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Effectiveness of Collaborative Strategic Reading and Whole Language Approach on Reading Comprehension Performance of Children with Learning Disabilities in Oyo State Nigeria Adetoun

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Abstract

This study was carried out to determine the effectiveness of collaborative strategic reading and whole language approach on reading comprehension performance of primary school children with learning disabilities in Oyo state Nigeria. Seventy eight pupils participated in the study; they were between ages nine and eleven. Five hypotheses were generated and tested at 0.05 level of significance, convenience sampling technique was used to sample participants. The study was carried out in ten weeks. A pre test post test control group quasi experimental design with a 3 x 2 factorial matrix was adopted for the study. Analysis of covariance and t-test statistics were used to analyse the data collected. The five null hypotheses were rejected because there was significant difference in treatment effect across treatment groups and gender. It is hereby recommended that collaborative strategic reading should be employed to teach reading comprehension in Nigerian primary schools.

Introduction

A high population of children with learning disabilities experience difficulty in comprehending what they have read because of their inability to integrate process and retain information. Kavale and Reece (1992) reported that up to eighty percent (80%) of students with learning disabilities have serious difficulties with learning to read and reading for comprehension. Seacrist (2012) also affirmed that comprehending what is read continues to be difficult for students with learning disabilities.

Sounding out words (phonics) and reading fluently without comprehending what is read do not indicate that reading has taken place. To support this assertion, Klingner, Vaughan and Boardman (2015) maintained that the ability to read words become valueless once a student is not able to construct meaning from written materials. Beck and Mckeown (1998) also averred that phonics and fluent reading are fundamental to the art of reading they however explained that comprehension is the backbone of reading.

Students who have mastered the art of comprehension will be able to retrieve or recall major facts in text books. Such students will also be able to summarise what they have read and also answer questions that are related to what has been read. Reading comprehension as assumed by some teachers and parents is not a natural process that is going to be mastered as a child progresses from one class to another.

For learners to become fluent in reading print Seacrist (2012) explained that reading must be taught just like all other subjects in the classroom. Reading comprehension can be likened to a foundation on which all other subjects taught in the classroom rest. Once individuals are not able to read and comprehend it is obvious that such individuals are going to have problems with comprehending other subjects in the classroom. Reading and reading comprehension according to Milagros (2012), Crowe (2007), Vaughan, Levy, Colman and Bos (2002) assist students to achieve success in other academic areas.

Studies as reported by Swanson (2008), Durkin (1978-1979), Gelzheiser and Myers (1991), Klingner, Urbach, Golos, Brownell and Menon (2010), Swanson and Vaughan (2010) and Dewitz, Leahy, Jones and Sullivan (2010) indicate that reading comprehension is not well taught to students with learning disabilities, in general education classrooms and in special education settings.

Swanson (2008) discovered that studies on the teaching of reading comprehension to students with learning disabilities are not common. The researcher in addition observed that where comprehension instruction was delivered by teachers, the instruction was not of good quality.

All the researchers just cited except Swanson (2008) maintained that infrequent and poor teaching of reading comprehension have been on for more than a period of 30 years. Different methods or approaches of course have their merits and demerits. In this study, the whole language approach and collaborative strategic reading were used to assess reading comprehension in children with learning disabilities; students were exposed to narrative and expository texts. On the issue of gender Prado and Plourde (2011) reported that females perform better in reading than males. Siegel and Smythe (2005) did not find significant gender difference in the reading comprehension of some students with learning disabilities. With the advent of information technologies, a lot of people believe that the world will gradually have no cause to have anything to do with written or printed materials. Modern information technologies will of course assist

humans in the process of reading and reading comprehension, but the assistance cannot be total. Humans will still need to interact with printed and written materials. Children with learning disabilities therefore need to be made literate through the teaching of reading and reading comprehension.

Statement of the Problem

A high population of children with learning disabilities in Nigerian public primary schools can hardly comprehend what they have read because of the difficulty that they experience in processing information. Regular education teachers who teach children with learning disabilities are most of the time not aware that these children exist in their classrooms and as such there are no appropriate intervention strategies to teach reading comprehension to these children.

English teachers in most public primary schools visited by these researchers to observe how reading comprehension is taught are not aware of the method or approach that they are using to teach reading comprehension to the whole class. The researchers however observed that the method used by a high population of these teachers is the whole language approach; the pupils were observed to be passive learners. Teachers during these reading periods moved to the next lesson on the syllabus even when majority of the class did not understand what was taught. Interactions with the teachers by the researchers also revealed that workshops, conferences and seminars are not organised for primary school teachers on specific subject topics (for example how to teach reading comprehension) A review of studies investigating efficacy of teaching strategies for improving reading comprehension of children with learning disabilities by the researchers showed that most studies had an experimental group and a control. The researchers are of the view that more than one instructional strategy should be employed to measure reading comprehension achievement in children with learning disabilities. This study therefore used two intervention strategies; collaborative strategic reading and the whole language approach to measure reading comprehension achievement in children with learning disabilities.

Purpose of the Study

To determine the efficacy of collaborative strategic reading and whole language approach on reading comprehension performance of primary five pupils with learning disabilities in Oyo State Nigeria.

Scope of the Study

The study was limited to investigation of efficacy of collaborative strategic reading and whole language approach on reading comprehension of children with learning disabilities. The study was carried out in three public primary schools in Ibadan South

West Local Government Area, Oyo State Nigeria. Seventy eight (78) primary five pupils were participants for the research.

Research Hypotheses
1. There will be no significant difference in the pre and post test reading comprehension scores of participants exposed to collaborative strategic reading and whole language approach.
2. There will be no significant difference in the pre and post test reading comprehension scores of participants exposed to collaborative strategic reading and the control group.
3. There will be no significant difference in the pre and post test reading comprehension scores of participants exposed to whole language approach and the whole group.
4. There will be no significant difference in the pre and post test reading comprehension scores of male and female participants in the two treatment groups and the control.
5. There will be no significant difference in the pre and post test scores of participants in the narrative and expository text passages.

Literature Review
Reading Comprehension
Reading comprehension is the process of simultaneously extracting and constructing meaning through interaction and involvement with written language according to (Snow 2002 P.11). Grabe (1991 P.377) sees reading as an active process of comprehending what has been read. The author asserted that it is important for students to be exposed to skills that would make them efficient readers. Examples of skills that can be taught during comprehension from the assertion of Grabe (1991) are guessing from context, definition of expectations, the skill of making inferences from text and the ability to skim ahead to fill in the context. For comprehension to take place in the reading process Chi-Fan (2009) reiterated that there should be interaction that involves the reader, the text and the content being read. The ability to comprehend reading from the perspective of Willis (2008) should be natural in individuals. Willis (2008) averred that meaning should be derived from what is read.

Some students with learning disabilities, because of their inability or difficulty with retaining and processing information find comprehension of texts difficult; Hunt and Marshall (2012), Berkeley (2007), Denton and Vaughn (2008), Newman (2006), Graham and Bellert (2005).

Yitzchak (2014) as a matter of fact explained that reading disability found among some children is synonymous with reading and comprehension problem, Some children

with reading disability Yitzchak (2014) asserted, are fluent and accurate readers; the author however explained that comprehending what they have read is difficult.

Factor that impedes reading comprehension in many students with learning disabilities according to Bostas and Padeliadu (2003) is inability to employ necessary skills to get meaning from texts. Inability to use effective strategies during comprehension as asserted by Bostas and Padeliadu (2003) arises from difficulties in remembering recall strategies and failure to use and monitor strategies to be used.

Children with learning disabilities struggle with comprehending texts because of poor memory according to Mastropieri and Scruggs (2002). These authors further added that children with learning disabilities easily forget what they have read because they grapple with fluent reading and how words they come across can be decoded. The analogy here and attention they pay is that the struggle to become fluent readers and good decoders is so enormous that they easily forget what they have read. This analogy is supported by Jozwik (2015) who averred that students with learning disabilities exert a lot of mental energy in decoding and fluent reading and that this debars them from comprehending what has been read.

Gajira and Saliva (1992) observed that students with learning disabilities hardly show any sensitivity to structures in written texts. Sideridis (2005) also pointed out that students with learning disabilities exhibit little motivation towards reading. Schiefele (1990) reported that the low self efficacy experienced by many students with learning disabilities compound their reading comprehension problems.Lack of sensitivity to texts, little motivation to read texts and low self efficacy that compounds reading comprehension may be results of frustrations that students with learning disabilities encounter in the reading comprehension process.

Poor vocabulary and the background knowledge of individuals as observed by Allington and McGrill Franzen (1989) compound reading comprehension problems of poor readers. Individuals with weak vocabulary and poor background knowledge of print as noticed by Allington and McGrill Franzen (1989) spend little amount of time on reading and also lack rich exposure to language in their homes.

Collaborative Strategic Reading

Collaborative strategic reading is created to enhance students' comprehension of text. Specifically it is designed to teach and activate reading comprehension strategies. In this regard students work in collaborative groups with defined roles to engage in reading. (Ziyaeemehr 2012 P.39).

Collaborative strategic reading according to Baberio (2005) and Alqarni (2015) involves four main phases which are preview, click and clunk, get the gist and wrap up. Collaborative strategic reading as asserted by Klingner, Vaughn and Schumm (1998) was specifically designed for students with learning disabilities and those who have problems with learning to read and comprehend.

At the preview phase of collaborative strategic reading Stone (2004) explained that students are to come up with the information or facts that they already possess about the topic of the passage to be read and what the passage is most likely to be about.

At the click and clunk stage students have already started reading the passage. The phrase click suggests that the student understands the passage being read. The term clunk indicates that the student has difficulty in understanding words or phrases within the text and is expected to use fix up strategies such as rereading, rephrasing and searching for context clues that will aid the readers understanding of the passage Kingbrg (2007).

The click and clunk strategy ensures that students monitor and comprehend what is been read. The get the gist portion of collaborative strategic reading emphasis that students provide the most important pieces of information in the book read in as few words as possible.

Kingberg (2007), stated that students at the get the gist stage are to identify relevant or germane items. Persons, place or idea been discussed in the read passage. The essences of the wrap up stage from the explanation Rathvon (2008) is for students to generate questions and also answer such questions. Students according to Rathvon (2008), review and summarise the passage read to ensure that comprehension has taken place.

During collaborative strategic reading exercises, roles are assigned to students. Such roles as exposed by Rathvon (2008), are (a) the leader who is to ensure that the group does not lose focus of the four strategies that collaborative strategic reading entail. (b) The clunk expert: who according to Rathvon (2008) remind the team of fix up strategies that can be used to attack difficult words and concepts. (c.) Gist expert: Ensures that the group bring out the main gist of the passage and leave out unnecessary details (d.) The announcer: This individual from the perspective of Rathvon (2008) calls on students in the team to read or share ideas. The announcer represents the team when the whole class come together to review passages. (e.) Encourager: A team as stated by Rathvon (2008), has an encourager if there are five members in a group. The role of the encourager is to encourage individuals in a group to take part in the lesson.

McCowans (2013), Bremer, Vaughn, Clapper and Hwa Kim (2000) reported that collaborative strategic reading has been affirmed by researchers as effective for remediating reading comprehension problems in students with learning disabilities. Students with learning disabilities as well as students, whose second language is English as submitted by Macceca (2007), have recorded improvement in their reading comprehension as a result of collaborative strategic lessons.

Jetton and Dole (2004), asserted that students with learning disabilities, average and low achieving students recorded success when collaborative strategic method of reading was used in teaching.

The work of Seacrist (2012) also supported the use of collaborative strategic reading to improve the comprehensive skills of students with learning disabilities.

The merits of collaborative strategic reading include; positive interdependence, positive interaction, individual accountability and facilitation of positive social behaviour, Johnson and Johnson (1999). Collaborative strategic reading is also advantageous because members of the team appreciate one another; the valuing of each member of the team makes the group to perform to the best of their ability Klingner. Vaughn. Boardman and Swanson (2012b).

Collaborative strategic reading in addition takes care of content learning due to interactions between students and teachers. This teaching approach also boosts strategies that students can employ to tackle and comprehend information texts. Vaughn. Roberts, Klingner, Swanson, Boardman, Stillman-Spisak, Mohammed and Lerous (2013), A demerit of collaborative strategic reading is that 'the teacher has to establish and consistently reinforce rules for students to work as a team' Browder, Spencer and Meyer (2011 P 162)

Evidences as observed by Njenga (2010), are abound in studies that collaborative strategic reading is successful in the classroom. The scholar however asserted that collaborative strategic reading is hardly used in teaching in our classrooms because teachers and students seem to resist this instructional approach. Njenga (2010), further reported that teachers explained that pupils especially boys will misbehave during group work and that group work discussion may lead to conflict among pupils.

Whole Language Approach

The philosophy behind the whole language approach is that children will learn the art of reading the way they walk and talk naturally. Proponents of whole language instruction believe that as long as children are exposed to good books, they will become good and fluent readers. Whole language instructors as explained by Acosta (2012) teach children to learn to recognise whole words or sentences instead of individual sounds. The background knowledge of a student during the reading process in whole language Reyner (2008) asserted assists students to get a personal meaning of texts read. There are many definitions of whole language approach, these definitions as observed by these researchers are based on the perspective from which individuals view whole language.

Bergeron (1990) came up with a definition of whole language based on sixty four articles that discussed the whole language approach. According to (Bergeron 1990 p 319) whole language is a concept that embodies both a philosophy of language development as well as the instructional approaches embedded within, and supportive of the philosophy. This concept includes the use of real literature and writing in the context of meaningful functional and cooperative experiences in order to develop in students' motivation and interest in the process of learning. Liv (2013) asserted that

scholars usually analyse the characteristics of whole language instructions from different perspectives.

Activities that take place in the whole language classroom from the perspective of Richards and Rodgers (2001) include students' use of 'specially developed materials to support instruction' p 112. Richards and Rodgers (2001) also stated that children's' reading and writing activities during whole language lessons are sometimes done individually or in small groups and that a lot of attention is paid to fictional and non fictional literature. The whole language classroom as seen by Yeo (1996) places more emphasis on the student, the teacher facilitates activities to be performed by the students. The curriculum used for whole language lessons as exposed by Liv (2013) should make sense and communicate information that can be put into practice by students.

Acosta (2012) reported that constant interaction with text by students would make them good readers. The author further posited that information in the whole language class is presented as a whole and not fragmented into smaller units. In the whole language class, retelling of stories and errors committed by students are part of the yardstick used to measure the reading comprehension of students according to Acosta (2012).

Milagros (2012) stated that advocates of whole language approach believe it can be used to teach all aspects of reading in the curriculum. Whole language is also advantageous according to LeDoux (2007) because students have access to different texts that are read aloud to them by their teachers. Advocates of whole language approach as noted by Richards and Rodgers (2001) argued that this teaching approach dwells on experiences and activities that relate to the lives of learners and their needs. Another advantage claimed by supporters of whole language approach according to Richards and Rodgers (2001) is that it makes learning English as a second language easier.

In the whole language classroom students can predict what is going to happen, they can read the pictures, browse books, brainstorm, cluster, ask questions, skim, give a concept question and collaborate (Robb 1994 p 54). Stahl and Miller (1989) and Shaw (1991) contend that whole language instruction is only effective at the pre primary school stages. The use of whole language teaching for learners from the perspective of Weir (1990) has increased illiteracy. Ling (2012) claimed that the whole language philosophy does not take care of spelling and pronunciation rules which are relevant to the reading ability of students Fromkin, Rodman and Hyams (2010) asserted that the philosophy that drives the a whole language approach is based on the fact that the reading process is a natural phenomenon just as humans learn to naturally speak.

In using the whole language approach Jeynes and Littel (2000) observed that there is no uniformity when teachers teach. According to these authors teachers use the whole language approach in schools based on what they perceive it to be.

Heilman (1998) raised an important issue concerning whole language approach. The scholar affirmed that 'there is no concise definition of what it is and thus no blue print for how to do it'' p 20. The effectiveness of whole language approach in the reading comprehension of students with learning disabilities and students with serious reading difficulty is questionable. Bateman (1991), Blachman (1991), Yates (1988) Rankin – Erickson and Pressley (2000), Moats (2000).

Expository and Narrative Texts

In the reading process there are two main types of texts; they are expository and narrative texts. Narrative text includes any type of writing that relates a series of events and includes both fiction that is (novels, short stories, poems) and nonfiction that is (memoirs, biographies, news, stories). Both forms tell stories that use imagination language and express emotion often through the use of imagery, metaphors and symbols (Sejnost and Thiese 2010 p 9).

Narrative texts as espoused by Pappas (1993) usually have specific or regular story lines that students are mostly conversant with. Williams (2005) described expository texts as texts that relate communicate or describe non fictional information. Expository or informational texts convey and communicate factual information. These texts contain more unfamiliar vocabulary and concepts, fewer ideas related to the here – and – now and less information directly related to personal experience'' (Hall, Sabey, and McClellan 2005 P 212). Examples of expository texts include textbooks, newspaper and magazine articles, diaries, journals, brochures, directions and catalogues (Fitzgerald 2002 p 385).

Expository texts from the observation of scholars are more difficult to comprehend when compared to narrative texts. Students with learning disabilities as noted by Gersten, Fuchs, Williams and Baker (2001) comprehend narrative texts at a slower pace than their mates. The authors further affirmed that comprehension exercises are much more difficult for students with learning disabilities because of their little understanding of the structures of expository texts. The analogy of Fuchs et al explanation is that students with learning disabilities will experience more problems with expository texts when compared to narrative texts. The study of Carlisle (1993) revealed that students with learning disabilities when compared to their peers without learning disabilities had significantly higher problems comprehending expository texts. The pupils involved in Carlisle (1993) study were 4th and 6th grade students. Students with learning disabilities in the research of Day and Zajakowski (1991) had difficulty in using comprehension monitoring skills to analyse expository texts.

Students with learning disabilities or reading deficits find expository texts unlike narrative texts particularly more challenging. Ward- Lonergan (2010), Williams,Hall and Lauer (2004),Gajira,Jitendra, Sood and Sacks (2007). Scientific textbooks are majorly expository in nature. These textbooks contain special terms or technical

vocabulary that may be difficult for elementary and older students to comprehend. Michasky Mevarech and Haibi (2009) Bryce (2011) Rop (20003) Chall and Jacobs (2003) Graesser, Leon and Otero (2002).

Gender Issues

Females according to studies generally seem to have better performance in reading comprehension than males; some researchers on the other hand did not find significant difference in the reading comprehension performance of males and females. Significant difference found in studies on reading comprehension performance of males and females as observed by some scholars is debatable. Johnston and Logan (2010) reported that a study carried out in 43 (forty three) countries around the world revealed that girls had better performance in reading comprehension when compared to boys. International studies that investigated reading comprehension ability in ten year old boys and girls according to Jenkins (2009) discovered girls as exhibiting better performance than boys in reading comprehension in all the involved countries. Rutter, Caspi, Fergusson, Horwood, Gooodman, Maughan, Moffit,Meltzer and Carrol (2004) reported four independent epidemiological researches as discovering a significantly higher population of males with reading disabilities than females.

In remedial reading classrooms Alloway and Gilbert (1997) observed that boys with reading disabilities significantly outnumbered girls. Reading difficulties is more pronounced in males in comparison to males in referred individuals and research identified population, Hawke, Olson, Willcut, Wadsworth, and DeFries (2009). Hawke et al (2009) also reported that their study revealed that females with dyslexia had slightly better performance in reading than males. Hawke et al (2009) in conclusion rationalised that there could be wide variations in the ratio of males and females with reading difficulties. Quinn and Wagner (2013) in aligning with the observation of Hawke et al (2009) agreed that reading impairment is more prevalent in males than females. Quinn and Wagner (2013) also opined that the reasons for the difference are debatable.

Significant difference was not found in the reading disabilities of boys and girls in the study of Shaywitz, Shaywitz, Fletcher and Escobar (1990). Siegel and Smythe (2005) also reported that their longitudinal study did not find significant gender differences in reading disabilities of participants.

Research Design

This study adopted a pre-test, post- test control group quasi experimental design with a 3 x 2 factorial matrix. The study generated three groups. Two of the groups served as the experimental groups while the third group did not receive any treatment.

Sample and Sampling technique

The participants for the study were seventy eight primary five pupils with learning disabilities who also had problems with reading comprehension. They were from three public schools in in Ibadan South West Local Government Area of Oyo State Nigeria. Simple random technique (balloting) was used to select the three schools. Participants for the study were forty six boys and thirty two girls. More than seventy eight participants were identified as having learning disabilities and reading comprehension problems in the three schools sampled. The seventy eight whose parents consented that their children should participate in the study were eventually sampled. This means convenience sampling technique was used to draw participants for the study.

Research Instruments

A Pupil Rating Scale

B Informal Reading Inventory.

Description of Instruments

The Pupil Rating Scale was used to identify children with learning disabilities in the schools sampled. This instrument was designed by Myklebust in 1971 and revised in1981. Myklebust (1981) stressed the usefulness, importance and accuracy of the rating scale for screening purposes. The rating scale consists of items on five major behavioural characteristics which are: auditory comprehension, spoken language, orientation, motor coordination, and personal social behaviour. The scale contain 24 items, each items is to be assessed on a five point scale with (3) as the average score. Rating which fall below the average receives either 1 or 2 scores, while rating above average is 4 or 5v scores. The overall score for the pupils rating scale is 120. Scores between 0-59 suggest the presence of learning disabilities. A reliability coefficient of 0.76 was obtained by these researchers on the Pupils Rating Scale in this study.

Informal Reading Inventory

This diagnostic instrument was used to measure the ability to recognise words in isolation and comprehension level of students identified with the Pupil Rating Scale as having learning disabilities. The inventory is divided into three sections. Part A of the inventory contains demographic data of the participants which are name of participant; name of school, gender and age Part B of this inventory consists of twenty isolated graded word list jointly assembled by the researchers and the general classroom English teachers for word recognition. A list containing twenty isolated words was used because the teachers already have reading comprehension information about the pupils as having learning disabilities. The pupil collects a list of the twenty words and pronounces each of the word aloud in one to four seconds. The child in this section scores five points for each word pronounced correctly. Word recognition if less than 70% indicates that the

child operates at a frustrational level and needs assistance on reading. This was the case of the seventy eight participants in this study. Part C of this instrument is made up of two graded and levelled reading comprehension passages that the pupils are yet to rehearse or pre read. The passages were read by the participants for the first in the study. The two comprehension passages were drawn from the basal readers of the three schools of participants in the study. The passages were deemed appropriate for the participants' age range and grade by the researchers in conjunction with the classroom English teachers. One narrative and one expository passage made up the two comprehension passages from the basal readers. The narrative passage consisted of one hundred words; the expository passage equally consisted of one hundred words. Students answered ten short questions to assess their comprehension of the two passages, five questions were drawn from the narrative texts and five questions were drawn from the expository texts. Each question attracts ten marks. Total marks obtainable in this section is 100%. A score of less than 50% indicates a frustration level. This instrument was subjected to empirical validation with a test re test at an interval of three weeks. The data got was used to compute the Cronbach Alpha which was 0.81 for part B of the test and 0.72 for part C of the Inventory. Validation was done using Item Total Correlation. Item Total correlation for part B of this item ranged between 0.5 and 0.9.Item Total Correlation for part C of this Inventory ranged between 0.5 and 0.8

Procedure for Data Collection

The researchers who participated in a one week workshop on how to use collaborative strategic reading to teach reading comprehension at the elementary level also trained the six English teachers in the three schools sampled. The researchers were trained by reading specialists; they in turn trained these teachers for three days. There was also some hours of refresher training for these teachers to harmonise some issues on whole language lessons which they are already using to teach their pupils. The classroom teachers administered the Pupil Rating Scale by Myklebust to identify pupils with learning disabilities in their classrooms. The informal Reading Inventory was administered by the two researchers and the six general classroom English teachers. On the word list, errors that the pupils made that were counted against them included; wrong pronunciation, repetitions, hesitations, reversals, omissions, insertions, deliberate skipping of words, substitutions and asking for assistance.

Pupils were asked ten oral questions in part C of the Informal Reading Inventory. Questions asked included telling the main idea in the passage in a sentence, retelling of the story as briefly as possible, and asking for information not in the story but implied. Pupils were also instructed to highlight what the passage taught them in a sentence, they were asked open ended questions about the passages and they were asked to relate events in sequence in one or two paragraphs of the texts. Administration of the Informal Reading Inventory took about thirty minutes for each pupil and it was done on a

Saturday with permission from the parents. Four groups took care of this session (that is the two researchers and the six English teachers). There was an audio recording of activities.

Training of teachers, identification of students with learning disabilities and administration of the Informal Reading Inventory took place before commencement of treatment sessions. During the training for teachers, they acted as pupils while the researchers acted as teachers. There were twenty five (25) pupils in the collaborative strategic reading group; they consisted of fourteen (14) males and eleven (11) females, and it was an intact class. They were divided into five groups. Twenty four (24) pupils comprising fifteen (15) males and nine (9) females were in the whole language group, they were divided into six groups when the need arises. It was also an intact group that is they received instructions in their normal school. Pupils with different abilities were put in the groups.

The control group had twenty nine (29) pupils made-up of seventeen (17) males and twelve (12) females. In the collaborative strategic reading group, preview, click and clunk, get the gist and wrap up were the teaching strategies used. In each group for the collaborative strategic reading there was a leader, clunk expert, gist expert announcer and encourager. At two weeks interval, roles were swapped in each group. Activities in the whole language group included read aloud sessions, shared book reading, individualised reading, storytelling, choral reading, speed reading and sustained silent reading. Pupils in this group were not doing group activities all the time. The two teachers who taught English Language in each school sampled also did the teaching during this study. Passages read were both narrative and expository in nature. In the groups, the teachers modelled what the pupils were supposed to do before proper sessions began for the first week. During lessons they moved round the class and rendered assistance where necessary. Teaching sessions was twice a week during the long vacation of 2015 and three weeks into a new session (August- October 2015). Teaching lasted for ten weeks. Pre and post tests were administered at the beginning and end of the research.

Method of Data Analysis

The data generated was subjected to analysis of t -test using the pre-test and post -test scores as covariates.

Results

Ho1: There will be no significant difference in the pre and post test reading comprehension scores of participants exposed to collaborative strategic reading and whole language approach.

Table 1: Mean, Standard deviation, and t test of pre and post scores of the two experimental groups

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev	df	t-cal	t-crit
Pre test scores	CSR	25	26.20	2.17	47	1.17	1.96
	WL	24	27.45	2.43			
Post test scores	CSR	25	60.02	1.53	47	3.45	1.96
	WL	24	31.38	2.56			

Table 1, shows that the t calculated for the post test reading comprehension scores is 3.45, this value is greater than t critical of 1.96 ($p < 0.05$). Hence the null hypothesis is rejected. It reveals that there is significance difference between the reading comprehensions scores of participants exposed to collaborative strategic reading and those exposed to whole language approach. The implication of this result is that participants in CSR group performed better than those in WL.

Key: CSR – Collaborative Strategic Reading

WL – Whole Language

Ho2: There will be no significant difference in the pre and post reading comprehension scores of participants exposed to collaborative strategic reading and the control group.

Table 2: Mean, Standard deviation, and t test of pre and post scores of the CRS and Control groups.

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev	df	t-cal	t-crit
Pre test scores	CSR	25	26.20	2.17	52	1.09	2.01
	Control	29	22.37	1.98			
Post test scores	CSR	25	60.02	1.53	52	3.72	2.01
	Control	29	23.15	2.11			

Table 2 shows that the t calculated for the post reading comprehension scores is 3.72. The value is greater than t critical of 2.01 ($p < 0.05$). It shows that there is significant difference between the reading comprehension scores of participants exposed to CSR and those who are not. It means that the participants in CRS group performed better than the control.

Ho3: There will be no significant difference in the pre and post reading comprehension scores of participants exposed to whole language and the control group.

Table 3: Mean, Standard deviation, and t test scores of WL and Control groups.

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev	df	t-cal	t-crit
Pre test scores	WL	24	27.45	2.43	51	1.46	1.98
	Control	29	22.37	1.98			
Post test scores	WL	24	31.38	2.56	51	2.71	1.98
	Control	29	23.15	2.11			

Table 3 shows that t calculated for the post reading comprehension scores is 2.71. This value is greater than t critical of 1.98 ($p<0.05$). Hence the null hypothesis is rejected. It reveals that there is significant difference between the reading comprehension scores of participants exposed to WL and those who are not. It implies that the participant in WL group performed better than the control.

Ho4: There will be no significant difference in the pre and post test reading comprehension scores of males and females participants in the two treatment groups and the control group.

Table 4: Mean, Standard deviation, and t test scores of males and females participants in the two treatment groups and the Control groups.

Gender	N	Mean	S.D	df	t-cal	t-crit
Female	32	54.69	3.62	76	3.14	2.67
Male	46	32.17	2.18			

Table 4 reveals that t calculated vale is 3.14 while critical t value is 2.67 ($p<0.05$) and since the t calculated is greater than t critical the hypothesis is rejected. This shows that there is significance difference between the reading comprehension scores of male and female participants. It implies that the female participants [performed better than their male participants.

Ho5: There will be no significant difference in the pre and post scores of participants in the narrative and expository text passages.

Table 5: Mean, Standard deviation, and t test scores of participants in the narrative and expository text passages.

	Group	N	Mean	S.D	df	t-cal	t-crit
Pre test scores	Narrative	78	32.14	2.23	76	3.47	2.31
	Expository	78	21.35	1.87			
Post test scores	Narrative	78	65.27	3.78		5.26	2.31
	Expository	78	34.38	2.34			

Table 5 shows that t calculated for the pre and post test scores is greater than t critical. Hence the null hypothesis is rejected. It reveals that there is significance difference in the pre and post test scores of participants in the narrative and expository text passages. It implies that participants performed better in narrative text passages than expository passages.

Discussion of Result

This study just like some other studies has revealed that many children with learning disabilities experience reading comprehension problems. Most of the time, the comprehension problems become exacerbated because classroom teachers are not conversant with teaching approaches that can assist these children in using strategies that can help them to read and understand. A significant different was observed in the pre and post test scores of participants when collaborative strategic reading and whole language approach were used by regular classroom teachers to teach these children. Participants who were taught using collaborating strategic reading had a better performance in the post test compared with the whole language group. Despite the fact that all participants in the study are been taught with the whole language approach by their general education teachers, those in the collaborative strategic reading group who were taught with the method for the first time out performed those in the whole language group. Many researchers in line with this finding have also reported collaborative strategic reading as effective in teaching reading comprehension to students with learning disabilities. Examples of such researchers are McCowan (2013), MacCeca (2007), Klingner et al (2012b), Bremer et al (2002), Jetton and Dole (2004).

Hypothesis two was rejected because a significant difference was found in the pre and post test reading comprehension scores of participants exposed to collaborative strategic reading and the control group. Hypothesis three was also rejected because a significant difference was observed in the pre and post test reading comprehension scores of participants exposed to whole language approach and the control group. Those taught with collaborative strategic reading and those in the whole language group

respectively had better performance than the control group. There was a slight improvement in the performance of the control group during the post test. The obvious reason for the weak performance of the control group in the reading comprehension exercises is because they were not exposed to any treatment. In all the three groups generated in the study, females with learning disabilities performed better in reading comprehension when compared to the males. Alloway and Gilbert (1997), in line with the findings of this study reported boys with reading disabilities as significantly outnumbering girls in remedial reading classroom. Hawk et al (2009), also observe that females with dyslexia in their study had better performance in reading although average scores of participants were very small. Rutter et al (2004), reported that four independent epidemiological studies discover that a significantly higher population of males had reading disabilities when compared to their female counterparts. Pardo and Paul (2011) similarly observed that females generally performed better in reading activities than males. Significant different was found in the pre and post test scores of participants in the narrative and expository text passages hypothesis five. Participants still found it easier to comprehend narrative text when compared to the expository text. In summarising and finding the main ideas in the text, students did better on narrative. Literature reviewed by these researchers saw all scholars agreeing that expository text generally seems to be more difficult to comprehend for students with learning disabilities. Carlisle (1993) study showed that students with learning disabilities in comparison to their peers without learning disabilities had significantly higher difficulties in tackling expository text. Students with learning disabilities in the work of Day and zajakowski (1991) similarly had problems in using comprehension monitoring skills to analyse expository text. Ward-Lonergal (2010), Williams, Hall and Lauer (2004) and Gajira et al (2007) all agreed that students with reading deficits/ those with learning disabilities are particularly challenged by expository text.

Conclusion

In this study, collaborative strategic reading improved the reading comprehension performance of primary schools students when compared to the whole language approach. It was observed that the social skills and self esteem of these children tremendously improved in the collaborative strategic group when compared to the whole language group. In the whole language group it was observed that the participant had to memorise facts and there was a lot of guess work in their construction of meaning. Children in the whole language group as observed by the researcher in a few instances were able to connect new knowledge to previously learned information. Teaching reading comprehension to children with learning disabilities is not a straight jacet issue, different approaches or methods can be used to teach these children.

Recommendations

Result yielding approaches for example collaborative strategic reading that will ensure that students with learning disabilities will be able to tackle narrative and expository comprehension passages need to be employed by teachers at the elementary level. The textbooks used by pupils in the school sampled had more of narrative text than expository passages. Textbooks that contain both narrative and expository text in the right proposition is therefore suggested for these schools

More time need to be devoted to the teaching of reading comprehension in Nigerian schools.

In-service training in form of workshops, seminars, conferences, symposium, as a matter of necessity should be organised for elementary teachers on modern and desirable approaches to teach reading comprehension.

Teachers should regularly give students with learning disabilities home work on reading comprehension. Homework given by teachers in this study assisted the children not to lose focus of content being taught.

Limitation for the Study

The geographical scope of this study cannot be regarded as wide. The samples of participants for this study are also not high. The implication therefore is that the result of the study can be generalised in the population of students with learning disabilities in Nigerian elementary schools. The number of teachers trained for this study by the researchers is more due to financial constraint. Training of more teachers on how to use collaborative strategic reading will ensure that more students are able to participant in a research of this nature in future.

Suggestions for Further Research

Teachers in Nigerian elementary schools need to be tutored on how to use collaborative strategic reading to improve the reading comprehension of children with learning disabilities. A high population of children with learning disabilities should be involved in a study of this nature in future so that generalisations can be made, the same also apply to geographical coverage.

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Mobile Technologies for Foreign Language Learning

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Abstract

´Learning is much better with tablets´, today´s pupils and students often say. But, is it really true? Are the mobile devices and mobile technologies the mean performing didactic miracles? Do they really cause students enjoy learning and learn more with less effort? Even an optimist guesses it may not be like this. Do we (teachers) know how the mobile-assisted process of learning runs, what its advantages, weaknesses and limits are, whether learners really remember more, and/or enjoy the learning more? What is the role of the ´novelty´ factor regarding the latest technologies? Do learners know how to exploit them for education purposes? And last but not least, what are teachers´ competences in this field? These are selected fields we are going to focus on.

Introduction

Would you agree with the general mood that the field of foreign language instruction was the first one where mobile devices and technologies were naturally exploited? The founded fact is that most learners of all age categories fluently shifted from listening to (English speaking) music and watching (English speaking, or supported by English subtitles) films to intentional use of mobile devices for foreign language learning (FLL); other subjects followed to some extent (Ally, 2009; Palalas, 2012; Abdullah, 2013; Tai, 2012 etc.). As teachers, we strongly appreciate such an approach – the process of learning conducted naturally, logically, reflecting learners´ interests … . This state awakes the feeling the mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) is the way teachers were looking for for ages. However, how does the real process look like? Are both parties, i.e. teachers and learners, able to efficiently and meaningfully exploit the full

potential of mobile technologies for education, particularly for MALL? If so, how does the work with mobile devices and applications support learners´ motivation to FLL? Is learners´ motivation caused by the novelty of the ´mobile´ phenomenon? Is it limited by unfunctionality of the device or content? And last but not least – do the students learn more if the MALL approach is applied? In the text below we will try to discover answers to these questions.

From Theoretical Background to Real Practice

Within the theory of mobile devices implementation in the FLL two main fields can be detected: (1) the FRAME model by Koole (2009) and (2) the Bloom´s taxonomy of educational objectives, the original (1956), revised (2001), digital (2010) and so called smart versions.

The FRAME Model

The FRAME (Framework for the Rational Analysis of Mobile Education) model designed by Marguerite L. Koole describes the way how learners should work in the mobile-assisted environment. Exploiting a mobile device, the learner can choose what to do: to consult a web page, access audio or video tutorials, send a text message to peers, contact a tutor or any other field expert for guidance. However, how to take full advantage of the services provided by mobile device, how to design and use study materials and activities, these are the questions answered by Koole within the FRAME model. The learner´s interaction with information is mediated through mobile technology. The FRAME model is represented by a Venn diagram in which three aspects intersect shaped as circles representing the device (D), learner (L) and social aspects (S). The intersections where two circles overlap display attributes belonging to both aspects:

- the attributes of the device usability (DL) and social technology (DS) describe the affordances (i.e. availability, which is called the ownership in the research described below (Norman, 1999);
- the intersection labelled interaction learning (LS) contains instructional and learning theories with an emphasis on social constructivism;
- all three aspects overlap at the primary intersection (DLS) in the centre of the Venn diagram – this place defines an ideal mobile learning situation.

Moreover, the FRAME model takes into consideration the technical characteristics of mobile devices as well as social and personal aspects of learning. These refer to e.g. the Activity Theory by Kaptelinin and Nardy (2006) and the work on mediation and the zone of proximal development by Vygotsky (1978). There, mobile devices work as active components in equal footing to learning and social processes. The model also emphasizes the constructivist approach, as the word ´rational´ refers to the belief that

reason is the primary source of knowledge and that reality is constructed rather than discovered (Smith, Ragan, 1999).

Mobile Devices and Mobile Learning

Generally accepted, mobile learning (m-learning) is such an approach where means of wireless technological devices, that can be pocketed and used wherever the learner's device is able to receive unbroken transmission signals, are implemented in the process of instruction (Attewell, Smith, 2005). In addition, Traxler (2010) listed the main characteristics which differ mobile learning from e-learning: spontaneity; privacy; portability; situation; informality; bite size; light weight; context awareness; connectivity; personalized device; and interactivity. Moreover, identically to the e-learning implementation 10 – 15 years ago, both the teachers and learners should be trained in efficient use of mobile devices for education purposes, i.e. in m-learning and m-teaching. In reality, this means the Comenius´ didactic principles (1967), defined four centuries ago and accepted and verified for traditional face-to-face instruction, should be implemented in the design, tools and learning content within the m-learning concept. Within this process, four main characteristics (probably the strengths) should be taken into consideration:

- small size and light weight of mobile devices,
- small size of the screen,
- fast Internet access anytime anywhere,
- the multi-media features of downloaded files.

Furthermore, it is important to note that the mobile device is a device which a user carries with him all the time and therefore he can look up the information he needs at anytime and anywhere. M-learning is not only the process enhanced by mobile phones, but in fact supported by various types of mobile devices. Those listed below belong to the frequently used ones: notebook, netbook, smart phone, tablet, multimedia player, e-book reader, portable playing console and others.

The primary and crucial question within m-learning is whether students are sufficiently equipped with mobile devices so as the process of m-learning could be conducted. This question was researched in the group of more than 200 students of the Faculty of Informatics and Management, University of Hradec Kralove. The collected data discovered what mobile devices students possess and use for FLL, in this case for English for Specific Purposes (ESP for students of Applied Informatics and Information Management) (Figure 1).
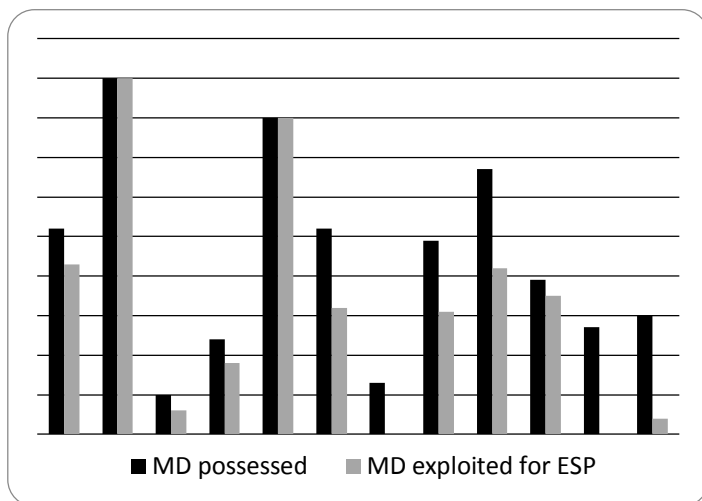
Fig. 1. Mobile and immobile devices respondents possess and exploit for ESP learning.

For mobile-assisted ESP learning notebooks and smartphones are the leaders (identical data were detected under ´possesed´ and ´exploited for ESP´ criteria (i.e. 88 %, 80 %), followed by immobile PCs (42 %), TV (42 %) and DVD player (35 %) – students explained they used them mainly for watching films. Mobile phones and mp3 players are exploited by one third of respondents for ESP learning; other devices are of rather low importance, including tablets (18 %) and netbooks (6 %). Compared to other subjects within university study, the possession of notebooks was detected with 87 % of respondents, of smartphones with 43 %, PC (42 %), mobile phones (18 %), tablets (18 %) and netbooks (7 %).

Do you know what the situation is in your classes?

Bloom´s taxonomy of educational objectives

The technical and technological developments been considered, the educational science has been changing, both in the theory and practice. The well-known and recognized Bloom´s taxonomy of educational objectives (1956) serves an example. The original version structured into three dimensions (cognitive, affective and psychomotor) was introduced in 1950s; in this version the cognitive dimension included six major categories, each described by a noun (Knowledge, Comprehension, Application, Analysis, Synthesis, Evaluation). Later on, the revised version was developed in 1990s by Anderson et al. (2001). Authors designed the new version which identically used six categories; however, they are organized in a different order on two highest levels and described by verbs instead of nouns, which should reflect a more active and accurate

form of thinking (Remembering, Understanding, Applying, Analyzing, Evaluating, Creating).

For a few decades rather strong attention was paid to the cognitive domain compared to affective and psychomotor ones. The affective domain worked out by Krathwohl, Bloom and Masia (1973) and structured into five categories (Receiving, Responding, Valuing, Organizing and Conceptualizing, Characterizing by value and value concept) focuses on the perception of value issues, when ranging from mere awareness to distinguishing implicit values through analysis.

The design of psychomotor domain, which deals with psychomotor skills that rage from easy manual tasks to more complex ones, has never completed by Bloom. However, a version was designed by Dave (1970) containing five categories (Imitation, Manipulation, Precision, Articulation, Naturalization), or by Harrow (1972) (Reflex Movements, Fundamental Movements, Perceptual Abilities, Skills Movements, Nondiscursive Communication), or Simpson (1972) who produced the most complex structure containing seven categories (Perception – Awareness, Set – Readiness to Act, Guided Response, Mechanism – Basic Proficiency, Complex Overt Response – Expert, Adaptation, Origination); i.e. they cover physical movement, coordination and use of the motor-skill areas (they are measured in terms of speed, precision, distance, procedures, or techniques in execution). The three-domain structure is displayed in Figure 2.
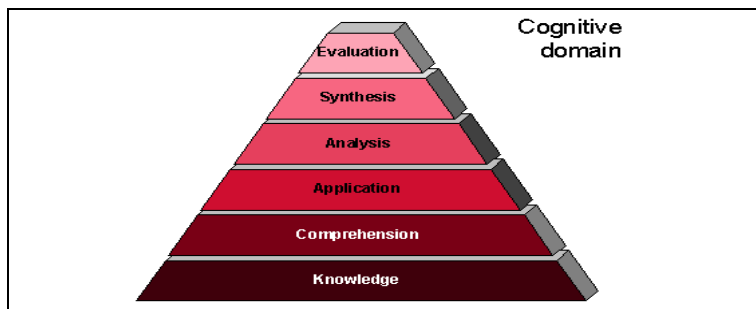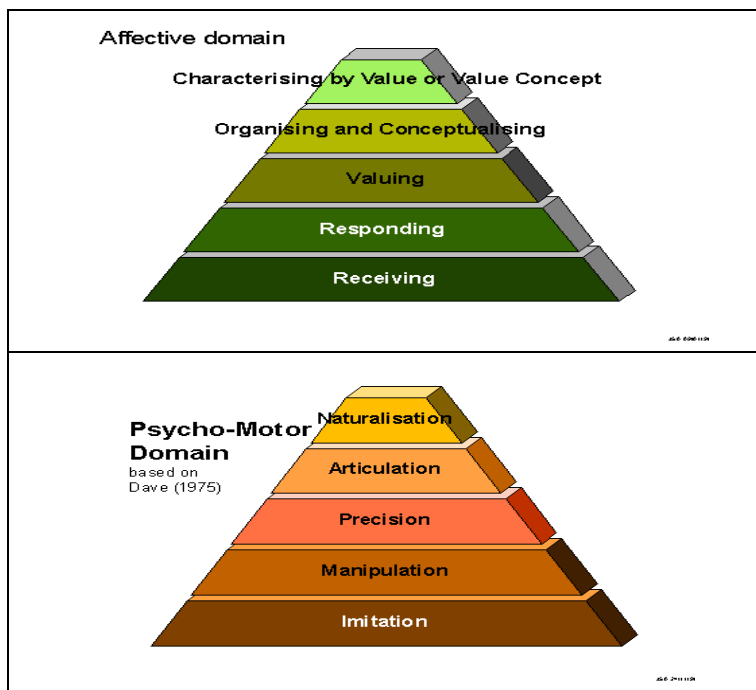
Fig. 2. The cognitive, affective and psycho-motor domains (Source: Atherton J S (2013) Learning and Teaching; Bloom's taxonomy [On-line: UK], http://www.learningandteaching.info/learning/bloomtax.htm, 31 March 2016)

Bloom´s Digital Taxonomy

Reflecting the fast development in the field of technology, a new concept of the Bloom's Digital Taxonomy and Collaboration was introduced in 2009 by Churches (2010). Been based on the revised version of Bloom´s taxonomy of educational objectives, it was adjusted to the modern-at-that-time-technology. Particular attention was devoted to the field of Communication which was presented in a separated column because it is understood a crucial competence penetrating all teaching/learning activities. Within the concept a wide range of ICT-supported activities is introduced. This feature is appreciated by learners of various individual learning styles and preferences.

Within the Lower Order Thinking (LOT) Skills, on the *Remember* level students mainly concentrate on the retrieval of using information e.g. bulleting to mark key words and phrases for recalling, bookmarking useful web pages and sites for future use,

social bookmarking and social networking, googling etc. On the *Understand* level, students are trained towards refining the newly developed knowledge through interpreting, summarizing, inferring, paraphrasing, comparing, explaining it in e.g. blog journaling, or twittering. These activities can naturally move the students to higher levels of the taxonomy as these tools help develop deeper understanding, collaboration with peers, digital organizing, classifying etc. On the *Apply* level information is implemented and exploited; then, examples of students´ active "doing" are provided such as initiating a programme, operating hardware and software applications, gaming, uploading and sharing materials on a site etc.

Within the Higher Order Thinking (HOT) Skills, on the *Analyze* level mash-ups, are involved where several data sources are melded into a single set of usable information, links are made to documents and web pages, information is validated, organized, structured and attributed. On the *Evaluate* level hypotheses are verified, experiments conducted, results judges, compared so as the findings could be used for blog commenting, reflecting the current state-of-art, examining materials in context, testing e-products etc. On the top, i.e. the *Create* level, activities as designing, inventing, constructing, planning, producing and others are conducted. These processes include e.g. finding a technology and applying it in the creative process, or students create audio- and video-recordings, films, animations, podcasts, they develop programme applications and games. In other words, completely new items are created.

Within the separated *Communication* column Churches presents the communication spectrum of activities from LOT to HOT skills, e.g. texting, instant messaging, twittering/microblogging; e-mailing, chatting, contributing, networking, blogging, questioning, replying, reviewing, videoconferencing, skyping, net meeting, commenting, debating, negotiating, moderating, collaborating etc. This way Churches provides teachers a wide range of activities for running digital practices. Thus he differs from those who tend to push the ´search´ concept, and provides strong support to networking, social bookmarking, blogging, and to producing unique items to enhance the learning. The Bloom´ digital taxonomy is displayed in Figure 3.
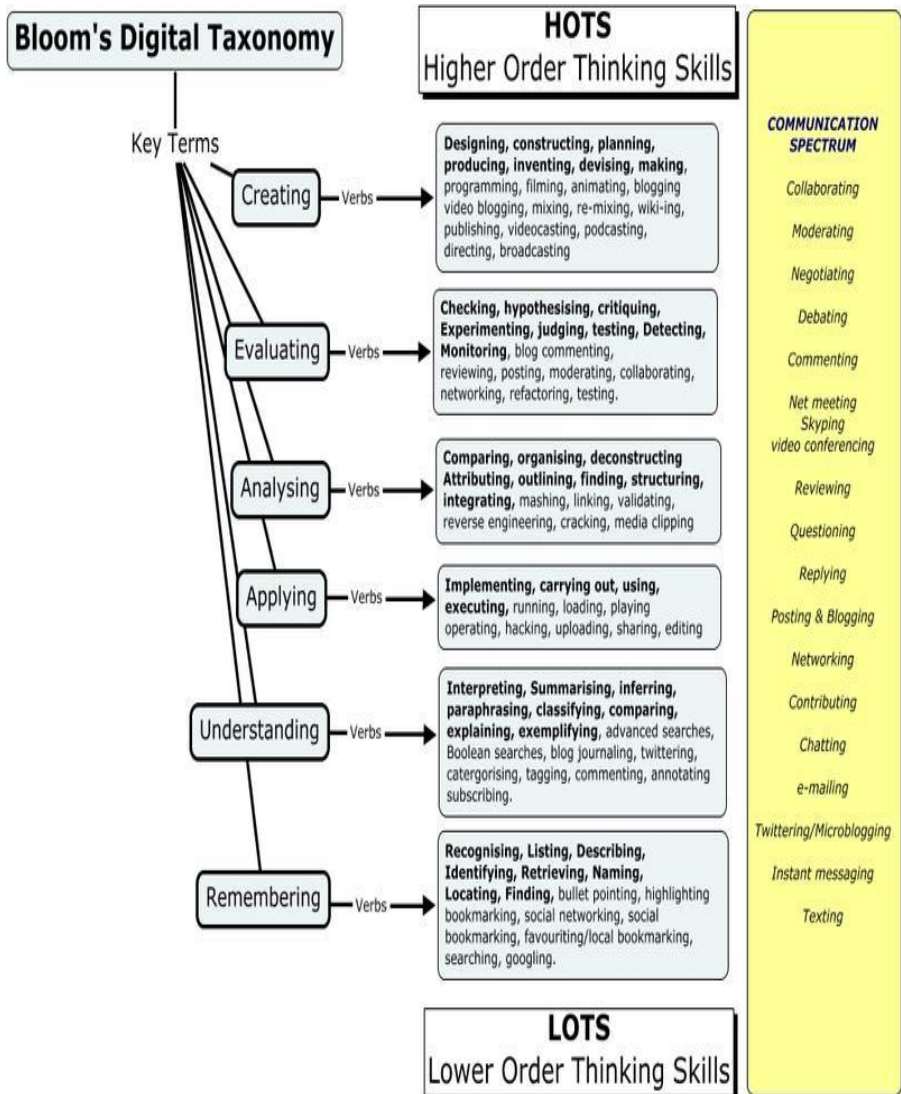
Fig. 3. The Bloom´s digital taxonomy. (Source:
http://edorigami.wikispaces.com/Bloom%27s+Digital+Taxonomy).

Bloom´s ´Smart´ Taxonomy and Implications for Practice

However, reflecting the current development in the field of technology-assisted learning, we must agree smart mobile devices and applications have become the leaders. Been highlighted by both their novelty and interest from the learners, they are widely exploited for various private and educational purposes. A rather endless offer of applications is available on the Internet to students, e.g. search engines, scrapbooks, apps for communication and sharing data, data storage and management, default apps already installed on iPads, dictionaries, multimodal apps (for video-recordings, sound/music, image/text), various toolkits etc., as displayed in Figure 4. Most apps can be exploited for learning various subjects, including foreign languages, e.g. SAMR model for iOS apps; Integrating technology to Bloom´s taxonomy; Bloom´s digital taxonomy in social networks; Bloom´s digital taxonomy – Analysing; Bloom´s digital taxonomy for tablets and Web 2.0; Bloom´s digital taxonomy for iPads; Bloom´s digital taxonomy; Bloom´s digital taxonomy for Twitter; Bloom´s taxonomy – traditional and digital verbs; Bloom´s taxonomy – Critical thinking skills.

Fig. 4. *List of core student apps (Source:*
https://resourcelinkbce.files.wordpress.com/2013/02/2012t1corestudentapps.pdf)

To support teachers´ efforts in preparing lessons exploiting the smart mobile learning, the SAMR model (Figure 5, Figure 6) was developed by Puentedura (2009). It should help design, develop and integrate digital technology-assisted teaching which is expected to support students´ achievements. Similarly to the Bloom´s Taxonomy, the SAMR model moves through four successive levels leading to higher order thinking. The model is structured into two areas (Enhancement, Transformation), each area contains two steps (Substitution, Augmentation within Enhancement; Modification, Redefinition within Transformation). Whereas in steps 1 and 2 the learning content is supported (Substitution) and improved (Augmentation) by the technology, in steps 3 and 4 the teacher exploits technology towards making crucial changes (Modification), or uses such strategies, approaches and methods which could not be applied without technology (Redefinition) (Johnson, 2012).
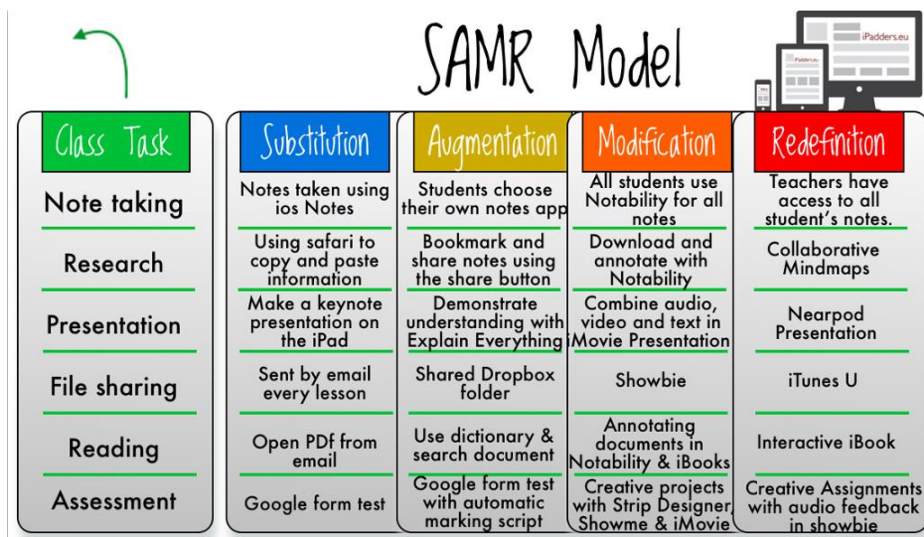

Fig. 5. SAMR model activities by K. Schrock (Source: http://www.schrockguide.net/bloomin-apps.html)

In the following figure of the SAMR model (Figure 6) samples of teacher´s roles in the mobile-assisted process are displayed (column 2) and tools exploited (column 3) which will be reflected in learners´ activities (column 4).
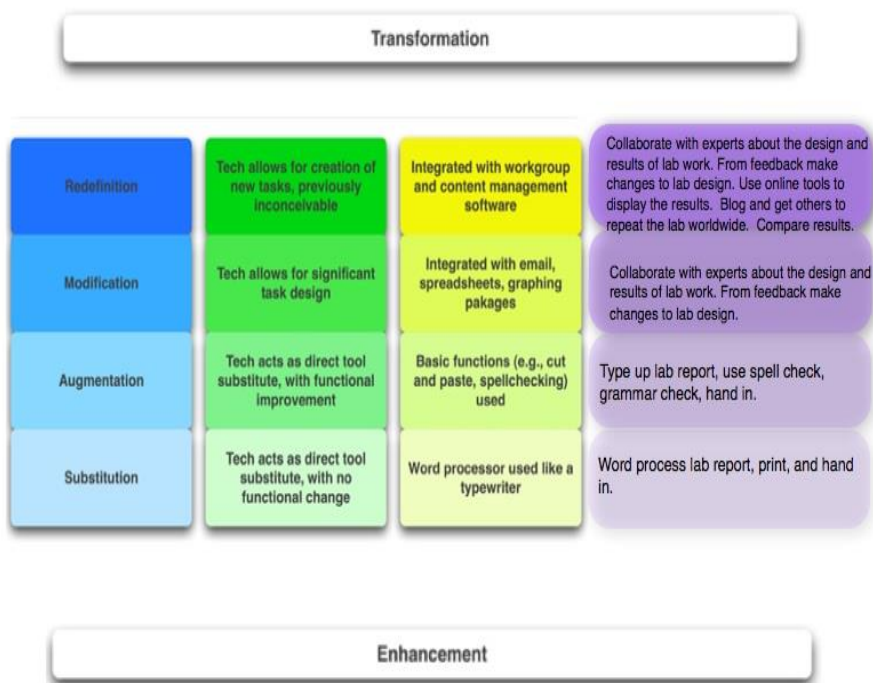
Fig. 6. SAMR model activities. (Source:
https://msad75summertechnologyinstitute.files.wordpress.com/2010/02/samr3.jpg, 11 April 2016)

Discussions and Conclusions

A growing range and understanding of the learning and teaching affordances of mobile technologies reflecting latest technological developments have emphasized the necessity to research the field of mobile learning experience. We agree with Sad and Goktas (2014) who started monitoring of pre-service teachers, having a research sample of more than 1,000 respondents and focusing on their attitudes towards using mobile devices, particularly mobile phones and laptops. Similarly to the Czech researcher Lorenz (2011), Aharony (2014) also collected feedback from Library and Information Science students about their attitude to m-learning. This survey is partially relevant to our research in some objectives and mainly in the sample group which (instead of others) included Information Management students as we did (see Figure 1).

For everyday practice in schools regardless the level of education they provide, following experience is provided to the teachers:

a) Do not be afraid of mobile technologies for educational purposes, particularly for FLL. As mentioned above, the process of their implementation in learners´ lives was natural, even supported by their strong interest. These are positive conditions for the implementation. Strictly said, learners expect you to exploit any mobile devices within your foreign language lessons. And they will definitely appreciate it.

b) If you still do not feel competent enough to exploit mobile devices in FLL, ask for support. Two sources are available, both willing to help.

First, you can attend teacher training courses organized by national ministries of education, methodological centres and other institutions.

Second, ask your pupils/students about their experience in mobile devices for common life first, then focus your questions on FLL. You can be sure they will be willing to share their experience with you, and, they will definitely appreciate your approach. You can prepare a ´system of awards´ for those who will contribute to the mobile-assisted FLL which will motivate the learners. Be careful with those who (1) have no or hardly any experience to contribute, and/or (2) do not possess smart mobile device. To diminish this fact, learners can work in mixed teams, or those not owning the mobile devices can prepare activities not enhanced by them. Then, both approaches will be applied in lessons so that learners could see what works and what does not under different conditions (i.e. if different topics are taught). Such experience helps them understand that the Rule N. 1 in considering the use of mobile devices is the educational efficiency, i.e. ´Do I learn more and in an easier way with mobile devices?´

c) to make the first step, consult appendices below as a motivation incentive.

Acknowledgment

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Multi-Sensory Learning Strategies to Support Spelling Development: a Case Study of Second-Language Learners with Auditory Processing Difficulties

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Abstract

Research confirms the multifaceted nature of spelling development and emphasizes the importance of both cognitive and linguistic skills (such as working and long-term memory, phonological processing, rapid automatized naming, orthographic awareness, mental orthographic images, semantic knowledge and morphological awareness) that affect spelling development. This has clear implications for many second-language spellers (L2) with auditory processing difficulties because writing systems are graphic representations of spoken language, and literacy development involves learning the association between the printed and oral forms of language (also known as phonological awareness and processing). In the present investigation, the researchers sampled second-language spellers ($n = 22$) with significant auditory processing delays and implemented an intervention programme that utilized visual and tactile coding strategies as part of the multi-sensory intervention therapy programme (for a period of six months). Post-test results were very promising and showed that L2 English-language spellers significantly improved in both short-term memory processing, phonological awareness and spelling performances. Considering this investigation's contribution to effectively supporting the spelling development of children with auditory processing delays, the researchers are confident that it will expand and improve existing theoretical accounts of literacy (and spelling) acquisition in the field of psycholinguistics, whilst also facilitating the academic success of the growing L2 learner population in South Africa (and internationally).

Keywords

English second-language spellers, auditory-processing difficulties, short-term memory, phonological awareness, visual and tactile coding, multi-sensory learning strategies

Introduction

Auditory processing disorders (APDs) are defined as deficits in processing the information of audible signals which are not attributable to impaired peripheral hearing sensitivity or intellectual impairment (Maerlender, 2010). According to researchers, because these deficits disrupt the continuous auditory processing of acoustic, phonetic, and linguistic information, they consequently affect the processing of information from sound reception to discourse understanding (Jerger & Musiek, 2000). Furthermore, according to Maerlender (2010) APD may manifest itself in various auditory processing tasks, for example an insufficiency in sound localization, auditory discrimination, auditory pattern recognition (or sequencing), and temporal processing. This becomes increasingly difficult for learners with APD when the auditory signal is degraded or embedded in competing acoustic signals (Maerlender, 2010). From the above, it is evident that APD refers to learners whose ability to process auditory information is compromised despite having a normal (or intact) auditory threshold. As mentioned, APD is not the result of a physiological problem (e.g. hearing loss); rather it refers to a condition in which the learner is unable to process what is being heard (Mearlender, 2010). This results in challenges in terms of their listening, reading, spelling and speaking (Jerger & Musiek, 2000; Miller & Wagstaff, 2011). It must be noted that learning to spell has definite implications for L2 learners with APD because writing systems are graphic representations of spoken language, and literacy development involves learning the association between the printed and oral forms of language (also known as phonological awareness and processing) (Dubitsky, 2014).

The present study will focus specifically on English second-language learners (L2) with auditory processing difficulties (APD) and the effect that these complications have on acquiring sufficient spelling skills. Although the message to be communicated is more important than the correct spelling, competence in spelling has a great influence on the quality of written work and spills over to other areas of a person's life (Peters, 2013). For example, it has a positive effect on a learner's self-concept as it affords a learner status as well as giving him or her the knowledge that he or she can communicate effectively (Peters, 2013). Perhaps even more important is that problems with spelling interfere with higher order writing processes and affect the quality of writing (Baschera, 2011; Kohnen, Nickels & Castles, 2009).

After reviewing the available South African and international literature, the authors aim to address the current paucity of research findings that investigate the value and potential of sensory integration and the application of alternative spelling strategies such as fingerspelling (as tactile coding) in combination with visual perceptual coding strategies to improve the spelling proficiency of L2 learners with APD. When one considers the limited research to date on the spelling development of English language learners with APD in South Africa (and internationally), one realises that the need for this study is clearly warranted (Williams & Newman, 2016).

Theoretical Framework

Since this study specifically focuses on supporting the spelling development of L2 learners with significant auditory processing difficulties (APD), the authors in the current study, working from a theoretical framing perspective, firstly acknowledge this phenomenon by drawing from the *rapid auditory processing deficit theory* (also known as the phonological processing hypothesis). This theory clearly explains the consequences of auditory processing difficulties and how they relate to developing the spelling of L2 learners (Baschera, 2011). More specifically the *rapid auditory processing deficit theory* states that the source of a writing difficulty (or spelling impairment) can be found in the processing and integration of rapid sequential auditory stimuli (Baschera, 2011). This leads to difficulties with discriminating between sounds and identifying the correct phoneme-to-grapheme correspondences (also known as phonological awareness). Furthermore, these phonological learning difficulties are linked to a reduced phonics-based memory and interfere with the development of well-defined and robust phonological representations; hence the consequent difficulties with literacy and spelling (Dubitsky, 2014) (see detailed discussion on the role and inter-relatedness of phonological awareness, auditory processing and working memory, to follow).

Secondly, focusing on underlying theories that are related to learning (cognition/memory), during the past decade theorists have argued in favour of multi-sensory learning theories (Lehmann & Murray, 2005; Gardner, 2006). Moreover, behavioural studies have shown that multi-sensory, encoded experiences enhance perception and facilitate their retrieval from memory (Lehman & Murray, 2005). With reference to the current research, and in the absence of intact auditory processing skills of L2 spellers, it is imperative to draw on these learners' other modalities (or skills) to develop their spelling abilities. The theoretical implication of this is that, in the absence of intact auditory processing skills, the central idea is to recode the spelling words (to be taught) into a multi-modal representation that uses multiple perceptual cues and coding strategies, such as visual and tactile coding (i.e. fingerspelling). Thus in the present study the benefits of multi-sensory learning and the assumption that learners with APD will probably use non-phonological, visual coding strategies were the rationale for considering these strategies in the development of the multi-sensory intervention therapy programme for L2 spellers with APD.

The Interplay of Phonological Awareness, Auditory Processing and Working Memory Abilities in Spelling Development

With the scope of this article (or research) focusing on the spelling difficulties of English second-language learners with learning disabilities, it has been demonstrated that some learners still struggle and ultimately fail to adequately develop sound reading and spelling skills (and literacy achievement generally speaking) despite their having

normal intelligence and intact audition (i.e. hearing) and vision (Hahn, Foxe & Molholm, 2014). The vast majority of these children have been diagnosed with APD or developmental dyslexia (Lyon, Shaywitz & Shaywitz, 2003). However, when one limits the study to developing countries (such as South Africa), it becomes clear that many learners with APD are not being diagnosed. This has severe consequences for their academic, psychological, emotional and social development.

In the light of the above, researchers are puzzled why some individuals who appear to learn perfectly well in other domains (for example, in subjects requiring mathematical skills) struggle to match orthographic signs/symbols such as letters or words with phonological inputs or representations (Hahn et al., 2014). At its core, competent reading and spelling requires the individual's ability to form reliable cross-sensory associations between symbols denoting the sounds of speech and of letters (or graphemic) and combinations of letters and symbols (Hahn et al., 2014). For typically developing children this is also a challenging task during the initial stages of learning, but as learning progresses, these sound-letter correspondences begin to be automated until ultimately, the simple sight of a given orthographic representation activates the phonological representation (Hahn et al., 2014). However, as discussed previously, throughout primary and secondary education this is a very daunting and challenging task for learners with learning disabilities and especially for learners with APD.

From the discussion above it is clear that one cannot overemphasize the importance of phonological processing in the development of both reading and spelling. This has been demonstrated by numerous theorists and researchers: for example, in a meta-analysis of 1 962 research articles on phonemic awareness, the National Reading Panel reported a meaningful, positive effect of phonological awareness on learners' reading and spelling development (Simonsen & Gunter, 2001). Phonological awareness is an aspect of meta-linguistic awareness that refers to the ability to understand the sound structure of a language. It includes the ability to segment speech into phonemes and to detect and manipulate them (Jongejan, Verhoefen & Siegel, 2007), and thus is the conscious awareness of the sound structures of spoken words, e.g. syllables, beats, onset-rimes and individual sounds (De Sousa & Broom, 2011). In practice this implies that a child who is phonologically aware not only understands the meaning of the words 'cat' and 'hat', but also recognises that they rhyme. Phonological awareness can therefore be seen as an umbrella term for a range of understandings, including a sense of alliteration, rhyme, syllables and the ability to segment words into sounds and to blend sounds into words (Stredler-Brown & Johnson, 2004). The above evidently illustrates the interplay of phonological awareness and auditory perceptual development skills and the relationship between them. For example, the following key auditory skills are imperative for sound phonological awareness to develop: auditory discrimination (which involves the ability to identify similarities and differences in sounds i.e. phonemes and words); auditory memory (which involves the ability to store and recall

information which was given verbally); auditory sequencing (which is the ability to remember and reconstruct the sequence of sounds/items or information in the same order i.e. sounds in a word or syllable); and finally, auditory blending (which involves the process of 'putting together' or synthesising the phonemes to form words (Listen & Learn Centre, 2010; Stredler-Brown & Johnson, 2004). As mentioned above, a child should be able to use the individual phonemes *c*, *a*, and *t* and blend them to form the word *cat*) whilst also being involved in the ability to construct sentences. The importance of these auditory skills further illustrates the inter-relationship between phonological awareness and auditory processing and also working memory (to be discussed in the next paragraph). In addition, several studies have shown a relationship (or a correlation) between auditory processing disorders (APDs) and learning disabilities (Listen & Learn Centre, 2010; Sharma, Purdy & Kelly, 2009; Ahissar, Protopapas, Reid & Merzenich, 2000) with many studies also reporting the coexistence of APD and learning disabilities in children with reading and spelling difficulties (Sharma et al., 2009). Since APD is characterised by inefficient auditory processing abilities or a reduced ability to discriminate, recognize or understand auditory information, it may contribute to deficits in phonological awareness (Sharma, et al. 2009; Ouimet & Balaban, 2009; Rosen, 1999). This is further confirmed by some existing research which has also established causal links (or relationships) between auditory processing, phonological awareness and reading and spelling disorders (Sharma, et al. 2009) – thus confirming the hypothesis that deficits in auditory processing underlie impairments in reading and spelling. For example, in Ahissar and colleagues' study (2000), individuals' performances in auditory-processing tasks were significantly correlated with their reading and spelling scores. The researchers conclude that good readers experience accurate sound representations which facilitate the encoding of acoustic patterns into phonological representations, thus allowing for the automatic translation of phonological codes into written language, with little or no effort (Ahissar et al., 2000). Conversely, poorer readers experience numerous challenges in auditory processing and abnormal representation of the phonological parts of speech. This results in learners' having difficulty in encoding and mapping spoken language (and sounds) with written symbols and graphemes (Ahissar et al., 2000). From the above it is apparent why phonological awareness fulfils an important function in both reading and spelling development, including the causal role of auditory processing skills and working memory during the process of reading and spelling development (as will be discussed in the next paragraph).

Working memory (as a component of short-term memory) relates to an individual's ability to attend to verbally or visually presented information, to process information in memory, and then to formulate a response. With regard to its role in reading and spelling development, working memory has a dual function, namely the temporary storage as well as the processing of information (Maerlender, 2010). Available findings further

suggest that both phonological and visual subsystems form active stores that are capable of combining information from sensory input and from the central executive. Consequently a memory trace in the phonological store might stem either from a direct auditory input or from the sub-vocalisation (sub-vocal articulation) of a visually presented item, for example a letter (Baddeley, 2000). In terms of its role in APD and more specifically its involvement in auditory and verbal processing of information, working memory is often measured through complex span tasks of a linguistic nature, namely a speaking span, listening span, and reading span task which tap both the processing and storage of verbal information (Alptekin, Özemir & Çereti, 2014). In most research it involves a dual-task paradigm which combines a recall span measure (primary task) with a concurrent processing task (i.e. a secondary task).

In terms of the current study, the researchers agree that, compared to its involvement in the production of oral language, using working memory in spelling development and written skills is a far more daunting task and is a complicated process (or involvement). Accordingly it has been argued that written language requires greater precision and explicitness, forcing the writer to provide more information (nouns, adjectives, and verbs) within each single unit of meaning (i.e. clauses) or when writing words and constructing sentences (Alptekin et al., 2014). Since spelling or writing requires great planning and monitoring that represent written production, they involve greater executive control and this places extra demands on the child's WM system, especially amongst less accomplished writers (Berninger & Swanson, 1994; Arfe, Rossi & Sicoli, 2015). Spelling and the production of written tasks have been demonstrated to be a very difficult task for learners with learning disabilities whether in L1 or L2. As mentioned before, the available research emphasises the importance of both short-term memory and its working capacity during spelling, whilst also demonstrating significant correlations between working memory and more advanced writing skills (e.g. written expression) (Basso Garcia, Mammarella, Tripodi, & Cornoldi, 2014.) In addition, research investigating the possible interaction between working memory and long-term memory within the domain of written language (i.e. spelling) indicates that spelling relies on both memory systems. More specifically studies have shown that spelling includes (among others) a process responsible for the retrieval of a word's spelling in long-term memory or its activation there. This refers to the orthographic output lexicon, including the graphemic buffer in the visual-spatial working memory. The graphemic buffer ensures that each of the word's component letters is selected for production in the appropriate order and interfaces with the motor systems involved in either producing a written version of the letter's shape or an oral spelling of the names of the letters of the alphabet (Buchwald & Rapp, 2009). The aforementioned may also have specific value and importance for the selection of multi-sensory learning strategies, and specifically the inclusion of fingerspelling as a form of visual-tactile coding during the process of developing ESL learners' spelling of target words.

Focusing on the scope of this article (namely learners with APD and its relationship with short-term or working memory), experimental and clinical psychological research specifically focuses on the role of short-term memory during attention span tasks (such as forward and backward span tasks) (Maerlender, 2010). These results have confirmed significant correlations between short-term memory tests and audiometric tests used for diagnosing APD and have also demonstrated high correlations between short-term memory digit span tests (forward and backward) and learners' scores on audiometric tests (Maerlender, 2010). This is further corroborated by neurological data (or MRI studies) that show the activation of frontal structures such as Brocca's area (i.e. for articulatory rehearsal) and inferior parietal structures (i.e. the supramarginal gyrus) during forward span tasks; whilst more executive or frontal involvement were recorded for the backward span tasks (Maerlender, 2010). During the early stages of language processing – in particular in activities that are associated with phonological processing, such as phoneme encoding, storage and assembly/or synthesis of sounds – the left temporoparietal area plays a very important role (Gerton, Brown, Meyer-Lindenberg, Kohn, Holt & Olsen, 2004). More specifically, researchers (see, Gerton and colleagues) have highlighted the involvement of the left inferior parietal lobule (IPL, supramarginal gyrus), a region in the short-term phonological store. Consequently researchers hypothesise that the left temporoparietal area may also be a very important component of the phonological loop in Baddeley's working memory model (2000).

As discussed before (and in addition to the above), learners diagnosed with APD experience numerous challenges to their reading and spelling development. Reflecting on the discussion above (which highlights the interplay of working memory, auditory processing and phonological awareness in reading and spelling development), additional support for difficulties in the mapping of cross-sensory correspondences in dyslexia is supported by observational studies that confirm that learners' with APD and developmental dyslexia have difficulty with naming letters early in their lives (Hahn et al., 2014). This may be observed during the initial stages of learning auditory-visual associations – a very challenging and daunting task. Moreover, it has been linked to later reading and spelling success and has also been identified as a strong predictor of both dyslexia and APD (Hahn et al., 2014; Ehri, 2005). This is further corroborated by the fact that individuals with APD and developmental dyslexia struggle to recognize mismatches between written and spoken words, (these mismatches are also known as pseudowords i.e. they are words that meet the phonological criteria of a certain language without being an actual word in the language), when compared with typically developing learners (Hahn et al., 2014; Fox, 1994). A further topic of discussion is whether L1 cognitive-linguistic skills, for example phonological awareness, can transfer to L2 cognitive-linguistic and literacy skills. Researchers argue that this is possible, but postulate that language-specific phonological processing skills and written language acquisition in both languages are dependent on the degree of similarity between the L1

and L2 orthography and phonology (Grant, Gottarde & Geva, 2011). And so thus far it seems that the research findings on the topic of working memory have shown that L1 WM capacity and L2 WM capacity correlate positively and that this significant relationship is language independent (Alptekin et al., 2014).

To summarise the discussion presented in this article, psychometric, behavioural and neurological data (i.e. MRI studies) have demonstrated the inter-relatedness of APD, auditory processing, phonological awareness and working memory by suggesting that short-term memory involves 'higher order' cortical processing, albeit at the early stages of phonological awareness (for example, during phoneme identification, collection, and processing). Available data further suggest that auditory short-term memory may be a universal deficit among all children with APD (Maerlender, 2010). It is also evident that all of these cognitive linguistic skills discussed here (namely working memory, auditory processing and phonological awareness) play a very important role in the development of learners' spelling skills, irrespective of whether the language to be learned is their first (or home language) or an additional language (L2) in both learners with typical and atypical patterns of development (for example, leaners with APD or developmental dyslexia). Furthermore, since learners with APD, specifically struggle with the auditory processing of information and have numerous challenges with regard to phonological coding (and the mapping of sounds and graphemes), they cannot always rely on their knowledge of sound-letter correspondence when writing new words (Alptekin et al., 2014; Listen & Learn Centre, 2010; Darch, Johnson & James, 2000). Consequently researchers have argued that second-language spellers (i.e. English spelling) could possibly benefit from being taught via alternative approaches such as orthographic strategies (Van Berkel, 2004; Wang & Geva, 2003) and fingerspelling. These strategies emphasise the visual and tactile nature of a task and allow children to form mental orthographic images (MOI) of words or visual representations of words based on multi-sensory learning strategies that entail visual-perceptual and tactile coding (Van Berkel, 2004). One could argue that these strategies might be more beneficial when learning the spelling of English words in the absence of intact auditory processing skills, but more empirically validated research is needed to affirm this hypothesis and to expand existing research on the possible role of visual orthographic processing and fingerspelling, and how they can be used to improve ESL learners' spelling development.

Problem Statement and Aims

Research results have shown that the majority of children with learning disabilities have auditory processing difficulties (Iliadou, Bamiou, Kaprinis & Kandylis, 2009). Despite the high prevalence of APD, there has been limited research in South Africa to investigate this phenomenon and how these learners can be supported to develop them into competent spellers. Moreover, focusing on the literacy achievements of South African learners, both educationists and researchers are concerned about the current

state of literacy in our country (Jansen, 2013). This is further corroborated by results from national literacy assessments. Although the most recent available results from South Africa's national literacy assessments show some improvement in the basic reading and writing skills of Foundation Phase learners, the 2014 ANA results have shown that 47% and 45% of South Africa's Grade 4 and 5 learners (respectively) performed below the average of 50% (RSA DBE, 2014). Moreover, the transition from Foundation Phase to Intermediate Phase is sometimes very difficult and stressful for learners and this is reflected in their schoolwork. This transition is all the more difficult for L2 learners who represent the majority of learners in South Africa; thus they need serious long-term intervention (RSA DBE, 2014). In terms of the development of second-language spelling, the majority of research investigating this phenomenon (and, more specifically, learners' difficulties with the processing of the written language) has focused on reading development. Less attention has been paid to the 'output' aspect of written language, namely writing (and spelling) (Baschera, 2011). Moreover, since research findings have shown that many learners have specific delays in the auditory processing of sounds, it is imperative that support strategies should be identified to ensure that they can develop into proficient spellers (Dubitsky, 2014). This research aims to utilise the principles of multi-sensory learning to optimise the spelling development of L2 learners. More specifically it will investigate how a combination of various visual and tactile coding strategies (i.e. fingerspelling) could improve the spelling abilities of L2 spellers in support of their weaker auditory and phonological processing skills.

In line with discussion above, the core purpose of this research is to investigate the spelling challenges of L2 learners with APD, including whether Grade 3 and 4 ESL spellers with APD can benefit from multi-sensory learning strategies that entail visual and tactile coding and specifically the introduction of fingerspelling as a visual tactile coding strategy to enhance ESLs spelling performances.

Research Design and Research Methodology

This research reports the results of a quantitative empirical investigation. It entailed research using an experimental pre-test/post-test research design. In the present study the second author developed a multi-sensory intervention programme to support the short-term memory, phonological awareness and spelling development of learners with APD.

Participants and sampling

The empirical investigation utilised purposive sampling procedures. This research specifically aimed to support learners with auditory processing and spelling delays. This was a prerequisite for learners to be included in this sample. Participants were drawn from Grade 3 and 4 classes from a multi-cultural, English-medium school in the Motheo

district, of the Free State Province, South Africa. The following criteria for inclusion in the sample were applicable:

- Participants had to be in Grade 3 or 4 or aged between 8 and 11 years old.
- They had to be second language (L2) learners whose Language of Learning and Teaching (LOLT) was English.
- Participants had to demonstrate significant delays in their auditory processing skills, including phonological awareness (as measured by the battery of tests – see measuring instruments).
- Participants had to show delays of two years or more when compared to the average child of the same age (as measured by the standardised spelling measures selected as part of the test battery).

With regard to the ethical procedure applicable to the current research, it was approved by the Ethics Board of the Faculty of Education, University of the Free State (UFS-EDU-2013-0074). Informed written consent was also obtained from the principals, teachers and parents from the participating school. The participants were assured of their anonymity.

Data gathering strategies and measuring instruments
The following measuring instruments were administered as pre- and post-test measures:

- RAVENS (as pre-test measure): assesses non-verbal intelligence;
- University of Cape Town Test (UCT) (pre- and post-test measure): measures reading, speed-reading and spelling;
- Visual Aural Digit Span Test (VADS) (pre- and post-test measure): assesses short-term memory; and
- Sutherland English Phonological Test (pre- and post-test measure): evaluates phonological awareness at the levels of syllable, onset-rime and phonemes.

Procedures
A meeting was conducted with the principal and educators at the school before the testing and implementation of the intervention programme. The researcher and educators collaborated to identify the learners who demonstrated significant delays in short-term memory, phonological awareness and spelling development. An information session was also arranged with the parents of the learners. Only learners whose parents had given written informed consent were assessed. After the assessments learners who met the criteria for inclusion were randomly assigned to either an experimental ($n = 22$) or a control group ($n = 22$). The intervention programme was implemented over a period of two school terms. The intervention therapy of the experimental group was carried out by the second author for a period of six months, commencing in June 2015. Learners

received therapy in small groups of four to six learners during normal school hours in a separate classroom – thus via the pull-out system. With regard to the difference between the intervention support offered to the two groups, it should be noted that both the experimental and control groups received interventional support, the only difference being the multi-sensory intervention strategies and the utilisation of fingerspelling by the experimental learners. Learners in the control group were supported via didactic assistance provided by the classroom educator and support teacher(s) at the sample school, during and after normal school hours.

Developing the multi-sensory learning programme

Research has demonstrated that learners with learning disabilities require direct instruction and sufficient scaffolding to be able to apply effective strategies to enhance their learning (Van Staden, 2010). In support of Darch and colleagues (2000), the authors developed an intervention programme that involved multi-sensory learning and specifically included strategies of a visual and tactile (or manual) nature to support the weaker auditory processing skills of ESL learners with APD. As mentioned above (see Procedures), learners were randomly assigned to either the experimental or control group after the administration of the pre-tests. In the discussion below, we highlight the key features of this intervention programme that was implemented in various stages. In addition (as recommended by other researchers), the programme allowed for over learning and reflection, which were continuous processes during the application of this intervention study of two terms (this was applied during each therapy session).

Stage 1:

During the first stage, i.e. prior to the practising of the words, fingerspelling was taught to all ESL learners participating in the intervention programme (conducted by the second author with the assistance of a post-graduate honours student in Psychology of Education).

Stage 2:

During stage 2 the intervention therapy, focused first on enhancing (or improving) ESL learners' short-term memory spans. Secondly different target words were practised utilising visual, oral, tactile and manual coding exercises.

- Short-term memory:

In order to improve the short-term memory different coloured blocks, digit (numbers) cards and sound cards were presented to the learners during visual-oral, visual-written, aural-oral and aural-written activities (by the therapist). For example, during the initial stages different coloured blocks (three to nine) were presented to learners who had either to build with the blocks, name the colours, or colour in patterns

of blocks representing the coloured activity cards that were displayed/presented by the therapist. Similar activities were repeated with digits (numbers) and sounds to reinforce visual and auditory memory and sequential memory including expanding their short term memory spans. All of these activities involved multi-sensory learning activities integrating different modalities/senses of learners, such as visual-oral, visual-tactile, visual-written, aural-oral, aural-tactile and aural-written activities.

- Multi-sensory learning of spelling words

Every second to third week, a new list of words was compiled to be introduced and practised. These lists contained words with regular and irregular spelling patterns (including abstract and concrete words, for example, 'chair' and 'about'). The words were selected from well-known high frequency word lists, for example the Dolch list and they also included words from the class readers being used at the school. Five to ten words were practiced during each therapy session, by utilising the following strategies:

- o Learners had to look at the word, read the word and discuss the characteristics of the word (an example of a target word is 'rabbit'), including the word's meaning and construct an oral sentence with the target word.
- o The therapist produced the South African sign language (SASL) sign word the target word (i.e. rabbit) – this was applicable mostly to concrete words which had a sign equivalent (in SASL).
- o The children modelled the therapist's example (i.e. using sign language) and also produced the sign for the target word (i.e. hand and bodily kinematics).
- o Whilst looking at the flash card with the target word, children practised it using fingerspelling.
- o In the next step the word was fingerspelled again, whilst sounding it out.
- o In addition to fingerspelling and sounding, different tactile mediums were used to reinforce the spelling of words, for example: tracing it in sand; on sandpaper; in jelly and paint; modelling it in clay, etc. – before writing the word from memory.
- o These strategies were all introduced to reinforce the chaining method of linking the visual representation (i.e. the flashcard with the target word), with the tactile version (i.e. the fingerspelled letters), the oral version (i.e. pronouncing the word and emphasising the auditory sounds in the word); and with the written version of the word (i.e. the formation of the different graphemes).

Stage 3:

Continuous assessment and reflection: Every third week, learners were re-assessed on the specific list containing the target words that had been practised during that specific month. Words that were still challenging for the children were included in the next list of twenty words and re-introduced to be practised during the next stage or month.

Stage 4:

This step involved the post-testing of the learners with the same battery of tests administered during the pre-test occasion.

As mentioned before, the multi-sensory training of working memory and spelling words was an interactive and reflective process which involved the therapist's modelling, immediate feedback, active learner participation, self-correcting and positive reinforcement – all of which have been demonstrated to be very successful by previous research (Van Staden, 2010; Darch et al., 2000). One limitation that the researchers would like to note is that before fingerspelling was introduced and learned, the researchers observed that many ESL learners did not know the basic oral sounds (in English) or how to pronounce them. In practice this implied the re-teaching (and relearning) of the oral sounds whilst also teaching them the finger spell equivalent of the specific sound. This meant that we were able to teach fewer spelling words during the intervention period of two terms.

Results

The quantitative data were analysed using non-parametric inferential statistics, namely the Mann Whitney U-test. This test is a nonparametric test of a null hypothesis that compares samples of two independent groups of the same population or the before and after measures of their tests (Pietersen & Maree, 2007). In this way it was determined whether any improvement had taken place after the implementation period of the multi-sensory intervention programme (i.e. by comparing the scores of the pre- and post-test measures of the two groups).

From the results presented in Table 1, it is evident that the experimental and control groups were evenly matched prior to the intervention study and that they did not differ statistically. This was confirmed by statistical analyses using SPSS 22.0 (IBM Corporation, 2013). It showed that the difference between the experimental and control groups were not statistically significant. For example the following analyses were yielded for: Age ($p = 0.39$; $U = 205.5$); Non-verbal intelligence (RAVENS) ($p = 0.85$; $U = 234$); Short-term memory (VADS) ($p = 0.61$; $U = 220$); Phonological awareness ($p = 0.90$; $U = 241$) and Spelling ($p = 0.77$; $U = 229$).

Table 1: Pre-test and Post-test scores of learners with APD in the experimental and control groups: Short-term Memory, Phonological Awareness and Spelling (N = 44)

Group	Pre-test scores			Post-test scores		
	Short-term memory (VADS)	Phonological Awareness	Spelling	Short-term memory (VADS)	Phonological Awareness	Spelling
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Experimental (n = 22)	14.70 (1.50)	35.41 (8.05)	15.45 (6.23)	22.22** (1.74)	41.77* (6.59)	24.72** (3.25)
Control (n = 22)	14.95 (3.38)	35.90 (5.17)	15.59 (4.79)	17.04 (2.23)	37.0 (4.23)	18.01 (5.12)

Note: $p \leq 0.05$*; $p \leq 0.01$**; M = Mean Score; SD = Standard Deviation

Comparing the pre- and post-test scores of the two groups, it is evident that the average pre-test scores of both the experimental and control groups were very weak prior to the intervention therapy. After the intervention period of two terms, the learners in both groups were re-assessed. As depicted in Table 1 the post-test scores of ESLs in the experimental group showed a substantial improvement, with regard to working memory, phonological awareness and spelling development (i.e. post-tests), compared to learners in the control group who also showed a marginal improvement. In order to determine whether the results of this study are statistically significant, Mann Whitney analyses were conducted. The results for short-term memory span, phonological awareness and spelling improved substantially from the pre- to the post-test occasion. Mann Whitney analyses yielded significant results for: Short-term Memory Span: VADS: ($p = 0.00$; $U = 12$); Phonological awareness ($p = 0.01$; $U = 142$) and Spelling ($p = 0.00$; $U = 76$).

From the results reported above, it is evident that in the current study, the implementation of a short-term memory intervention programme in combination with the application of visual and tactical coding strategies, and specifically fingerspelling, systematically guided learners with APD to apply these strategies effectively in order to develop their spelling abilities, whilst their short-term memory abilities and phonological awareness also improved significantly.

Discussion and Conclusion

Our ability to recognise, understand and discriminate auditory information is directly linked to our listening, comprehension and learning capacity. When the auditory skills required for efficient auditory processing are impaired (as in the case of children with APD), acoustic signals are misrepresented in the auditory cortex and are therefore not accurately interpreted by the brain (Listen & Learn Centre, 2010; Ahissar et al., 2000). Inaccurate interpretation results in impaired phonological representations which, in turn, lead to delayed auditory processing skills and weak phonological awareness. Consequently, it affects both reading and spelling development negatively. Researchers hypothesise that problems related to delayed auditory processing cause poor sound encoding and impaired translation of phonological codes to written text (and vice versa) (Alptekin et al. 2014; Maerlender, 2010; Listen & Learn Centre, 2010). Results in the present research project have confirmed learners' weak auditory processing and delayed phonological awareness skills prior to this investigation.

Thus in the present study, the researchers (i.e. the authors) hypothesised that learners with APD would possibly benefit from multi-sensory coding strategies that, inter alia, utilised learners' stronger visual-processing skills, in combination with tactile coding (i.e. the inclusion of fingerspelling) to improve their spelling development. This hypothesis is further strengthened by the available literature and previous research that confirm that, in addition to the role that phonology plays in children's spelling development, the casual role of orthographic knowledge during phonological recoding (and spelling development) should also be emphasised (Wolter, Self & Apel, 2011; Wang & Geva, 2003). This also had specific implications for ESL learners with APD in the current study, and could be used to benefit them. Moreover, because English has a deep orthography and not all words in English can be spelled correctly using letter-sound correspondences (Van Staden, 2010), not only learners with APD but all ESL learners may probably benefit from visual coding strategies, especially when learning words that do not have a strong phoneme/grapheme correspondence (i.e. phonological irregular words).

In further support of considering multi-sensory visual and tactile learning strategies for learners with APD, recent research has shown that spelling is a multifaceted skill which draws on multiple cognitive and linguistic skills and processes such as orthographic knowledge, mental orthographic images, semantic knowledge and morphological awareness (Malstädt, Hasselhorn & Lehmann, 2012). Thus, it is evident that the different cognitive processes that a child employs during spelling are flexible and that both lexical and sublexical skills are employed in order to achieve accurate spelling. For learners with APD this also has meaning because teachers can scaffold the application of visual- and tactile-coding strategies and lexical processing to teach spelling more effectively. These findings (or recommendations) are also in agreement with the dual-route models of spelling development (Rapcsak, Henry, Teague,

Carnahan & Beeson, 2007). And this suggests that both lexical and sub-lexical processes are important for children to develop into competent spellers. As mentioned before, this has specific value for ESLs with APD who have pronounced problems in utilising phonological structures of language (i.e. phonemes/sounds), phonological awareness (PA) and phonological recoding when learning spelling words, since they can be guided (though effective scaffolding) to utilise visual and tactile coding strategies during spelling instruction in the classroom.

Moreover, since the current study explored the efficacy of visual perceptual and tactile coding strategies and specifically the utilisation of fingerspelling to improve the spelling abilities of ESLs with APD, the role of visual short-term memory, and specifically the visual-spatial working memory during spelling development, should also be explained. The role and interplay of orthographic knowledge, visual-perceptual coding and alphabetical transcription when converting verbal language into meaningful words/phrases to be stored in long-term memory has also been emphasised in previous studies (Bourke, Davies, Summer & Green, 2013).

The storage of visual short-term memory is mediated by distinctive posterior brain mechanisms, in such a way that capacity is determined both by a fixed number of objects and by the complexity of the objects (Keogh & Pearson, 2014). Thus it is clear that the involvement of the visual-spatial sketchpad will depend on the lexical and spatial context in which the letters were encoded. In this way a word can be retrieved as a complete visual representation from long-term memory and then a letter-by-letter discrimination process can be done to choose the correct individual grapheme configuration while thinking of the overall letter sequence to produce the correct spelling of a word. Researchers (Wolter et al., 2011) are also of the opinion that it is crucial to have a solid representation of written words in one's long-term memory in order to be able to read and write fluently. In terms of the value of utilising fingerspelling in addition to visual perceptual coding, recently there has been renewed interest in the role of fingerspelling for deaf readers (Williams & Newman, 2016). This included studies investigating the parsing of fingerspelling (Emmorey & Petrich 2012), the acquisition of fingerspelled vocabulary (Happtonstall-Nykaza & Schick 2007), and the identification, matching, and spelling/writing of fingerspelled words (Williams & Newman, 2014; Puente, Alvarado, and Herrera 2006). With regard to investigating the value of fingerspelling for hearing learners, there is a paucity of research into this phenomenon. Recently Williams and Newman (2016) have investigated the relationship between fingerspelling and print during lexical decision making amongst hearing non-native L2 learners in order to explore how activation spreads between these representations. Focusing on the role of fingerspelling for deaf learners, researchers hypothesise that fingerspelling can serve as a cross-modal bridge between ASL and English in that it is a manual representation of the English alphabet, whilst also having some correspondence to ASL signs (Williams & Newman, 2016). Researchers refer to

this technique as 'chaining' since the fingerspelling may contribute to deaf learners' literacy acquisition, by connecting (or acting as a link) fingerspelled words, printed words, and ASL signs (Chamberlain & Mayberry 2000). Researchers further hypothesise that the utilisation of fingerspelling has specific advantages for deaf learners because they acquire fingerspelling early in their lives whilst also learning the associations between the alphabet and fingerspelling at an early age (Williams & Newman, 2016; Johnson, 1994). Since the application of fingerspelling has shown improved literacy performance for deaf learners, one can hypothesise that ESL learners with APD will also benefit by combining fingerspelling, print, and sign language signs in a pedagogical context. Moreover, in further support of this hypothesis, findings suggest that fingerspelling has positive connections with orthography and reading (Williams & Newman, 2016; Mayberry, del Giudice, & Lieberman, 2011; Padden, 2006).

In line with the above, the main question informing this research was to explore whether visual-perceptual coding and the utilisation of fingerspelling can positively contribute to the formation and storage of mental orthographic images of spelling words in the long-term memory of ESL leaners who have been diagnosed with APD. In answering this research question, results from the present study have confirmed this hypothesis, namely that orthographic processing plays a salient role in spelling development, and that spelling is a multifaceted skill which draws on multiple cognitive and linguistic skills (Malstädt et al., 2012). Moreover, it is clear from the results presented previously, that ESLs with APD who had been guided via effective scaffolding to apply orthographic (i.e. visual) coding strategies and fingerspelling to spelling became aware of letter sequences or spelling patterns in words, including how combinations or patterns of letters are strung together to represent certain sounds (van Berkel, 2004). These strategies have proven to be very effective and assisted them to improve their spelling of English words significantly. Thus the results of this study confirm the hypothesis that the spelling of ESLs with APD can significantly be improved by the application of intervention strategies that focus primarily on strategies that draw on the orthographic route of spelling development (i.e. multi-sensory visual and manual/tactile coding strategies such as fingerspelling) to enhance their spelling performances.

Recommendations and Implication of This Research

The current state of literacy (reading and spelling) is a universal concern. Focusing on the South African education context, some researchers even view our literacy standard as a 'national catastrophe' (Jansen, 2013). Considering the paucity of research currently available on the effects that poor auditory processing has on the spelling abilities of English language learners in South Africa, the educational contribution of this study is apparent. First, it addressed the paucity of current findings both within the

South African and the international educational contexts regarding spelling instruction in general, including specific strategies that could be beneficial to English language learners with APD. In the present study, the utilisation of visual and tactile coding in combination with fingerspelling and sign language signs for hearing children makes a very unique scholarly contribution to this field of psycho-linguistics and special education, both in South Africa and internationally. Secondly, within the South African educational environment, the majority of children are ESL learners, whilst the majority of these children still experience exclusion daily. In addition, many educators are not sufficiently trained to support learners with learning disabilities (including children with APD) who require higher levels of support. Consequently it is recommended that this intervention study and strategies be replicated with larger (more representative samples) and that more teachers receive training in basic sign-language skills and fingerspelling to be able to utilise fingerspelling and sign language among hearing children in their classrooms. Moreover, through the development and implementation of this programme amongst larger samples of ESL leaners, more children in our county could benefit directly. Despite this study's successful contribution to research, the researchers would like to note its limitation: the study was implemented at one school only and with a small sample of children (and that the results can therefore not be generalised to all children with APD). Nevertheless, the authors are confident that this findings will expand and improve existing theoretical accounts of spelling acquisition, specifically with regard to improving the spelling of ESLs with APD both in our country (and internationally).

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English Loanwords in the Language of Young, Contemporary Computer Gamers

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Abstract

The following article is about the presence of English loanwords in the language used by young gamers. It is of research nature – it is based on the recognition, around the mother tongue, of primary and secondary school students. It emerges from survey research whose aim was to examine how the language of young Poles is influenced by information technology, especially computer games and films related to gaming. The most important aim of the research was to diagnose to what extent and in what form English vocabulary used in computer games penetrates everyday language of students. It was also important to establish the way in which Polish absorbs loaned vocabulary in natural communication and adjusts it to its rules (inflexion, syntax, word building). The questions prepared for the purpose of the survey examined linguistic intuition of students who had the possibility to choose the lexicon (English word and its Polish equivalent), as well as show the understanding of words typical of computer games which derive from English and are also changed in some way. The research tool also examined the student's lexical competence which was supposed to be directly related to the environment of new technology and computer games as well as examined the use of given lexicon in various syntactic constructs. The foundation for the described results and the topic discussed in this article were the thoughts regarding the role and the influence of new technological and socio-cultural reality and their influence on the changes in the language.

Introduction

Taking under consideration the existence of English loanwords in the language of contemporary young Poles, who are primary and secondary school students, is related to a rapid development of technology, especially IT which determines the function of the modern man in the world, defines his behavior, the way he perceives reality, and finally, the way he communicates with other people. The influence of IT is particularly visible here. For people its existence and development are totally natural elements which accompany them since birth. Digital natives, the representatives for the new type of man so-called *homo zappiens* (Gofron, 2013, p. 65) for whom Guttenberg's era is just history and the echo of former, long gone times, which to some extent are preserved in school environment, are the best example of the powerful impact the technology has on the widely understood development of students. Computer technology has the key meaning here as it reaches children and teenagers via desktop computers, laptops, notebooks, tablets, smartphones, iPhones and iPads as well as programmes and applications available for these devices. The most important here are computer games in their different varieties (on Xbox, PlayStation...) which define the area of entertainment for children and teenagers nowadays and which are becoming the element of everyday life and accompany them in different daily activities, as well as point out the way of communicating with others. In that last area, the influence of games leads to creation of a specific language of gamers and finds its reflection in the language that children and teenagers use every day to their peers and adults. Thus the need to examine this phenomenon – the quality of gamers' language, the extent of English loanwords, the question of understanding and giving them new meanings as well as their relation with grammatical paradigm functioning in Polish. The research results presented in the following text are related to the issues mentioned above.

The Modern Student

The thought regarding the impact of information technology and computer games on the language of today's students needs the definition and the image of the modern young man, especially a teenager who functions in a particular socio-cultural context, is shaped in relation to globalized world of digital technology, expresses specificity of modern times, saves in himself changes in the way of thinking and actions that differ from traditional forms present in societies before the coming of post-modern paradigm.

Admittedly, for the purpose of this research, the student is considered to be the person between 10 and 16 years of age. However, at a general level we can point out some common features which are characteristic of the whole age spectrum and which occur with different intensity and frequency. In order to form a complementary image

of the contemporary student who is being researched, we should try to characterize him using few basic aspects which describe him and the relations he engages into with different phenomena functioning in his closer and farther socio-cultural surrounding. Among the most important and especially worth discussing are:

- relationships with generations of adults (parents, teachers...);
- the question of individualism and socialization, relationships with peer community;
- the relationship towards the notion of nation and state;
- the relation between territorialism and globalism seen in actions and way of thinking;
- the attitude towards native and foreign languages;
- the attitude towards high culture and pop culture especially towards books and the reading process itself;
- the attitude towards information technology;
- the attitude towards knowledge and skills.

The first issue is related to the change of current cultural model which is described by Margaret Mead (Mead, 2000). According to Mead, postfigurative culture based on the domination of the older generation, thus built among others on parents' and teachers' authority, gives way to prefigurative cultural model where the old learn from the young through the access to technological tools. It might also give way to configurative culture where there is a process of sharing experiences and mutual learning from one another both younger and older generations. Therefore, the undisputed authority of people who would usually introduce the world to the younger and explain the mechanisms of its function is questioned. The result of such state of things is questioning by the youth the authority of such institutions as the school, church, state, etc. Denying the achievements and position of older people, who are adults at the same time, creates the need of individuality and emancipation of self for generations of teenagers, which most often shapes in some form of reference to peer group. Admittedly, as the research suggests, it is becoming more and more difficult to point out some stable, axiological elements in generations growing up. Those elements take forms of temporary fashions, continuously present but constantly changing community forms which can be treated as some kind of community substitute. They apply to particular, often small communities, undergo constant changes and modifications, pass away and at the same time they fulfill young people's need of community. They usually take form of belonging to particular tribes, more or less closed internet forums, more or less formalized groups of people sharing the same interest or focused around means of communication established by new digital media. This issue will be discussed in later part of this text. The thought about the group and community must lead to reflection on the question of national community. As well as in many other issues, it is difficult to show uniformity here. One

can rather observe fluidity, polarization of positions, the existence of different world views supported by a rather media oriented perception of things. Even if this issue is not discussed in greater detail, it can be clearly stated that state and national matters understood in a traditional way are not an important point of reference. The country is considered to be the place of birth, family home, and at the same time territorial perspective gives way to global tendencies (Bauman, 2000, p. 10-25). Emotional relationship with a country is substituted by the perspective of being a world citizen and is strengthened by instant access to technological solutions and content which appears everywhere at the same time regardless of time and space. Weakening of ties with a country does not mean being rooted in other places and countries – they too are seen as temporary places which you do not make closer bond with. They are rather treated as objects of modern nomadic tourism. Ununiformity of modern youth groups is also explained by shaping the attitudes of others – based on discovering own history. Sometimes such attitudes become more radical – they take nationalistic forms which also revolve around postmodern identity model named "razor" (Melosik, 2010, p.295-312).

The question of mother tongue can also be considered a complement of relationship between territorialism and globalism. Its importance diminished due to English language which, like Latin in Middle Ages, functions as the language of universal communication, binds thinking about the world in the spirit of globalization, is the tool which makes the cultural message uniform, brings people together above nations and, at the same time, supports the process of americanization of the world under the banners of popular culture, which displaces both what is elite, national and typical of particular nation or culture (Melosik, 2013, p. 114). These tendencies lead to recognition of importance of English and, as a consequence, the emancipation of foreign languages in general as ways of discovering and understanding the world beyond the national perspective. Thus, the fashion among teenage students to learn foreign languages supported by the understanding of adults who are also convinced that being multilingual in modern world may guarantee happy and successful career.

The tendencies shown above are also directly connected with the image of culture where growing up students function nowadays. Globalization processes typical of postmodern reality foster spreading cultural content with the highest degree of absorption, which suits the tastes of the largest number of recipients. By doing so, they support the mass culture which homogenizes tastes and is popular due to possibilities of its distribution via information technology. The dominant form of contact with it is a widely-understood image (Belting, 2007), especially the digital one which young people have connection with from the beginning of their lives and which becomes the most basic tool of cultural initiation. Due to that, the students are natural and interactive receivers of images in receptive processes (Książek-Szczepanikowa, 1996; Sporek, 2010), and it is only natural that they approach mass culture whose basic means of

expression is iconic form. In further development, they are not only the receivers of audio-visual content but its creators who publish their designs in Internet and look for their receivers within peer groups. At the same time they are skeptical towards reading process, mainly traditional reading. More eagerly, despite obvious limitations, they choose books which can be discovered through a laptop screen or an e-book reader (Szymańska, 2014, p. 154-155). While searching for books attractive for them, they turn back from classics and choose works referring to their experiences or fantasy reality, which is often discovered by computer games played by them. They draw their attention to older works when the first contact with them was preceded by a film or a comic book (Urbańska-Galanciak, 2009, p. 165-182) – such forms of interaction with known works visibly eliminate various receptive barriers, which would possibly emerge while reading traditional book not preceded by the contact with e.g. screen adaptation. Although young people choose games, films or comics rather than books, they feel the need to create i.e. write. A somewhat natural space for them is Internet where they express themselves in the form of organized blogs (in different variations) and on internet forums or social networking websites which are places where they express their new *online identity* (Hopfinger, 2013, p. 5). At the same time, their utterances have syncretic character – they combine verbal and image communication (emoticons, memes, photos…) which express the identity of authors and also are the record of communication tendencies. The preference to use Internet or computer devices paints another picture of modern generation of teenagers. Young people in a natural way mastered the use of computers in their everyday reality and are easily able to use newer and newer forms of multimedia devices and compatible software. It is not desktop computers but laptops, tablets and smartphones that have become the basic centers of knowledge, culture and entertainment, as well as the most popular devices of individual or group communication. The development of computer industry in a great degree influenced the availability of access to computer games – their existence on mobile multimedia devices had a huge impact on the time devoted to them by young people. Thus, the way they influence world perception increased as well as the development of means of communication directly related to technological and environmental possibilities of particular computer games and their impact on the language of their users. The trust in technology is accompanied by underestimating the knowledge which in the past was the foundation of learning process and education, and now as is claimed by Anthony Giddens, is devoid of the sense of certainty and reliability (Giddens, 2008, p. 28). This results from the feeling of wide-spread availability of knowledge which is complex and diverse and can be accessed instantly and without limitations. The problem for the modern student, who is aware of the whole situation, is the feeling of too much information which need constant selection and verification in terms of their credibility and usefulness. Umberto Eco describes this state accurately by noticing that the excess of information means constant lack of it at the same time (Eco, 2002, p. 538).

Such an image of modern generation of children and the youth seems to cross the boundaries of particular nations, has the signs of universality which emerges from common globalization processes driven by the impact of new digital media and the development of communication via modern technology. Certainly, it applies to Western societies and it also applies to young Poles who are students at primary and secondary schools. In order to complement it, one can refer to the issues connected with education. More and more freedom of Polish children and teenagers in contact with English is conditioned by priorities of system education. What is important is the fact that the contemporary student in Polish school has a constant and obligatory contact with English. The classes start in kindergarten. They are intensified in primary and secondary school. Students have them in small groups, divided according to their level. That is why the contact with English through school complements the one in virtual reality and vice versa. What occurs is feedback: education facilitates the use of the language in Internet and in contact with modern technology, and the connection with English in cyberspace supports learning process at school. Such phenomenon clearly influences the shape of mother tongue – the way it forms, transforms, is built in relation to its English influences.

The contact with English at school overlaps the one resulting from everyday reality. Americanization of life, role models coming from overseas, the creations of culture coming from there strengthen the necessity to have basic skills in using English. This phenomenon is related to modern man's different areas of life. English shows its strong presence in business, politics (meeting, agenda, briefing, and road map), culture (performance, casting) as well as in everyday life (tablet, lunch, dressing). English loanwords are an important, constantly changing element of sociolects which are created both around professional and youth groups joined by some kind of common interests e.g. skates, hipsters, hip-hop fans, rappers, gamers. The words deriving from English are also an important part of the vocabulary used by gamers. The direct cause of this phenomenon is the presence of English in games. However, as the research showed, gamers not only use English words but they also perform various operations on them adapting them for the purpose of their mother tongue.

Loanwords

The borrowing process is dynamic and is about penetrating, adapting and extending the new element until the feeling of lexical unit being foreign disappears (Kleparski, 2001). Loaned forms can be moved without changes (importation) or substituted with native forms (substitution) (Fisiak, 1961). General classification of loanwords is based on three criteria: the subject of loanword (proper, structural, semantic, artificial loanwords), the origin and degree of acquisition (quotes, loanwords partially acquired, complete loanwords). In the case of discussed research, the last criterion will be of the greatest importance as in the researched language material one can find lexemes which

can be considered proper loanwords from English. They differ according to the level of acquisition. This criterion informs of the extent to which the vocabulary settled down in a particular lexical system. Thus we can distinguish:

- quotations – words and expressions deriving from other language in an unchanged graphical and phonetical state.
- loanwords partially acquired – foreign words and expressions which have simplified pronunciation and spelling, are uninflected or have original pronunciation and undergo Polish inflection.
- full loanwords – words and expressions coming from foreign languages, felt as native due to Polish form and inflection.

Research Methodology. The Description of Research Tool

The research was carried on 189 students from schools in Cracow (primary school – 121 people – 70 boys and 51 girls, secondary school – 66 people – 28 boys and 38 girls). Its fundamental aim was to recognize loanwords used by young gamers of different ages and on different levels of education with a particular interest in English loanwords. Another essential issue was the extent of understanding the words deriving from English by gamers and relating this to their mother tongue by observing the way the borrowings function in Polish and the degree of their acquisition to spelling forms typical of the Polish language.

The research tool consisted of a survey form. It consisted of four questions. The first question pointed out English loanwords and their Polish versions. The students' task was to choose the form which seemed more accurate, and the one they would use. Below is the list of words around which the students were asked to make a choice:

original spelling/spelling close to original	Polish form
cheat	czit
noob	nob
combos	kombos
trailer	trejler
finisher	finiszer
campić	kampić
level	lewel
look	luk
mods	mody

The second task consisted of examples of lexemes which were loaned from English. Many of them have already been transformed and have become similar to constructs typical of Polish. The students' task was to explain the meanings of the words given:

awatar (Polish version of English noun *avatar*), *solucja* (formal and meaningful equivalent of English lexeme *solution), quest, teaser, noob, combos* (noun deriving from English *combo*), *finisher, farming, campić* (verb deriving from English *to camp*), *lagować* (verb deriving from English *to lag*), *tagować* (English *to tag*), *levelować* (verb deriving from English noun *level*), *grindować* (verb deriving from English *to grind,* and even if one analyzes the meaning – *to grind away at*) and *crafting* (calque of English gerund).

The third task enabled the students to independent language search. They could put in different words which, according to them, are typical of the Polish language used by computer users or in computer games and which could be used in game environment as well as on Internet forums commenting films which show "a walkthrough" to particular games. Its aim was to extend the scope of observation by words not included in the study which function in the vocabulary of children and teenagers, especially those who play computer games.

The fourth task pointed out three words: *farming, spojler* (Polish spelling of English *spoiler*), *lagowanie* (noun from English *to lag*). According to the instruction, the students had to create three sentences, each with one of the words given. The aim of this task was to examine the extent to which the words given (two of them being transformations of English words) settled down in Polish – the way they are understood, how they adjust to Polish inflection paradigms and what are the mechanisms of creating new words from them (word building processes).

One of the important problems while designing the survey was the choice of vocabulary because one of the consequences of diverse computer games is its variety and abundance, as mentioned above. In the described case, the decisive criterion was the frequency of its use. The material gathered and used in the research came from observed Internet forums for gamers, comments shared under the films on YouTube which showed "walkthrougs" of games, records from gamers' online sessions, as well as the press for users of such programmes (above all 'Cd-action' magazine). As a result, the list of lexemes was created which does not claim to be complete and is a trial which constitutes a characteristic survey and can be a starting point to narrow down the area of observation, modify research tools and survey the respondents, as well as to compare the results obtained in time etc.

The form also included questions about age and sex as well as the amount of time they spend weekly playing computer games and watching films connected with this form of entertainment (so-called gameplays). The time lapses were divided into three levels and were designed as follows: level I – between 0 and 10 hours a week; level II – between 10 and 20 hours a week; level III – above 20 hours a week. The research assumed that the time spent on playing computer games and watching *gameplay* films can have a vital impact on the quality of answers given by the respondents.

The Report on Research Results
Task 1.
Circle the form which you would use in e.g. a commentary below a film or during an online game etc.

| cheat/czit	trailer/trejler	level/lewel
nob/noob	finisher/finiszer	look/luk
combos/kombos	campić/kampić	mody/mods

The aim was to examine to what extent the chosen words, which often appear in the language of gamers, settled down in Polish. One of the indicators of this rooting was making the spelling Polish.

Chart no. 1. The decision of choice making (primary and secondary school)
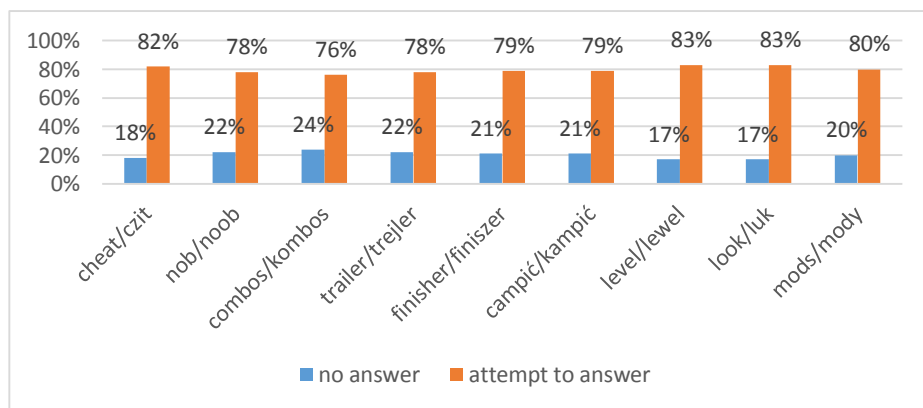
As shown on the chart below, the majority of respondents from both levels of education decided to make a choice among proposed two forms of spelling. The number of the undecided varied in each case by around 20%.

Chart no. 2. The choice of spelling (primary and secondary school)
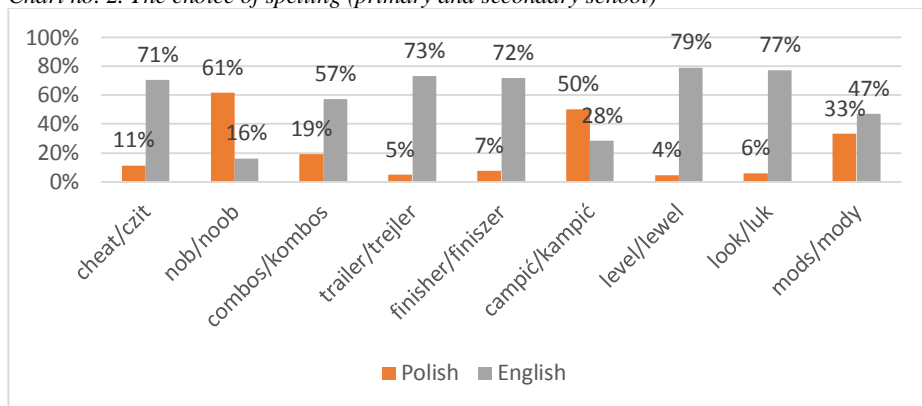
The preferences also seem to be obvious. As shown on the next chart (chart no. 2.) the majority preferred the English (the closest to original) spelling. Only in two cases more people decided to choose the Polish spelling: *nob/noob* and *campić/kampić*. In the first case the spelling was simplified as double *o* does not exist in Polish, whilst in the second case the choice was made due to the spelling which was consistent with pronunciation.

If we separate levels of education, it turns out that in case of primary school students (aged 10 -12) the choices were shaped in the following way:

Chart no. 3. The choice of spelling (primary school)
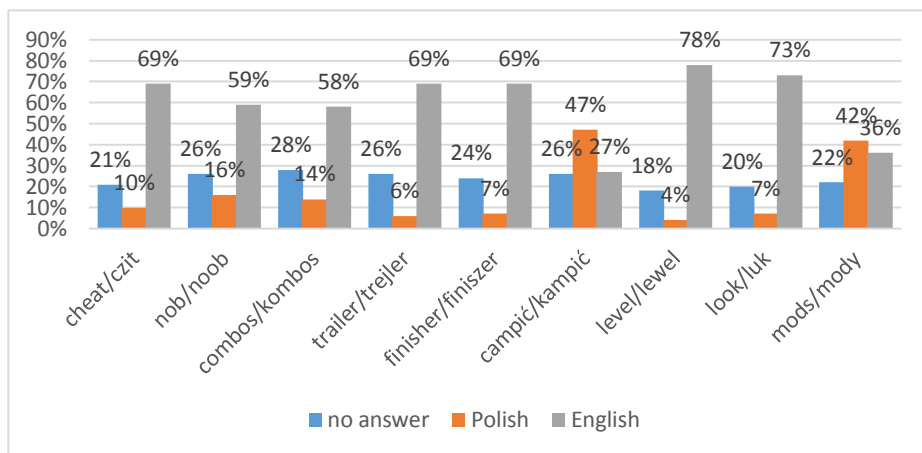
As shown on the chart above, the students from primary school definitely preferred English spelling (the closest to original). Only in two cases more people decided to use Polish spelling: *mods/mody* and *campić/kampić*. In the first case, a typical f Polish way of showing plural form of masculine nouns was chosen, whilst in the second the spelling consistent with the pronunciation.

However, in the case of secondary school students (aged 13 – 16) the choice of answers is as follows:

Chart no. 4. The choice of spelling (secondary school)
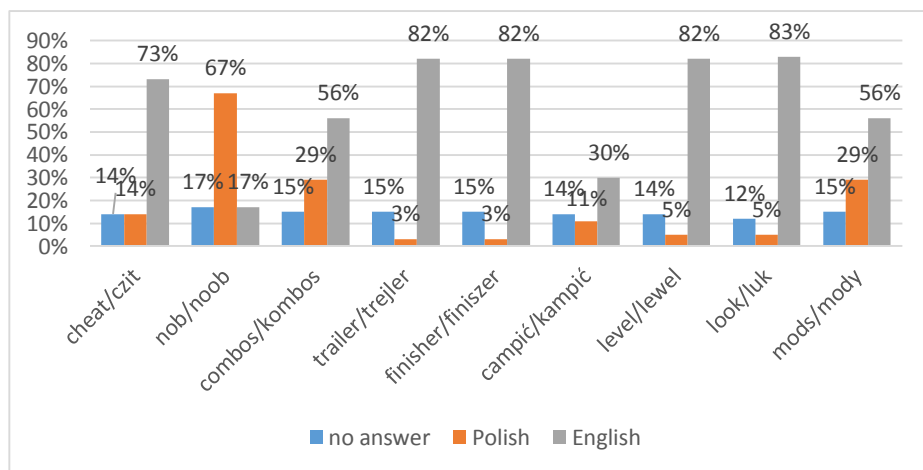
The comparison of results clearly shows that secondary school students more often decided to complete the task. Their choices expressively pointed out that the preferred spelling is closer to English original. A clear difference can be seen in four cases. The students more often chose the Polish spelling of the noun *noob* (67%) while primary school students more often preferred the original spelling. A similar phenomena, although on a smaller scale, can be observed in the case of lexemes *combos/kombos*. The correlation of choices in the case of words *mods/mody* and *campić/kampić* shows the dominance of Polish spelling in case of students from the earlier level of education.

Task 2.

Explain the meaning of the words: awatar, solucja, quest, teaser, nob/noob, combos/kombos, finisher/finiszer, farming, campić/kampić, lagować, tagować, lewelować/levelować, grindować, crafting/krafting.

The aim of this task was to check the understanding of given words which in majority derive from English (however, spelling was also taken into account). As the foundation for understanding the analysis of meanings of particular lexemes we assumed, on the one hand, Polish dictionaries (in an online version which notes down the use of words in games as well as updated often), and on the other hand definitions formed by the players which are gathered in online dictionaries, as well as (in case of being in doubt as to which word to use) definitions used on various Internet portals. Due to large number of English loanwords, English-spoken forums and websites proved to be helpful as well as dictionaries.

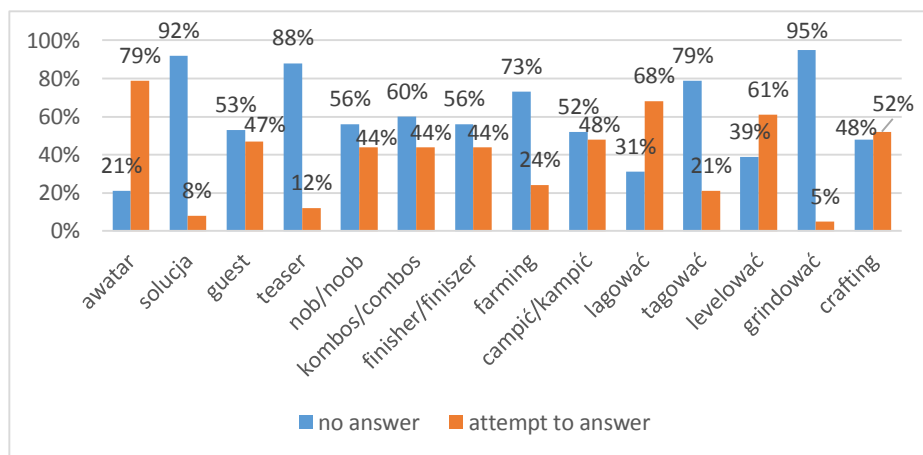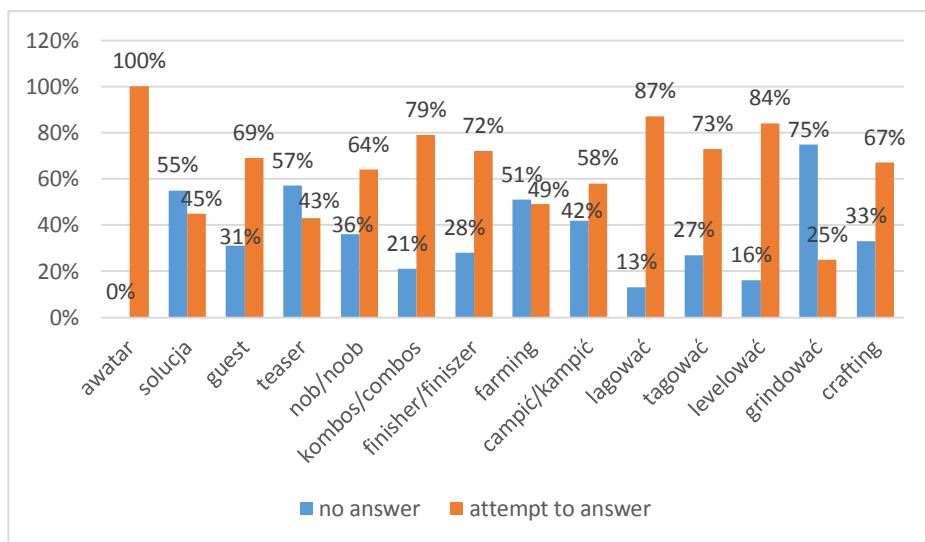*Chart no. 5. Attempt to answer/No attempt to answer (primary school)*

Chart no. 6. Attempt to answer/No attempt to answer (secondary school)

   The analysis of results shows that students of secondary school more often decided to try to give the answer. In one case all the respondents behaved in such a way *(awatar),* which in relation to primary school students did not take place. At the same time, two of the following charts prove that the students from secondary school were significantly better at explaining the meanings of the words given. It may result from higher linguistic competence at English and better knowledge of Polish (which is essential when it comes to expressing one's thoughts) as well as better understanding of surrounding information technology and being more self-confident.

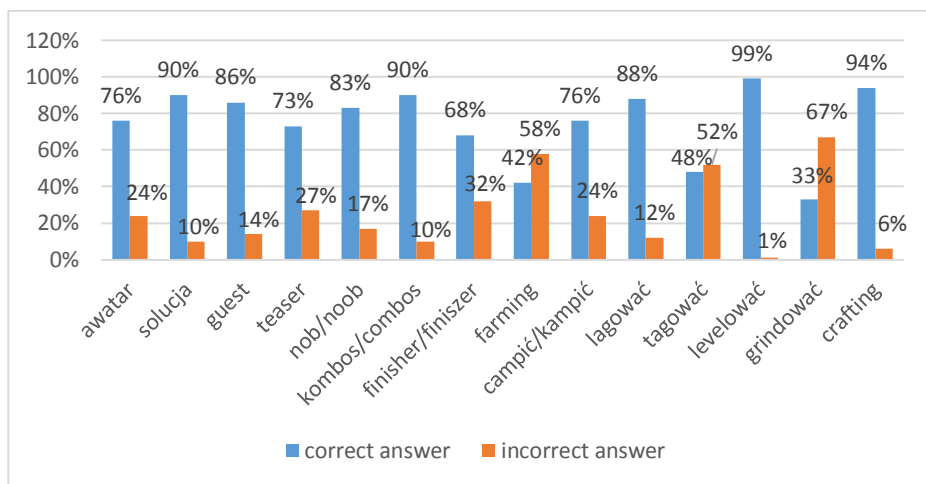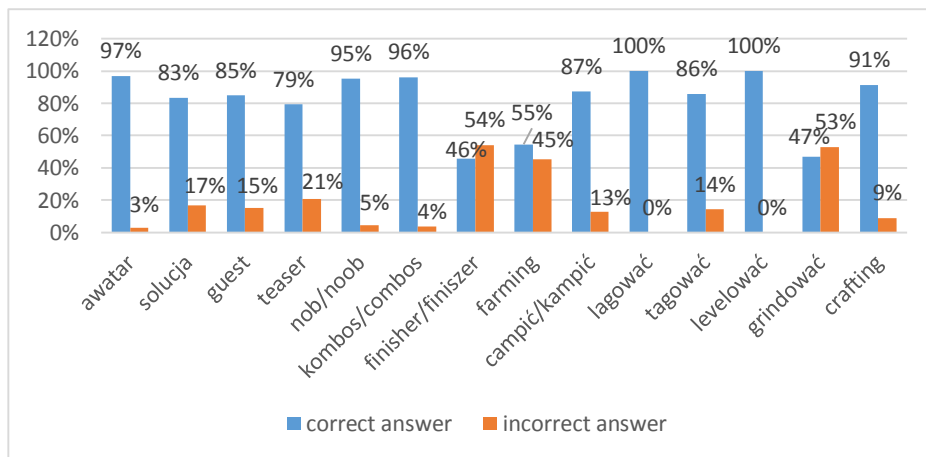Chart no. 7. Correct and incorrect explanations (primary school)

Chart no. 8. Correct and incorrect answers (secondary school)

The analysis of collected answers shows that the vast majority of secondary school students understands well the meaning of lexemes *awatar* (an image used for social

networking profile, player's character in a game), *nob/noob* (a poor player), *tagować* (mark), *kombos/combos* (series of hits), *crafting* (creating, building). The interesting thin g is that all the respondents explained the verbs *lagować* (to freeze) and *lewelować* (to gain next levels). These words were understood well also by responents from primary school (except for *tagować*), although the number of correct answers was not as high. Only in the case of the noun *finisher* (a finishing hit), younger respondents showed better understanding of the meaning.

Task 3.
Give examples of other words used by gamers.

This time the respondents could themselves give the examples of other words typical of computer games environment. Most of them (especially younger students) decided not to give an answer which is shown by the chart below.

*Chart no. 9. Attempt to answer/No attempt to answer*
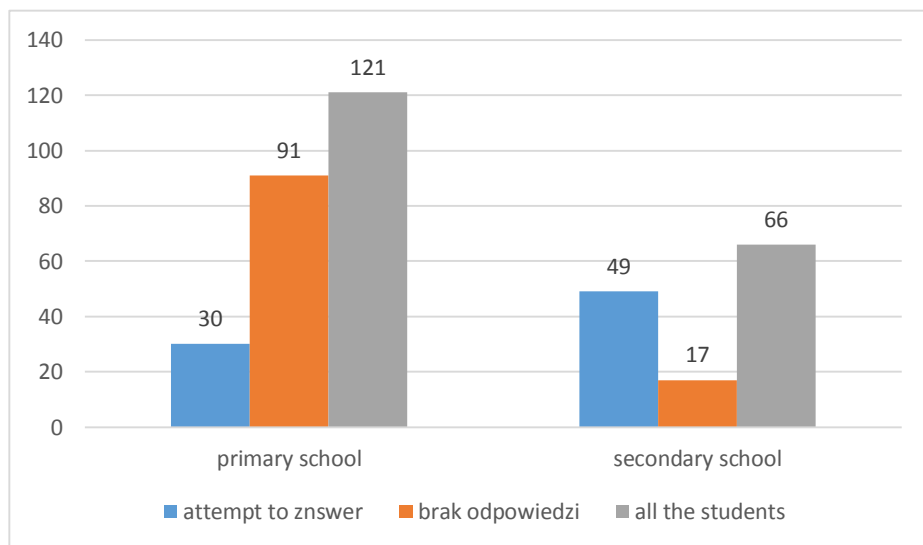
The chart shows data in relation to the number of people. If we present the date as percentage, we can notice that the proportions between given and not given answers on different levels of education are identical (25% of answers, 75% lack of answers). However, if we take into account the number of people who took part in the survey, it turns out that secondary students were more willing to complete this task. Their answers

were also of better quality. The answers of younger respondents did not record universal vocabulary typical of computer game users at all or showed individual preferences of players – based on the answers, it was easy to define which games particular people played. The study did not allow to establish convincing ranking lists of particular words due to low recurrence of answers. It showed the tendency to use abbreviations (often English acronyms of phrases and expressions e.g. OMG – Oh my God) and to create words which follow the rules of Polish grammar founded on English loanwords. Some examples are: *dednąć* – to die (English *death*), exp**ić** – gain experience (English *experience;* also abbreviation *exp.*), banow**ać** – to block (English *ban.*). The particles marked in the words above are typical of Polish impersonal forms of verbs. The tendency observed allows us to assume that Polish gamers do not have any objections to experimenting on language material – in this case to creating verbs from English noun forms and to adjusting them to the Polish inflection paradigm.

At the same time, the sex of the respondents had a major impact on the results. On both levels of education more answers were given by boys than by girls, which is shown on the chart no. 10.

*Chart no. 10. Attempt to answer/No attempt to answer (primary school)*
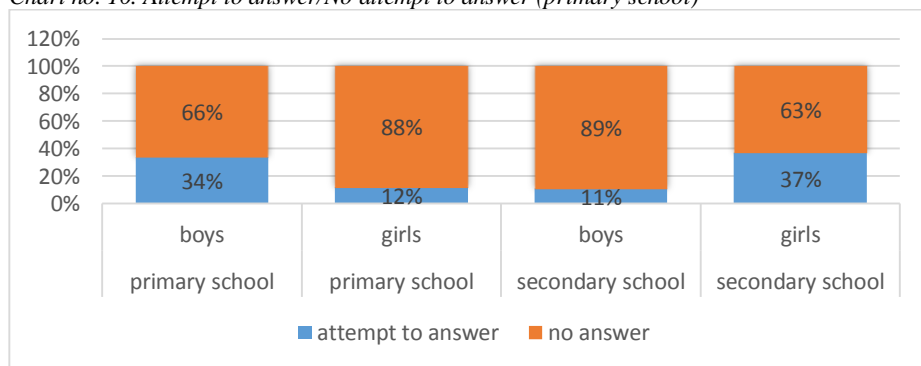
Task 4.

Create one sentence with the following words: farming, spojler, lagowanie (you can change the form of the words as you wish).

Intentionally, the task was to check if the words given are used in practice – the way they are changed according to Polish inflection, what word building actions they trigger when they appear around created sentences. Three of the words clearly differed. The word farming was used according to the correct English form. However, the word spojler was already a Polish version of English spoiler and it has been assumed that it

would be understood by students as unwanted information about the plot/content of a book, film or a game, which was generally proved by respondetns' answers. The third word was lagowanie (English lag – to delay) – the original form has already been the subject of transformation which resulted from inflection used in Polish. In order not to limit the freedom of expression of the respondents, there was a note in the task informing that changing forms of the words given to adjust it to the situation is allowed.

Chart no. 11. Creating sentences with the words given (primary school)
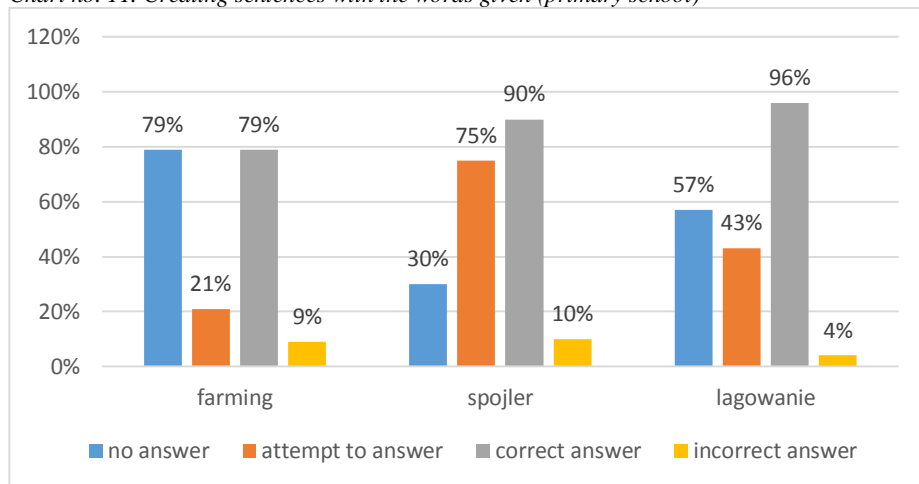
The analysis of the surveys conducted at primary school proves that the task was difficult for students. A particular obstacle was the first of the proposed lexemes where as many as 79% of respondents did not propose any sentence. In other cases more attempts have been noted, vast majority of them being correct[1].

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[1] In the case of correct and incorrect answers the point of reference is always the number of all the answer attempts.

Chart no. 12. Creating sentences with the words given (secondary school)
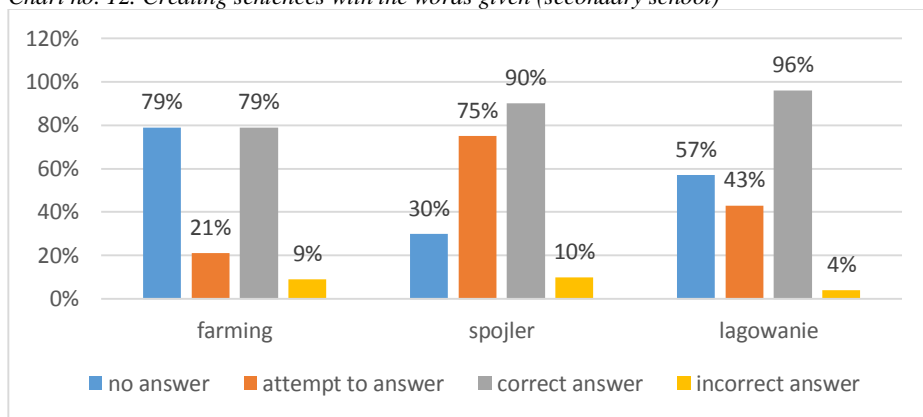
In the case of respondents from a higher level of education, the higher interest in the task was noticed. The surveys provided more correct answers as well. In each case they were as high as 100%.

A more detailed analysis of students' propositions shows the following regularities:

farming – the lexeme *farming* appeared in verb forms. It is important that the respondents created two verbs from the same stem: *farmingować* and *farmić*. Both verbs were inflected according to Polish grammar (conjugation I – *farmingować* and conjugation II – *farmić*). The verbs mentioned also undergo the rules of derivation with Polish prefixes: *po-farmić, s-farmiguję, po-farm (mi), wy-farmiłem.* In the gathered material one could also find noun forms *farming/farminga* which are inflected in the same was as Polish masculine nouns.

spojler – in the studied material one could notice the verb form *spojlerować* inflected according to conjugation I. Most often there were imperative forms in the examples (*Nie spojleruj!),* as well as forms of past tense (*spojlerował).* The lexeme also underwent word buliding transformations e.g. *za-spojlerował, ze-spojlerował.* In the noun form, it was inflected as nouns in masculine form.

lagowanie – based on the material gathered, it is impossible to define the type of conjugation. The examples collected prove the meaning of the lexeme only in relation to 3rd person *komputer laguje, gra laguje (mi).* There also appeared reflexive forms e.g. *komputer/gra/sieć, internet laguje się.* It results from the context of its use where the problem of software freezing occures independently oof the user/player. The respondents also created verb forms with the prefixes: *za-lagował, z-lagował.* The noun forms proved the existence of the phenomenon in singular and plural form (*lag, lagi*) and its typical inflection of nouns in masculine form.

A more interesting phenomenon was the emergence of examples where the verb *lagować* stops referring to devices but describes a state in which a person is (*Co się tak zlagowałeś)* in order to describe a momentary loss of contact with reality.

The operations performed by the students on the lexemes given show that for the respondents taking part in the survey, they are rooted in Polish. Most often we deal with quotations – words which keep their original form as well as loanwords which are partially acquired. The students eagerly simplify the spelling, use Polish grammar rules but they retain the original spelling. The novelty is the pace of the observed changes. The vocabulary used by the students gains the features showing a particular rooting, in an instant way, without the support of any authority. The decision regarding the change or use of the lexeme as a stem to create new words depends only on the courage of a particular user.

Conclusions

The study conducted among primary and secondary school students allowed to draw a few fundamental conclusions:

1. The study proved that vast majority of children and teenagers very often use computer games and watched films in Internet which are connected with gaming environment. It is not always accompanied by being aware of the language present there, but it has a clear impact on communication practice of users of such materials.
2. Secondary school students performed significantly better in the study. They not only gave more answers (percentage) to the questions asked but those answers were also more accurate (percentage).
3. The research also proved higher level of linguistic competence of older respondents, both in the area of mother tongue and English. It might show that the competence in English has a direct influence on competences related to use and understanding the language of gamers.
4. An important feature of gamers' language are English loanwords which undergo various transformations (inflection, derivation, spelling simplification).
5. The use of vocabulary loaned from English enables gamers to be creative in the language area – to form new words based on loanwords as well as broadening the meanings of words already present in Polish.

The language of gamers is the language which "constantly is in the stage of creation and changes and these the changes occur faster than in general language. It is a kind of miniature where we can observe some changes and linguistic phenomena" (Gądek, 2009, p. 225). We can also assume that the development of computer games market, the rise in the average age of players will not remain without influence on general Polish, thus the necessity to observe the tendencies which are present in this sociolect.

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Brueghel's Two Monkeys –
a Tiny Painting by Bruegel, a Very Short Poem by Szymborska and the Biggest Problems of Mankind

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Abstract

There is a great power in works of art. Art provides knowledge about human experience, which is not available in another way. Art gives answers to the most important and eternal questions about humanity, even though these answers are never final. Sometimes it happens that works of some artists encourage or provoke a reaction of other artists. Thanks to this in history of culture – across borders of time and space – there lasts a continuous dialogue, a continuous reflection on the essence of human existence.

This text shows a fragment of such a dialogue, in which the interlocutors are a sixteenth-century painter Pieter Bruegel the Elder and a twentieth-century poet and Nobel Prize winner Wislawa Szymborska. Szymborska, proposing a masterful interpretation of a tiny painting by Bruegel, poses dramatic questions about human freedom, formulates a poetic response and forces a recipient to reflect on the most important topics.

This text also brings up a question of a word – picture relationship, a problem of translation of visual signs to verbal signs, as well as a problem of translation of poetry from one language to another.

It is one of the smallest paintings by Peter Bruegel the Elder. Only twenty centimetres by twenty-three, though the artist is more known for works of a bigger format. No people, though very often the author of *Massacre of the Innocents* paints

crowds. Instead of that, just two monkeys. A view of the port, which is quite dim. And a few birds in the air out of whom only two can be actually clearly seen.

In the whole history of painting it is difficult to find a more inconspicuous painting, which at the same time would be so hard to ignore. There is something about it that draws one's attention, tells us to take a look and even to wonder why it happens like that. One experiences similar feelings when suddenly realises that they are intensively observed by someone.

A friend of the painter, a famous Flemish geographer and an author of maps, Abraham Ortelius, used to claim that Bruegel's works contain "always something beyond the painting that one has to understand" (*Bruegel* 10). In context of this miniature work, the aforementioned remark seems to be especially accurate. The depicted scene has more meaning, and this meaning can be seen only if one looks beyond the picture. An access to this invisible, but embedded in the work, content is possible though only by what we ultimately see in the picture. And this is a strategy which we are going to follow: at first, as much as it is possible, let's describe a realistic "surface" of the work, and then let's try "to go deeper."

A tiny painting by Bruegel
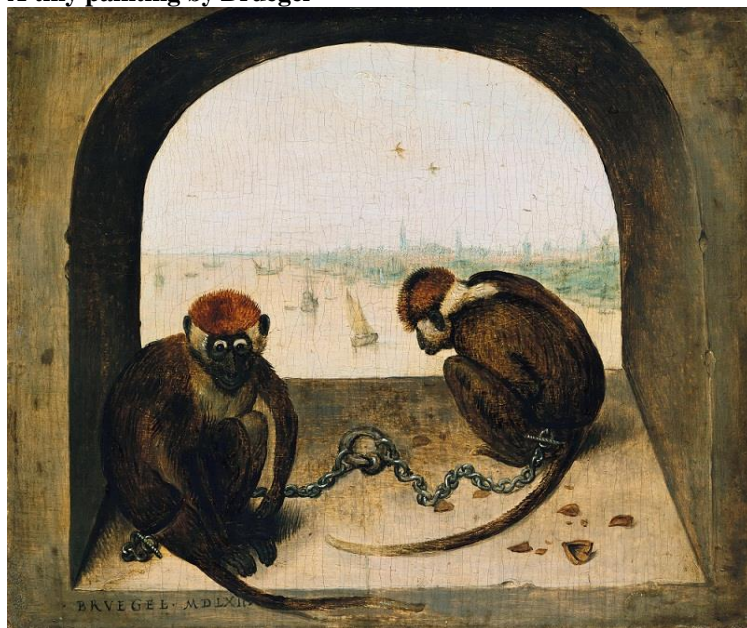
Peter Bruegel the Elder, Two Monkeys, 1562, oil on panel, 20 cm × 23 cm, Gemäldegalerie, Berlin.

The work was painted with a great precision and a concern for details. The artist framed the view in such a way that a recipient has an impression of being inside of some enormous building, maybe a fortress situated near the port. We can see how thick and massive the walls are, even though we look from the perspective of quite a dark interior against the light. We can almost feel the cold of the wall, which is actually not much thinner than a height of the window.

The whole space of the painting is clearly divided into two parts. In the foreground, close to the onlooker, as if within a hand's reach, there are the aforementioned two monkeys, sitting on the windowsill. Even though the work is very small and old (1562), it is easy to recognise that the animals belong to species called red colobus. Obviously a windowsill of some building in a big city is not their natural habitat. Their presence can be associated with the port seen through the window. Somebody must have captured these creatures in Africa and brought them to Europe as an exotic attraction, maybe as an original present for somebody important and rich. One might actually admit that the gift, taking into consideration those times and place, was probably quite attractive. It is not only the fact that they are monkeys, that is, animals coming from exotic countries to which many people would like to travel but only a handful succeeds, but it is also the fact that these species look very interesting as far as their colour is concerned. The monkeys are also not so big. Adult male red colobus individuals reach 70 centimetres at most. They do not look aggressive either.

Of course in Europe it is impossible to keep these animals at large. They would run away very quickly and probably in this unfriendly environment they would also die very quickly, or become victims of people or wild animals. Their situation is obvious then: "for their own good" they are sentenced to enslavement and feeding. And this is what happens in Bruegel's painting. The monkeys have been chained to a thick, round handle situated in the middle of the windowsill. The chains are very solid, maybe even too solid for small animals like these. Next to the monkeys, there are food leftovers, probably nutshells. The little animals sit and are cringed. One of them looks at "us", and the other one, sitting almost turned back to us, keeps its head down. They are motionless. Of course they could make some moves, but only around the space of the small window. This is the maximum the short chain makes possible for them to do. The window, half-round at the top makes an impression of a tiny, concrete cell. This effect is achieved by means of a clever compositional solution of this work as this space actually could be graphically shown by means of two figures: a circle or a spiral.

The closed circle is a result of connecting the top arch of the window, which, through the side lines of the walls, ends with an optical continuation at the bottom, where one can see another arch, this time constructed by the monkeys' tails (picture 1). The compositional spiral is much clearer and suggestive, though. It could be drawn, starting from the metal handle to which both chains are attached, and which is situated in the centre of the windowsill. The spiral "unfolds" anticlockwise: starting from the handle,

then going through the tail and the contour of the monkey's back (the one sitting on the right side), and next through the contour of the back and tail of the monkey sitting on the left side. Next, the line has a continuation on the outward edge of the window on the right side and through the top arch of the window it closes on the left side, behind the back of the monkey which looks at "us" (picture 2). Schematically, both compositional figures could be presented in the following way:

picture 1
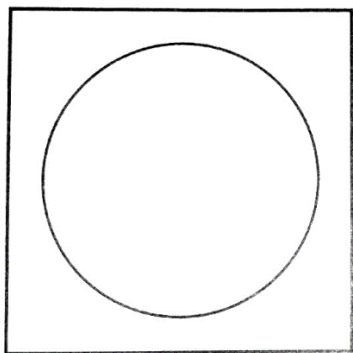
picture 2
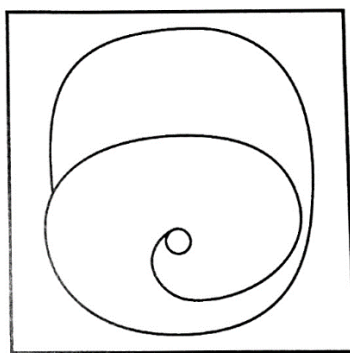
Instead of a back wall of the "cell", in which the monkeys are kept, we have a wonderful panorama of the port city. And this is the second, possible to distinguish space of the painting: an open, bright and sunny view. What we know is the fact that it is a view over Antwerp, a one-hundred-thousand metropolis, the then European capital of commerce. Bruegel knew this city very well because he lived there for a few years and that was also the place where he painted *Two Monkeys.*

Ships of the whole Old and the New World were coming to the port of Antwerp. "All of the major trading houses of Europe – the Gualterotti family in Florence, the Fugger and Weiser families in Augsburg, the Spinoli, Bonuisi and many other families had trading posts in Antwerp, "the city of wonders." It must have been an incredible and astounding view for the newcomers to see thousands of foreign wagons and vehicles from nearby villages coming to Antwerp every day. And when sometimes a few hundreds of huge freighters were dropping their anchors into the sea" (Menzel 13).

And that is actually the image of the "city of wonders" which we can see behind the window of Bruegel's painting: a huge port overlooking a broad water surface, dozens of ships of various size approaching the shore or leaving for their voyage, a densely

built-up shore, church towers, a windmill[1]… The space reaching up to the line of horizon. Bright and sunny. Calm water, air, birds flying freely. It is difficult to resist an impression that Bruegel did care about the contrast between the narrow, dark window and the bright outside world. The difference becomes even clearer when the most important components of both spaces get juxtaposed in the table:

	the window space	the space outside of the window
I.	two monkeys in an unnatural environment	two (clearly visible) birds in a natural environment
II.	a small, narrow interior	a huge, open space
III.	stillness	motion (birds flying, ships sailing)
IV.	dark colours	bright colours
V.	cold of the wall	sunny warmth
VI.	precision of details representation, clear lines	blurred view (air perspective)
VII.	here (the place of both monkeys and the recipient	there

The above juxtaposition naturally results in oppositions going beyond literal meanings:

	the window space	the space outside of the window
I.	closure	openness
II.	enslavement	freedom
III.	reality in which we function	reality that is for us inaccessible

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[1] "Two basilicas, eight canals and seventy-four bridges which cross them, twenty-two plazas, forty-two huge buildings made Antwerp some kind of a museum of architecture, where one could find all the styles ever invented that were blooming with an unprecedented excess" (Francis 23).

And here we step out of the level of "the content which was painted", as previously mentioned Abraham Ortelius wrote, to enter "the content which needs to be understood." And what we probably "need to understand" most of all is the fact that Bruegel creates a work of allegorical character. He paints monkeys, but does not only talk about the monkeys. The content "which was painted" makes a much more profound sense. Let's try to discover this sense.

The monkeys' fate is foregone. They are enslaved and sentenced to a wretched existence forever. They live in stillness, chained, literally and metaphorically, to the window. They are dependent on their master, who wields absolute power over them and who – from their perspective – is basically some kind of an absolute. The master feeds them when he wants and with food that he chooses. And the monkeys need to reconcile with that. What is more, they must be grateful for that. This is a condition to survive. Rebellion does not make sense and actually it is even impossible. The only gesture which the little animals can make is a desperate try to jump further than the chain makes it possible for them to do. Towards one or the other direction: the outside or the inside. Every time the effect would be similar. A little bit funny, a little bit grotesque, a little bit pathetic. In an extreme case it would be death. But even this death would not mean setting oneself free from the chain, but rather hanging in emptiness, void. So there is a following alternative: you live enslaved, fully aware of your situation, or you do not live at all.

Bruegel shows the desperate existential situation of the monkeys in many different ways. One of these are already mentioned compositional solutions. What indicates the enslavement and an inability to get out of the given space is a closed figure of circle. The compositional spiral, thrust into the niche of the window, evokes an additional tension, which even more exposes the tragedy of the prisoners' fate. What also cannot be ignored is the fact that the painting – if we can say something like this – does not have a central plan. We can see the space of enslavement (the window) and the space of freedom (the outside panorama), in which elements like, the bird flying, the ship sailing, the sky, the water, take on a particular, symbolic meaning. Between the first and the latter world a huge precipice appears. And this precipice is impossible to cross, even if the monkeys were not chained to the window. The perspective used by the painter suggests that the window is very high. Too high to make the desperate monkeys survive a potential jump. It is cruel to seemingly make freedom within a reach of one's hand, but to make it so inaccessible. The invisible boundary (the back wall of the "cell") is impossible to cross. The prisoners can watch the freedom space which is so close to them, but cannot get there. This awareness makes them suffer even more.

Freedom turns out to be only an illusion, something unreal, inaccessible. Maybe that is actually why (not only because of the requirements of the air perspective) the world outside of the window is blurred, deprived of clear contours, a little bit out of reality. However, what is depicted with a great realism, it is the situation of a brutal enslavement

in which the monkeys have to live. It is a well-known place, it is tamed. Here we can see every single detail, even the smallest piece of the nutshell or piece of the damaged wall. The appearance of the animals, their behaviour and the poses they make cannot be surprising then.

It is difficult to say which of the little animals looks more pathetic. Monkeys, in a normal environment, creatures very lively and energetic, here live in immobility, in a total numbness. They surrendered, lost any hope. They are both cringed in such a way that they evoke feelings of mercy and compassion. But each of them seems to "tell" the observer something else. One of them sits turned back to us, keeping its head down, totally defeated. It is not interested either in the outside or the inside world anymore. The monkey is lost in itself. The other animal, on the other hand, looks at us very intensively, but it is a type of look that we would probably prefer to avoid. The monkey looks at us, but seems not to see. That is, as if it did not focus on our superficiality, but rather infiltrated us with its eyes. Its gaze is very human, and it makes us feel anxious, does not let us pass by indifferently. It is like remorse. In the animal's eyes there is a boundless despair, sadness, melancholy, but also grievance. The monkey seems to pose the most dramatic questions about its lot, but also forces us to ask ourselves about our own lives. Maybe a hopeless situation of the monkeys chained to the window could be similar to the situation of human beings living in this world? If that painting were Bruegel's diagnosis on humanity, this diagnosis would be very bitter and ironic. All in all, it is embedded in the eyes of animals that are despised by human beings. One is certain: both monkeys, in their appearance and behaviour are very similar to a man…

It is also worth underlining that even though the "prisoners" experience the same tragedy, they suffer in loneliness. "My suffering is only mine" claimed the main character of *The Sorrows of Young Werther.* Bruegel's characters, only if they could talk, they could say the same thing, but with no satisfaction. Only with bitterness. Chained to one handle, they are sentenced to slavery, and what is more, they are also sentenced to each other, which apparently does not help them at all. They do not comfort each other, do not hug, do not make any friendly gesture. Maybe they are sitting in this way, turned away from each other, separately, because they have just fought over the nut? In some comments on the painting people refer to the Dutch proverb: "to fight over a hazelnut" , that is, to have a conflict about something trivial, insignificant. If one interpreted the painting as a reference to this proverb, we could come to the conclusion that the monkeys' brutal lot is a consequence of their life attitude, their own foolish behaviour. That it is an effect of being focused on the immediate profit, which "covers the horizon of freedom to the inhabitants of the fortress forced to live there" (*Bruegel* 28). Actually it could refer not only to the ones forced to live in the fortress, but also to the inhabitants of Antwerp. Let's remind: it was a city "where merchants from all over the world used to display perfumes and roots of the East, furs of the Urals and cloths woven at the end of the world (Francis 23). Being after a quick profit, inhabitants of this

world trade capital did not avoid dangerous financial speculations, in this way putting themselves at risk of bankruptcy.

Interpretation like this, however, seems to be too narrow. That is why Bruegel's allegory had different interpretations as well. These are mentioned by Jacek Brzozowski:

This picture has been understood in many different ways: as "one of the handful of testimonies on the painter's private life" in which "he seems to talk about (…) his own misfortunes"; as a symbolic picture of Flemish "provinces subjected to Spain and Rome"; as an allegory of evil that has been tamed, trammelled satan, or in the other way round: a man – prisoner of sin; as a grotesque portrayal of "slaves who renounced freedom" (Brzozowski 19).

All of these proposals of interpretation are sometimes more and sometimes less convincing, but they all seem to make sense, especially when we take into consideration an existential situation of a painter in 1562, and last but not least, if we think of a political and social situation of the then Netherlands. It was a region of conflicts and religious oppressions. "While Bruegel was painting, Flemish Protestants were being slaughtered or tortured by forces loyal to their Catholic supervisors – that was a reality outside of the artist's workshop; his *Massacre of the Innocents* from 1563 […] is somehow a reflection of the then events, a reflection full of horror and sympathy (Bell 209–210).

It could be stated that the earlier painting *Two Monkeys* relates to the same topic, but in a more subtle and allegoric manner. Even though "outside of the artist's workshop" much less subtle things were taking place. Supported by Spanish army that was looting Dutch provinces, the Inquisition was gaining more power: "when some heretic was being dragged to the old part of town, to the dungeon of the convicts, amongst the anxious, unfriendly crowd there was Bruegel as well. He was there when, at the market square, at the end of des Claires Street or in Galgenveld, terribly mutilated people were being thrown into the fire. He suffered and screamed along with the murdered ones" (Francis 37).

It is difficult to clearly state whether the artist supported the Reformation, or he was a Lutheran, Calvinist or Anabaptist, or even if he belonged to any "heretical" organisations. It is believed that he was a member of a sect called "Schola Charitatis" and one of the reasons why he left Antwerp (departure to Brussels in 1563) was the fact that he wanted to avoid persecution (Rose Marie and Reiner Hagen 160). What is certain though, it is the fact that "his artistic input is a part of the nonconformist trend of that century, aimed at the abuse of both the Church and the government. [Bruegel] Defends the human right to debate, right to the freedom of thought. Even if it takes place within Christianity, whose contours blur more and more, it is all about an independent thought" (Francis 12).

In the painting *Two Monkeys* we can see not only whole "provinces subjected to Spain and Rome" (Francis 57), but also a single man subjected to a religious and political system, a man who is being or was deprived of the right to an independent thought, an independent point of view. It is a man enslaved, experiencing an existential tragedy. And it is a man fully aware of their lot. At the same time, though, it is a person who does not want to reconcile with this state of affairs and that is why, with such an enormous bitterness and rebuke this man looks at us through the eyes of an enslaved monkey. If we consider this gaze also as a form of rebellion, certainly it is a rebellion deprived of hope for any change.

Interpretation of the painting *Two Monkeys* as some kind of Bruegel's bitter auto-reflection, certainly making sense if one takes the artist's personal experiences into consideration[2], might make even more sense if one thinks of a detail that has not been mentioned yet[3]. Of course if it is right to assume that this detail is an effect the artist wanted to achieve, and it is not only an accidental optical illusion. When the reproduction gets magnified (again it is worth underlining that the painting is of a very small format) the stern of one of the ships entering the Antwerpian port (between the monkeys' heads) looks like… a hidden portrait of a man.

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[2] Besides the ideological context, there are also marriage issues. It is believed that Bruegel left a woman in Antwerp with whom he was in a relationship for a few years. Requested by his future mother-in-law, he moved to Brussels, where he married Maria van Aelst, a daughter of his master-painter, Pirter Coeck van Aelst.

[3] This plot was discovered by one of my students, Jakub Korpusiński, during our private conversation about the painting.

Is it the painter's self-portrait? Bruegel's images, which we know today, could indicate that this hypothesis might make sense.

In the context of deliberations on Bruegel's personal tragedy, whose freedom of thought is so limited, and also in the context of a tragedy of occupied Dutch provinces one could risk a thesis that the hidden portrait represents a face of hated king Philip II of Spain. That fervent slayer of "heretics" by Protestants in the Netherlands was called "The Devil of the South." His symbolic presence in Bruegel's painting could be justifiable then.

1.   2.

1. Titian, (Tiziano Vecelli or Tiziano Vecellio), *Portrait of Philip II of Spain (1527-1598),* 1551, oil on canvas, 193 cm × 111 cm, Prado Museum, Spain.
2. After Bruegel's death published portrait. Engraving from originally: I. Bullart, Academie des Sciences et des Arts, Volume 2, 6th Division, Amsterdam, 1682.

The alleged hidden portrait is so faint though, that other suppositions are possible as well. Maybe Bruegel in this unusual way depicted his master Pirter Coeck van Aelst

who was teaching him the art of painting for so many years? Or maybe it is somebody who was supposed to receive the painting as a present. Or maybe all of it is just an accidental overinterpretation, because in the picture there is no hidden portrait, but only a random layout of shades… However, the longer I gaze at the work, the more convinced I become that there is something about it.

Let it be another secret of a tiny painting by a great Dutch master.

A Very Short Poem by Szymborska…

In 1957, at first in press, and then in a volume of poetry *Calling out to Yeti,* a very short poem by Wisława Szymborska called *Brueghel's Two Monkeys* was published. There is no doubt: the future Nobel prize winner certainly refers to the tiny work of the Dutch painter. The title suggests that a subject of reflection will be either the painting itself or the monkeys depicted in it. Let's take a look at it, making use of a translation by Stanisław Barańczak and Clare Cavaanagh (Szymborska *Nothing twice…* 145):

Brueghel's Two Monkeys
This is what I see in my dreams about final exams:
two monkeys, chained to the floor, sit on the windowsill,
the sky behind them flutters,
the sea is taking its bath.

The exam is History of Mankind.
I stammer and hedge.

One monkey stares and listens with mocking disdain,
the other seems to be dreaming away —
but when it's clear I don't know what to say
he prompts me with a gentle
clinking of his chain.

The first sentence already suggests that Szymborska's poem, similarly to Bruegel's painting, describes something more than a lot of the two little monkeys. Paraphrasing Abraham Ortelius's statement that we mentioned before, one could conclude that in Szymborska's poem, besides "things that are written" there is also "the thing one has to understand."

As far as a literal meaning is concerned, the poet just describes one of her dreams. Describing the setting of the dream, Szymborska performs a brilliant ekphrasis of Bruegel's work. Maybe even the most brilliant ekphrasis in whole literature. It is as tiny as the painting and equally rich in content. The poet shows what the real art of a poetic

summary is about. I needed a few pages to express something for which she needed just three short verses…

The first verse of the ekphrasis ("two monkeys, chained to the floor, sit on the windowsill") relates to Bruegel's "space of enslavement", so static and gloomy. The poet describes it in a very down-to-earth and literal manner, which corresponds with Bruegel's realism. On the other hand, next two verses ("the sky behind them flutters, / the sea is taking its bath") describe a dynamic and cheerful "space of freedom." This time Szymborska enlivens it by means of clever metaphors (in the picture the view is blurred), thanks to which she managed to condense the content of Bruegel's painting to the maximum. What we should bear in mind as well is the fact that this trick corresponds with a poetry of dreams, in which, as we know, everything can happen.

Despite the inevitable imperfection, which occurs while translating poetry from one language to another, in this case the translators almost completely managed to maintain the "contrast of versification" corresponding with the contrast of Bruegel's two spaces. That is, the first verse of the ekphrasis is long and calm, and the next two verses are short and dynamic, but if one joined them together, they would perfectly match the construct of the first verse (as in the original version).

The rest of the verses of the poem are not a description of the painting anymore, but they are a description of events which take place in it. And actually – if it is appropriate to say something like this – it is a description of something which happens between the painting and a recipient, who somehow becomes another character. The painting had to "revive", and the recipient had to "enter" the depicted scene, which as a result stopped being only a scene, a still frame, but changed into a place of action. This type of transformations is obviously impossible in a real life. In a dream, as we already mentioned, everything can happen, though.

A character from the dream and the poem at the same time talks about a traumatic experience through which they go at present (that is why a lyric subject uses the present tense). Final exams are obviously very stressful for a young person, but in this particular case there must be something more about it.

First of all, let's underline that Szymborska talks about taking an exam on a subject that is not taught in any of high schools: "History of Mankind." The one that sits the exam does not handle it well ("I stammer and hedge.") Writing about it, the poet specifies a separate part of the poem, which consists of two short verses and two categorical sentences at the same time. In the original version both of the verses, if joined together, they would be an analogical verse to the first verse of the poem (additionally, joined with it by a rhyme). The poet; however, divides (like in the case of the previously mentioned ekphrasis) these regular structures, thanks to which she achieves a strong dramaturgic effect and reinforces the message.

The one who is being examined, cannot absolutely cope with it and at some point he/she even stops "to stammer and hedge." The person does not know what to say. In

the original version Szymborska writes that "silence sets in" and then a quiet, but terrifying sound is heard. One of the monkeys prompts the lost man "with a gentle clinking of his chain." It is the best prompt both for the person who takes this exam and any single reader. Thanks to this it suddenly becomes clear what "History of Mankind" is about… The way this "history" is shown can be summarised in one short and silent "clinking of a chain." If so, we should not be surprised to see that the examination board consists of real professionals, true experts in their field, that is the enslaved, desperate and terribly sad monkeys from Bruegel's painting. Thanks to the brilliant reference to the work of the Dutch master, the diagnosis on humanity given by Szymborska becomes very ironic and because of it even more disturbing. What an irony: a monkey, an animal despised by a man, just a little bit human-like, takes pity on us and prompts us as much as it can. The poet even strengthens this already strong punch line by means of a rhyme (the translator managed to use an analogical rhyme: "disdain" – "chain") and also uses an appropriate segmentation of the work. In the original version all the verses which appear in the third part of the poem have the same structure already known from the two previous parts. Besides the last verse, which is unusual as far as a number of syllables is concerned.

It is a strange experience when two monkeys try to rescue an ashamed and oppressed human being. It only intensifies our trauma. It is a strange examination board, which consists of chained animals. It is a strange exam, which is nowhere to be taken, in none of the schools in this world: "History of Mankind." But let's not forget that everything what is happening, it is a dream. The fact that Szymborska decided to talk through the description of a dream, of course cannot be an accident, though.

A Swiss psychiatrist Carl Gustav Jung underlined that dream is "a spontaneous and symbolic self-portrait of a current situation in subconsciousness" and a commentary on individual complexes of the one who dreams (Samuels, Shorter, Plaut 110). Dreams, according to the creator of analytical psychology, are of a compensatory function; however, what is compensated through a dream is usually not so obvious straightaway. Reaching the truth that might take the form of a dream requires a patient interpretation. Jung also underlines that "there are dreams whose aim is to disintegrate and destroy (these are nightmares). They perform their compensatory task in an especially unpleasant manner. Such dreams, which bring so many strong emotions, very often become so called "powerful dreams" and they even might have an influence on the way a man's life changes" (Samuels, Shorter, Plaut 110).

Szymborska, writing about the final exams, does use a phrase "powerful dream" (which is not present in the English translation). That is why one could say that the character of the poem experiences a "nightmare", which performs its "compensatory task in an especially unpleasant manner." It is some kind of a "self-portrait" of an internal state of a man who dreams, "a self-portrait" in which individual complexes rise to the surface. "A powerful dream" is a difficult and terrifying experience, but –

according to Jung – it can also "have an influence on the way a man's life changes." It can also be a change for something better.

In the Polish language a synonym to a word "matura", used in the poem *Brueghel's Two Monkeys,* it is a formula "the exam of maturity." Passing this exam in a way can be acknowledged as a symbolic "change", a transition from childhood to adulthood, from naivety to maturity itself. Szymborska takes her poetic exam very late. When she writes *Brueghel's Two Monkeys* she is already 34 years old… To understand what this specific and belated transgression in Wisława Szymborska's case is about, one has to listen to some confession that the poet made many years later. Not until 1991 in a speech given on the occasion of receiving a prestigious Goethe Prize, for the first time in public (Bikont, Szczęsna 107) the poet commented on a very troublesome and painful issue. An issue that many Polish people could not forgive her, that is, the engagement in communism. In Frankfurt, while giving the speech, Szymborska was saying:

"Reality sometimes can be so chaotic and frighteningly incomprehensible that one would like to find some more durable order, to divide this reality into something what is important and not important, what is dated and new, disruptive and helpful. It is a dangerous temptation, because very often at that point, between the world and progress some kind of ideology appears. An ideology that promises to segregate and explain everything. There are writers who resisted that temptation and preferred to trust their own instinct and conscience rather than confide in any mediators. Unfortunately I yielded to this temptation, which my first two volumes of poetry give evidence to. It has been many years since that time, but I remember very well all the phases connected with that experience: from happiness and belief that thanks to the doctrine I can see the world clearer and wider – to the discovery that what I see so clearly and widely is not the real world anymore, but an artificial construction, which covers it" ("Cenię wątpliwość")

As we can see, while receiving such prestigious award, Szymborska felt the need to talk in public about a problem of enslavement by a communistic ideology. In a poetic manner though, she did that many years before in her third volume of poetry, *Calling out to Yeti.* At that time, when a deep mental and psychiatric breakthrough entered the poet's life, the problem disclosed "by itself" in a shape of "a powerful dream about the final exams", a nightmare which – as Jung would say – was a sign of "a change in man's life." When one analyses the whole lot of Szymborska's artistic input, one could say that this painful exam taken in front of Bruegel's monkeys had a profound meaning. That was the moment when Szymborska's poetic maturity began, and its crowning achievement was the Nobel Prize in Literature.

Szymborska, when talking about herself, never hid her naive faith in a communistic ideology. Memories from that period, though, were always accompanied by a feeling of profound sadness. "I was completing my <<verse-formed tasks>> with a belief that I was doing the right thing. It is the worst experience of my life" – she said in 1991. (Michajów) However, this "the worst experience" was not denied by the poet, it was

not forgotten, but, becoming a subject of a profound reflection, it brought a positive "change in man's life", it turned out to be a painful, but useful lesson for the future. In another conversation from 1991 Szymborska admitted:

"but for that sorrow, that feeling of guilt, I might even never regret the experiences from those years. Without them I would never know what it is like to believe in some one and only equity. And then it is so easy not to know about something that you do not want to know about. (…) I also understood that love for the mankind is a very dangerous feeling, because the most often it leads to making people happy by force. And finally one more conclusion: that it is possible to shake off this blindness, that it is possible to recover, though…" ("Przepustowość owiec")

Stanisław Balbus, a literary critic, summarising Szymborska's artistic input in 1996, wrote that publishing the third volume of poetry, *Calling out to Yeti,* was actually an appropriate, "the second debut" of the poet. But it was also, Balbus writes, one "of the most important factors for Polish poetry after the October 1956 to resurrect" at all (Balbus). It is true – Szymborska's personal transformation should also be seen in a wider, political context. Talking about the October 1956, Balbus meant so called October breakthrough, that is a process of changes in Polish culture, taking place in years 1954-1956. Everything started from Stalin's death (1953), and its climax it reached in October 1956 (this is where the name comes from), when changes in Polish communistic party occurred and a programme on the liberalisation of the country was announced. At that time in Hungary a bloody anti-communistic uprising broke out.

In such context a personal and deeply auto-ironic poem by Szymborska *Two Monkeys* takes on wider meanings. In some way she also becomes a voice of the generation. In a poem *To my Friends,* which found its place in the same volume of poetry, Szymborska is very direct about the process: "On a route from the lie to the truth you stop being young" (Szymborska *Wiersze wybrane* 42). It is time to grow up. The dream is about to be over, it is high time to shake off the naivety and clearly look at the brutal reality. It is time to report back to yourself, like Szymborska did in *Two Monkeys,* being earnest and auto-ironic. It is also time to settle with "the long night of history" (Brzozowski 1996). The Powerful History as well.

Conclusion

Similarly to the case of *Two Monkeys* by Bruegel, *Two Monkeys* by Szymborska can be interpreted at least through three dimensions. Firstly, in relation to the poet's personal experiences and also experiences of the whole generation of people forced after the World War II to function in communistic Poland. Secondly, in relation to the Powerful History – as a reflection on the "subjected provinces", that is, Poland and other countries of so called Eastern Bloc, enslaved by communistic forces, terrorised and censored. If Bruegel painted his *Two Monkeys* in times of Stalinism, "the hidden portrait" in his work probably would not depict the face of "the Devil of the South", that is, Philip II of

Spain, but the face of "the Devil of the East" – a dictator of the Soviet Union, Joseph Stalin.

And thirdly, finally, maybe the most important dimension – Szymborska's poem can be interpreted as a universal diagnosis of man's situation in this world. This is what "History of Mankind" is about. The monkey "prompts me", the poet writes, and this "me" obviously relates to the character from the poem, talking about their dream, but it can also relate to us, to every single reader. The merciless prompt "with a gentle clinking of his chain" is heard very loudly above the time and space. All of us, including the monkeys, we are stuck in Bruegel's "space of enslavement." But not all of us have to agree with this state of being.

Bruegel and Szymborska are soulmates. There is something which connects them, as Jacek Brzozowski writes, something "which sooner or later tells independent and wisely sceptical minds to meet and inducts them into, of course changing due to time lapse, but also lasting above the time, an eternal republic of free and wise spirits – artists, thinkers, poets" (Brzozowski 21).

Let's hope that ordinary people from time to time can also be inducted into this "republic of free spirits…"

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Cognitive-Pragmatic Aspects of Translation and Interpretation within Discourses

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Abstract

The aim of this investigation is a comparative description of translation and interpretation in terms of modern communication technology, translation, and discourse studies. Each type of translation work, either oral or written, has its own specific requirements for the translator and the final result of his work - translation. A description of both types of translation cannot suffice without taking into account pragmatics, psycholinguistics, and the pragmatic scope of each text. A more important final result is the right linguistic expression in compliance with the grammatical, semantic, and stylistic rules of the target language. Special attention should be paid to extralinguistic factors - certain communicative situations that create special conditions for interpreting, including the place, time, recipients, and environment (interfering noise). The article describes different types of interpreting and draws the reader's attention to the controversial question of the interpreter's natural ability and the possibility of achieving excellence in interpreting through the intensive practising of skills simultaneously with a profound knowledge of certain languages and the translator or interpreter's general educational development.

Translation usually gives the translator more time for focusing and considering the choice of the necessary lexico-grammatical and stylistic elements for a certain text. Interpretation requires an immediate reaction from the interpreter, who is in a constant state of stress and works under pressure. The translator of a written text is not only the person who renders the original text, but he is also the creator of a new written version of the text that can be read and, discussed, with its own mistakes in it. Interpreting is much more neutral and invisible to the addressee; the main thing here is the pragmatic transfer of the original information.

For the research the first-hand experience of teaching students in a class of translating and interpreting, with the presentation of examples in Czech and Ukrainian, is used.

The author comes to the conclusion that common features of interpretation and translation

include the need for high language competence and the translator's general erudition (excellent language skills, knowledge of features of the cultural background, a functional approach to linguistic means, and a developed aesthetic and cultural perception). But, considering that the requirements for performers of translation and interpretation are different, even in the scientific literature the assertion whether the professional specialist exists at all and can be a true professional in both translating and interpreting remains debatable.

Keywords
translation or interpretation process, communication theory, pragmatics, cognitive aspect, translation or interpretation quality

Introduction
Communication in its broadest sense, being an equivalent to the concept of communicating as a purposeful and social information exchange process between people in different spheres of their intellectual labour and creative activity (Selivanova 2010: 275), takes into account not only the language code of the communicators but also interaction features (strategy and the mutual influence of communicators) and perceptions (understanding the psychological effects of perception). This three-tiered approach to the study of communication opens up unlimited prospects for studies of its verbal expression in either oral or written texts, especially in translation studies.

At the heart of the international communicative process the first place is taken by an exchange of information from one cultural environment to another within a certain discourse. If we exclude the possibility of exchanging information by means of non-verbal signs and symbols together with verbal ones using a language of international communication, which is understandable for communicators, who are representatives of different cultures (e.g., English), the information exchange will undoubtedly be realised with the help of interpretation and translation as well. However, translation or interpreting is not only the result of translation practice which is presented orally or in a written form. Translation is "a purposeful linguopsychomental activity of a translator's or interpreter's personality as a recreating system that combines two phases: interpretation of a source language text and the generation of a target text on its basis" (Selivanova 2010: 545).

Interpretation and Translation as a Communicative Act
Translation studies is one of the oldest linguistic disciplines. It has become an independent branch and cooperates with a wide range of issues in philosophy, psychology, social and cultural studies, etc. This interaction of a linguistic approach combined with the above - mentioned disciplines forms a focus on translation as a kind of information presented orally or in a written form being conveyed (transformed) with a particular aim, and at the same time is influenced by extralinguistic factors (social,

cultural, and ethnic). Consequently, "on the one hand, translation is the result of the integration of cognitive, speech, cultural, communicative, and social activities, while on the other hand, it is an intermediary" (Selivanova 2010: 545). Thus, interpretation can be considered in a mental-coherent direction or alternatively, in a cognitive-pragmatic one with a new approach to the analysis of the interpreting process as "an active, communicative teleological supersystem determined by the interaction of two languages, cultures, and ethnic components of consciousness, an ontology represented in the discursive space of communicative interactions among the author of the original (sender), the interpreter, and their recipients" (Selivanova 2012: 445).

The modern theory of communicative linguistics is based on the teachings of classics in the fields of semiology (Saussure), semiotics and pragmatics (Peirce), the nature of a language sign and the system of verbal functions (Bühler, Jakobson), speech acts (Austin, Searle, Grice), and others who changed the view of language not as an abstract system of signs, but as a means of exchanging social information in an oral or written form with relevant rules and behavioural characteristics among the communicants. Without a social context any language sign (verbal or non-verbal) loses its relevance (Čmejrková 2013: 27). During a communicative act in a certain discourse between the addresser and the addressee the exchange takes place not only by means of verbal signs, but also non-verbal ones. The latter include facial gestures, eye contact, body positions, etc. It is obvious that the above-mentioned non-verbal signs mean nothing to translation, but they are important for the work of interpretation as an auxiliary element for a proper understanding of the context - the emotional and pragmatic communication vectors. Being in communicative situations with different types of discourse, the interpreter must be good at understanding the addresser and addressee's requirements and should be able to professionally set him-/herself up for a correct interpretation and the neutral "invisible" role of a mediator.

The Main Objective of the Article

Attention to our study of the cognitive-pragmatic model of interpretation and its comparison with the model of translation is caused by the need to help students on a training course on practical interpreting skills to develop the skills of applying the target language, particularly in the field of texts with special terminology (law, economics, medicine, philology, philosophy, psychology, art, and others) while interpreting. Contemporary globalisation and the increasing intensity of international contacts in the public and commercial areas has led to a special mediatory role of an interpreter in communication. Therefore, the demand for qualified interpreters is growing. It refers not only to qualified specialists and interpreters, but this is also about the middle class managers with the knowledge of a foreign language and translation and interpretation skills.

In view of these facts, the purpose of this article is to describe the process of interpreting the text as a content of the communicative material on a particular mental (cognitive) level directed from sender to receiver, taking into account and anticipating its mental level and particular characteristics of the perception. An additional point is that in our research we cannot remain distant from the personality of an interpreter as a mediator in the process of interpreting. Here we should place the emphasis on similarities and differences between interpreting and translation as a model of recoding one language system in another one "being a transitive link between two superimposed communicative situations that involves two phases: decoding and processing the content of the original text by an interpreter or a translator using the target language" (Selivanova 2012: 449).

Interpreting Model and the Interpreter's Role

If we consider Ivana Čeňková's interpreting model (Čeňková 1988: 22), the process of interpreting consists of three phases: information from the original text which is decoded by an interpreter: understanding, apprehension, and processing of the original; recoding into the target language and sending information to the addressee in the form of vocal communication. This model, except for its last phase, schematically resembles the process of translating. However, in the process of interpreting the information from one language into another, first, an interpreter is limited in time during all three stages (phases) while interpreting, second, he or she is unable to edit or verify the accuracy of the content sent to the addressee, and third, the interpreter is deprived of the chance to use additional literature and reference books, including dictionaries, texts, grammars, etc. An interpreter becomes a true mediator between addresser and addressee without any opportunity to express his or her own attitude towards the volume of information being conveyed. An interpreter's main target is only to deliver this volume from one language code into another.

In order to interpret the interpreter must possess extraordinary cognitive abilities (good short- and long-term memory, the ability to concentrate and to interpret the text within its scope, quick switching of attention from one activity to another, the ability to combine several types of extralinguistic activities and coherent speech, quick reactions to a change in the communicative situation, the ability to automate frequently used expressions in his or her memory, and understanding the main line of the text).

One of the Methods of Interpretation - a Method of Anticipation

The special methods of interpreting comprise the anticipation method, which relies on the interpreter's intuition allowing an interpreter in any communicative situation to predict the possible completion of sentences or the whole dialogue, interview, presentation, and other forms of communication.

The anticipation technique helps the interpreter to interpret successfully and saves his or her cognitive power. So, as soon as an interpreter starts to interpret, he or she meets with the addresser of a text or familiarises him-/herself with the text itself. In the above-mentioned technique the addresser's parenthetical words: *отже* [1] *(accordingly), як відомо (as you know), на закінчення (in conclusion), на думку (according to), згідно з вищесказаним (therefore) і т.д (etc.)* and other extralinguistic factors are very helpful. If an interpreter interprets speeches at scientific conferences and manages to understand the objective circumstances according to which the conference is coming to an end, he or she can predict he organiser's closing phrases to the guests. For example, in the Ukrainian language the closing text would be the following: «*Шановні учасники конференції! Дозвольте оголосити закриття нашої конференції та ще раз щиро подякувати за Вашу участь.*» (*"Dear participants of the conference! Let me announce the closing of the conference and once again express my gratitude to you for your participation").* An interpreter from Ukrainian will conceive the continuation only with the help of the first words of the sentence, which will allow him or her to interpret automatically. Of course, we have to admit that there are cases where the anticipation technique might fail. For instance, after the addresser's key speech has been translated, irony, a joke, or satire can be perceived as a serious and real opinion, which is why the interpreter should be focused and attentive to both the content and form of the addresser's message, including extralinguistic changes, as well as considering the reaction of the public (the addressee). The anticipation technique is a characteristic feature of simultaneous interpretation, which is one of the main types of interpretation.

Simultaneous Interpretation, Its Characteristics and Types

The method of simultaneous interpretation consists of the interpretation occurring simultaneously with the speaker's (addresser's) speech (Hrdinová 2008: 9). It is based on a person's ability to listen and talk simultaneously, provided that the subject of the discourse has the same content, and on a clearly elaborated interlingual interpretation technique. The interval between the original text and the target one is measured in terms of a number of seconds. This causes difficulties for the interpreter because he or she has to listen, interpret, and speak at the same time, often not being able to hear a certain phrase to the end. The interpreter can only anticipate the possible end of the text.

In Czech translation studies an important contribution to the theory of simultaneous interpretation was made by Ivana Čeňková (Čeňková 1988). Her scientific formulations, which are based on the Russian language, focus on communicative, psycholinguistic, psychological, linguistic, and extralinguistic aspects of simultaneous interpretation. The researcher lays special emphasis on linguistic, morphological, and lexical-semantic

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[1] All the words, word-combinations, and sentences, which are written in italics, are the examples that belong to the author of the article.

factors in text segmentation and the transformation of expressive elements because as a result of the limited time during simultaneous interpretation the interpreter has to show an ability to compress a text and, in relation to it, grammatical transformations of an obligatory and optional type.

Method of whisper interpretation

One of the most important factors in simultaneous interpretation is its technical aspect. The interpretation is often carried out in specially equipped booths for each interpreter. Then, the interpreter is separate from the speaker, and the interpretation process occurs with the use of headphones and a microphone. If the interpreter interprets in a meeting room, where other interpreters are also present, and simultaneously listens to a speaker, in this case he or she interprets by whispering into a microphone. A similar method of interpretation, but without using special equipment, is called whisper interpretation (chuchotage). The interpreter whispers the interpretation to one or two people sitting nearby.

Method of remote simultaneous interpretation

Remote simultaneous interpretation is considered to be the most difficult type of simultaneous interpretation. This type of interpreting is used in exceptional cases, e.g., if the meeting room cannot accommodate interpretation booths or when it is necessary to interpret a whole video conference. During this interpretation process the interpreter is in the booth, which, in addition to headphones and a microphone, is equipped with a screen for showing the course of events in the meeting room. A specific form of simultaneous interpretation is the process of interpreting through one language called *relay interpreting*. This method is used in the case of multilingual translation. In this instance, one of the interpreters interprets by means of the working language taken as the original. All the other interpreters work following this original. The relay interpreting method requires the interpreter to master a high level of synchronicity with a speaker, accurate pronunciation, syntax, and stylistic adherence to rules, avoiding idioms. The interpreter who works on the principle of simultaneous relay interpreting should be able to explain nationally biased units (realities) that may not always be clear to the rest of the interpreters.

Method of sight translation

Another type of simultaneous interpretation is the so-called *sight translation (off-hand translation),* i.e., the oral interpretation of a written text from the source language into the target language. The interpreter's perception of the written original text and its simultaneous interpretation gives a reason to consider this process as one of the types of simultaneous interpreting. This type of interpretation should be distinguished from translation, in which the interpreter has a pre-printed text of the speech and, being

guided by it, interprets the speaker's direct speech. An interpreter can often meet with this type in practice if his or her task, for example, is to carry out a sight translation of the results of trade negotiations, meetings, contracts, etc. Because the sender (addresser) is missing, the interpreter is unable to rely upon additional information (body language or the, speaker's diction or delivery), but he or she can see the text in general and interpret at a pace set by him-/herself.

Consecutive Interpretation, Its Characteristics and Types

Another type of interpreting is the *consecutive* type, which originally allows the interpreter to listen to a certain part of the original text and then to interpret it. In this method, it is very important for the interpreter to have the ability to memorise messages in one hearing and interpret them professionally into the target language. There are two forms of consecutive interpretation, continuous and discontinuous. The discontinuous type is typical for interpreting in terms of longer texts and continuous - for short texts (messages, notes, greetings, toasts, or negotiations at the highest level). According to the model of performing consecutive interpreting, there also exists a division into interpreting with note-taking (if the amount of information, which is conveyed, exceeds the interpreter's ability to memorise, and a need arises to make notes of additional information referring to the subject matter of the interpreting or proper names, figures, numbers, dates, etc.) and without making notes (if the amount of information does not exceed the capability of the interpreter's short-term memory). Consecutive interpreting also includes such a type as the so-called informative interpretation, in which the interpreter conveys the original in a concise form ($1/5 - 1/3$ of what was produced in the source language).

In addition to these two basic types of interpreting (simultaneous and consecutive), we can also distinguish several other types and subtypes, depending on the linguistic situation and the goal of the interpretation.

Conference interpreting

One such example is *conference interpreting*, which is considered to be the most difficult in terms of the cognitive approach. It is the consecutive type of interpreting with note-taking which is used for numerous listeners at large meetings, where the texts of the speeches are stylistically similar. The interpreter has to manage to interpret the basic text of the speech and, discussion questions and answers from a significant number of people. Conference interpreting is used in the fields of science, politics, technology, trade, and others. This type of interpreting was used for the first time in the early 20th century (e.g., at the Geneva Peace Conference). Interpreting or interpretation was formerly performed by lawyers, journalists, historians, and members of the diplomatic corps. Interpreting took place consecutively, but later the simultaneous interpretation technique was added.

For interpreters, who work with the method of conference interpreting, it is very important to be able to use combinations consisting of active and passive languages. The active languages are considered to be the ones into which the interpretation is performed, and the passive languages are those that the interpreters understand very well and interpret from. The active language is predominantly the first language (mother tongue) or a foreign language if an interpreter has used it for a long time and with great intensity. Such interpretation activities require high concentration, good memory, quick reactions, instant code-switching, etc. This method of interpreting is different from the so-called contact translation (dialogues during negotiations and various types of communication), which employs ordinary consecutive interpreting. In *escort interpreting*, an interpreter accompanies a delegation on a tour and ensures the interpreting of daily communication messages (in a restaurant, while walking through the city, at the train station, in a hotel, etc.).

Method of guide interpreting

Another specific type of interpretation is *guide interpreting*. This is a type of interpretation activity, during which the interpreter acts as an intercultural mediator (interpreting of local and historical facts, generalisation and selection of information for foreign tourists). During a tour the guide talks about a certain object (fortress, castle, gallery, museum, etc.), and the interpreter performs not only a mechanical transposition of the relevant text, but also its creative interpretation in order to kindle the tourists' interest as much as possible.

The following subjective elements are integral parts of the communicative act of bilingual communication during excursions a communicator (sender, guide, a native speaker of the source language), communicants (addressee or a foreign tourist and the mediator (guide-interpreter), who enters the communication process as an intermediary of operational information transfer from one language code into another between the participants in the communicative situation.

For the addresser it is important to be familiar with the text of the excursion and its possible variations for each tourist group. The guide-interpreter (mediator) relies on the excursion text, which helps him or her decide on a certain type of interpretation, while interpreting and transforming the guide's source language into the cultural environment of the target language, using appropriate intonation and non-verbal means (posture, facial expressions, etc.). A tourist as an addressee (receiver) perceives information, and in such a way participates in the communicative process, being interested in its achieving its highest effect. The tourists, who decided to visit a particular place, always expect some results (feeling uplifted, an impression to emerge from what they heard, and new knowledge). These expectations depend on tourists' affiliation to a certain social group (the transformation of the original message is perceived in different ways by representatives of various occupations, age groups, males and females, etc.). They

also depend on the guide's language proficiency, education, and background knowledge (educational level and worldview), and on the peculiarities of a tourist attraction as well (time, place, and other cultural contexts in which the perception in the target language takes place).

When interpreting a guide's speech, it is very important for an interpreter to have the ability to find the means in the target language which are equivalents to the source language in order to ensure an appropriate communicative and aesthetic effect. Therefore, an interpreter's primary goal is to interpret the stylistic register which complements the factors that influence a receiver who is a participant in the communicative process. The latter is not considered to be only a passive listener to the excursion text, but an active communicator (who asks questions and supplements the guide and interpreter's messages). The interpreter as a mediator must focus on the sender and receiver's communicative goals and ensure the best results of the communication in all possible ways. Thus, the successful progress of the communication process between sender and receiver is the interpreter's responsibility. Therefore, the factors, which contribute to the successful transformation of the excursion text from a guide (addresser) to a tourist (addressee) with the meditation of an interpreter, consist of the following professional qualifications possessed by the interpreter: predictive and associative thinking, an ability to apprehend and analyse, declamatory skills, creativity, quick orientation in the guide's speech, communication skills, sustainable activity in explaining culture-specific concepts, and an ability to achieve understanding between the guide and the interpreter him-/herself.

As already mentioned, the guide's (sender's) text should be focused on tourists and their variety. The guide should take into account the members of the tourist group in terms of age, the country they come from, the type of culture they represent, and other features, and he or she has to be good at adapting to the tourist group's requirements, allowing his or her narration to kindle the tourists' interest, to add the gloss of novelty, and to provide the tourists with a pleasant cognitive rest. The interpreter as a mediator should facilitate the communication process during an excursion on all its levels (psychological, stylistic, and informative).

As for the stylistic level of excursion texts, there are grounds for speaking of contiguity between journalistic and professional styles. Some texts, being marked with a certain level of untranslatability, have non-equivalent vocabulary (untranslatable) which has no direct equivalent in the target language. The structure of such vocabulary includes words which are bound up with the cultural and historical development of a particular ethnic group. The problem of translating non-equivalent vocabulary can be solved by using exoticisms and adding appropriate descriptive comments. According to the theory of the translation of non-equivalent vocabulary by Barkhudarov (Barkhudarov 1975), there are three basic ways to transfer "untranslatable" vocabulary if a target language does not have any adequate equivalents: transcription (the speech

element is transferred in its original form), loan translation, and the descriptive form that is used most often.

The Ukrainian non-equivalent vocabulary within the texts of excursions consists of the following units: local names, ecclesiastical realities, names of historical events, the Cossack system, units of territorial division, and ethnographic vocabulary.

Thus, the main channels through which the recipient (tourist) receives information from the guide (sender) are sound, eye contact, and an appropriate stylistic register of the translated text as a result of the interpreter's professionalism and creative efforts. (Harviľáková 2008: 64).

Types of Interpretation According to Discourses

We cannot leave aside such a type of interpretation as the *court interpreting*, which is mainly performed by an interpreter at a police station, in court, or at other state institutions (the presence of a court interpreter during the consideration of different cases is regulated by the relevant law). A court interpreter has a special status and specific professional rights and responsibilities. A court interpreter must not only have an intimate knowledge of legal terminology in both languages, but also possess practical skills of the fast and error-free finding of appropriate equivalents (accuracy, entirety, correctness). The court interpreter's duties include providing a neutral attitude towards his or her clients. The interpreter is not entitled to provide interpreting services for his or her relatives and friends, and cannot show a personal interest in solving any legal and judicial case. In many countries of Europe and the world, for example in the Czech Republic, a court interpreter performs interpreting and translation as well.

A relatively new trend in translation practices is *interpreting for national minorities*. This need has arisen in connection with intensive migration. The purpose of this type of interpreting is to create understanding with representatives of other ethnic groups in public authorities and other institutions. The most common places, where interpreting for national minorities occurs are immigration centres, police stations, clinics, and hospitals. Information transfer is complicated mainly because of differences in the values and customs of other national minorities. The peculiarity of this interpreting practice lies not only in knowing the right terminology, including the difference in clients' language proficiency (dialects, slang, bilingualism, etc.), but also in the fact that it has to take into consideration the complicated extralinguistic circumstances which can happen during interpreting (expression of emotions, time constraints, significant cultural differences, etc.).

One of the advanced types of interpretation is *interpreting for the media*, which is a type of simultaneous interpreting of radio and television programmes (interviews, discussions, and videoconferences), first - run films at festivals, etc. The interpreter's work is complicated because he or she can see and hear only what the spectators do: in the case of a live broadcast, the text has to be interpreted without any prior preparation,

therefore, simultaneously. Besides, the TV or radio anchor is absent and cannot respond to the interpreter's needs (by providing preliminary information about a certain programme or slowing down the conversation or pace of the discussion). Media interpreting differs from other specialised translations of scientific, journalistic, legal, and other discourses in that, for instance, while interpreting feature films it is necessary to perform this type of interpretation in belles-lettres style, with all its peculiarities and demands.

Monological, Dialogical, and Nonverbal Interpreting

In numerous studies of language education interpretation is divided according to its direction of interpreting – monological (solely from one language into another) and dialogical (from one language into another and vice versa). Monological interpreting is used as a method for teaching students at the first level of improving their interpretation skills, when they interpret only in one direction – from a foreign language into their native one. At the higher level of undergraduate training of student interpreters the dialogical method of interpreting is used. This requires the interpreter to switch language codes in both directions, i.e. between two working languages. We can find the latter method in interviews, dialogues, and negotiations.

In speaking of different types, methods, and forms of interpreting, we cannot leave unmentioned the special type of interpretation for the deaf – interpreting from the language of nonverbal signs into the one of verbal signs – and vice versa. The interpreter has to switch the language code between two sign systems – verbal and nonverbal; in this case simultaneous interpreting is mostly used. Recently, even this type of interpreting has gradually been becoming the subject of scientific research within translation theory (Hrdinová 2008: 12).

Categories Evaluating Translation and Interpreting

In translation studies an extremely important question is the one pertaining to the evaluation of the quality of translation and interpreting. There are many theories, approaches, and recommendations regarding the proper, faithful, and appropriate translation of texts for all language styles. In belles-lettres style it is required not only to faithfully transfer the cultural environment of the original text using maximal stylistic equivalence, but there are also discussions which are held on translation strategies for stylistic equivalence aiming to achieve an identical pragmatic goal – to leave an impression on readers that takes into consideration the source and target language texts.

Compared with categories of thinking, the language, its system, and structure are rather conservative and require strict adherence to certain rules. Therefore, we must first differentiate between conceptual categories and grammatical and semantic language functions. The conceptual categories are self-consistent and unequivocal, but are expressed by different grammatical and semantic means (Bondarko 1983: 73). The

conceptual categories are formed on the basis of the so-called internal operation of thinking, which represents the correlation of the objective world, and are introduced in all the linguistic and semantic functions of a text, and all of it enables translation or interpretation from one language into another to occur. The existence of conceptual categories that are common, well-established, and separated from "my own self" as inseparable parts of linguistic and semantic functions, which perform certain formal language means, makes it possible to transfer thoughts during communication.

The universal character of categories of thinking should be contrasted non-universal linguistic and semantic functions – there are necessary expressive grammatical forms in each particular language. Consequently, in order to accurately convey a particular thought it is important to choose a certain grammatical category and a particular grammatical form which is in conformity with the three-tier language system (formally – grammatical, sematic, and communicative). Undoubtedly, the issue of equivalence or appropriacy of the translated text is associated with differences at the level of Slavic and non-Slavic languages. While translating or interpreting from one Slavic language into another Slavic one, because of the phenomenon of interlingual homonyms, we can encounter transfers at all language levels – from phonetic (mispronunciation – a Ukrainian accent and, long and short vowels in Czech) to formal grammatical and semantic (declension and conjugation) and stylistic (the use of prepositions, particles, conjunctions, word order, or the subject in the Ukrainian sentence and its absence in the Czech one).

Language and Stylistic Difficulties in Translation

The examples of various distinctions at formal grammatical and semantic levels of two languages (Ukrainian and Czech) include material which was collected by analysing the oral and written forms of translation performed by students from the Ukrainian Studies section of the Department of Slavic languages at Palacky University in Olomouc. For illustrative purposes we have chosen these.

For example, the Czech verb *těšit se*, with the preposition *na - těšit se na někoho, na něco*, means "*to look forward to somebody or something*". Although the Ukrainian language has a similar verb *тішити/тішитися* at the formal semantic level, in this particular context their forms cannot be used. The Ukrainian verb has the meaning "*to be glad, content, to please someone*" and is not used in combination with the preposition *on*. Because of the cognation of these two Slavic languages, we can observe the phenomenon of language transfer (linguistic interference) in such situations. Such Czech constructions, as *dát si něco k jídlu; dát si čaj; co si dáte k pití; už máme velký hlad – musíme si dát oběd and* others have to be translated in the following way: *щось з'їсти (to have something to eat); випити чай (to have tea); що б ви хотіли випити/щось питимете (what would you like to drink?); ми дуже зголодніли – треба нам пообідати (we are starving, we need to have lunch).* In no case can the

construction with the verb *дати собі (give yourself)*: *дати собі обід (give yourself lunch), дати собі каву, чай, обід чи сніданок (give yourself coffee, tea, lunch or breakfast)* be used.

Some Ukrainian impersonal verbal constructions (*не спалося – I couldn't sleep, не сиділося – I couldn't sit, не лежалося - I couldn't lie*) lack a formal grammatical equivalent in the Czech language. These verbs should be translated into Czech in the following way: *nemohl(a) jsem spát, sedět, ležet* or otherwise, depending on the context.

The Czech past tense verb constructions in combination with the pronoun in the second person plural *byla/byl jste doma; byli/byly/byla jste doma* ought to be translated into Ukrainian using only one construction: *ви були вдома (you were at home)*, without a wrong use of verbs in the form of masculine and feminine genders as a result of linguistic interference with Czech: *ви була вдома (you were at home – feminine gender); ви був удома (you were at home – masculine gender).* Such forms are inherent in the Ukrainian language solely in conjunction with the pronoun *you*: *ти була (you were - second-person singular, feminine gender), ти був (you were - second-person singular, masculine gender*, but *ви були* (for feminine and masculine gender).

The following example explains the discrepancy between two grammatical constructions in Czech and Ukrainian. This is a sentence with participles. *Читаючи книгу, вона посміхалася (Reading the book, she smiled).* In the Czech language the participle is considered to be archaic and obsolete. The literal translation would be the following: *Čtouc... knihu, usmívala se.* But we have to translate this construction into modern standard Czech in the following manner: *Při čtení knihy se usmívala* or *Když četla knihu, usmívala se.* In other words, we used a subordinate clause or adverbial modifier. Quite often, the reverse translation of similar constructions from Czech into Ukrainian also generates linguistic interference. Students translate the similar subordinate clause from Czech into Ukrainian using the subordinate constuction in Ukrainian instead of the proper participle or verbal adverb phrase, for example, *Коли вона читала книгу, то посміхалася* or *Під час читання книги вона посміхалася (While reading the book she smiled).* Consequently, structurally "cumbersome" constructions appear in the Ukrainian language.

The next problem, which is encountered during translating, is nationally biased units, - for example, the names of cities: *Kijev, Kyjiv, Kiev – Київ, Lvov – Львів* (Anderš 2002: 192)*, Charkov – Харків, Dněpr – Дніпро, Dněstr – Дністер,.* Regarding the translation of anthroponyms and toponyms, researchers believe that they should be rendered with the national likeness (Kundrat 2009:70). This applies to, for example, the Ukrainian names *Микола, Ігор, Тарас, Назар, Олеся, Львів, Тернопіль,* and *Київ*, which have to be translated in such a way: *Mykola, Ihor, Taras, Nazar, Olesja, Lʹviv, Ternopilʹ,* and *Kyjiv* (but not Lvov, Ternopol, or Kyjev, as it is conveyed the Czech mass media) and others. And vice versa, the Czech names *Jan*, *Mikuláš, Helena, Anna, Anežka, Kroměříž, Olomouc,* and *Střižov* have to be conveyed into Ukrainian in the

following way: *Ян, Мікулаш, Гелена, Анна, Анежка, Кромнєржіж, Оломоуць, Стршіжов*, and others.

Фройд – Фрейд, Дерида – Дерріда – Деррида, Черчілль – Черчилл – Черчиль, де Голь – де Ґоль, Клінтон – Клинтон. The reason for double names involves foreign words, including foreign proper names, which were mostly taken into the Ukrainian language through Russian, with a certain Russian influence on how they are written, for example, *хокей* instead of *гокей*, whereas the Russian language does not have the phoneme /*г*/, but only /*x*/ and /*-г-*/, which is why we cannot pronounce it in the following way: *Ханс, Хельмут, Хофман,* or *Йоханнесбург*, but *Ганс, Гельмут, Гофман, Йоганн, Йоганнесбург*, etc. We can often encounter the wrong conveyance of the Ukrainian phoneme /*u*/ as the Russian /*ы*/, particularly after sibilants: *чытачы, віршы, жынка,* or *бджылка,* instead of *читачі, вірші, жінка, бджілка, or* vice versa – the use of the Russian phoneme /*и*/ and its Ukrainian equivalent /*i*/ in parts of the words where there should be the Ukrainian phoneme /*и*/: *чітач, чістий, жіття* замість *читач, чистий, життя,* etc (Ponomariv 2002: 19-21). So, while translating or interpreting texts with different linguistic styles the peculiarities of pronunciation and spelling norms have to be taken into consideration.

As a result of the process of the mutual influence of closely related languages, a sociolect or social dialect of Ukrainian and Russian, which is called surzhyk, emerged (Karavanskyi 2000:8), which has not only a spoken form, but also a written one (it is well represented in the prose works of some Ukrainian writers, including Serhiy Zhadan). A translator or interpreter may come across it even during court interpreting, interpreting for national minorities, interpreting for the media, and conference interpreting and its different subtypes when the translator or interpreter does his or her work for communicators who use a substandard vocabulary including surzhyk.

According to the Czech translation theorist Milan Hrdlička (Hrdlička 2003: 21), the main purpose of translation is not just the reproduction of linguistic means but also the information which they express. In this context, an important question that has to be answered relates to semantic equivalence. It is impossible to find the proper grammatical form in Czech for the Ukrainian lexeme *доба*, whereas in Czech the word *доба (doba)* means *period*, but not *twenty-four hours*. In Czech we can translate the Ukrainian *доба* as *den a noc* (*day and night)* or only *day*, meaning *24 hours*. For the Czech lexeme *svačina* the Ukrainian equivalents will be *другий сніданок (second breakfast or elevenses)* and *підвечірок (high tea).* The Czech expression *lamač ženských srdcí* cannot be conveyed as *приборкувач жіночих сердець (tamer of women's hearts).* Speaking of semantic equivalence, it is necessary to find another much closer equivalent - which would be pragmatically equivalent and adapted to a foreign environment at the aesthetic and communicative levels.

We cannot leave unmentioned another very important factor, which are interlingual homonyms. For example, the Czech word *holka* (a girl) in Ukrainian means *голка* (a

needle), the word combination *čerstvý chléb – starý chléb* may be translated as *свіжий хліб – черствий хліб (fresh bread - stale bread)*, the Czech *rozvaha* as *роздуми (prudence)* in Ukrainian. Thus, the translator must have profound knowledge of the language and, its system and structure, and possess a "translator's intuition". "The translator or interpreter's work should not look like a mechanical replacement of signs, but must be a conscious activity, the act of thinking, creative will, by which a living human interest exists" (Radchuk 1999: 3).

The Ukrainian language has recently been influenced by a large number of English words. This is due to new technologies in various industries, as well as the lightning spread of information around the world via the Internet. Borrowings appear in a language in various ways: directly or through other foreign languages. In such a way, analytical Romance and Germanic languages influence the flexive Ukrainian one. The basics of morphology, word order, and intonation come under this influence: *милий (darling)* becomes *бойфрендом (boyfriend), фестиваль (festival) – музик-фестом (music fest),* and *показ мод (fashion show) – фешн-шоу* (fashion show) (Radchuk 2006: 11).

While translating from Ukrainian into Czech we can replace foreign loanwords by purely Czech lexemes or find the English original and bring it into the Czech translation. In Ukrainian prose and, partly, journalistic texts, in everyday communication and the mass media we can often encounter whole sentences or even dialogues in Russian or surzhyk. The translator should solve the problem of how to translate these passages into the target language text. If it is a translation, for example, from Ukrainian into another non-Slavic language, in this case, the Russian borrowings or those from surzhyk must be properly conveyed by means available in the target language. But when it comes to translation, such as from Ukrainian into Czech, taking into account linguistic-cultural relatedness and the historical circumstances, the elements of the Russian language may be left, with notes or translation in references for the reader and explanations or with the help of a descriptive translation for the recipient. The elements of surzhyk have to be translated either into standard Czech or by using its colloquial variant (common Czech).

In other linguistic styles, including scientific and official ones, special attention is drawn to the equivalence of the terms that retranslated and consideration of stylistic norms in the target language. One of the main criteria in estimating the quality of a translation is the conformity of the communicative effects to the source and target languages, and the preservation of pragmatic information. It is clear that the concept of pragmatic information in each language style is different and has its own stylistic means.

Conclusions

In most cases, a translator, who creates a translation in any linguistic style, is not in a stressful situation (although this is possible if the amount of text is huge and time is

limited) and has enough time to produce a good-quality and well-structured translation. An interpreter, as a rule, is in a stressful situation which arises because of the time limit on interpreting, as well as; overcrowded rooms, such as courtrooms, hospitals, and offices; adverse weather conditions, jet-lag, noise, etc. Therefore, his or her activity imposes a considerable mental load and requires a special focus on the target language. Since translations are subject to future publication, there is a special requirement with regard to the rules of grammar and stylistics. Interpretation is usually performed only once, it is not repeated, and that is why the requirements for stylistic norms and word order are much lower than in translation. The primary focus of the translation requirements in terms of quality is on the accurate transfer of denotative and pragmatic information in relation to the appropriate form. Undoubtedly, if the translation deals with specialised texts, such as with legal, economic, and medical terminology, etc., then the requirement for the equivalence of the terms is very high.

Each translator creates a dynamic new connection and intercultural transfer of the text to the extent that it takes into account the culture-specific matching of the languages, situation, and object in question. The translator's understanding of the text requires a knowledge of the history, society, institutions, social conditions, religious beliefs, and culturally and situationally predefined patterns of speaking and behaviour of the "original culture", and knowledge of the syntactic and semantic structures of the "original" text. In the process of translation a translator takes into consideration, on the one hand, objective social realities of the target culture, such as forms of language occurrences and the sign systems of everyday life, customs, and social roles, and on the other hand, the system that applies to non-specialist audiences, the experience of the reader, his or her interests, norms, behaviours, motives, and cognitive and emotional forms of consciousness and experiences. Creating the equivalent text, a translator neutralises the linguistic-ethnic barrier between the two linguistic and cultural environments and this enables communication, which is comparable with the ability to communicate within monolingual communication.

Common features of interpretation and translation include the need for high language competence and the translator's general erudition (perfect language skills, knowledge of features of the cultural background, functional approach to linguistic means, and a developed aesthetic and cultural perception). But, considering that the requirements for performers of translation and interpretation are different, even in the scientific literature the assertion whether the professional specialist exists at all, and can be a true professional in both translating and interpreting remains debatable.

Summary

The aim of this article is to investigate the background of the interpretation and translation process with regard to modern communication theory, the diversity of discourse, and the influence of social and psychological factors on a translator or an

interpreter. The basis for the two kinds of translation is the pragmatic transfer of information from the source language into the target one. However, one question is up for debate, which is the matter of the quality of interpretation and translation. What is the right way to educate for both these professions?

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