИЗУЧАВАЩИТЕ МОРСКИ АНГЛИЙСКИ

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THE MENTAL LEXICON OF THE MARITIME ENGLISH USER

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Abstract: *The paper studies the mental lexicon of Maritime English learners by conducting the Word Association Test. The purpose is to reveal the complex organization of the information stored in the mind of ESP learners. The findings can be useful for everybody involved in ESP teaching.*
Key words: *mental lexicon, word association test, collocation.*

1. MENTAL LEXICON

The recognition of words is of crucial importance for the proper understanding of a text thus helping the listener or reader avoid ambiguity. In specialized technical languages, which are characterized by an extensive use of polysemous words, the question of how such words are perceived is even more important. Psycholonguistics relates word recognition to the state of the user's mental lexicon called by Garnham [2] "the internal store of knowledge about words" or "the mental state of knowledge about words". To McCarthy [4] the mental lexicon is a metaphor used to describe how words might be stored in the mind and retrieved. He calls it a dictionary, a thesaurus, an encyclopaedia, a library, a computer, a network, and a web and considers it to be multi-dimensional with underlying semantic organising principles, indicated by word associations. Word association relates to the mental links between words and the description of those links. Richards et al [6] define them as "ways in which words come to be associated with each other and which influence the learning and remembering of words".

2. WORD ASSOCIATION TEST

Words do not exist in isolation. They are defined through their relation to other words and have different psychological validity for different individuals. How uniform these relations are can be seen from a word association test. This test can also show the stability of the links between words and how these words are stored and handled by the learners. For domain-specific texts the researcher can get valuable information about the type of inter-term relationships. Last but not least, the test helps the teacher see to what extent words are learned in collocation.

The aim of the word association test is to study the complex organization of the information stored in the mind of fluent speakers. In the early 1980s the Birkbeck Vocabulary Project was one of the few to study the processes of vocabulary acquisition in a second language. Paul Meara was its director and I will use his article "Word Associations in a Foreign Language" [5] as a guide to investigating the associations made by Maritime English learners. The basic research tool they

adopted was the simple word association test in which the testees are given a stimulus (a single word) and they have to respond with the first word that comes to their head. The question the researchers wanted to answer was: what does a learner's mental lexicon look like, and how is it different from the mental lexicon of a monolingual native speaker? The main question I want to answer is: what does the Maritime English (ME) learner's mental lexicon look like? The purpose of my investigation is to study the links and regularities within the mental lexicon of a domain-specific group of non-native speakers.

As my objectives are different from those of the Birkbeck Vocabulary Project I modified the test in various ways. Modifications of the test are reported by several authors, e.g. Spiteri [7] and are perfectly acceptable. First, I gave the students one minute to think of more than one association. It allows a large set of inter-related terms to be elicited and can reflect the variety of ways in which the learners approach the concept. Secondly, in the answer sheets there was a column in which they could explain why they made a particular association. The reason why I included this column is that according to Meara [5] it is advisable to discuss the responses (termed associates by Richards et al [6]) with the students in order to provide additional and useful information but since in my study it was impossible, I preferred to give them a chance to explain their choice. Of course, not all the students filled this column.

3. DESIGNING THE TEST: THE WORD LIST

In most cases research in word association is carried out by using the Kent-Rosanoff list. (5) It is not useful for me because it tests the 100 most frequently used words in general English and the responses tend to be very similar. My word list consists of the following 16 domain-specific terms: vessel, ship, unload, discharge, rate, passage, beam, run, lifeboat, anchor, coastal, shore, order, sheer, point and head, which were presented orally in the above sequence. Why did I choose these particular words? All of them are high-frequency ME terms and the students know them very well. The first two pairs (vessel-ship and unload-discharge) are absolute synonyms although many authors consider that full synonymy is impossible. In most cases the choice of a

particular term is arbitrary although in many cases they collocate with different words. Rate, passage, beam, run, order and sheer have multiple meanings and are used in different genres of Maritime English. Point and head are synonymous and at the same time polysemous and can be ambiguous, especially in Pilot Books. Coastal and shore are also synonyms as adjectives but enter in different collocations. Besides, shore is frequently used both as a noun and an adjective. This is the reason why I put it after coastal to guide the students' associations toward the adjectival meaning. Anchor is another example of a term used not only as a noun but also as a verb. Lifeboat is very often mistaken for the term rescue boat. For the layman these may seem the same but their purpose and the equipment they carry is different.

I may say that the list corresponds to McCarthy's idea about what the word list should contain [4]. It is mixed and contains nouns, verbs and adjectives. The only difference is that there are no function words because I think they are meaningful only in expressions but not as single words.

4. PARTICIPANTS

The test was administered to two groups of navigating students, young males. The first one consisted of 38 respodents who had just finished their 3 year at the Naval Academy in Varna, Bulgaria and had studied Maritime English for two years. The participants in the second one, 21 in number, were graduates, i.e. they had finished their studies and were preparing for the State Exam in ME. The level of all subjects in General English is pre-intermediate to intermediate. Their ME level can be considered almost equal and did not influence the final results. The total number of testees is in conformity with Meara's findings and recommendation that the optimum group should consist of about 50.

5. RESULTS

Generally the word association responses can be classified as syntagmatic and paradigmatic. The former are the so called left-to-right or horizontal relations which express the sequential link with the stimulus. Here fall verbs, adjectives and other collocations, i.e. mostly fixed expressions. The paradigmatic responses contain words of the same grammatical class, namely synonyms and antonyms and are vertical associations.

The inter-term relationships [7] may be labeled as: type of and part of (meronymy), both representing a hierarchical relation; synonym and antonym; activity and attributes (collocation); participant; manager; tool; location.

And still another classification of the type of response is that of McCarthy [4] who divides them into: co-ordination (co-hyponymy and antonymy); collocation; superordination and hyponymy, synonymy, encyclopaedic and experiential knowledge; phonological and orthographical links.

Since my respondents speak the same mother tongue as I do, I think that the influence of L1 should also be taken into account when studying the mental lexicon of the ME learners.

Meara suggests that unlike native speakers learners tend to produce more varied and less homogeneous responses and that the latter's associations are often idiosyncratic and somewhat tenuous [5]. My findings do not fully support his position. One reason is that my word list is domain specific and the participants are ESP learners. Another is that all the words in my list are frequently used terms. And a third one is that most of the items are either synonyms in pairs, or have multiple meanings, or both.

My study of word associations showed rather mixed results. As will be seen below they depend much on the nature of the word, namely if it is a noun, a verb or an adjective or if it is polysemous or not. With the multi-meaning terms vessel, ship, load, discharge, rate, passage, run, point, head and to a lesser extent coastal, shore and beam the students' associations include mostly synonyms. All of them are also frequently used terms in the maritime domain. No synonyms were given to the stimuli anchor and order. This is not surprising, especially with the former term which expresses a unique concept.

Collocation is stable through the responses. For the purposes of the present paper collocation here is regarded not only as 'frequent and predictable co-occurrence of words' but also in its broader meaning of a group of words that go together. Although not so numerous this type of association is present in all but one prompt. The exception is coastal, which is strange and unexpected for me. Collocation is most frequent with verbs (load, discharge, run, order). This can be explained by the fact that verbs are strong collocators. Rate has multiple meanings, all of which are frequently used and are studied in expressions therefore its presence in this group is natural. Lifeboat is a specific term most often associated with actions in distress and this is the reason why participants use it in collocations.

In this group I include the attributes which learners suggested. Not all of them form typical collocations but as the latter term is fuzzy and there is no consensus about its scope, I include this type of relation here. Most attributes were provided for anchor, lifeboat, ship and vessel.

Location is the association elicited from the pairs ship, vessel and lifeboat, anchor. The responses abounded in sea and water for the former and ship and vessel for the latter. These links represent the natural connection between the stimuli and associates and this explains why they are so frequent with these terms. Generally the relationships between the terms and the responses are diverse and not clear-cut. Therefore the above pairs are also characterized by other kinds of associations, e. g. the relationship of 'part of' and "type of". The latter is manifest in the many different types of vessel students associated with the hyponyms ship and vessel. At the same time these co-hyponyms are linked

by the relationship of coordination. The only other item that produced such type of association is lifeboat. Its co-hyponyms include various items of life-saving equipment.

A finding worth discussing is the almost complete lack of antonyms. Unload and discharge are the only stimuli which produced this type of association. One reason is the nature of the two words and their knowledge links with the shipping business - the process of cargo handling involves loading and unloading. Another reason is that all the items in the list are nautical terms. They represent unique concepts that are rarely opposed to other concepts.

A quite interesting phenomenon, not mentioned in the reference sources, is derivation. Since word formation is a problem much discussed in class and as there are a lot of derivative terms in ME publications, the subjects gave quite a number of such responses with anchor, ship, head, sheer and beam. The most frequent is anchorage followed by derivatives ending in -ship (e.g. friendship). Abeam and heading are also terms closely related to navigation and they were suggested by several subjects. In my opinion this type of association distinguishes the domain-specific learner from the general English learner, especially in technical subjects.

Activity and tool are also typical associations for the maritime domain. Together with those of manager and participant they reflect the knowledge links made with the maritime business.

As mentioned above the influence of the mother tongue should not be neglected. The phenomenon is most evident with the term sheer. Although it is not infrequent in Pilot Books and is associated with the general arrangement of the ship, it is principally a low-frequency term and was considered new by a large part of the respondents. It was the only word they could not understand when spoken and I had to white it on the white board. This term produced almost only clang associations (see Meara [5], and below under 'phonological and orthographic links'). Some of the subjects even provided answers in Bulgarian because sheer is very close in pronunciation to the Bulgarian equivalent of 'expanse' and 'sew'. Other peculiar clang associations are Cher (not always spelt correctly), veer (a term used in maritime meteorology) and Allan Sheerer (a famous football player). The last association is not surprising as all the testees are young males, as already mentioned, and are interested in football. Of course, there are several 'correct' responses, synonyms and derivatives (sheer strake) but they are few compared to the rest.

The associations of the prompts passage, vessel and head also illustrate the influence of the mother tongue. In Bulgarian passage has the meaning of 'a shoal/ school of fish' and of 'a paragraph' therefore these words are mentioned several times. Vessel has the same pronunciation as the Bulgarian word 'merry' and is present in the responses written in L1. Head has a connotation of intelligent and a lot of the students made this

association.

The influence of encyclopaedic knowledge and experiential knowledge on the associations produced by ME learners is an important feature of the test results. The knowledge links are diverse and can be grouped as historic: lifeboat - with the Titanic disaster; personal experience and emotions: coast/shore - with pleasure and amusement, or order - with food and restaurants; cultural: ship/vessel - with the money mariners earn, order - with the Tamplier order, or run - with sports; economics: rate - with currency exchange; technology: discharge - with electricity. As can be seen from the examples some associations enter into different types of relationship.

The last group of associations is phonological and orthographic links. My results conform to those of Meara and of other authors who state that clang associations are typical with words that are new on not learnt well. With clang associations respondents produce words that are clearly related to some features of the stimulus. Such is the case of sheer which has already been discussed under 'influence of the mother tongue'. Some of the responses are beer, she, etc. An interesting case is the response sheep to the prompt ship. My explanation is that these two words are very often introduced together to illustrate the difference between the short and long sound [i]. The third example for clang associations is Jim Beam and bean for beam. I think that these are the result of the students' ambition to show how well they know English and how many words they have learnt.

The division into the above groups is to a certain extent provisional because the boundaries of the various kinds of associations are not clear cut and some of the responses may be present in more than one class, e.g. the relationship between beam and Jim Beam and sheer and Allan Sheerer can be both cultural and phonological. The associations of sheer can be explained either as clang ones or as mother-tongue influence. This is because categories are not mutually exclusive and overlap therefore the individual links between words can be described by more than one association.

The syntagmatic-paradigmatic distinction is the most general classifcation of associations. Meara's findings [5] show that most native speaking adults have a tendency to produce paradigmatic responses while children prefer syntagmatic ones although he admits that 'this distinction is difficult to work in practice'. With ME learners the results are not so explicit. The associations are mixed and depend on the type of stimulus. With polysemous words like point, passage and to a certain degree rate the paradigmatic relations in the form of synonyms predominate while with the rest and especially with lifeboat and anchor the relations are syntagmatic. On the other hand rate shows almost equal number of responses characterized by syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations which once again confirms the fact that with domain-specific learners and with polysemous terms the associations are rather diverse and unpredictable.

6. CONCLUSIONS

The main objective of my study is to find out how ME learners make mental links between the words they have learned and how these associations are characterized. For this purpose I administered the Word Association Test which is used to characterize the mental lexicon of language users. The most obvious conclusion from it is that unlike adult native speakers specific-domain learners make associations which are varied and largely dependent on the nature of the stimulus word.

The results of the test emphasize the importance of collocation. With the exception of coastal it is present with all stimuli. This finding supports the fact that words do not exist and should never be learned in isolation.

Another conclusion is that world knowledge is also a major factor for the proper learning of a word. It is in agreement with the belief that people learn the relevant and the interesting more easily and try to make connections with things they know well.

An important finding is the influence of the mother tongue on the acquisition of new words. A conclusion can be drawn that this fact should never be neglected by the ME teacher and used to advantage, if possible.

And last but not least derivation is the association which in my opinion distinguishes the mental lexicon of an ESP learner from that of the other L2 learners. This finding should be borne in mind by everybody involved in ESP teaching.

These most general conclusions about the nature of the ME learner's mental lexicon can be used to find ways to help learners recognize the correct meaning of words, learn now words and use them appropriately. This very often means knowing the environment in which a word appears, i.e. its collocations.

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УМЕНИЯ ЗА УСТНО ОБЩУВАНЕ - КЛЮЧ КЪМ УСЪВЪРШЕНСТВАНЕТО НА ОБЩИЯ И СПЕЦИАЛИЗИРАН АНГЛИЙСКИ ЕЗИК

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ORAL INTERACTION COMPETENCE - THE KEY TO GENERAL AND SPECIFIC LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

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Abstract: *In the article the author will focus on the oral communication problems of intermediate-level Bulgarian EFL learners. The author will attempt to identify the sources of the problems and then suggest ways of helping students become more confident and efficient communicators.*
Key words: *oral interaction, L1 (native language), L2 (foreign language), communication strategies.*

1. INTRODUCTION

This article was largely triggered by the consistent reports in the maritime community that many seafarers, although graduating from shore-based training centres and being employed at sea, are still not communicating competently in English on board their vessels. Many graduate seafarers within a multi-national crew have been found unable to understand or respond to instructions by senior officers, both on the bridge and in the engine room. Both providers and users of seafarers regarding their Maritime English competence agree that what onboard staff mostly lack are interaction skills.

2. PROBLEMS WITH EFL INTERACTION

A survey among first-year students at the Varna Naval Academy showed that very little attention had been given to fluency and student interaction during the previous years of tuition in high school. As a result, students had developed inhibitions towards using the target language which had a negative impact on their oral performance. This survey and the author's experience have shown that the majority of Bulgarian EFL learners at intermediate level, and later at ESP level, share a number of characteristics as regards their oral performance and their attitude towards it. Although they have been introduced to the main grammatical forms and their functions and possess a relatively wide vocabulary they display the following features:

- They are reluctant to use L2 for spontaneous interaction in the classroom (i.e. in class discussions and pair/group work).

- When they encounter any problems they tend to abandon their effort to communicate in L2 and they resort to either L1 or silence.

- They appeal (invariably in L1) to the teacher to provide them with the 'correct' lexical item or structure.

- They protest (again mostly in L1) that they 'can't say it'. Their reasons are usually along the lines of: 'we haven't learned it', 'I don't remember the word', 'I don't know how to say it'.

3. CAUSES FOR UNSUCCESSFUL INTERACTION

The author will now examine some of the causes of the problems mentioned above.

1. Native Speaker Expertise

There is a common belief among EFL learners that native speakers have full knowledge and command of their language and that their oral performance is impeccable. As a result, learners often feel intimidated by the idea that their performance will be measured against such standards of 'perfection', and the more ambitious the learner is the stronger this trend becomes.(Tarone & Yule, 1989).

2. Correct Answer Syndrome

A similar shared belief is that there is one (and only one) 'correct' way of expressing a thought/idea, and that any deviation is an error, so it has to be avoided. The learners are, consequently, very reluctant to experiment with the language, since they feel that the odds of 'getting it right' are against them. Very often we, the language teachers, reinforce this syndrome by, intentionally or not, focusing constantly on accuracy of production.

3. Negative Training Practices

The above mentioned can be ingrained and strengthened by the following teaching practices and situations:

a. Very often most of the native models for oral interaction presented to the learners are either written texts read aloud (e.g. news bulletins) or scripted dialogues and interviews delivered with unnatural accuracy and/or density of information. For example, my observations of lessons and survey of published materials indicate that even in our 'communicatively' oriented language teaching era learners seem to be somehow conditioned to respond to questions with an affirmative or negative statement. Unfortunately, this practice reflects more the balance of power in the classroom rather than real-life spoken interaction where responding to a question with another question (e.g. How old are

you? What kind of question is this?) is very common.

b. Learners have been required to produce full responses at all times. This is particularly the case in grammar lessons in which there is an over-emphasis on the correct form, with no concern for the use of the structure in focus for communication.

c. The evolutionary nature of the learners' interlanguage is not acknowledged. As a preventive or remedial course of action against 'erratic' performance the focus has been on accuracy with little or no tolerance of the learners' attempts to experiment with the new language.

d. The status of redundancy in oral production is very low. That is, strategic use of pauses, fillers, repetition, restructuring is not encouraged or even acceptable. Learners of L2 remembered how they had been penalised if, when examined orally in class, they hesitated, groping for a word, or repeated words/phrases (a 'clear' indication for the examiner that they had not studied enough).

e. Oral exam training and tasks have been limited to having learners reproduce hard-learned texts prepared in advance on a topic list (see also Tarone & Yule, 1989).

4. THE RELEVANT THEORY

1. Functions of Spoken Language

Brown & Yule (1983b) remark that language can be seen as having two functions: transferring information (transactional function) and establishing/maintaining social relationships (interactional function). Interactional spoken language is characterised by shifts of topic and short turns. The accuracy and clarity of information in not of primary importance, and facts/views are not normally questioned or challenged. In transactional spoken language longer turns are the norm and there is a clear topic. Since the effective transference of information is the goal, interlocutors are actively engaged in the negotiation of meaning. Brown & Yule summarise the above stating that whereas interactional language is "listener oriented", transactional language is "message oriented".

2. What Is to Be Taught (Interaction in the EFL Classroom)

Although Brown & Yule (1983b) state that spoken language is primarily interactional, they go on to propose that what the EFL learner needs more is the teaching of 'extended transactional turns' (op. cit.: 24), giving the following reasons:

- Long transactional turns can prove demanding even for native speakers;
- It is more often the case that the EFL learner needs L2 to communicate giving/acquire information;
- It is more feasible as far as teaching methodology is concerned.

McCarthy (1991) argues that there is a bias in favour of transactional talk reflected in the design of materials and activities for the EFL classroom and proposes that the element of unpredictability which is inherent in interactional talk should be present in speaking and listening activities.

3. Native Oral Interaction

As regards native oral interaction, one can distinguish some general features of the spoken language (as opposed to the written one). These features are the result of the speakers' efforts to facilitate their speaking production and/ or of the time constraints imposed on them by the nature of oral communication.

a. The syntax tends to be less complicated than in written language (Brown & Yule 1983b). Speakers seem to favour parataxis (i.e. phrases linked not by subordination but by coordinating connectors ('and', 'or', 'but'), or phrases that are understood by the listener as being related to each other only by the way they are uttered by the speaker. Ellipsis (i.e. omission of elements of the sentence) is also widely employed. Speakers omit elements of the sentences they feel are redundant. They do this given the context and their shared knowledge (e.g. utterances like 'Later', 'On the top shelf').

b. Instances of "ungrammatical" utterances are common if one considers the written medium to be the norm of grammatical correctness. McCarthy (1991) provides an example: 'There's another secretary too who I do not know what she's responsible for.'

c. The use of time-creating devices - pauses, hesitation, repetition and false starts - are rather frequent. Native speakers frequently encounter shortcomings while communicating orally. These may be due to time, memory, or vocabulary restrictions. Speakers may be at a loss for words, hesitate, make false starts, repeat utterances, self-correct, or pause. Regarding pauses, in observations made by Goldman-Eisler (cited in Clark & Clark, 1977) of native speakers who were interviewed or asked to describe pictures it was found that '"most people paused between 40 and 50 percent of the time"'.

Based on these facts, Brown & Yule (1983b) propose that it would be irrational and unnatural to expect the EFL learner to produce full, grammatically correct sentences when speaking.

d. As regards vocabulary, Aitchison (1987) states that 'the mental lexicon contains equipment which enables a person to continually expand old words and coin new ones'. As an example she offers the use of compounding by native-speaking children when they encounter vocabulary shortcomings (e.g. 'sky-car' for 'plane'). Other methods of creating new lexical items include affixation and conversion.

Speakers have also to decide on what they are to say next and how to express it while they are speaking. This fact may affect the structure of the speakers' utterance and the density of communicated information.

4. Learners' Strategies

Like native speakers, EFL learners should adopt and/ or adapt the processes of compensating for shortcomings

encountered during oral production. These have been termed '***communication strategies***'. Communication strategies can be considered as the speaker's attempt to communicate meaningful content, in the face of some apparent lacks in the interlanguage system. Communication strategies can be sub-classed into achievement and reduction strategies. The former aim at communicating the whole message as perceived by the speaker. The latter aim at either communicating an imperfect message or communicating a message other than the one intended initially (a message that the speaker can manage to communicate).

What EFL learners need to be equipped with are the achievement strategies. They can be employed by learners, who feel that their linguistic resources are inadequate to carry them through a communicative task, but who, on the other hand, do not want to abandon their communicative goal. The article will briefly focus on non-cooperative achievement strategies, i.e., strategies that do not require contribution from the interlocutor (Ellis, 1986):

- Substitution: Using an L2 lexical item the learner knows/can recall instead of the 'target' item the learner does not know/cannot recall. A typical case here is when a superordinate item is substituted for a hyponym (e.g. 'ship' for 'reefer'), or an item of similar meaning is used (e.g. 'separator *cup*' for 'separator *bowl*').

- Word-coinage: Producing a lexical item based on assumptions regarding the L2 rules of word formation. The result may or may not be an existing L2 item.

- Circumlocution: Offering a definition or description of the target item (e.g. 'the device fir measuring clearances' for 'feeler gauge'). Alternatively the negative of an item, or phrase of converse meaning can be used e.g. 'not deep' for 'shallow').

- Restructuring: These are cases when the learner realises that he/she is unable to finish his/her utterance as it was initially intended and tries again using more manageable means (structure/lexis-wise) without abandoning his/her communicative goal.

5. PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

What is proposed below aims at facilitating learners to utilize their linguistic resources and increase their confidence, risk-taking, and proficiency in oral interaction. The author agrees with Ellis who states that the interaction strategies can be "motivated" only when learners become aware of the shortcomings of the linguistic means at their disposal.

Consequently, first learners need to be made aware of the following:

a. The shortcomings of spontaneous oral interaction, as well as the strategies utilized by native speakers in order to deal with them.

b. Other features of spontaneous oral interaction such as the use of pauses, fillers, repetition and rephrasing.

c. The most common processes and ways of word formation in English, that is, compounding (usually a combination of two nouns, e.g. 'troubleshooting'), conversion (converting one part of speech into another, e.g. 'steam' [noun & verb]), affixation (the addition of prefixes/suffixes to existing words, e.g. ('inefficient/efficiently').

Second, learners should be given the opportunity to practise (i.e. experiment with) using these strategies so as to gradually incorporate the characteristics of spontaneous oral interaction mentioned above into their own speech. To ensure this, authentic (or authentic-sounding) oral texts should be used to elicit and/or exemplify these features. The above features and strategies should then be evaluated for their communicative success in terms of both the native 'model' presented and the learners' own experience in using them. Through this process, the learners will be enabled to form a 'first hand' opinion on the benefits of adopting/adapting these features, and, through an 'experience it' approach, they will be able to select the ones that best suit their style and incorporate them into their oral interaction. Furthermore the teacher should not just tolerate but encourage any learners' attempts at 'creative improvisation' through word formation.

The author would like to argue that such awareness-raising in combination with practice/ experimentation will help learners become more confident and successful communicators. As Faerch & Kasper (1883) put it, "a learner who has gone through a stage of conscious analysis of a given problem in a given context... and a conscious establishment of a plan geared at its solution might be better capable of applying such 'strategic' knowledge to new situations in a creative and effective way".

Some may argue that once learners have developed communication strategies that enable them to say what they want, they may lose the motivation to produce more grammatically accurate forms. A counter argument based on practice is that communication strategies have a potential learning effect because they are governed by achievement behaviour. Those compensatory strategies by means of which the learner extends his resources without abandoning the interlanguage system completely can lead to hypothesis formation as the first step in the L2 learning process. Furthermore the teacher should make a point of presenting the features discussed above not as the 'easy way out', but as a means of compensating for present communication problems which will be less and less needed as the learners competence.

6. CLASSROOM PROCEDURES

Below the author will suggest activity types consistent with the analysis made above.

1. Awareness raising activities

a. Learners are recorded while they carry out an interaction activity (e.g. 'describe and arrange', 'describe and find similarities/differences', exchanging views/ideas, reaching a decision, solving a problem, etc.). The students then listen to the recording and are asked to evaluate their performance and discuss any difficulties they encountered and any strategies they used in order to deal with them. It may be that available facilities or the classroom size make recording problematic. In this case, one or two students in each group can play the role of the observer and take notes on the particular features focused on (i.e. use of circumlocution, word coinage, rephrasing/restructuring, fillers etc.). When the focus is on circumlocution or word coinage the teacher should see to it that what the learners have to communicate is not entirely within their linguistic competence.

b. Learners listen to native speaker oral interaction and are asked to identify certain features/strategies through their linguistic (or even non-linguistic, e.g. 'um') realisations. The teacher then elicits the function and usefulness of these features/strategies. More expressions through which the feature/strategy focused upon is realised should be provided.

2. Practice activities

a. Substitution/Circumlocution: In an adaptation of 'charades', students (in opposing teams) have to describe a word/term or an expression. Successful attempts win a point for the team.

b. Circumlocution/Rephrasing: Students are given strips of paper with a sentence on each. In every sentence a word or expression is underlined. In pairs, students have to communicate the 'message' without using the underlined word/expression. Feedback is immediate as their partners have to come up with the underlined word/expression. Only then can a strip be discarded. This is a team activity since the winner is the pair to discard all their strips first and by adding a time limit oral reaction under increased stress can be practised. The teacher should see to it that the words/expressions are well within the students' competence.

c. Fillers: Learners are asked to think of and note down too personal or awkward questions to ask each other.

When asked, learners have to try to delay the actual reply using fillers or replying with a question.

d. Word formation: Learners in teams are given a set of dominoes on which there are words and/or affixes. The rules are the same as in the original game, with the only addition that the players have to explain the change that each word undergoes when combined with an affix (adapted from Rinvolucri, 1985). Alternatively the dominoes can have nouns that can or cannot be compounded. Each pair of teams should be given a dictionary in case there are challenges.

The activity types described in the practice section can offer students the chance to experiment with and incorporate the features/strategies presented, discussed and evaluated in the awareness stage. In addition, the same activities when recorded can be used for feedback and self evaluation.

7. CONCLUSION

Awareness, practice and self evaluation regarding achievement strategies and features of spontaneous oral interaction can initiate a virtuous circle: As learners shed their inhibitions they become more willing to take risks and experiment with the language. When they experience success at meaningful oral communication their confidence increases, and so does their motivation to go on learning.

The author would like to finish by clarifying that the activities suggested in this article should not be treated as one-off activities. Awareness and incorporation of the strategies and features discussed is expected to be a gradual process. Therefore, such activities should form an integral part of the learning programme both at GE stage and ESP stage.

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SWOT-АНАЛИЗ НА МОРСКИЯ АНГЛИЙСКИ - СЛАБОСТИ

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SWOT ANALYSIS OF MARITIME ENGLISH - WEAKNESSES

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Abstract: *If Maritime English is considered the only safe way to communicate within the maritime community it is worth trying to analyze it as a guidance for both safer use and more efficient training in a rapidly changing educational environment. This article will continue its author's attempt to do a SWOT analysis of Maritime English as the established professional language of the seafarers' community, focusing on the weaknesses of Maritime English and Maritime English providers.*

Key words: *SWOT analysis, STCW'95, Maritime English (ME), Maritime Education and Training (MET), customer-oriented.*

1. SWOT ANALYSIS SCHEME

The **S**trengths, **W**eaknesses, **O**pportunities, and **T**hreats (SWOT) analysis was originally worked out to be employed in business environment. Nowadays, it is a wide-application tool designed to be used in the preliminary stages of decision-making and as a precursor to strategic planning in various kinds of applications (Johnson, 1989; Bartol, 1991). It is a basic, straightforward model that provides direction and serves as a foundation for the development and improvement of a product or an organization. SWOT analysis accomplishes its goals by assessing **strengths** and **weaknesses** in addition to **opportunities** (potential favorable conditions) and **threats** (potential unfavorable conditions). The function of SWOT analysis is to take the information from the environmental analysis and separate it into internal issues (strengths and weaknesses) of the analyzed subject and external issues (opportunities and threats) for the analyzed subject. Once this is completed, SWOT analysis determines if the information indicates trends that will assist the product/organization in accomplishing its objectives (a strength or opportunity), or if it indicates an obstacle that must be overcome or minimized to achieve desired results (weakness or threat) (Marketing Strategy, 1998).

That's why, SWOT analysis is a frequently used management tool, useful for reflection, assessment, decision making and appraising options. It is particularly useful because of its simplicity - it takes seconds to set up, and can be easily explained to others.

Why use SWOT analysis in education?

Management tools originally intended for industry and business can frequently be tailored for application in education due to fundamental similarities both of education as services offered to corresponding customers and in the management duties of education providers.

This is especially true nowadays as modern education features three major underlying trends:

1. Modern education is rapidly becoming globalized. This gives rise to borderless education services and an increase in competition between education pro-viders. Additionally, students are increasingly mobile and willing to travel to other countries for their studies.

2. Modern education is rapidly becoming massified, meaning that it is easily accessible to a greater number of people.

3. Modern education is increasingly treated as a commodity. This is not a novel trend in education as educational services have been bought/sold over many years. What is changing is the role of academic staff. Commodification changes the academic ethos away from scholarship towards commercialization.

In MET, these trends have let to fundamental changes in the relationships between the education service provider (seller/MET institution) and the education service user (buyer/MET student) such that MET education has become primarily market-oriented i.e. it provides what the customer wants not what it thinks the customer needs. And the customer – mainly the shipping industry, but also governmental and public authorities or administrations - badly needs graduates with MET who are trained according to high-quality standards in order to meet the most exacting and competitive requirements of a globalized maritime transport.

Within this context Maritime English plays an ever-increasing role. The importance of Maritime English comes from the fact that Maritime English is generally identified to maritime communication. Effective communications are an essential ingredient to safe and efficient ship operations. Communication can be achieved in many ways, but the prime method for operational communications is through speech. And when functioning in an operational situation such as berthing a ship or fighting a fire, it is vitally important that those involved can communicate effectively. The language usually used on board ship is the national language of the crew. However, in these days of multinational crews, ships trading internationally must conduct ship to shore communications and onboard communications in a language that can be understood since navigational and safety communications must be precise and unambiguous to avoid confusion and error. Consequently, the international community has

chosen the English language as the international standard for achieving effective communication on board and between ship and shore. An adequate standard of English is, therefore, not only an international requirement for certification of seafarers but also a key element in ensuring safe, efficient and profitable ship operations, so that failures in communications are no longer cited as a contributory cause of maritime accidents. IMO has developed the requirements for English language competency of seafarers and failing to meet these requirements will not only risk safety at sea and inevitably diminish commercial profit, but, having in mind the individual seafarer, it will eventually reduce his/her chances on the highly competitive international market. In any market quality is the key factor. The quality of the seafaring human resources in the international seafaring labour market is decided by the quality of the education and training they have received. And Maritime English, being one of the assets of high-quality MET, can be considered and analyzed as any commodity offered on the educational market.

One of the methods to analyze the quality of Maritime English and its providers as an asset of MET is by applying SWOT analysis.

How to use the SWOT framework

The process of utilizing the SWOT approach requires an internal survey of the strengths and weaknesses and an external survey of the threats and opportunities. The information from these four areas can be processed in a simple worksheet, an outline of which is shown in Figure 1.

Internal Strengths	Internal Weaknesses
External Opportunities	External Threats

Strengths and weaknesses exist internally or in key relationships between what is analyzed and its customers. SWOT analysis must be customer - oriented to gain maximum benefit.

Besides specifying strengths, a customer-oriented SWOT should also uncover internal weaknesses. Although some weaknesses may be harmless, those that relate to specific customer needs should be overcome if at all possible.

At the same time, actions can be planned and undertaken to counteract and restrict weaknesses in order to minimize their negative effects. (Marketing Strategy, 1998).

2. WEAKNESSES OF MARITIME ENGLISH AS A PRODUCT OFFERED ON THE SEAFARERS' LABOUR MARKET

Surprising as it may seem, the main weakness of MET in general and of ME in particular lies in the STCW'95 standards, their implementation and assessment. The STCW'95 sets the standards for training and

certification of watchkeepers. These standards of training contained in the STCW'95 were expected to be met internationally in METs and approved by the national maritime administrations. Why then a common theme emerges among the maritime community that STCW'95 has not achieved universal training standards. Many people, engaged in MET, have voiced a concern that by most objective measures there does not appear to have been any overall improvement in competence and no one in the industry could genuinely believe that all officers obtaining a supposedly compliant STCW certificate are in fact competent. If we analyze the STCW'95, as it was done by many concerned, the shortcomings will come to the surface. The first lies in the standards themselves which are non-comprehensive in their detail and, in most places so vague that they can be taken to mean anything. This leaves too much room for interpretation, too much non-compliance – some willful, of course. The second is in the assessment criteria, which do not ensure that competence is validly assessed.

The foregoing conclusions refer to the standards of training and assessment for the entire STCW'95 Code, however, we can ask ourselves to what extent the criteria provided for watchkeepers to attain competence in English language are also unhelpful, lacking detailed content which teachers can readily include in a common ME syllabus, within the sphere of a specialist industry.

To refresh our memory: initially through IMO English has been designated as the communication medium at sea and the need for seafarers to be proficient in English was already recognised. However, the rapid increase of crews from countries where English is a foreign language has presented far greater problems than at first realised. This important competence has not always been addressed adequately during training, so seafarers, often excellent seamen, have gone to sea lacking this vital skill.

Although many hundreds of seafarers are graduating from shore-based training centres, and are employed at sea, reports have been consistent that many are still not communicating competently in English on board their vessels. Many graduate seafarers within a multinational crew were unable to understand or respond to instruction by senior officers, both on the bridge and in the engine room. It also has become apparent that some of those responsible for the placement of entire crews on vessels of all types could not be using effective English assessment methods to ensure the seafarers could communicate proficiently in English.

STCW'95 has undertaken to improve this serious situation. We cannot deny that much has been done, however, IMO reports show that despite the new regulations and standards the accidents have not really reduced and 80% of them are still caused by human errors – among them miscommunication. A grave example is the collision between m/s ATLANTIC and m/s ARNGAST on August 4th, 2005. The conclusion

of the Division for Investigation of Marine Accidents reads that the Chief Officer on ARNGAST, as OOW, apparently misunderstood the VHF request from ATLANTIC to turn to port and slow down and instead turned to starboard shortly before the collision.

To focus back on STCW'95 Code and the minimum ME standards required for watchkeeping engineers. These are stated in Table A-III/I & II with using English in written and oral form and possessing adequate knowledge of the English language to enable the officer to use engineering publications and to perform engineering duties. So far, so vague. The specific duties of the engineer officer and the language and skills needed to carry them out safely in a multilingual crew are not defined. And the engineers' duties are neither few, nor simple.

The first required competence is to keep all the machines and systems on board under normal condition. To achieve this competence the marine engineer has to know what normal condition is and to be able to forecast the malfunctions when abnormal condition is monitored. On a ship manned with a multinational crew this means, first, ME competence in dealing with all supporting technical documentation. Only on studying an engineering manual we can realise how complicated and highly technical is the language describing how each component of machinery and equipment interacts with another. Yet, the STCW'95 Code gives neither scope nor guidelines to ME providers to ensure the efficient implementation of this vital sub-competence. Second, the marine engineer has to interact with his superiors and subordinates whose duty is also to maintain all machinery in normal condition.

The second type of competence is to recover any occurred abnormal condition into normal condition. For this competence engineer officers have to know the difference between the normal and abnormal condition, the process to recover, and should not fall into panic when abnormal condition occurs. The focus here is on the competence of taking fast and reliable actions in urgent and emergency situations. These actions are taken under increased stress and rely on accuracy of giving orders/instructions and responding to orders/instructions. The STCW'95 does not in any way specify this crucial competence of handling stress and panic and what ME interaction skills are needed in such situations in order not to endanger the safety of ship and crew. The only guideline the STCW gives is 'Communications should be clear and understood'.

As far as implementation goes, again there are no specific guidelines for the ME providers to achieve more unified and miscommunication-free ME competence. Both contents and methodology are left to their subjective choice. However, the body of ME instructors is quite amorphous, consists of career specialists; of English language and literature graduates, often with no onboard experience; of former seafarers who are thought or claim to have a good command of the English language, but

who seldom have teaching qualifications; and of native English speaking persons who are often not qualified teachers, let alone experienced in maritime matters.

As to the methods used, it could be interesting to survey just how many training centres are still utilising the listen-and-repeat technique, or the present-drill method hoping sufficient language proficiency will be reached. We can only ask ourselves how many ME providers have considered the aspect of the noise level in many engine rooms where normal oral communication is often impossible and there are several engineers from non-English speaking countries working together. and to achieve a corresponding ME proficiency level.

"Role play" scenarios as a communicative method and the use of the Engine Room simulator as a training source are an answer, but would this type of training be possible or common for engineer trainees for whom English is a foreign language? Regretfully, it is not yet in the author's institution.

When it comes to assessment, we should ask ourselves if our trainees are achieving the English standards, both oral and written, as explained in Table A-III/I & II. This we could answer by assessing our trainees' level of competence.

It is an interesting exercise to analyse the section 'Methods for demonstrating competence' in regards to ME for engineer watchkeepers. It reads: 'Examination and assessment of evidence obtained from practical instruction. English language publications relevant to engineering duties are correctly interpreted'. As seen from the quotation, the competence assessment criteria specified in the STCW'95 are not based on specific overt outcomes but rather on generalised statements of performance. As such they are highly subjective and open to interpretation.

While 'examination' is stated here, exactly how competence in oral ME is to be examined is not specified. It is assumed this would occur as is normal practice in many countries - with 'orals' being a fundamental test of knowledge and the ability to communicate accurately using ME. Yet, is such a system functioning in all countries? At various events of ME providers it has become clear that there are countries (e.g. in the Asia region) where watchkeepers are not examined orally in English. In countries where ship staff is examined orally another question arises, namely, is it really the necessary communication competence tested? STCW'95 is not helpful in anyway. It does not provide any guidance for assessing oral competence in ME in the many specific instances necessary for bridge and engine room watchkeepers. Similarly, there is no indication of assessment procedure to certify such competence, therefore ME teachers and MET administrations are left with no direction or control criteria in this vital area. STCW refers to both 'competence' and 'performance' indicators (what should these be?) and indeed proof of competence in ME could only

be obvious from 'performance' in the language. So we can ask: how exactly are watchkeeping trainees 'tested in performance in ME of shipboard tasks and onboard and external communications?'

Similarly, 'assessment of evidence' in the STCW'95 can be interpreted as normal duties on board being carried out competently (onboard assessment). It can be asked: could it be expected that such onboard assessment would be carried out efficiently if those qualified to examine, i.e., the senior officers, might be extremely busy with routine duties and might have varying levels of ME proficiency?

Again there is the implication that the watchkeepers' competence will be evaluated by an external examiner and we can reflect as to whether this is, or can be, effected.

3. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, I believe that ME providers (both teachers and administrations) will benefit from a close reviewing and reconsideration of the STCW'95 ME requirements for watchkeepers. We need to be quite certain that out trainees from non-English speaking backgrounds really achieve the required standards to ensure competency sufficient to pass examinations and achieve certification.

The community my ask why this is so demanding. The reasons are crucial. An article in the August issue of the 'Economist' 2005 stated that in the year 2004 the world's fleet carried 90% of the total global exports worth 8.9 trillion. In stark contrast, a report by the Seafarers International Research Centre in Cardiff estimated a shortage of 'over 100.000 highly skilled officers' for the same period. Present statistics feature a trend of increasing growth in world sea trade and of larger and faster vessels already at sea and under construction. So we can ask the following questions:

- Can the already congested shipping routes cope with even more pressure as larger, faster vessels compete for sea room, with multilingual crews perhaps causing confusing situations? The collision in September 1999 between the cruise vessel 'Norwegian Dream' and the container ship 'Ever Decent' in the English Channel is a clear example here of confused communication.

- Will the crews of cruise vessels and high-speed ferries communicate effectively with the thousands of tourists and business people they carry? The ghosts of the Baltic ferries 'Scandinavian Star' and 'Estonia' provide sufficient warning here.

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ОБУЧЕНИЕ В ОРАТОРСКИ УМЕНИЯ НА АНГЛИЙСКИ ЕЗИК

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TOASTMASTERS IN AN ENGLISH CLASS

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Abstract: *The article presents a new technique for the promoting of the speaking skills of the students of English. The author shares some ideas on how to implement this technique in the English class.*
Key words: *toastmasters, communicative, technique, toastmasters meeting.*

1. INTRODUCTION

Toastmasters, in its original meaning, is a world-wide non-profit organization for helping people improve their public speaking and build up public speaking confidence. Another meaning of *Toastmasters* is the activity, organized by this organization. Having in mind that speaking as a language skill is a crucial part of second language learning and teaching, the author's intention is to present *Toastmasters* as an activity which can be transferred to and practiced in an English class to help students become more fluent in the target language, e.g. to promote their speaking competence. The idea originated at an international teacher trainer course in Canada. The course participants acting as students of English took part in several *Toastmaster* meetings and had the chance to speak before an audience of Canadian instructors. It turned out to be a challenging but very useful experience in the acquisition of English as a second language.

ESL teachers agree on that students learn to speak in the second language by "interacting". Communicative language teaching and collaborative learning serve best for this aim. Communicative language teaching is based on real-life situations that require communication. By using *Toastmasters* technique in the English class, students will have the opportunity of communicating fluently in the target language.

Most of our students and cadets may feel that their English speaking ability is poor, but often the main problem is not lack of knowledge but lack of confidence. The practice of *Toastmasters* in class will help them overcome their fear of speaking publicly in a language that is not their native tongue. This is an opportunity especially for the cadets who at the end of the English course are going to take their OPI (Oral Proficiency Interview) at the STANAG test.

2. HOW DOES TOASTMASTERS WORK?

Toastmasters can be presented as a "learn-by-doing" practice technique which offers a proven way to improve students' communication skills by:
· delivering prepared speeches;
· giving impromptu talks on assigned topics;
· practicing improvised speaking;
· offering and receiving constructive feedback;
· learning to listen, think and speak better;
· developing leadership experience.

The role of the teacher in *Toastmasters* is that of a monitor and facilitator of the learning process rather than an instructor and evaluator. Instead, students evaluate one another's oral presentations. Only when they begin to "find faults" with other students' performances can they develop a strong awareness of their own speaking skills. Through this practice, students not only become better speakers, but also better listeners and critics. They become more and more critical of their sentence structures, choice of words, body movements, eye contact, vocal quality, and many other elements in their speaking which have gone unnoticed so far.

3. WHAT IS A *TOASTMASTERS MEETING* LIKE IN AN ENGLISH CLASS?

The meeting takes about 90 min. (2 academic hours of 45 min. each). It is split into two main sections – the first is the "speaking" section that includes prepared and impromptu speeches, the second is an "evaluation" section. The meeting is meant to be informative, fun and stress-free. It is a great experience for any student at any level but is more suitable and efficient to be practiced at the pre-intermediate, intermediate and advanced levels. Students are assigned the following speaking roles:

1. Toastmaster (Chair)
This student is to define the theme of the meeting which is usually related to the students' needs and interests. It must be also chosen so that the materials for the speeches be easily searched for and found in authentic sources (internet, encyclopedia, etc.). The student takes on the responsibility to open the meeting and address the Fellow Toastmasters and Honored Guests (the teacher, for example, or other students present). Then he proceeds with the agenda and invites or thanks each speaker respectively.

2. Humorist
This student presents the so-called "joke of the day". It may be related to the topic but not necessarily. The humorist is supposed to use gestures, body language and put lots of expression in his voice. It feels good to make the audience laugh. So that the joke should be brief and last no more than 2 min.

3. Grammarian
This role sharpens students' listening skills. In fact, it comprises two subtasks. On one hand, the Grammar-

ian is to supply the "word of the day". The latter doesn't have to be complex or obscure. An adjective or an adverb is often a good choice. The Grammarian must present the word of the day with its meaning and an example sentence. A good idea is to write it on the white board or attach it to the podium (if any) beforehand. It's a challenge to use the word of the day throughout the meeting. The audience gives an applause every time a speaker uses it in the speech. On the other hand, the Grammarian should listen closely for both exception language usage, which is considered an advantage, and incorrect grammar. He is supposed to share these notes in the report at the end of the meeting.

4. Speakers

These students give prepared speeches on various topics which needn't be related to each other or to the main topic of the meeting. They usually speak about 6-8 min. each. The idea is to speak and not read (if possible).

5. Speech Evaluators

There are usually one or two evaluators depending on the number of speakers (3 or 4). The former listen carefully and observe body language and eye contact. Their final evaluation is based on the fact if the speaker meets the objective. They give a reports commenting constructively on the speaker's performance. Their task is to comment on delivery only, not content. A good idea is to use the sandwich technique reinforcing what the speaker is doing correctly, then giving a challenge or two, and then another positive reinforcement. Above all, evaluators should be enthusiastic about the speech and leave the speaker eager to come back and present again. A tip for making notes during a speech is to take a piece of paper and divide it into two columns. The good points and achievements can be entered in the left column, and possible improvements in the right column.

6. Table Topic Master

This student is supposed to come up with approximately 3-4 questions that can be used as titles to impromptu speeches. They should cover topics related to the theme of the meeting and give a chance to speak within 1-2 min. The Table Topic Master distributes the questions on a folded piece of paper among the participants so that they cannot look at them beforehand.

7. Table Topic Speakers

As soon as they receive the questions, the speakers should not start speaking immediately. The first speaker turns over the question and has only one minute to think of what he is going to say. When he starts speaking, the next speaker can look at the question and so on. The first thing the speakers can usually do is repeat back the question. Many people, not only students, find this the most difficult part of the meeting and are terrified of this section. However, this role is considered the most useful for developing speaking abilities. It is similar to an oral testing or interview where the student hasn't prepared his speech in advance and has to speak impromptu.

8. Table Topics Evaluator

His task is to encourage the impromptu speakers while giving them positive suggestions for how they can improve. He is supposed to give at least one positive point and one point for improvement for each speaker having in mind the following characteristics:
· Sticking to the topic.
· Body language.
· Hand gestures.
· Eye contact.
· Opening and conclusion.
· Humor and imagination.
· Use of time.

9. Ah Counter

This student listens carefully and keeps track of those little crutch words such as Ah-s, Um-s and So-s.

10. Timer

Having a timer, the Timer carefully counts the minutes of each participant's speech except for the Toastmaster and the Table Topics Master. Finally, he briefly states his report. All participants are eager to know how long they have spoken and if they were inside their time allowance. As *Toastmasters* depends on accurate timing, this role is not less important.

4. GENERAL GUIDELINES FOR BECOMING A COMPETENT COMMUNICATOR:

1. Be prepared – organize your speech in advance.

2. Be earnest – convey sincerity to make your audience understand and possibly join you in your enthusiastic support of your view.

3. Show what you mean – using body language while speaking.

4. Vocal variety – develop an effective speaking voice.

5. Work with words – the importance of words and the relationship between the words you use and the ideas you want to express.

6. Speak with knowledge – conduct research to build your knowledge on a topic of importance to you, prepare a written script, and use your skills to talk on the topic in the most interesting and lively way.

7. Inspire your audience – prepare a speech on a topic that is challenging and will meet the needs and interests of your audience.

8. Time your speech – it is important not only what you are going to talk about but also how long you are going to give a speech.

Having in mind all of the aforesaid about *Toastmasters*, the author can reach the conclusion that it is a technique fully compatible with the characteristics of the communicative approach to language teaching, e.g. it is an activity which:

- gives learners the chance to communicate in the target language;
- includes social functions as well as linguistic structures;
- encourages group work;
- engages students in role-play;

- uses authentic materials to reflect real-life situations and demands;

- involves integrated skills, such as speaking, listening, reading, and writing (in the form of note-taking);

- allows the teacher to be a monitor and facilitator.

5. CONCLUSION

Toastmasters provides a communicative environment in class where students share substantive ideas, explore topics, and develop personal characteristics. It helps students develop greater confidence in speaking, creative thinking, and critical ability, all of which stimulates their motivation in the target language acquisition. Moreover, they acquire leadership and group management abilities, and become more cooperative and efficient with group work in the English class.

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ИЗРАЗЯВАНЕ НА СЪБИТИЯ СЪС СРЕДСТВАТА НА ЕЗИКА. КОГНИТИВЕН ПОДХОД

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EVENTS IN LANGUAGE. A COGNITIVE APPROACH

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Abstract: *The present paper presents a brief theoretical outline of event image schema and its linguistic symbolic representation with nouns and verbs. The nominalization process is viewed as a shift in profiling in the process of symbolic construal.*

Key words: *gestalt, event, symbol, image schema, cognitive, nominalization.*

> *'By the way, one important reason linguists and other people believe – are convinced – that there are such things as languages is just that they have the concept of 'a language' in their conceptual system. And why is there, how did it get there? Largely just because we have the word 'language', and people have a natural tendency to suppose that nouns stand for actual things.'*
>
> **Lamb (1999)**

1. THE COGNITIVE COMMITMENT

It is a new approach to the study of language which views linguistic knowledge as part of general cognition and thinking; linguistic behaviour is not separated from other general cognitive abilities which allow mental processes of reasoning, memory, attention or learning, but understood as an integral part of it. It emerged in the late seventies and early eighties, especially through the work of George Lakoff, one of the founders of Generative Semantics, and Ronald Langacker, also an ex-practitioner of Generative Linguistics. As a consequence, this new paradigm could be seen as a reaction against the dominant generative paradigm which pursues an autonomous view of language.

Cognitive Linguistics is not a totally homogeneous framework. Ungerer and Schmid (1996) distinguish three main approaches: the Experiential view, the Prominence view and the Attentional view of language.

The 'Experiential view' pursues a more practical and empirical description of meaning; instead of postulating logical rules and objective definitions based on theoretical considerations, this approach focuses on what might be going on in the minds of speakers when they produce and understand words and sentences. Within this framework, the knowledge and experience human beings have of the things and events that they know well, is transferred to those other objects and events with which they may not be so familiar, and even to abstract concepts. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) are among the first to have focused on this conceptual potential, especially in the case of metaphors.

The 'Prominence view' is based on concepts of profiling and figure/ground arrangement, a phenomenon first introduced by the Danish gestalt psychologist Rubin. The prominence principle explains why, when we look at an object in our environment, we single it out as a perceptually prominent figure standing out from the background. This principle is used in Langacker's (1987, 1991a) grammar where profiling is used to explain construal and grammatical constructs while figure and ground is employed for the explanation of grammatical relations.

Finally, **the 'Attentional view'** assumes that what we actually express, reflects those parts of an event which attract our attention. A main concept in this approach is Fillmore's (1975) notion of 'frame', i.e. the knowledge we have about a certain situation. Talmy (1991) uses the notion of frame to analyse event chains and cognition. Event frames are sets of conceptual elements and relationships that co-evoke each other and that are shared by speakers. This author shows that certain parts of an event-frame are sometimes brought into the foreground while others are kept in the background. That is to say, we highlight different aspects of a frame based on our cognitive ability to direct our attention. This cognitive process, which Talmy calls the 'windowing of attention', results in different linguistic expressions.

Despite these three different viewpoints in Cognitive Linguistics, the majority of linguists working within this paradigm share the view that linguistic knowledge is part of general thinking and cognition.

2. THEORETICAL PRINCIPLES IN COGNITIVE LINGUISTICS

It is very difficult to summarise in just a few words what the main theoretical ideas underlying a linguistic paradigm are, especially in a field as heterogeneous as Cognitive Linguistics. However, I would consider the following as the main pillars of the whole theory:

(i) Language is an integral part of cognition

(ii) Language is symbolic in nature.

2.1. Language as an integral part of cognition

Language is understood as a product of general cognitive abilities. Consequently, a cognitive linguist must be willing to accept what Lakoff (1990: 40) calls the 'cognitive commitment', that is, s/he must be prepared to embrace the link between language and other cognitive faculties because linguistic theory and methodology must be consistent with what is empirically known about cognition, the brain and language. In other words, the difference between language and other mental processes is not one of kind, but one of degree. Consequently, not only linguistic principles must be investigated in reference to other mental faculties, but also any account of the different levels of linguistic analysis (syntax, semantics, phonology…) must be carried out taking into account all of these levels simultaneously.

2.2. Language is symbolic in nature

Langacker (1987: 11) starts his chapter on the general assumptions of his *Foundations of Cognitive Grammar* precisely with this assertion, namely that language:

'…makes available to the speaker… an open-ended set of linguistic signs or expressions, each of which associates a semantic representation of some kind with a phonological representation. '

Hence, language is symbolic because it is based on the association between semantic representation and phonological representation. This association of two different poles refers to the Saussurian conception of the linguistic sign. However, it is radically different on one basic point: the arbitrariness of the sign.

While it is true that there is always a certain essential arbitrary component in the association of words with what they mean, nonetheless, this arbitrariness is very restricted. The choice of the sequence of sounds *see* to express the concept of vision as in 1) is arbitrary. However, what it is not arbitrary is the fact that these same sequences of sounds are also used to express knowledge as in 2). As Sweetser (1990: 5) points out, we intuitively notice that there must be a reason why we can use the same verb *see* in these two 'apparently' unrelated domains, perception and cognition. We sense that this choice is not random, but well-motivated.

1) 'I see the house'
2) 'I didn't see at the time what he wanted to say'

Cognitive Linguistics explains the link between perception and cognition in these two examples on the basis of our conceptual organisation. We perceive and understand these two processes as related. On the basis of our experience as human beings, we see similarities between vision and knowledge, and it is because of these similarities that we conceptualise them as related concepts. For cognitive linguists, language is not structured arbitrarily. It is motivated and grounded more or less directly in experience, in our bodily, physical, social, and cultural experiences because after all, "we are beings of the flesh" (Johnson 1992: 347). This notion of a 'grounding' is known in Cognitive Linguistics as 'embodiment' (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, 1999) Its basic idea is that mental and linguistic categories are not abstract, disembodied and human independent categories; we create them on the basis of our concrete experiences and under the constraints imposed by our bodies.

3. EVENT CONCEPTUALIZATION AND CONSTRUAL

A major concern of cognitive grammar is to describe the conceptual import of grammatical constructs. The assumption that linguistic meaning is to be equated with 'speaker construal' has important consequences for the definition of the content of semantic categories. The construal approach to meaning implies that semantic content is by definition 'filtered' by human perception and conceptualization.

Talmy's (2000) definition of an event in "Towards a Cognitive Semantics"

'By the operation of very general cognitive processes that can be termed conceptual partitioning and the ascription of entityhood, the human mind in perception or conception can extend a boundary around a portion of what would otherwise be a continuum, whether of space, time, or other qualitative domain, and ascribe to the excerpted contents within the boundary the property of being a single unit entity. Among various alternatives, one category of such an entity is perceived or conceptualized as an event. This is a type of entity that includes within its boundary a continuous correlation between at least some portion of its identifying qualitative domain and some portion of the so-conceived temporal continuum - that is, of the progression of time. Such a correlation may rest on a primitive phenomenological experience that can be characterized as dynamism - a fundamental property or principle of activeness in the world. This experience is probably both foundational and universal in human cognition.' (Vol. 2 Ch. 3)

Meanings are relative to cognitive domains, many of which are idealized cognitive domains in the sense of Lakoff (1987). Numerous constructs are characterized with reference to these "idealized cognitive models" that approach the status of archetypes, being grounded in everyday experience and being fundamental to our conception of the world. One such model supports the characterization of both the noun and the verb.

Cognitive models fundamental to our experience and our conception of the world are claimed to underlie the prototypical values of certain grammatical constructs pertaining to clause structure.

Grammatically significant as well is the structure of events or more precisely the structure of our conception of events in terms of conceptual autonomy and dependence. Clausal organization is in large measure shaped by the interaction of these factors. Clauses are grammatical encoders of events, or, to be more exact, of what we conceptualize as events.

The cognitive model of events therefore is the basic epistemological model of Cognitive grammar.

Langacker labels this model 'the billiard-ball model'

'This archetypal folk model reflects fundamental aspects of cognitive organization. Our concern is with its linguistic import, particularly its role in providing the conceptual basis for certain grammatical constructs. Among them are the universal categories *noun* and *verb*. Aspects of the billiard-ball model correspond directly to the noun and the verb prototypes: thus discrete physical objects are clearly prototypical for the class of nouns, and their energetic interactions for the class of verbs.' Langacker (1991 p.14).

We conceptualize the world around us as observers, i.e. our first role in it is that of the observer. Experientially (i.e. perceptually and for that reason conceptually as well) physical objects and energetic interactions stand in polar opposition to one another.

We observe and conceive of physical entities which interact with other physical entities, whereby contacts result in transfer of energy. This transfer of energy is realized in a series of consecutive interconnections between physical entities. These interconnections can either be identical (homogeneous) i.e. exhibiting no change of state, or non-identical (heterogeneous) showing a change of state. This transfer of energy is but one aspect of the archetypal epistemological model of the world we conceive of. The other aspect is the number of physical entities participating in this energy transfer.

Langacker refers to this viewing arrangement as the *stage model* (where the role of the perceiver is very analogous to that of someone watching a play).

'An observer's gaze is directed outwards toward other objects. At any one moment his field of vision subtends only a limited portion of his surroundings, within which his attention is focused on a particular region. A viewer tends to organize the scene he observes into an inclusive *setting* populated by interacting *participants*, who are small and mobile by comparison.' Langacker (1991: p. 284)

The linguistic construal of our conceptualizations is thus subjective in character and based on our cognitive processing, i.e. on 'our ability to construe a conceived situation in alternate ways.' Langacker (1991) Thus semantic roles are not linguistic constructs, but rather pre-linguistic conceptions grounded in everyday experience. The important thing is to realize the non-linguistic origin of these roles.

In order to focus on their non-linguistic origin, Langacker terms them *role archetypes*.

· *agent*, the voluntary initiator of physical activity;

· *patient,* an inanimate object that absorbs the energy transmitted via externally initiated physical contact and thereby undergoes an internal change of state;

· *instrument*, a physical object manipulated by an agent to affect a patient;

· *experiencer*, a person engaged in mental activity (intellectual, perceptive, emotive)

· *mover* entity that undergoes a change of location

These archetypes reflect our experience as mobile and sentient creatures and as manipulators of physical objects.

By combining certain of these models, we obtain the complex conceptualization which might be termed the *canonical event model*. The stage model contributes the notion of an event occurring within a setting and a viewer observing it from an external vantage point. In sum the canonical event model represents *the normal observation of a prototypical action*. Thus Langacker outlines the basic event schema with domains of instantiation and hence conceptualization: material substance, space, time and energy transfer. Within these domains conceptualization outlines a distinction between autonomous and dependent elements as an essential feature of language construal. An event is conceptually dependent relative to its participants. By contrast, a person or a physical object can be conceptualized independently of any event in which it might participate; although either of them can function as event participants. They are in short, conceptually autonomous.

Linguistically, a variety of grammatical devices are usually available as alternate means of coding a given conception. An event's objective properties are consequently insufficient to predict the grammatical structure of a clause describing it.

Several conclusions can be drawn:

· Physical entities are autonomous;

· Energy transfer is non-autonomous;

· Energy transfer should have at least one participant (the one initiating it);

· Energy transfer may have more than one participant along its path of consecutive events;

· The physical entities entering into interconnections during this transfer of energy can serve as points of measurement (what is being implicitly measured is time);

· The basic epistemological model of human cognition is the event.

Therefore, in my opinion, the first and foremost task of the cognitive linguist is to study how human beings symbolically express with language what they conceptualize as event, its participants and the energy transfer involved thereupon.

4. EVENT CONSTITUENTS. ALTERNATE WAYS OF THEIR CONSTRUAL

'Event-and-object cognition – the rightful name of 'image schemata' Lakoff (1987)

4.1. Nouns and Verbs

The four domains of instantiation of events as discussed are the basic domains of conceptualization of the two fundamental grammatical categories - those of nouns and verbs. These domains are space, physical matter, time and energy transfer. Cognitive linguistics, being a subjectivist theory unifying language and cognition, sets as fundamental our ability to construe a conceived situation in alternate ways. That should explain the fact that on the basis of this human capacity for alternate construal noun and verb classes can be differentiated as semantically opposite in construal since they are formed on different images schemas. Thus this schematic difference becomes in fact semantic.

Langacker (1997, 1991) defines the image schema of nouns and verbs stressing on their commonality of construal and outlines the importance of profiling in this imagistic symbolization. His proposed schematic definition states that a noun 'profiles a region in some domain as a set of interconnected entities'(Langacker : 1991 Vol. II, p.15), this schematic characterization corresponds to the billiard-ball model and the conception it represents of material substance instantiated and distributed continuously in the spatial domain. Thus for the noun class we can outline both a schema (*thing*) and a prototype (*physical object*) The verb, on the contrary, is said to 'profile interconnections between entities in some domain', with a schema (*process*) and a prototype (*physical interaction*).

The canonical event model is prototypically realized by nouns and verbs entering in a specific grammatical organization to encode the finite clause, and finite clause is considered a pivotal unit of grammatical organization. This grammatical organization is based on intrinsic relationships.

· First and foremost, processes and things are intrinsic to an event and their grammatical relationship is conceptually asymmetrical, its organization being a symbolic A/D alignment, where things are conceptually autonomous while processes are conceptually dependent.

· There is, however another intrinsic relationship within an event and that is between energy transfer and time, i.e. the way a process is profiled, as either denoting a change or lack of change through time. Thus verbs reveal internal temporal structure as well by designating perfective and imperfective processes. This internal temporal contour is an intrinsic part of the process and, for that reason, of the event.

· Besides these two intrinsic relationships within an event, the finite clause follows the way a process is lo-

cated and develops along the temporal continuum. Therefore a finite clause would invariably profile a process, roughly definable as a relationship followed through some span of its temporal evolution.

I will consider as schematic for an event only its two intrinsic relations. The third one pertains to and is characteristic for the finite clause.

Having outlined the event schema as a set of intrinsic relationships with the finite clause as its prototype, let's discuss other alternative event construals existing in language.

4.2. Nominalizations

'The natural mental tendency, to assume a thing behind every noun, is known as 'reification'. Lamb (1999: p. 43).

The schematic definition of nouns and verbs gives us grounds to view the nominalization processes taking place in languages as a shift in profile within the linguistic construal of symbolic units.

Nominalization is a linguistic way of construing a concept, the semantic content of which is a process (i.e. a temporal relation), as an abstract entity (i.e. a thing). A shift of the basic domain of conceptualization has taken place because a noun has as its basic domain of conceptualization space, whereas a verb is conceptualized as instantiated in the time domain. Accordingly, the grammar of nominalizations is a centrally important part of linguistic theory. It was first called upon by Vendler in his study of facts and events (1967) where he investigates various linguistic ways of referring to events. 'The reason: the device of nominalization transforms a sentence into a noun phrase, which can then be inserted.'

Several classifications in the generative tradition have appeared since Vendler each aiming to find commonalities and differences within English nominalizations. Chomsky (1967) distinguishes between gerundive and derived nominals and their interim group which exhibits properties of both groups. Abney (1983) pays special attention to Ving forms (termed gerunds) and distinguishes four types: *Acc-ing; PRO-ing; Poss-ing* and *Ing-of.*

The cognitive view of nominalization Langacker (1987, 1991, 2000) is that of merely changing profile of the same or similar semantic content for the purpose of the cognitivizer. Thus nominalization involves a conceptual reification of experience. Within the cognitive framework the difference between a nominalization and verbalization is a matter of construal by the observer. The notion of syntactic derivation is entirely foreign as there is no distinction between lexicon and syntax and where derivation arises cannot be an issue with the Cognitive approach. Thus, when an event is construed as nominal, it will have its intrinsic characteristics (internal temporal development and participants) preserved to various degrees.

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ИНТЕГРИРАНЕ НА ВЪЗМОЖНОСТИТЕ НА ИНТЕРНЕТ С ЕЗИКОВОТО ОБУЧЕНИЕ

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INTEGRATING THE POWER OF THE INTERNET WITH LANGUAGE LEARNING

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Abstract: *The paper suggests different means related to the use of Internet and web-based activities both in and out of the classroom for language learning. It considers the benefits of the Internet for both teachers and students placing a greater accent on those enhancing student learning. Reviewing a number of activities actually accomplished, it makes some pertinent conclusions about our learning environment and supports the integration of the Internet at any stage of the curriculum.*

Key words: *digital divide, web-based activities, e-learning content, open and distance learning, teacher's roles.*

1. INTRODUCTION

In an article published in the December issue of the Time magazine, the authors tell a joke about Rip Van Winkle awakening in the 21st century after a hundred-year snooze, and feeling utterly bewildered by what he sees. Men and women dash about, talking to small metal devices pinned to their ears. Young people sit at home on sofas, moving miniature athletes around on electronic screens. Wherever he goes, Rip is completely befuddled. But when he finally walks into a schoolroom, the old man knows exactly where he is. "This is a school," he declares. "We used to have these back in 1906. Only now the blackboards are green." [1]

The purpose of this paper is not to restate that any school system is frozen in time or that education generally tends to fall behind technology which might prove detrimental for students in the near future. Rather, it aims to explore different means of using Internet and web-based resources for educational purposes, both for classroom and SAC language learning, with limited resources.

2. THE DIGITAL DIVIDE

The time has come for us, as educators, to accept Prensky's judgment that "Schools are stuck in the 20-th century. Students have rushed into the 21-st". [2] It is true that, whether they are computer freaks or not, our students are better familiarized with new technological innovations. They feel at home adopting new systems for communicating (instant messaging or texting), exchanging music and movies (peer-to-peer technology), collecting (downloads), reporting (camera phones), socializing (chat rooms), playing computer games, and so on.

Living in a digital age we can't keep our eyes shut to the so-called digital divide, ie the opportunity to be able to benefit from digital technology or not. The digital divide is not about perceiving society as two clear-cut groups – computer-philes and computer-phobes. Never before has technology impacted people so emotionally that for example you refuse to use an ATM machine, or to view personal information on the net for fear of security breaches, and tremble when anyone mentions word processing.

The digital divide has other dimensions worth considering. On the one hand is the physical access to computers which inevitably raises questions such as:
- do people have access to computers and internet,
- where are the computers,
- how long can you actually use them,
- what exactly can you do on a computer.

On the other hand are the skills you need to work on a computer - computer literacy and English being some of the most essential ones. Obviously, apart from the technical factor, there are also cultural and socio-economic issues involved.

Whether we like it or not, we should always bear in mind two facts:

1. Our students are greatly affected by the digital technology and the processes it entails. Some of them are global citizens freely browsing the net, the so-called netizens, others are just gamers, yet, there is a third group who are unable to cope with computers and fall behind.

2. Computers are here to stay. Every day they are adding to or replacing some older method of doing a job, and every day they are becoming easier to use and faster at their jobs. And it's up to us to give computers a chance. Also, it's up to us to help our students catch up and not stay blissfully ignorant of what a computer world has to offer.

The Internet is a powerful tool to use at any stage of the learning process – before, during and after the lesson. And this for me, as a teacher, is realistic even if the computer language lab is too small to accommodate big classes, even if multimedia materials are few or costly, or other technical restrictions prevent me from teaching online. Students vary, classroom situations vary, needs vary. One thing is clear, though – computer technology can be viewed as a democratic resource, where the goal is for everybody to be able to and comfortable with using it, when it is appropriate to their needs and interests. In this respect the Internet can be regarded as an invaluable bank of new information to which students should be sensitized. They should be taught how to benefit from it by rapidly processing what's coming at them and

distinguishing between what's reliable and what isn't. And this is where a teacher should come in in an age of overflowing information and proliferating media.

3. THE USE OF INTERNET IN SUPPORT OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

1. Getting Started

The Internet 's World Wide Web (www) provides extensive and encyclopedic materials, but if they are to be of use, they need to be tailored for classroom use [3], either underlying a brand-new learning material, or facilitating existing training materials. There are a lot of teachers who have experienced the numerous benefits of using websites like

http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/,
http://www.learningenglish.com/,
http://www.britishcouncil.org/learning-elt-teach-english.htm
http://www.militaryenglish.com/,
http://www.learnenglish.org.uk/MilitaryEnglish/,
http://www.campaignmilitaryenglish.com/, etc. (to mention just a few in our sphere of specialization) or joining discussions groups centred around ELT and ESP, eg. http://groups.yahoo.com/group/hrewriters. Obviously, to facilitate students' learning, the materials should be selected carefully and prepared to suit their level.

However, the Internet can be a valuable mode of learning for students, too. This time a teacher will need to take into consideration other skills such as computer skills, for instance, an ability to browse, to key, to edit and view information, etc.; linguistic skills and subskills such as reading, particularly skimming, summarizing and writing. Furthermore, s/he will provide students with a different learning opportunity enabling them to gain experience in a realistic setting.

Still, if students for some reason have shied from computers and the Internet, they should be given some instruction on how to use their resources. A good start for any beginner can be http://netforbeginners.about.com/cs/internet101/a/inet_handbook.htm. It is a comprehensive site, designed for both the Internet beginner and the self-taught intermediate, which provides a collection of tutorials and articles on just about any topic you can think of. It contains a glossary of the so-called computer-speak terms, explains browsers, blogs, chats, emails, search engines, etc. In short, it is a good reference for any Internet user both as a means of introduction and update. A Bulgarian version of Internet for beginners is www-it.fmi.uni-sofia.bg/courses/pc3/beginner/ index.htm which can be offered to students with very low-level of English.

2. Steps Forward

Having agreed that a specific Internet training is a prerequisite to the task given to make it easier for students to retrieve the information necessary, I will now dwell on web-based activities. As far as methodology underlying them is concerned, opinions vary. Some specialists believe that the learning strategies can follow the pattern that the teacher went through. Other experts maintain that "teachers have to learn to communicate in the language and style of their students, which will mean going faster, less step-by step, more in parallel, with more random access …" [4] In his article "Theory and Practice on Integrating the Web for Learning" Tom March seems to integrate the two approaches by stating that teaching with the web is: "a lot like what you're already doing and unlike anything you've ever done before." [5]

The diagram below illustrates his strategy for approaching the Internet as a means of enhancing student learning, accommodating both newcomers to the Web, as well as more seasoned, tech-savvy teachers.
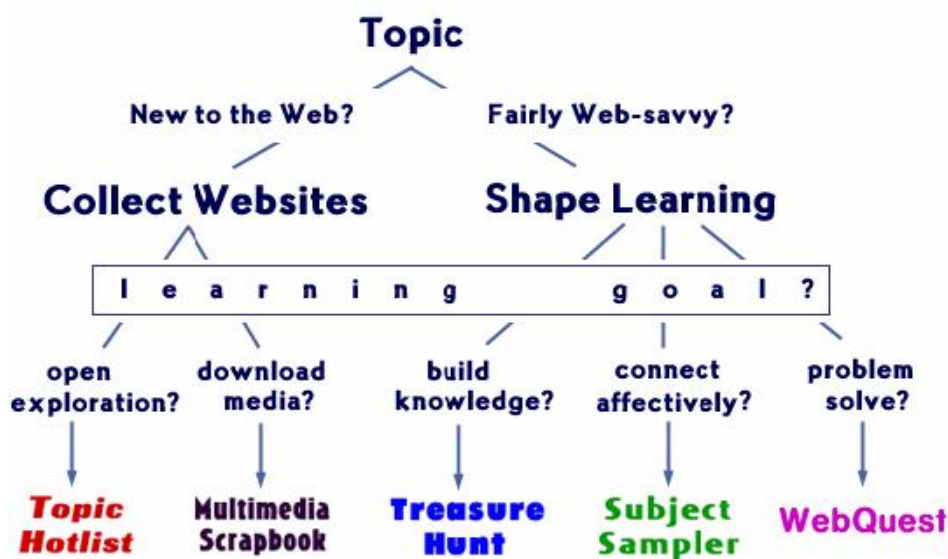
The two main phases in this strategy are:
• Harvesting the Web's abundance
• Shaping activities related to learning goals.

This strategy then leads the teacher through a number of decisions that guides him/her to one of five different kinds of Web-based activities: Topic Hotlist; Multimedia Scrapbook; Treasure Hunt; Subject Sampler; WebQuest.

The Topic Hotlist is a collection of sites of relevance/interest to the subject being taught that have been bookmarked for the students. This will save them hours of wasted time searching and offer precisely the materials suited to their level and needs.

The Multimedia Scrapbook, rather like the Hotlist, consists of links to a variety of media, such as photos, sound clips, videos and virtual tours that students can access according to the aspects of a topic they wish to explore. These resources can be downloaded and later used in presentations of their own.

The Treasure Hunt is suitable for more specific targeted learning. Given 10 to 15 web pages with a question for each page, students find gradually, absorb and synthesize information to get a deep overall understanding on a subject.

The purpose of the **Subject Sampler** is to give each learner a sampling of the subject. Each of the activities in this strategy should ask the students to think about what they like, believe, or feel about the topic. The outcome is to have fun and explore personal thoughts and feelings as well as develop autonomy over learning.

The WebQuest promotes higher-order thinking using the Internet for problem-solving tasks. Depending on their length the goal is language acquisition and integration or, if time allows, refining and extending knowledge from at least two possible viewpoints. Having analyzed a body of knowledge, students make it their own and demonstrate their understanding by presenting it in some way.

In 2001 Tom March added two new critical thinking formats: the Concept Builder and the Insight Reflector [6]. A **Concept Builder** can be used to guide students towards developing and refining new concepts in a topic area. An **Insight Reflector** builds on the same kinds of links used in a Subject Sampler, but it engages students in a series of introspective reflections. Through this format the subject matter benefits from being viewed through new perspectives

Presenting web-based activities, Annette Lamb considers a few more:
- **a pathfinder**, which is similar to a hotlist, but is more like a subject guide. It includes all types of thematic resources such as websites, books and videos as well as leading questions.
- **a web worksheet** which generally contains an assignment, resources, and evaluation. Students are asked to use a few websites to locate specific pieces of information which are then brought together in a culminating activity.

- **a web tutorial** or **web lesson** which provides new information, examples, and instruction along with practice and activities. In some cases, they can replace face-to-face classroom instruction. [7]

The list of activity types offered here may be incomplete but it delineates roughly two major kinds depending on the teacher's intentions – either to provide information resources for students or to engage them in research, understanding and assessment of content.

4. INTRODUCING THE INTERNET INTO THE CURRICULUM

When teachers determine to introduce the Internet into the language learning process, they need not fear that they will be made obsolete. Integrating technology simply means using computers within the existing curriculum like a tool - just like a pen or paper, or a chalkboard - that helps them teach and helps their students learn.

Before making the decisive step, however, they should assess where they are in terms of technology and consider the following four factors [8]:

· **Student skills and attitudes:** What can students already do with computers and what's their attitude toward technology? Do they have computers and Internet access at home and at school?

· **Teacher skills and attitudes:** What can s/he do on a computer and how does s/he feel about using computers in and out of the classroom?

· **Access:** Is it lab or SAC access? How much lab time is available? How many computers? How often?

· **Resources:** What kinds of hardware, software, and training are available? Are computers reliable? Is there a maintenance lab person designated?

And if they still feel enthusiastic, they should define their goals and how they can accomplish them. There are some axiomatic propositions worth reviewing that relate to both newcomers and more confident and technically unchallenged individuals –manage the technology you are using, start small, be flexible. So, if the teacher and students are new to the Web, or resources are limited, there is still a long list of activities to apply. Here are just a few:

1. Have students write a letter or an essay using a word processing program.

2. Prepare a hotlist of websites on a certain topic and ask students to make a presentation.

3. Have students do a Google search on a certain topic and report their findings in class.

4. Have students prepare a long-term assignment and email it to you for assessment.

5. Encourage them to use a computer for a presentation they have prepared, eg Powerpoint.

6. With a classroom computer and an overhead projector use the internet to show students photos, maps and other simplified background information to illustrate a topic. Or show them visuals such as video clips from YouTube or Vbox7, movie trailers, or advertisements to set an activity.

As can be seen, these are doable and create a rich learning environment without being very time-consuming. Here are some activities my third and fifth-year cadets were tasked to do at some point during their English language classes with my impressions:

- Using a hotlist of sites to prepare a five-minute presentation about a sight in Washington. However, some of them felt reluctant to do it either because they didn't have the skill how to surf the web and locate specific information or didn't have the time to do it. Fortunately, those who did it felt rewarded they had explored a topic and illustrated it with printed material.

- Searching on the Web they had to report about the participation of Bulgarian Armed Forces units in humanitarian missions from the beginning of the 20-th century. The same thing happened.

- Twice in the semester the cadets were asked to prepare a presentation. For the first one dedicated to new roles of navies they were provided with materials from the Internet. For their second attempt which was about the greatest naval battles in history they were encouraged to use any resources they could come across. Oddly enough, very few of them searched on the net, the rest simply relied on books and articles even though this required translating into English. Only one of them made a PowerPoint presentation admitting it helped him organize his thoughts.

When both teacher and students realize that the Internet is not merely an encyclopaedia of infinite knowledge where they can find additional resources, they are ready for the next stage of gaining and processing information and shaping it into a broader understanding of a topic. This is the point of engaging the students emotionally, getting them involved with generating questions, synthesizing ideas, and formulating plans. It's time to go beyond learning facts, connecting emotively, or developing concepts, and put all these together and engage in critical thinking. This is also a suitable time for incorporating new learning activities probably missing in the present curriculum. The types most commonly used are web worksheets, web lessons and web quests.

1. Web worksheets are a kind of treasure hunts centred around specific information. They are usually produced in Microsoft Word so that students can write in or print the activity. Rather than replacing classroom instruction, web worksheets are intended to provide students a chance to actively explore ideas presented in class.

2. Web Quests guide students through an engaging process of investigating and evaluating a challenging issue that will evoke a variety of interpretations. Students are provided with an introduction, background information, scenario, problem, and/or challenging task. Then, they are given a variety of websites and other resources to help them gain multiple perspectives, alternative approaches, and information needed to delve into the issue.

These types of activities are a great way to immerse students in real-world issues using primary source materials. However, they take time and creativity to plan.

From experience I found web worksheets appropriate for learning specialized vocabulary, therefore I prepared one based on types of peace operations. It contained brainstorming and gap-fill activities the answers to which were to be found following a few links. It was the first time cadets used the web for instructional purposes and even though they found it interesting and challenging, they realized they lacked some special skills to cope with such activities. It was also the first time I became aware that for my cadets a computer is meant to entertain rather than instruct or inform.

As for WebQuests, they are easy to find on the Internet. Besides the PEP project initiated the creation of a number of such activities about peacekeeping and military missions later posted on the site http://www.theconsultants-e.com/webquests/index.asp. So, it's up to the teacher to decide when his/her students could benefit from cooperative learning and a more real world learning experience.

5. CONCLUSIONS

It is high time educators and teachers made full use of and implemented technology for teaching and learning. It may not be a well-known fact but UNESCO has launched an online platform to share training and capacity-building resources. The resources, developed by a variety of stakeholders worldwide, include training materials for learning to use computers and software, learning literacy skills, environmental education, and much more. [9]

The benefits of the web are indisputable. The Internet is large enough to accommodate almost everyone's taste, bias, and natural inclination, to store references, resources, lessons and tools. Needless to say, it's funny, interactive, contemporary, relevant, authentic. While being real, it is also embarrassing and illogical, full of holes waiting to be filled.

The Internet offers free e-learning content and provides tools for open and distance learning. The question then is: if more information and expertise might be available to learners via the Internet (Web sites, E-mail correspondence, listservs, etc.), what value do teachers add to students' education? The learner-centered training that the Internet advocates allocates new roles for the teacher as well: facilitator, guide-on-the-side, mentor, coach, etc.

If you have decided to take the technology plunge, here is some good news for you:

1. You don't need to learn a special software tool to create your own web-based activities - Microsoft Word and Microsoft PowerPoint may be sufficient not only for beginners.

2. If you need more complex web development tools, there are many online services and educational projects providing them for free.

Motivation is a key concept not only for teachers but for learners as well. Even though 2006 was proclaimed

as the year of e-ducation in Bulgaria [10], it is true that many of our students still need further information and encouragement in order to make better use of the Internet and its resources. By making netizens out of our students we will instill a new netiquette in them which will make the world – both real and virtual – hopefully a better place.

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РОЛЯТА НА УЧЕБНИЦИТЕ В ЕЗИКОВАТА ПРОГРАМА

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THE ROLE OF TEXTBOOKS IN A LANGUAGE PROGRAM

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Abstract: *This paper dwells on commercial textbooks, their advantages and disadvantages and the ways they can be adapted and transformed so that they can be more widely-used. Some principles of textbook evaluation are presented as well.*

Key words: *syllabus, textbook evaluation, computer-based materials, teacher-prepared materials.*

Textbooks are a key component in most language programs. In some situations they serve as the basis for much of the language input learners receive and the language practice that occurs in the classroom. They may provide the basis for the content of the lessons, the balance of skills taught and the kinds of language practice the students take part in. In other situations, the textbook may serve to supplement the teacher's instruction. In the case of inexperienced teachers textbooks may also serve as a form of teacher training – they provide ideas on how to plan and teach lessons as well as formats that teachers can use. Much of the language teaching that occurs throughout the world today could not take place without the extensive use of commercial textbooks. Therefore learning how to use and adapt textbooks is an important part of a teacher's professional knowledge.

The use of commercial textbooks in teaching has both advantages and disadvantages, depending on how they are used and the contexts for their use. Among the principal advantages are:

1. They provide structure and a syllabus for a program

Without textbooks a program may have no central core and learners may not receive a syllabus that has been systematically planned and developed.

2. They help standardize instruction

The use of a textbook in a program can ensure that the students in different classes receive similar content and therefore can be tested in the same way.

3. They maintain quality

If a well-developed textbook is used students are exposed to materials that have been tried and tested, that are based on sound learning principles, and that are paced appropriately.

4. They provide a variety of learning resources

Textbooks are often accompanied by workbooks, CDs and cassettes, videos, and comprehensive teaching guides, providing a rich and varied resource for teachers and learners.

5. They are efficient

They save teachers' time, enabling teachers to devote time to teaching rather than material's production.

6. They can provide effective language models and input

Textbooks can provide support for teachers whose first language is not English and who may not be able to generate accurate language input on their own.

7. They can train teachers

If teachers have limited teaching experience, a textbook together with the teacher's manual can serve as a medium of initial teacher training.

8. They are visually appealing

Commercial textbooks usually have high standards of design and production and therefore are appealing to learners and teachers.

However, there are some disadvantages as well:

1. They may contain inauthentic language

Textbooks sometimes present inauthentic language since texts, dialogues and other aspects of content tend to be specially written to incorporate teaching points and are often not representative of real language use.

2. They may distort content

Textbooks often present an idealized view of the world or fail to represent real issues. In order to make textbooks acceptable in many different contexts controversial topics are avoided and instead an idealized view of the world is portrayed as the norm.

3. They may not reflect students' needs

Since textbooks are often written for global markets they often do not reflect the interests and needs of students and may require adaptation.

4. They can deskill teachers

If teachers use textbooks as the primary source of their teaching leaving the textbook and teacher's manual to make the major instructional decisions for them the teacher's role can become reduced to that of a technician whose function is to present materials prepared by others.

5. They are expensive

Commercial textbooks may represent a financial burden for students in many parts of the world.

Both the advantages and the disadvantages of textbooks have to be considered and if the textbooks that are being used in a program are judged to have

some negative consequences, remedial action should be taken by adapting or supplementing books or by providing appropriate guidance and support for teachers in how to use them properly.

With so many commercial textbooks and other kind of instructional materials to choose from teachers need to be able to make judgements about textbooks and teaching materials. Evaluation, however, can only be done by considering something in relation to its purpose. A book may be ideal in one situation because it matches the needs of that situation perfectly. It has just the right amount of material for the program, it is easy to teach, it can be used with little preparation by inexperienced teachers, and it has an equal coverage of grammar and the four skills. However, the same book in a different situation may turn out to be quite unsuitable. It contains too little material; it is not sufficiently challenging for teacher and students and has elements in itr that are not needed in the program. Before one can evaluate a textbook, therefore, information is needed on the following issues.

1. The role of the textbook in the program
· Is there a well developed curriculum which describes the objectives, syllabus and content of the program or will this be determined by the textbook?
· Will the textbook provide the core of the program, or is it one of several different books that will be used?
· Will it be used with small classes or large ones?
· Will the learners be expected to buy a workbook as well or should the textbook provide all the practice the students need?

2. The teachers in the program
· How experienced are the teachers in the program and what is their level of training?
· Do teachers tend to follow the textbook closely or do they use the book simply as a resource?
· Do teachers play a part in selecting the books they teach from?
· Are teachers free to adapt and supplement the book?

3. The learners in the program
· Is each student required to buy a book?
· What do learners typically expect in a textbook?
· Will they use the book in class and at home?
· How will they use the book in class? Is it the primary source of classroom activities?
· How much are they prepared to pay for a book?

It is also necessary to realize that no commercial textbook will ever be perfectly suitable for a language program. Two factors are involved in the development of commercial textbooks: those representing the interests of the author, and those representing the interests of the publisher. The author is generally concerned to produce a text that teachers will find innovative, creative, relevant to their learners' needs and that they will enjoy teaching from. The author is generally hopeful that the book will be successful and make a financial profit since a large investment of the author's personal time and effort is involved. The publisher is primarily motivated by financial success. However, in order to achieve a profit, publishers generally recognize that a book must have qualities of excellence that will distinguish it from its competitors.

At the same time, the publisher will try to satisfy teachers' expectations as to what a textbook at a certain level should contain. For example if an introductory ESL textbook does not include the present continuous tense in the first level of the book, teachers may feel that it is defective and not wish to use it. In an attempt to make a textbook usable in as large a market as possible, the publisher often has to change it substantially. Some of these changes are necessitated by the fact that teachers with very different levels of experience, training, and teaching skill might be using the book. Exercises should have explicit goals, procedures for using activities should be obvious and uncomplicated, and teachers should not have to spend much time working out how to use the material. In addition, content that would not be welcome in particular markets may have to be removed. As a consequence, much of the "flavour" and creativity of the author's original textbook may disappear.

Criteria for textbook evaluation
There are few specific books in the field of English language teaching which focus on materials selection and evaluation in detail, which makes it difficult for teachers to deal with such an important aspect. Even though there are some principles to guide teachers in the selection and evaluation of materials, it is important to highlight that there is not any ideal textbook to teach English, therefore the teacher should adapt the material to suit the particular learning situations. I think that we should choose our own principles in evaluating and selecting EFL teaching materials which will best meet our students needs.

We should not be looking for the perfect coursebook which meets all our requirements, but rather for the best possible fit between what the coursebook offers and what we as teachers and students need. (Cunningsworth 1984:8)

Cunningsworth claims that the learning/teaching situations are quite different from one another, since they are affected by social, cultural and psychological aspects such as age range, social status, cultural values, nationality, native language, geographical setting, learning styles, interests and objectives of the possible users. That is why no book can be designed to satisfy the needs of specific groups. Therefore, it is up to the teacher to select the coursebook that better fits the target population, and adapt the material in order to make it serve the purposes of the class.

Cunningworth (1995) proposes four criteria for evaluating textbooks, particularly coursebooks:

1. They should correspond to learner's needs. They should match the aims and objectives of the language-learning program.

2. They should reflect the uses (present or future) which learners will make of the language. Textbooks should be chosen that will help equip the students to use language effectively for their own purposes.

3. They should take account of students' needs as learners and should facilitate their learning processes, without imposing a rigid "method".

4. They should have a clear role as a support for learning. Like teachers they mediate between the target language and the learner.

The type of evaluation a textbook receives, however, will also reflect the concerns of the evaluator. One teacher may look at a book in terms of its usability. The teacher is primarily interested in whether the book works easily in her class, can be used flexibly, and could easily be adapted. Another teacher may look at a book more critically in terms of its theoretical orientation and approach. If it is a book that teaches conversation skills what theory of conversation is it based on? What kind of syllabus is it based on and what is the validity of the activities it makes use of? Two teachers evaluating a writing text may look at it from very different perspectives. One may subscribe to a process-oriented view of writing and look for activities that practice such processes as generating ideas, drafting, reviewing, revising, and editing. Another may be more concerned to see that adequate treatment is given to different conventions for organizing different kinds of texts, such as narrative writing, expository writing, and descriptive writing. In any language program therefore it is unlikely that a published checklist can be used without adaptation as a basis for evaluating and choosing textbooks. Based on the factors in each situation questions specific to that situation need to be generated around the main issues involved in textbook evaluation and selection:

Program factors – questions relating to *concerns* of the program

· Teacher factors - questions relating to teacher concerns

· Learner factors - questions relating to learner concerns

· Content factors – questions relating to the content and organization of the material in the book

· Pedagogical factors – questions relating to the principles underlying the materials and the pedagogical design of the materials, including choice of activities and exercise types

Commercial textbooks can seldom be used without some form of adaptation to make them more suitable for the particular context in which they will be used. This adaptation may take a variety of forms.

1. Modifying content

Content may need to be changed because it does not suit the target learners, perhaps because of factors related to the learners' age, gender, social class, occupation, religion, or cultural background.

2. Adding or deleting content

The book may contain too much or too little for the program. Whole units may have to be dropped, or perhaps sections of units throughout the book omitted. For example a course may focus primarily on listening and speaking skills and hence writing activities in the book will be omitted.

3. Reorganizing content

A teacher may decide to reorganize the syllabus of the book, and arrange the units in what she considers a more suitable order. Or within a unit the teacher may decide not to follow the sequence of activities in the unit but to reorder them for a particular reason.

4. Addressing omissions

The text may omit items that the teacher feels are important. For example a teacher may add vocabulary activities or grammar activities to a unit.

5. Modifying tasks

Exercises and activities may need to be changed to give them an additional focus. For example a listening activity that focuses only on listening for information is adapted so that students listen a second or third time for a different purpose. Or an activity may be extended to provide opportunities for more personalized practice.

6. Extending tasks

Exercises may contain insufficient practice and additional practice tasks may need to be added.

The ability to be able to adapt commercial textbooks in these ways is an essential skill for teachers to develop. Through the process of adaptation the teacher personalizes the text making it a better teacher resource as well as individualizes it for a particular group of learners. Normally the process takes place gradually as the teacher becomes more familiar with the book since the dimensions of the text which need adaptation may not be apparent until the book is tried out in the classroom. When a number of teachers in a program are teaching from the same textbook it is useful to build in opportunities for teachers to share information about the forms of adaptation they are making.

Despite the impact of new technologies, textbooks will doubtless continue to play an important role in language teaching and provide a useful resource for both teachers and learners. Good textbooks serve to turn the guidelines in the official syllabus into a rich source of content, texts, and activities that would be beyond the capacities of most teachers to develop on their own. The use of textbooks should not be seen as reflecting a deficiency on the part of the teacher, any more than the use of computer-based materials would be so regarded. Textbooks should be regarded as one of the many resources teachers can draw upon in creating effective lessons, but teachers need training and experience in adapting and modifying textbooks as well as in using authentic materials and in creating their own teaching materials.

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ПРОБЛЕМИ НА РАБОТАТА СЪС СМЕСЕНИ ГРУПИ

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COPING WITH THE PROBLEMS OF MIXED ABILITY CLASSES

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Abstract: *This paper dwells on the problems of working with mixed ability classes and suggests how we should cope with these problems. There is some practical advice on adapting materials so that they will serve better their purpose.*

Key words: *mixed ability classes, groupwork, pairwork, in-class activity, error correction.*

1. INTRODUCTION

Mixed ability classes are a fact of not only language classes but of all courses. Since no two students can be the same in terms of language background, learning speed, learning ability and motivation, it is a utopian view to think that our classes could be homogeneous in terms of these aspects; no matter where we live in the world or at which school we teach. Therefore, the language teachers should be aware of the problems of mixed ability classes and their solutions to identify the source of troubles in their classes and to cure them.

I have been teaching English at the Naval Academy for 18 years and I have always had mixed ability groups. Even now, that we have entrance exams in English, the situation is not much different. I have students who are fluent and students who can hardly read in one group. At the end of the first semester, in December 2006, the cadets I was teaching then, sat for an ALCPT test. The results were more than eloquent – five of them had over 70 points, three had between 50 and 60 points, and two had a little more than 30. So, mixed ability classes are and will long be a reality whatever we may think about it. Of course, the simplest solution to this painful problem would be to divide large classes into smaller groups according to the students' level of English. As we cannot do this we have to share experience and try to find ways which would make teaching mixed classes easier.

It is important that we "think positive" that we don't complain or say we can't see any sensible solutions. There are teachers who worked out their own techniques and procedures to work with mixed ability classes. When I think of my own teaching experience, the following ideas and views come to my mind and I would like to share them with you.

2. SOME PROBLEMS IN THE MIXED ABILITY CLASSES

Effective Learning

As teachers, our aim is to reach all of our students. However, it is well known that every student has a different way of learning, and learns and progresses at different speeds. Thus, while some students may find the learning task very easy to deal with, others may find it difficult to understand. Besides, learning also depends on what students have brought with them into class. Although it is quite difficult for the teacher to know about each student and to follow what each one does during the lessons even in small classes, it is important for teachers to monitor each and every student and to reach their needs in a variety of ways to achieve effective teaching.

Materials

Since most language textbooks are designed for an ideal homogeneous classroom environment, teachers always have to deal with the problem that students react to the textbook differently due their individual differences. First of all, some students may find the textbook boring and very hard, whereas some find it interesting or very easy. In addition, as language teaching course materials are currently based on content-based or theme-based syllabi, some students may find the topics dull, strange, or meaningless; whereas others find it enjoyable, familiar or interesting. Therefore, it is usually necessary for the teacher to evaluate and adapt the materials according to his/her class.

Participation

Since the classroom is the first and only environment for many foreign language learners, they should use this chance as much as possible. However, some of the students find it difficult to speak in the target language for many reasons ranging from interest to confidence, from age to knowledge. Other students, however, would like to express everything they think or feel by using the new language. As a result, some students may take many turns, while others do not speak for the entire lesson.

Interests

Interest problems may arise due to the differences among students in terms of their attitude towards the subject matter and/or the teacher; their knowledge of language; and their personality. For instance, some students may find lessons boring, as the topic has no familiarity with their own life or their interests. Furthermore, some of the students may not be interested in the lesson, unless they do get the chance to express their own ideas since the teacher talks too much during the lesson or the other students take many turns. Hence, teachers should be aware of the different interests of the stu-

dents to organize and to arrange activities accordingly.

Discipline

Often the quicker students finish the tasks given before the other students. As a result, they may misbehave while waiting for the others to finish. The weaker students, on the other hand, cannot finish the tasks as quickly as the strong ones and may loose their confidence and/or show ill-disciplined behaviour for a variety of reasons related to that. Consequently, mixed abilities may result in classroom management problems.

3. HOW TO COPE WITH THE PROBLEMS

1. In order to solve the problems of mixed ability, teaching should ***appeal to all senses***, all learning styles and all intelligences. Moreover, it should be based on a meaningful context for all learners. For example, visuals are always useful for all age and proficiency levels, so even using coloured chalk or board markers attracts learners' attention to the teaching point. Hence, teachers can make use of visuals to grab students' attention and to motivate them because even the most passive learners are often interested in realia and/or colourful and interesting posters.

2. It is advisable to have ***contingency plans*** for the early finishers in case they finish the tasks earlier. This contingency plan might be an extra exercise, a handout or a reading passage. Recently, some of the textbooks have been prepared considering the mixed ability classes and include contingency activities in teacher's books. Nevertheless, teachers are the ones who should/could know which contingency plan works better after which activity in their class.

3. Not all students need to carry out an entire ***in-class activity***. While every student should do certain parts, only some of the students (weak ones or early finishers) do all of it (Ur 1996, 306). In relation to that, the tests could include optional questions: While every student completes some parts of the test, some other parts may have options from which the students choose. Furthermore, different tasks can be given to different learners according to their language progress or interest, or optional tasks can be prepared from which students choose.

4. Open-ended tasks or questions (such as writing a letter, an ending of a story/book/film, or a response to a picture) have a variety of possible correct answers instead of a single answer. These tasks allow each learner to perform at his/her own level. Some of the students may be good at understanding but might be weak in expressing themselves orally or in written work; thus, open-ended tasks give them the chance to express themselves without trying to find the one and the only correct answer.

5. It is important for teachers to give students the opportunity to express their ideas, feelings and experiences, though they may lack confidence or enough language knowledge. By ***personalising the tasks***, all stu-

dents can participate voluntarily. Knowing students' personalities helps the teacher to prepare and adapt materials easily in order to make them interesting or relevant to students, which adds variety to the classroom environment and establishes a positive atmosphere.

6. Students love ***games and competitions*** so these are ways of ensuring their interest in the lesson. Regardless of the differences among the students in terms of language level and learning styles, they are motivated to use the target language while they are playing a game.

7. Group/pairwork activities are useful not only for the teacher to observe students but also for the students to cooperate and to learn from each other. When a strong student works with weaker students, the student can be a source of language/knowledge in the group. The teacher, on the other hand, may form groups of weaker and stronger students separated from each other, and she can give different tasks to these groups. So the stronger and quicker students work with more complicated tasks, whereas the weaker students deal with a simpler task or work with the teacher as a group member.

8. Extra homework always helps teachers of mixed ability classes. However, considering the level and the interests of the students, extra work should be of something that the students would enjoy doing. Therefore, a good way of dealing with mixed ability may be individual and team projects.

9. It is also useful for students to study in ***self-access centres***, which they can visit in their free times to study alone, with a peer or a tutor. The main aim of self-access centres is that students decide on what they want to study. While the students can find appropriate materials such as extra exercises, they can also make use of cassettes, videos and/or books to improve their language.

Adapting materials for mixed ability classes can take different forms.

· One way to adapt materials is to rewrite reading texts and grade the language accordingly for different levels. In an ideal world where a teacher has all the time in the world to prepare their classes this may be the perfect solution. However, the reality is that this sort of adaptation is extremely time consuming and not many teachers can actually go to this length to adapt materials for mixed level groups. Another problem that can arise with this sort of adaptation is that it can be awkward to give out different texts to different students. There's a danger that they will instantly realise that they have been labelled as a weak or strong student and, in the case of the weaker students, this will no doubt effect their motivation.

I would like to offer some ideas of how you can support your weaker students and offer extension activities for your stronger students whilst using the same materials as the starting point for the class. This way the preparation time involved for the teacher isn't drastically higher, and the group can still work together for most of the class.

	EXTENSION ACTIVITIES FOR STRONGER STUDENTS	SUPPORT FOR WEAKER STUDENTS
READING	Rewrite a part of the text in a different tense / person. Write their personal opinion / a short summary of the text. Write questions about the text.	Pre-teach difficult vocabulary and leave it written on the board for students to refer to. Use visuals if possible. If there are gaps, give students the answers in a jumbled order, with a few extras. Break the text into paragraphs and give the option of only reading some of the text.
LISTENING	If it's a true/false activity, follow on by asking 'why/why not?	Pre-teach vocabulary, use visual prompts when appropriate. Give students time to discuss answers before feeding back to the class. Give students the tape script on second listening. If it's a gap fill, supply the words with a few extras.
WRITING	Give creative tasks that students can do at their own level. Indicate mistakes using correction code to give students a chance to self-correct. Increase the word limit. Indicate where they could use more interesting ways of saying something.	Reduce the word limit Encourage use of dictionaries students. Give and example piece of writing as a model before they begin writing. Pair or group weaker students with stronger students.
SPEAKING	Ask students to justify / defend their opinions Get students to record themselves and self-correct. Pair students of higher level together so they really go for it.	Give students time to rehearse and gather their ideas before a discussion. Let students make notes before the speaking activity begins. Allow for 'thinking time'. Praise students on the effort they make rather than their ability.

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