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TRANSCOM 2009

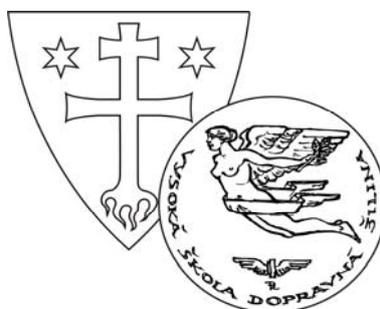
**8-th EUROPEAN CONFERENCE
OF YOUNG RESEARCH AND SCIENTIFIC WORKERS**

PROCEEDINGS

**SECTION 8
SOCIAL SCIENCES**

**ŽILINA June 22 - 24, 2009
SLOVAK REPUBLIC**

UNIVERSITY OF ŽILINA



TRANSCOM 2009

8-th EUROPEAN CONFERENCE
OF YOUNG RESEARCH AND SCIENTIFIC WORKERS

under the auspices of

Prof. Ing. Ján Mikolaj, PhD.
Minister of Education, Slovak Republic

&

Prof. Ing. Ján Bujňák, PhD.
Rector of the University of Žilina

SECTION 8 SOCIAL SCIENCES

ŽILINA June 22 - 24, 2009
SLOVAK REPUBLIC

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TRANSCOM 2009

8-th European conference of young research and scientific workers

TRANSCOM 2009, the 8th international conference of young European researchers, scientists and educators, aims to establish and expand international contacts and co-operation. The main purpose of the conference is to provide young scientists with an encouraging and stimulating environment in which they present results of their research to the scientific community. TRANSCOM has been organised regularly every other year since 1995. Between 160 and 400 young researchers and scientists participate regularly in the event. The conference is organised for postgraduate students and young research workers up to the age of 35 and their tutors. Young workers are expected to present the results they had achieved.

The conference is organised by the University of Žilina. It is the university with about 13 000 graduate and postgraduate students. The university offers Bachelor, Master and PhD programmes in the fields of transport, telecommunications, forensic engineering, management operations, information systems, in mechanical, civil, electrical, special engineering and in social sciences.

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New Horizons in Art

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Abstract. „*Watch that sound!*“ is a project that was piloted in a workshop in The Netherlands, during the 2003 Rotterdam Film Festival, where it had a great success. It is aimed at students as well as teachers, but also at people outside the educational field, people of different ages and social categories, and mainly at the socially-challenged groups who are currently of particular interest to Europe and the European Union. In Romania, the project is in its incipient stages; the courses where the euristical method is to be applied will begin in 2010 in Targu-Jiu, Tismana, Novaci, Craiova and Bucharest. These courses are meant to initiate the participants in discovering unknown, virgin territories within the realm of art, which will open new gates to the future.

Keywords: project, sounds, music, DVD

1. Introduction

Song, movement, dance, painting have accompanied the development of the human being since its primitive stages. The Greeks were the first to create a system of education called *kalokagathia*, which studied beauty and kindness. Physical education (sport) is an art, too, just like music, dance, painting; nothing can be achieved in life without effort, hard work, willingness, ability, perseverance, and talent.

The people who dedicate themselves to music, especially those who intend to play an instrument, are usually naturally gifted, but we can see now, thanks to our new project, that art is not necessarily only for the talented, and you do not have to know how to play an instrument in order to become an artist.

These images were filmed in the country where the initiators of the project were born (The Netherlands), and the musical background belongs to the talented Romanian musician Gheorghe Zamfir.

2. The Project

„*Watch that sound!*“ was initiated by Jacques van de Veerdonk, music professor at Codarts Rotterdam, and presented for the first time at a workshop during the 2003 Rotterdam Film Festival in The Netherlands.

In November 2008, after discovering and watching Mihai Puscoiu’s website (Mihai is an important collaborator of the project, and is currently studying music production in Rotterdam), I decided that this would be an extraordinary opportunity for our students and I contacted him without hesitation. I obtained the necessary details about piloting the project in Romania and I decided to action it as soon as the confirmation arrived from professor Veerdonk.

I contacted two schools in my native town of Targu-Jiu (the „Spiru Haret“ National College and the „Constantin Brailoiu“ Music and Fine Arts Highschool), one school in Bucharest with the help of one of their teachers, and two more schools in Novaci and Tismana with the help of a student at the Physical Education and Sport Faculty. Thanks to the directors of these schools, who were enthusiastic about the prospect of implementing this project, I managed to gather over 300 students. 50 more will join them from two more schools which were contacted by a colleague of mine in the city of Craiova.

Given its popularity with Romanian schools and the fact that it is the first year when the project is implemented outside The Netherlands, professor Jacques van de Veerdonk will request sponsorship from the Dutch authorities in order to cover the necessary equipment, the travel expenses for Mihai Puscoiu from The Netherlands to Romania and the expenses for the Romanian music teachers.

In Romania, we are mainly interested in integrating socially-challenged students (coming from disorganised families, or with behavioural problems), as well as early school leavers and homeless children.

2.1. The Aims

The project is aimed at: students, teachers, people outside the educational system, socially-challenged groups such as migrants, which are high on the EU agenda these days. Below are some of the objectives of this project:

- It helps the subjects learn through self-discovery;
- It stimulates team-work and socialising;
- It cultivates creativity, fantasy and imagination;
- It enables the development of some hidden faculties;
- It develops the auditive attention and the visual memory;
- It contributes to the development of volitional, attitude-related and cognitive processes which lead to perception, representation, thinking and memory;
- It transforms the cognition process into a perpetual exercise of thought;
- It improves the assimilation, integration and systematisation abilities.

2.2. The Workshop

A workshop needs five stages of two and a half hours. The time includes: preparation time, class time and movie watching time.

The preparation of the DVD takes place outside the workshop because it takes time and proper equipment to do.

The total number of students should not be over 30 and the workshop should be centred around:

- Analysis and creation;
- The study of the sound and its recording;
- The editing (the processing of the recorded material);
- Synchronising the sound with the image;
- The mixing and the final result.

2.3. The Creation of Sounds

The actual time spent in the workshop will be dedicated to the following steps:

- The participants enter the classroom at the scheduled hour;
- They will get familiarised with the necessary equipment and furniture (tables, chairs, recording equipment, video-projector, beamer, computers) and well as with the

conventional and unconventional instruments that produce sounds: the violin, the piano, the xylophone, the panpipes, the flute, the human body, the clay birds, the drums, the various rattles manufactured by the participants themselves (the bell-flower pot, the tambourine, the water bottle and water glass, the cymbal, the steel triangle, the wooden spoon and its handle, the children's rattle, the rolling pin with a spoon, the stick-and-thread xylophone);

- They will receive explanations concerning the title of the project;
- They will watch a short film produced by the students at the Film and Art Academy in Rotterdam;
- After watching the images, they will start producing their own sounds with the help of the instruments, the objects and the human body. Their sounds will be recorded and then analysed, discussed and commented on with the whole group;
- Each group will produce the sound for a single shot, so the length of the film will depend on the number of shots/groups;
- Each group then presents their versions and, together with the professor and the sound engineer (a student at the Film and Art Academy in Rotterdam), they choose the best one;
- The professor does not need to be fully involved, and the selection can be done in groups or individually, depending on the number of computers;
- After each group has chosen the desired version, the soundtrack is created by synchronising the image with the sound and mixing the movie. These operations are carried out by students at the Academy with professional equipment, and the final result is shown to the „artists“.

3. Conclusion

The project is still extremely popular with young Dutch people; some of them (homeless children) went on to study at the Film and Art Academy, while others received a completely different vision on life.

In Romania the project is being implemented and it will begin in 2010 in Targu-Jiu, Tismana, Novaci, Craiova and Bucharest.



Study Material of the Subject for Specific Purpose for Distance Students

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Abstract. The paper focuses on methodological instructions for preparation of a textbook for distance students of a foreign language. The textbook should respect individual needs of a student and motivate the student to get more knowledge and provide immediate feedback.

Keywords: distance learning, motivation, marginals, hypertext, feedback

At present, the school system has been undergoing the process of transformation. These changes concern not only full-time study, but also part-time study. While preparing study materials for part-students it is very important to pay attention not only to the content, which should be comprehensive, but it should also fulfil formal requirements. In this paper particular criteria for preparation of study materials are presented.

Study materials for distance students of a foreign language should be organized so that it is:

- *self-instructive* – to activate students, to provide feedback, and motivation in order to achieve set objectives in their study programme (courses, models, lessons) as well as to increase their interest in the field of their study
- *clear* - comprehensive, interesting, structurally sound and support regular study by the students.

To fulfil all these requirements the study programme should offer students tools that help them to perceive, understand, remember, practice, review and apply knowledge. Furthermore, it has to provide an opportunity for feedback.

These texts have to differ from the textbooks used by daily students and general materials. From the methodological (pedagogical), psychological and graphical aspects these texts should be prepared for students' individual approach to their study.

The whole content of a subject cannot be covered by the particular text for a distance learning due to insufficient knowledge of the first year students or limited usage of the media. This is the main reason why the text concerns only the most important content units. The text with its content has to cover the particular needs of the target group. These requirements have to be taken into consideration before the preparation of the material and documents which are connected to it (syllabus etc.). Each student can choose activities and his own individual pace of study according to his own needs and requirements.

Another difference between the text for full-time study, which is divided according to the content into separated units with specific extent and structure, and the text for distance learning is that its content is presented in smaller individual parts. Under these conditions each student will adjust their own plan of studying.

According to our experience we have divided each content unit into seven sections, which enable the student to practice and improve his language skills. The sections are as follows: vocabulary, grammar, listening, reading, business theory, writing, assignment and social English. The content of each section is closely connected with the topic of a content unit. It enables the student to acquire complex language knowledge in a particular field.

The beginning of each section should explain and present the partial objectives for student's better choice and understanding. This option helps the student to determine his priority.

Objectives define requirements which the student has to achieve in the process of studying. Objectives measure the difference between student's knowledge at the beginning and final stage of this process.

Objectives are identified clearly and logically by the means of so called *active verbs*.

Bloom (1956), in his taxonomy of cognitive aims suggests these most frequently used verbs:

- *Knowledge*: the aim is to recall data or information – the so called recall verbs - define, describe, identify, know, label, list, match, name, outline, recall, recognize, reproduce, select, state and so on.
- *Comprehension*: the aim is to state a problem in one's own words: comprehend, convert, defend, distinguish, estimate, explain, extend, generalize, give ...
- *Application*: using a concept in a new situation or unprompted use of an abstraction. Applies what was learned in the classroom into novel situations in the work place: apply, change, compute, construct, demonstrate, discover, manipulate, modify, operate, predict, prepare, produce, relate, show, solve, use and so on.
- *Analysis*: separating material or concepts into component parts: analyze, break down, compare, contrast, diagram, deconstruct, differentiate, discriminate, distinguish, identify, illustrate, infer, outline, relate, select, separate, ...
- *Synthesis*: the ability to put parts together to form a whole, with emphasis on creating a new meaning or structure: categorize, combine, compile, compose, create, devise, design, explain, generate, modify, organize, plan, rearrange, reconstruct, relate, reorganize, revise, rewrite, summarize, tell, write. ...
- *Evaluation*: making judgments about the value of ideas or materials: appraise, compare, conclude, contrast, criticize, critique, defend, describe, discriminate, evaluate, explain, interpret, justify, relate, summarize, support ...

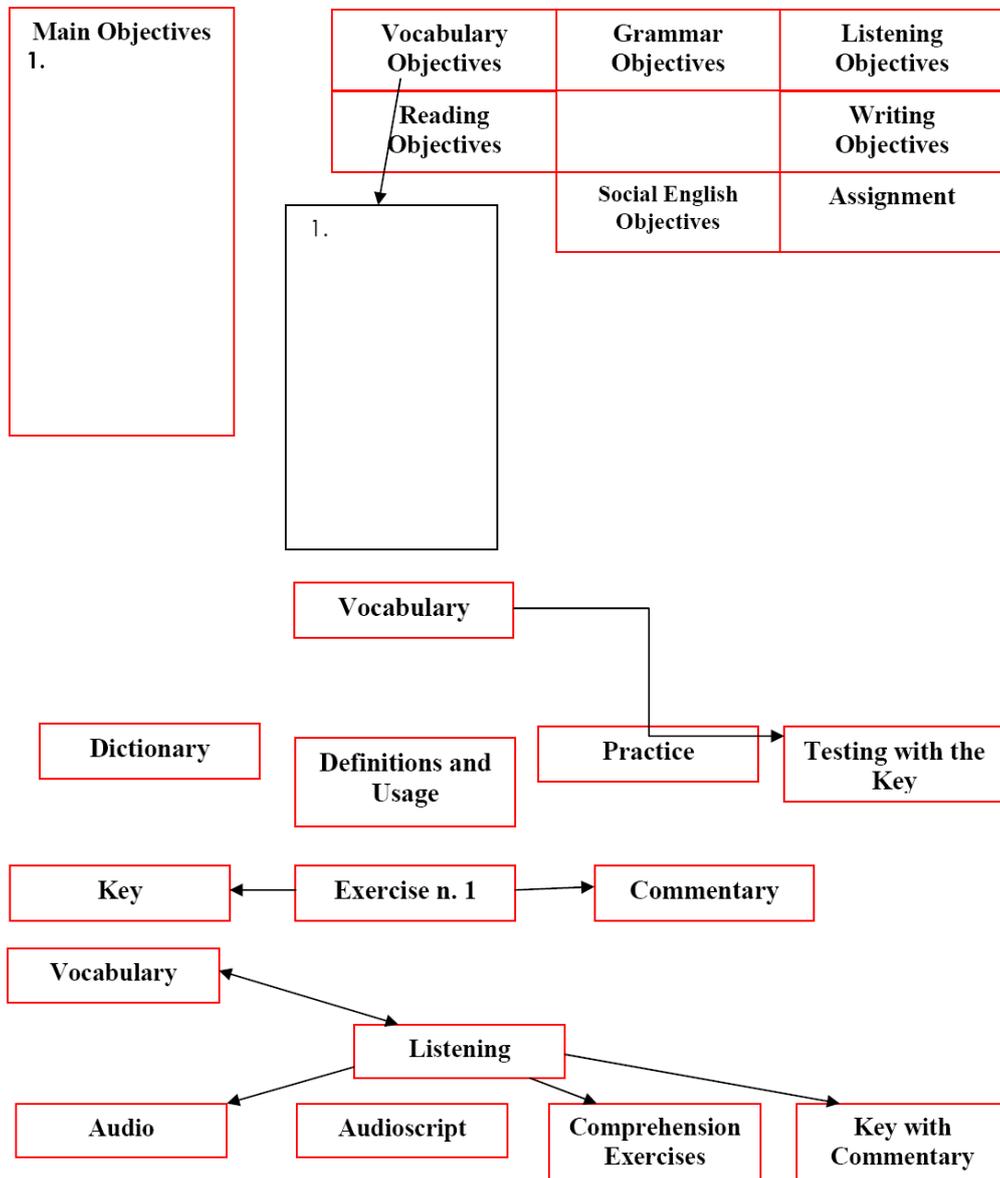
The key criteria of high quality distance learning study text is *feedback*. The feedback is information concerning the progress of a study, as an important motivational factor for the further studies. Students are supported to an active revision of previously perceived knowledge. The text includes various items of the feedback, such as revision exercises, role plays, case studies, controlled tests etc. This feedback can be initiated when needed.

For student's active concentration and approach each section of a textbook (units, exercises, tests and tasks) has to be completed by clear instructions, supportive explanations and tasks which are called *commentaries*. Commentaries are of a specific style, their main role is to lead, support and help the student and express author's experience.

In case of a distance learning the text substitutes teacher's instructions, and is the means of author's communication with the student. The text itself motivates and advises the student in his progress. With its dialogical character the text addresses the student directly and substitutes the real classroom atmosphere and creates links to the previous textbook activities and knowledge.

In addition to the mentioned content criteria the distance learning study text has to meet some formal requirements as well. Each content unit has to have a unified structure and has to be *comprehensibly marked* (see the picture n. 1). Individual sections which are interdependent

are connected to each other by links, the so called *hypertexts*. This ensures the students' individual progress, the students can choose the most interesting parts and skip unnecessary ones, they can come back to, or quickly find the information they need, etc.



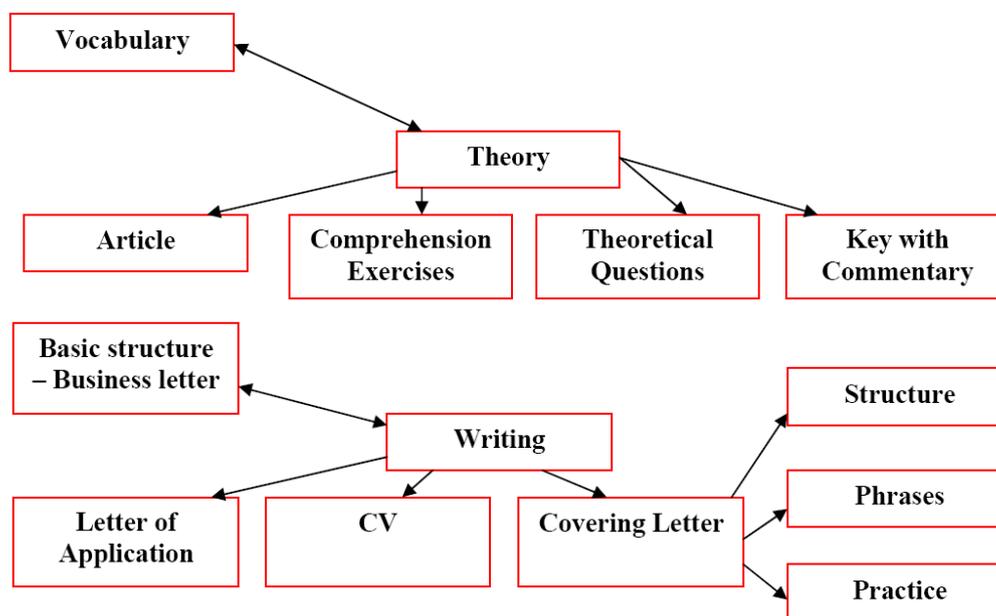


Fig. 1. The structure of a textbook for English for a specific purpose – proposal

In this article we focused on methodological rules for creating the language textbook used in the distance learning, which should not function just as a source of information or a didactic mean but it has to take into consideration the students' individual needs, motivate them and give them immediate feedback. That's why it is necessary to pay maximum attention not just to the textbook content which has to be balanced, presented to the students gradually, and divided into integral parts, but also to its form, so that students could orientate easily in the text, and identify what is important for them and what they should concentrate on. The important factor is also objectives (overall and partial) which should be formulated clearly and understandably for students.

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Application of American Doctrine of Containment during the Korean War

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Abstract. This paper deals with the application of doctrines of containment of Communism during the first decade of the Cold War. It summarizes the origins of the Cold War and presents the strategy of containment of Communism that was executed by the United States in the period after World War II. I will argue that the strategy of containment led to subsequent military involvement of USA in proxy conflicts and to active containing of the influence of the Soviet Union all over the world. The proxy conflict that is analyzed includes the Korean War. The involvement of USA in this conflict was motivated by the notion of containing of the influence of the Soviet Union on a global scale.

Keywords: the Cold War, doctrine, containment, proxy conflict

1. Introduction

The period of the Cold War formed the world that we live in nowadays - its politics, economics and also military affairs have been to a great degree influenced by the conflict between two superpowers of that time - the United States of America and The Soviet Union. This conflict significantly affected almost five decades of the last century. Ideological competition and vying for power and influence were reflected in conflicts that were of essential importance for humankind during the course of the 20th century.

According to Westad, "The Cold War is still generally assumed to have been a contest between two superpowers over military power and strategic control, mostly centered on Europe, but also over political and social development in the Third World." [1]

The expression "the Cold War" was at first critically conceived and in later stages of the conflict it came to signify American concept of warfare against the Soviet Union, i.e. intense tension without a state of war. On the other hand, the Soviets never used the term "Cold War" before the era of Mikhail Gorbachev, because they were of opinion that their country was peaceful and only capitalism and the West in general were aggressive.

The term "Cold War" began to be used in USA during 1946 – 1947. There are three personalities associated with coining of the term "Cold War": American philanthropist, scholar and presidential adviser Bernard Baruch used it in reference to the tension between the USSR and USA. In April 1947, Baruch stated: "Let us not be deceived - today we are in the midst of a cold war." Also, American journalist H.B. Swope is credited with coinage of this expression. [2]

The Cold War was a combination of several elements that distinguished it from other non-military conflicts of the past. An ideological aspect played a significant role; it was a conflict between democratic and totalitarian states, as well as an intensive power conflict, however, without the use of weapons.

2. Doctrine – Definition

Since the first half of the nineteenth century, the United States has had a tendency to embody the main elements of its foreign policy in diplomatic doctrines. This is in sharp contrast with non - doctrinal orientation of American society. The dominating principle that was common for all presidential doctrines before the Truman Doctrine was isolationism. Isolationism reflected American attitude mainly to Europe. The defining pronouncement of this isolationism was the Monroe Doctrine, enunciated by President James Monroe on December 2, 1823.

A doctrine is a systematized set of ideas that determine priorities among political aims and means of their achievements. According to Watson, “A doctrine is defined as a principle that embodies a particular set of beliefs, or a statement of policy that is particularly important in the field of international relations.”[3] Crabb defines doctrine in the American perception as “a statement of general principles. In nearly every case its issuance was precipitated by a foreign crisis or a specific set of circumstances abroad to which the United States was required to respond.”[4]

A doctrine is actually an official conception of using of the state’s power in the international sphere. Therefore, it constitutes a basis for adopting conceptions of particular aspects of power, for the strategy of diplomatic activity, political-military strategies and also for strategy of propaganda. Almost each American president enunciates particular doctrine in an effort to show the legitimacy of his election and an important character of his era. Osgood attributes to presidential doctrines of foreign policy “central role in U.S. foreign policy.” [5] In American context, this expression is also often referred to as National security policy.

The doctrines and strategies of containment that were declared by particular presidential administrations played a relevant function in the early stages of the Cold War period and that they contributed to the containment of the Soviet influence. The purpose of description and analysis of these doctrines is to show that they led to military involvement and that on the basis of the doctrines of containment USA got military involved in the proxy wars.

2.1. The Strategy of Containment

The strategy of containment was officially formulated several times, although in rather general terms and quite imperfectly. Three of these attempts can be considered as the most important: The Truman Doctrine, the article “The Sources of Soviet Conduct” by George F. Kennan, “The Long Telegram” also by Kennan, and finally the memorandum of National Security Council- NSC-68. The focus will be placed on the Truman Doctrine.

The purpose of description and analysis of the containment strategy is to show that it led to military involvement and that on the basis of the doctrines USA got military involved in the proxy wars.

In 1947, The Soviet Union, having the status of the only power that could challenge the United States, was perceived as the greatest threat to international security and also to American interests in the post - World War II world. Thus, a requirement emerged how to contain Soviet expansionism and the system that was based on different set of economic and social values. The general strategy whose purpose was to execute this came to be known as “containment.” For successful implementation of this strategy, the United States had to support its vulnerable allies and friendly states with a variety of programs and to assist them in their modernization. All this was aimed to forbid the Soviet Union the position of the status of the world hegemon. Gaddis characterizes the strategy of containment as follows:

Containment is the term generally used to characterize American policy toward the Soviet Union during the postwar era, and can be seen as a series of attempts to deal with the consequences of World War II. The idea has been to prevent the The Soviet Union from using the power and position it won as a result of that conflict. [6]

Leffler perceives the strategy containment in terms of propagation of economic benefits. In his view the strategy of containment was “long-term American effort to effectuate a liberal capitalist world order that would be responsive to American economic needs and receptive to the dissemination of American ideas, values, and institutions.” [7] Leffler proposes the idea that the strategy of containment was actually formed in 1917 and not in 1947 as it is generally agreed. According to Leffler, this was a result of the Bolshevik Revolution in 1917. At that time, Secretary of State Robert Lansing together with President Woodrow Wilson negatively perceived the withdrawal of Russia from World War I. Moreover, they refused to acknowledge the Bolshevik regime, intervened in the civil war in Russia and did not establish diplomatic relations with the Soviet Union. Nevertheless, containment as a unified concept of relations towards the Soviet Union was clearly defined and realized in 1947 and onwards.

There are two aspects that the policy of containment and its theoretical framework include: ideological and geopolitical. Geopolitical aspect is mainly associated with power-political competition with the Soviet Union. Ideological aspect of containment is concerned with the whole communist movement, and the Soviet Union is regarded as its leader. There was a general agreement about the necessity of containment of Communism in all US administrations since 1947, however, it was not clearly specified what should be contained: whether it was Soviet power in general or Soviet expansionism, influence, or Communism as an ideology. Wildavsky notes that predominant idea was that “containment must be part of American policy. The question is whether it will remain the only part or will be joined by other elements to make up a broader strategy.” [8] Various presidential doctrines serve as a unifying element of this effort.

The Truman Doctrine attempted at reasoning and characterizing the change in American foreign policy that was being in progress at that time. This doctrine actually meant the execution of the politics of power in the global scale. According to the Truman Doctrine, USA was to reconcile with existing territorial gains of the Soviet Union (China, Eastern Europe), but in case the Soviets captured another countries, USA should enter the war. The Truman Doctrine brought to an end the era in which the United States considered the possibility of isolationism and it officially opened the period of global interventionism. This view is supported by Fleming who claims that

wherever the Soviet Union attempted to push outward, at any point around its vast circumference, The United States would resist. The isolationist United States, desiring only to be let alone, had become the world’s policeman. Whatever the Soviet Government or communism attempted in advance the United States would combat it. [9]

Crabb is of similar opinion, claiming that “a dominant purpose of the Truman Doctrine was to announce to the world-and even perhaps to many Americans-that the historic era of American isolationism had ended.” [10]

3. The Korean War – a Proxy Conflict of the Cold War

To maintain influence in the world and to protect their client states, it was necessary for both superpowers (USA and the Soviet Union) to be involved in military interventions beyond their borders. In some cases, the Soviet Union and USA were indirectly involved in fighting each other. Both superpowers considered this as an extension of policies of the Cold War.

This concept of warfare is usually referred to as a proxy war. Bills sees proxy wars as “military actions taken either on behalf of or through the medium of client states.” [11] Raymond notes that proxy war is a “term often applied to a war between states that is fought on behalf of another state (e.g., Cuban forces fighting in Angola, Africa, in 1977 on behalf of the Soviet Union) or through confrontation of their agents of satellite states.”[12] American military involvement in Korea was seen as a test of the containment doctrine. According to this conception, the main rival of the United States in Korea was the Soviet Union because it supported the Communist North Korea. The Korean War compelled the advocates of containment to cope with a new form of warfare- conventional war by Soviet proxy that USA could not win. From the point of view of The Cold War character of confrontation, the U.S. motivation for defending South Korea was strong. There was a belief that if North Korea won the conflict, the whole region of Indo-China would be under Communist control. It was assumed that Communist superiority in Asia would complicate the worldwide contest against Communism that the United States was executing. Until the time of the Korean War, the implementation of the Truman Doctrine in Europe was successful, but it was a failure in Asia. The great triumph of Communism in China (in 1949) and other communist gains in Asia presented a strong warning for the United States. Therefore, these events were of great importance for USA when deciding whether to defend South Korea. For the United States it was clear that the Soviet Union had ordered the invasion of South Korea and that this invasion had to be met. The war in Korea, from the point of view of USA fulfilled the paradigm of the containment strategy and of the Truman Doctrine. However, this conflict ended in the same pattern as it started. The area of Korean peninsula was divided along the 38th parallel. The North Korea remained in the sphere of influence of the Soviet Union while the South Korea became an ally of the United States.

4. Conclusion

The policy of containment reflected the US preoccupation with Soviet expansionism in the countries where there was an imminent danger of communist exertion of influence. The goal of reducing Soviet influence sprang from the fact that USA was threatened by the vision of alleged communist expansionism. After the Korean War, it appeared that almost any point in the world that was controlled or threatened by Communism constituted a threat to security of USA. As a result, USA had to thwart these threats by various means including military containment otherwise it could have led to a chain of aggressions that could be stopped only at cost of another world war. Given the same paradigm, the protection of any country against Communist aggression became crucial for USA and its prestige on which the preservation of international order depended. This stance of US administrations also led to military involvement in Vietnam. We can conclude that during the Cold War, all facets of US power were engaged in full containment of international Communism on a global scale. The policy of containment proved to be a powerful instrument of US foreign policy also in the following decades. As also embodied in presidential doctrines during the 1970's and the 1980's, it continued to play an important role in U.S foreign policy also in the following decades.

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Oscillatory Properties of Nonlinear Neutral Differential Systems

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Abstract. The article deals with the nonlinear neutral differential delay systems. The oscillatory behaviour of such systems is investigated. Some sufficient conditions which ensure the oscillatory properties are established. Also some examples are considered to illustrate the main result.
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Keywords: differential systems; nonlinear neutral systems; oscillatory properties; sufficient conditions

1. Introduction

In the present paper we consider the nonlinear neutral differential delay systems of the form

$$\begin{aligned} [x_1(t) - a(t)x_1(t - \tau)]' &= p_1(t)|x_2(t)|^{\alpha-1}x_2(t), \\ x_2'(t) &= -p_2(t)|x_1(t - \sigma)|^{\beta-1}x_1(t - \sigma), \quad t \geq t_0, \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

where $a, p_i \in C([t_0, \infty), [0, \infty))$, $p_i(t) \not\equiv 0$, $i = 1, 2$, $\alpha > 0$, $\beta > 0$, $\sigma > \tau > 0$.

Let $r = \max\{\tau, \sigma\}$. By a solution of the system (1) we mean a function $x = (x_1, x_2) \in C([t_1 - r, \infty), R^2)$ for some $t_1 \geq t_0$ such that $x_1(t) - a(t)x_1(t - \tau)$ and $x_2(t)$ are continuously differentiable on $[t_1, \infty)$ and such that the system (1) is satisfied for $t \geq t_1$.

By W we denote the set of all solutions $x = (x_1, x_2)$ of (1). A component $x_1(t)$ or $x_2(t)$ of x is said to be oscillatory if it has arbitrarily large zeros; otherwise it is called nonoscillatory.

In the recent years many authors are studying the differential systems similar to (1). However they are mostly interested about the asymptotic behaviour of such systems, e.g. in [3,5,8] and in the papers cited therein. It seems that only in a few articles the oscillatory properties are treated, e.g. in [2,4]. Therefore our aim is to study the oscillation of components of the solutions of the system (1).

In addition the nonlinear neutral differential systems can be interpreted as the models for the population biology [6]. It is recognized that time delays are natural components of the processes of biology, ecology, physiology, economics, mechanics, etc. This is due to influence of the past history of the processes on their evolution.

We shall need the following lemma in the next section.

Lemma 1.1 [7] *Suppose that $P \in C([t_0, \infty), [0, \infty))$, $\alpha > 1, \delta > 0$ and there exists $\lambda > 0$ such that $\alpha e^{-\lambda\delta} < 1$,*

$$\liminf_{t \rightarrow \infty} [P(t) \exp(e^{\varepsilon t}) \exp(-e^{\lambda t})] > 0,$$

where $0 < \varepsilon < \lambda$. Then the following inequality

$$x'(t) + P(t)x^\alpha(t - \delta) \leq 0, t \geq t_0,$$

has no eventually positive solutions.

2. The Oscillatory Properties

In this section we establish two oscillatory theorems.

Theorem 2.1 *Suppose that $x = (x_1, x_2) \in W$ and the component $x_2(t)$ is oscillatory. Then $x_1(t)$ is also oscillatory.*

Proof. Assume that $x_1(t)$ is a nonoscillatory component of x . Let $x_1(t) > 0$ for $t \geq t_0$. Then by the second equation of (1) we have

$$x_2'(t) \leq 0, t \geq t_1 \geq t_0,$$

where t_1 is sufficiently large. This implies that $x_2(t) > 0$ or $x_2(t) < 0$ for $t \geq t_2 \geq t_1$, i.e. $x_2(t)$ is nonoscillatory. Let now $x_1(t) < 0, t \geq t_0$. Then using the same argument we get $x_2'(t) \geq 0, t \geq t_1$, which implies a nonoscillatory character of $x_2(t)$. Thus the theorem is proved.

Theorem 2.2 *Suppose that $x = (x_1, x_2) \in W$, $0 \leq a(t) \leq a_1 \leq 1, \alpha\beta > 1$,*

$$\int_{t_0}^{\infty} p_i(t) dt = \infty, \quad i = 1, 2,$$

and there exists $\lambda > 0$ such that $\alpha\beta e^{-\lambda(\sigma-\tau)} < 1$,

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} [p_1(t)p_2^\alpha(t) \exp(e^{\varepsilon t}) \exp(-e^{\lambda t})] > 0,$$

where $0 < \varepsilon < \lambda$. Then $x_1(t)$ is oscillatory.

Proof. Without loss of generality we may assume that $x_1(t) > 0$ for $t \geq t_0$, i.e. $x_1(t)$ is nonoscillatory. Then the second equation of (1) implies

$$x_2'(t) \leq 0, \quad t \geq t_1 \geq t_0,$$

where t_1 is sufficiently large. So the next two cases are possible:

- $x_2(t) < 0, t \geq t_2 \geq t_1,$
- $x_2(t) > 0, t \geq t_2.$

Next for the simplicity we will use the notation

$$y(t) = x_1(t) - a(t)x_1(t - \tau), \quad t \geq t_2.$$

Case 1. We have $x_2(t) < 0$ for $t \geq t_2$. Then

$$y'(t) = p_1(t)|x_2(t)|^{\alpha-1}x_2(t) \leq 0, \quad t \geq t_2.$$

It follows that for $y(t)$ there are two possible cases:

- $y(t) < 0, t \geq t_3 \geq t_2,$
- $y(t) > 0, t \geq t_3.$

If the case (i) holds, then

$$\begin{aligned} x_1(t) - a(t)x_1(t - \tau) &\leq -c, \quad c > 0, \quad t \geq t_3, \\ x_1(t) &\leq -c + a_1x_1(t - \tau), \quad t \geq t_3. \end{aligned}$$

By induction we obtain

$$x_1(t_2 + n\tau) \leq -c \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_1^i + a_1^n x_1(t_2).$$

We conclude that $x_1(t_2 + n\tau) < 0$ for large n , which contradicts the fact that $x_1(t) > 0$ for $t \geq t_0$. Hence the case (ii) holds, i.e. $y(t) > 0, t \geq t_3$ and the function $y(t)$ is nonincreasing on $[t_3, \infty)$. Integrating the first equation of (1) from t_3 to ∞ we get

$$\begin{aligned} -y(t_3) &\leq \int_{t_3}^{\infty} p_1(s)|x_2(s)|^{\alpha-1}x_2(s) ds, \\ y(t_3) &\geq - \int_{t_3}^{\infty} p_1(s)|x_2(s)|^{\alpha-1}x_2(s) ds \geq |x_2(t_3)|^\alpha \int_{t_3}^{\infty} p_1(s) ds. \end{aligned}$$

It implies that

$$\int_{t_3}^{\infty} p_1(s) ds < \infty,$$

which contradicts the condition of theorem. The Case 1 cannot occur.

Case 2. Let $x_2(t) > 0$ for $t \geq t_2$. Then $y'(t) \geq 0$ and $y(t)$ is nondecreasing on $[t_2, \infty)$. Thus for function $y(t)$ two cases are possible:

- $y(t) > 0, t \geq t_3 \geq t_2,$
- $y(t) < 0, t \geq t_3.$

Consider the case (j). From relation

$$x_1(t) - a(t)x_1(t - \tau) = y(t)$$

we obtain that $x_1(t) \geq y(t), t \geq t_3$. For sufficiently large $t_3 \geq t_2$ the second equation of (1) implies that

$$\begin{aligned} x_2'(t) &= -p_2(t)x_1^\beta(t-\tau) \leq -p_2(t)y^\beta(t-\sigma), \\ -x_2'(t) &\geq p_2(t)y^\beta(t-\sigma), \quad t \geq t_3. \end{aligned}$$

Integrating the last inequality from t_3 to ∞ we get

$$x_2(t_3) \geq \int_{t_3}^{\infty} p_2(s)y^\beta(s-\sigma) ds \geq y^\beta(t_3-\sigma) \int_{t_3}^{\infty} p_2(s) ds,$$

which is a contradiction.

Finally consider the case (jj). Then for sufficiently large $t_3 \geq t_2$ we obtain

$$-a(t)x_1(t-\tau) < y(t), x_1(t-\tau) > -y(t)$$

and

$$x_1(t-\sigma) > -y(t+\tau-\sigma).$$

So we have

$$\begin{aligned} x_2'(t) &= -p_2(t)x_1^\beta(t-\sigma) \leq -p_2(t)|y(t+\tau-\sigma)|^\beta, \\ -x_2'(t) &\geq p_2(t)|y(t+\tau-\sigma)|^\beta, \quad t \geq t_3. \end{aligned}$$

Integrating the last inequality from t to ∞ we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} x_2(t) &\geq \int_t^{\infty} p_2(s)|y(s+\tau-\sigma)|^\beta ds, \\ p_1(t)x_2^\alpha(t) &\geq p_1(t) \left(\int_t^{\infty} p_2(s)|y(s+\tau-\sigma)|^\beta ds \right)^\alpha, \\ y'(t) &\geq p_1(t) \left(\int_t^{\infty} p_2(s)|y(s+\tau-\sigma)|^\beta ds \right)^\alpha, \quad t \geq t_3. \end{aligned}$$

With regard to the fact that $\lambda > (\sigma-\tau)^{-1} \ln \alpha \beta$, we can choose $0 < \gamma < \sigma-\tau$ such that

$$\alpha \beta e^{-\lambda(\sigma-\tau-\gamma)} < 1.$$

Then we get

$$\begin{aligned} y'(t) &\geq p_1(t) \left(\int_t^{t+\gamma} p_2(s)|y(s+\tau-\sigma)|^\beta ds \right)^\alpha \\ &\geq p_1(t) \left(\int_t^{t+\gamma} p_2(s) ds |y(t+\tau+\gamma-\sigma)|^\beta \right)^\alpha, \\ -y'(t) + p_1(t) \left(\int_t^{t+\gamma} p_2(s) ds \right)^\alpha |y(t+\tau+\gamma-\sigma)|^{\alpha\beta} &\leq 0, \quad t \geq t_3. \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

Set

$$v(t) = -y(t), \quad \delta = \sigma - \tau - \gamma, \quad p(t) = p_1(t) \left(\int_t^{t+\gamma} p_2(s) ds \right)^\alpha.$$

Then inequality (2) can be written as follows

$$v'(t) + p(t)v^{\alpha\beta}(t - \delta) \leq 0, \quad t \geq t_3. \quad (3)$$

According to the last condition of theorem we have

$$\liminf_{t \rightarrow \infty} [p(t)\exp(e^{\varepsilon t})\exp(-e^{\lambda t})] \geq \gamma^\alpha \liminf_{t \rightarrow \infty} [p_1(t) \left(\min_{t \leq s \leq t+\gamma} p_2(s) \right)^\alpha \exp(e^{\varepsilon t})\exp(-e^{\lambda t})] > 0,$$

where $0 < \varepsilon < \lambda$. The Lemma 1.1 implies that the inequality (3) cannot have a positive solutions $v(t)$. Thus the case (ij) is impossible. The proof of theorem is complete.

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Present State of the Prevention of Socio-pathological Events in the Elementary Schools of Orava Region and the Possible Role of School Social Worker

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Abstract. The childhood, from the point of prevention, is a key age. Children are relatively easy formable group with regard to the ability of adaptation and acceptance of new information. This is the main reason why there are the programs of prevention of socio-pathological events with respect to the individuality of children and youth. Paper offers short theoretical background for the prevention and the role of social work and social worker. The survey offers present results within prevention at selected elementary schools in Orava.

Keywords: children, prevention in elementary school, socio-pathological events, social worker, school social work

1. Introduction

The children require special protection and approach with regard to their age and abilities. Socio-pathological behaviour has different quality features as among adults. The motive of unacceptable behaviour is mainly a demonstration of own position, a desire to draw attention or to try unexplored. By adults we can observe qualitatively different motives (e.g. lack of financial resources, abuse, disappointment...).

Socio-pathological events mostly occurred in children and in schools are truancy, bullying, violence, vandalism, alcohol and drug abuse, criminality and behaviour disorders.

In recent time we can observe an increase of these events in children. The reasons can be various. The time we are currently living is full of changes, uncertainty, revaluation and destroying of several values in the society. Ideals of good are in current society are many times negating and covering with the ballast of consumism and various substitutes with temporal benefit. Uncertainty around us can lead to unexpected behaviour. Mainly we can observe the changes in children behaviour because they are one of the most endangered group. They don't know how to judge and control their behaviour as adults. They are more reactive, they solve endangered situations within their limits which are appropriate to their age and abilities. If there is a lack of attention to children, not only material but also emotional, this can lead to situations endangering them physically and morally. Repressive measures neither solve anything or with temporary effect. The prevention on all levels but mainly primary prevention looks as the more efficient. The sensitive and vocational approach is necessary to solve the children problems, gain confidence and motivate them to the activities in compliance with the society social standards.

2. The Prevention of Socio-pathological Events in Children

The prevention is recognized as primary (universal), secondary (selective) and tertiary (indicated). The aim is to prevent unaccepted behaviour, its repetitiveness or minimise the consequences. Prevention is realised in a family (upbringing according to the society standards), in the school (aimed at prevention of negative events), community and society. The target group of primary prevention is the whole population, or its selected part (eg. children at school). Typical is further education, fruitful free time filling etc. The target group of secondary prevention is the children where a socio-pathological behaviour has occurred. The aim is to stop its repetitiveness. Tertiary prevention is mainly oriented to minimise the consequences of repetitive unaccepted behaviour.

2.1. The Prevention of Socio-pathological Event in Children in the School

With regard to above mentioned increase of socio-pathological events in children and youth the discussions have developed among specialists and laic community to prevent and minimise these events in society. Discussions have lead to the practical outputs of proposed measures on various levels. On school level there is an effective cooperation of specialists not only teachers. The preventions programs are elaborated taking into consideration multiple factors leading to successful prevention. The most important is their complexity and continuity.

Various standards and guidelines of the Ministry of Education of the Slovak Republic stipulate requirements for prevention nowadays. These yield some competences also to the elementary schools. The responsible school workers elaborate the school prevention programs. School prevention programs take into consideration present conditions and possibilities of the school and the region. The addition prevention coordinator performs preventive activities in school. He is a key person in communication with external specialists.

We have performed a regional survey in 24 schools of Orava region. We have surveyed the activities organised by the school to prevent socio-pathological events. (Fig. 1)

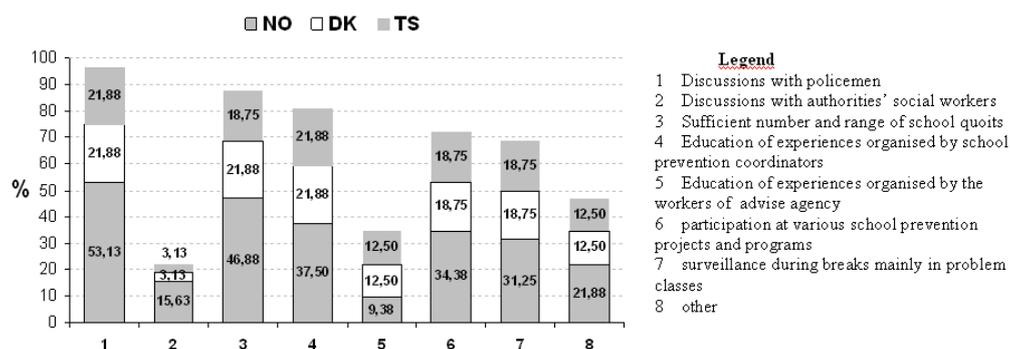


Fig. 1. Activities organised by the school to prevent socio-pathological events in children and youth

The discussions with the police are the most frequent activities with 53,13 % respondents from Námestovo (NO) county and 21,88 % from Dolný Kubín (DK) and Tvrdošín (TS) county. The respondents with the answer "other" gave mainly occasional activities repeated regularly e.g. M. Missionary market, visits of old and ill people, school trips, sport days, day of traditional culture etc.

The miscellaneousness, frequency, and continuity of prevention activities in schools depend on various factors. The most important is afford facilities of schoolmaster and creative, cooperate and active coordinator. A coordinator should have cooperate with colleagues – teachers and external specialist (psychologist, special educationist etc.).

3. The Competence of Social Worker in the Prevention of Socio-pathological Events in Schools

School social work in Slovakia is in the beginning. The role of social worker in schools is relatively unknown without legislative background.

The situation abroad is quite different. The school social work started in USA and UK between the end of 19th century and the beginning of 20th century. With increasing number of pupils social problems is the need of social work necessary.

3.1. School Social Worker

School social worker is the name for the specialist performing school social work. This role is known in many countries with school social work but eg. social pedagogue in Estonia, social worker in Germany, social assistant in Argentina or school advisor in Saudi Arabia, youth worker in Singapore or program coordinator etc. [2]

The profession of social worker can be performed by the specialist with university education in the field. School social workers can act as school employees or employees of social organizations in the world.

„Social worker fulfilled numerous roles in the process of helping their client.“ [1] During the intervention can be an advocate, manager of help, initiator of change, teacher etc.

School social worker mainly performs the prevention, works with individuals, groups, visits the families, cooperates and consults with teachers, offers counselling, not only for pupils but also for the parents, teachers, integrates and helps disable pupils.

He connects the school with family and wider pupils' community. The school forms the children from 6 to the age of 16 years minimally therefore is necessary work with the wider child social environment. To separate education from upbringing can have fatal consequences on future socialisation of the child. School social work is not a used term in our country but the schools cooperate with institutions where the social worker is a member of the team of specialists.

The respondents of our survey have answered if they include and why they want to include or not include the social worker in their school.

The contingency table shows the results (Tab.1)

	TS	DK	NO	Σ
YES	15,63	21,88	37,50	75,00
as an problem advisor in school an family with experiencies only if it is not paid by the school	3,13	9,38	15,63	28,13
as an co-worker to solve the problems of pupils from social disadvantaged environment	3,13	3,13	12,50	18,75
to solve the problems by his competency – not by me and other workers	3,13		6,25	9,38
because my work simplifies, there are more problematic pupils which can be tutored by social worker			3,13	3,13
to work with children from social disadvantaged environment			3,13	3,13
to be a contact between the family and the school, sometimes in communication between the parents and children, teachers and children and children themselves	6,25			6,25
to better find out a family situation because the teacher often don't know the whole background.	6,25			6,25
without given reason	3,13	9,38	6,25	18,75

NO			9,38	9,38
I think the workers mentioned are enough.			3,13	3,13
This work is done by class teachers and pedagogical advisor.			6,25	6,25
DON'T KNOW	6,25	3,13	6,25	15,63

Tab. 1. Would you like to include a social worker to prevention in your school? (value in %)

75 % of respondents want to include social worker in school and 56,25 % exactly specify his competence in school. (Table 2)

9,38 % of respondents (3 respondents) don't want to include a social worker in their schools because the work is done by class teachers and pedagogical advisor and other workers currently present in school. 15, 63 % of respondents are without opinion.

4. Conclusion

The prevention of drug addiction and other socio-pathological events starts to be a necessary part of educational programs these days in schools. The need is increasing with the increasing number of socio-pathological events in children and society. Prevention seems to be one of the most effective methods to eliminate these events. The cooperation of different specialists is necessary in school. Besides internal employees (teachers, educationists...) there are several external co-workers as psychologists, special and cure pedagogues and social workers. School social work is a relatively unknown term in our country without legislative background. There are three school social workers in our schools in Nova Dubnica, Považská Bystrica and Trnava. Even though there is a need of school social work with the increasing number of socio-pathological events in the society with negative reflection in families. It is necessary to create a dialogue with the parents and help to eliminate negative influence on child education and upbringing. Here the social worker appears as a competent specialist.

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Copulative Adjectival Compounds in the French, English and Slovak Language

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Abstract. The article deals with the word-formation of adjectival compounds with the focus on the copulative compounds in the French, English and Slovak language. It provides the basic definition of compounding and the brief classification of compound adjectives from different points of view.

Keywords: compounding, classification, coordinative (copulative) compounds

Compounding, in general, is considered as one of the productive types of word-formation processes in the French, English, but also Slovak language. To define a compound word and concerning all mentioned languages, it is obvious that the definition of compound word is to be closely the same. All linguists dealing with the process of compounding agree on a compound word as a lexical unit consisting of at least two words (bases, roots) whereas both words composing a compound word function grammatically and semantically as a single word. [5]

Compound words are to be described from different points of view and are classified according to different principles. So far, linguists have distinguished the following classification based on: [1]

1. *the manner of connection*
 - a) compounds without any connecting element
 - b) compounds with a connecting element (it can be vowels, consonants, prepositions or conjunctions)
2. *the syntactic principles*
 - a) syntactic compounds in which particular constituents are grammatically related in the same way as words in syntactic phrases;
 - b) asyntactic compounds in which particular constituents are ordered differently from the corresponding syntactic phrases;
3. *the sequence of compound constituents*, we mean the determinans / determinatum sequence (this classification of compounds is typical mainly for French language), in which determinatum precedes determinans;
4. *the formal presence or absence of the head constituent*
 - a) endocentric compounds (the determinatum is formally expressed)
 - b) exocentric compounds (the determinatum is only implicit and is not formally expressed)
5. *the presence or absence of a verbal element*
 - a) primary compounds (the verbal element is not present)
 - b) synthetic compounds (the verbal element is present)

6. *the semantic principles*
 - a) coordinative (or copulative) compounds
 - b) subordinative (or determinative) compounds
7. *the parts of speech compound words represent*
 - a) noun compounds
 - b) adjectival compounds
 - c) verbal compounds
 - d) compounds containing particles
8. *neo-classical compounds* which contain the elements of Greek and Latin origin;

Taking into consideration the adjectival compounds, we are to concentrate, in a more detailed, on general relationship and degree of semantic independence of the compound components in the French, English and Slovak language.

The division of adjectival compounds according to the type of relationship between the immediate constituents is, in all three languages, the same. It means that compound words fall into two subgroups: coordinative and subordinative compounds, but it does not exist any strict borders between them. It often happens that one and the same compound can be interpreted either as a coordinative or a subordinative compound. Moreover, it should be noticed that the individual constituents of coordinative (copulative) compounds are semantically equal, so that the coordinative compound is a hyponym of either of its constituents. On the other hand, the subordinative compounds have a determining and a determined constituents, meanwhile, the compound is a hyponym of its determinatum. [2]

In the following we are to investigate only one type of adjectival compounds and there are copulative compounds, which present not only an equal hierarchy of the constituents and are formed by one lexical class, in this case, adjectival but also they do not show a modifier-head pattern. Consequently, we are to concentrate on what the languages, in our case the French, English and Slovak language, have in common when talking about copulative adjectival compounds.

In the beginning, there are identified several subtypes of copulative adjectival compounds, but we are going to take into consideration only two subtypes. Firstly, there are adjectival compounds, in which the first constituent is a bound root, as in “*Anglo-American*”. Although this adjectival compound looks like a neoclassical compound, it does not belong to this type of compounds. We notice that it is formed due to the composition proper in all three languages, and it is the reason why it belongs to the group of coordinative (copulative) compounds. Moreover, to compare this particular adjective with the Slovak translation, we distinguish two equivalents for it, according to their orthography. Either the constituents are spelt with a hyphen which expresses relation of reciprocity between them or they are spelt solid which points out the combination of two particular adjectives the compound adjective is consisted of.

Within this group of adjectival compounds we identify the ones, which denote the coexistence of two qualities in the same entity. For illustrating let us look at the following compounds:

<i>socio-economic</i>	(in French: socio-économique; in Slovak: spoločenskoekonomický)
<i>audio-visuel</i>	(in French: audio-visuel; in Slovak: audiovizuálny)
<i>physicochemical</i>	(in French: physico-chimique; in Slovak: fyzikálno-chemický)
<i>cerebro-spinal</i>	(in French: cérébro-spinal; in Slovak: mozgovomiechový)

Hence, it is to be noticed that the constituents of the compounds in the English, French and Slovak language identify two qualities linked by a “between” relationship, and therefore, it is used the term “coordinative compounds” for them.

On the contrary, we are obliged to mention another subtype of copulative adjectival compounds, called “appositional compound”, which is represented mainly by colour adjectives. This confirmation is based on our corpus of adjectival compounds.

For example:

grey-green (in French: gris-vert; in Slovak: zelenosivý, sivý do zelena)

red-blue (in French: rouge et bleu; in Slovak: červeno-modrý, červený a modrý)

What emerges from these two examples is that colour coordination in the English language either convey a mixed quality resulting from the two colours, as it is visible in the first example, or two separate colours co-existing in the same entity, as in the second one. Dealing with the French language both types of colour adjectives belong to the coordinative compounds [3], meanwhile, in the Slovak language all representatives of the first group “*grey-green*” are considered as subordinative (determinative) adjectival compounds where the first element of compound is an adverb. Concerning the second type of adjectival compound “*red-blue*” in the Slovak language, all adjectives belonging to this group are coordinative compounds and they express the combination of two colours. [4]

According to these fewer particular examples, we have mentioned above, and in spite of the fact that we wanted to demonstrate the common features of all three languages, what they have in common, we are to claim that there are some differences between the French, English and Slovak language. Dealing with copulative adjectival compounds, it is evident that each of these three languages has its own characteristics features relating to the relationship and semantic independence of the compound components. Moreover, there are also some differences in orthography of compounds which are quite remarkable. Comparing these languages it is noticeable that the immediate constituents of compound are written with a hyphen, together, or separately.

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Semantic Shifts of Words of Latin Origin in the English Language

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Abstract. The article deals with borrowings/loan words in the English language with the emphasis on Latin words which have enriched the English word-stock throughout its development. At first, the article concentrates on examples of borrowings from Germanic and other languages. The difference between loan words and loan translation is depicted as well. Four types of semantic changes (semantic broadening, semantic narrowing, pejoration, amelioration) and six types of semantic relations (synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, homophony, homonymy, polysemy) are defined in order to provide the theoretical background for further research. The above mentioned semantic changes and semantic relations have found their realization also in the framework of words of Latin origin which are now a part of English vocabulary. In this context, the most influential out of the semantic changes are semantic broadening and semantic narrowing; synonymy and homonymy represent the most spread types of lexical relations in the studied area.

Keywords: borrowing, loan word, semantic change, semantic relation, Latin

1. Introduction

Variation in any language is multi-dimensional. The variation concerns such phenomena as social dialects, regional dialects and borrowings.

Borrowings or loan words are lexical units which originated in one language, but which are used in another language. The borrowings can be used even by people who do not speak the “lending” language. The loan words are very often assimilated to the phonological, morphological and orthographic structure of the new language. The following examples illustrate borrowings from Latin:

1. phonological changes: English – *occult*; Latin – *occultus*
English – *experience*; Latin – *experientia*
English – *autumn*; Latin – *autumnus*

The phonological changes include mainly changes in the pronunciation of vowel sounds; consonant sounds have not been modified to such a degree.

2. morphological changes: English – *ignore*; Latin – *ignōrō*
English – *utilization*; Latin – *ūtlitās*
English – *obstinate*; Latin – *obstinātus*

The morphological changes arise naturally from the morphological system of the given language (systems of conjugation and declination; groups of affixes).

3. orthographic changes: English – *eternal*; Latin – *aeternus*.

The orthographic changes reflect the spelling and orthographic rules which are valid in the analyzed languages.

Moreover, the separate changes are mutually combined in one lexical unit.

Note: If there is a double consonant in the original Latin word, the English borrowing has the tendency to keep it. Examples:

English: *accommodate*; Latin – *accommodō*;

English – *abyss*; Latin – *abyssus*;

English – *occasion*; Latin – *occāsiō*.

Over 350 languages represent sources of the present-day vocabulary of the English language as the emergence of English as a world language has promoted contacts with a number of languages and cultures. Moreover, one can find the locations of contact all over the world and the borrowings have shown a dramatic upturn. The borrowings began even before the Anglo-Saxons arrived. The process has continued throughout the whole history of the English language and it is still going on.

The following examples are taken from languages which belong to the Indo European language family:

1. German: *dachshund, gimmick, kindergarten, lager, waltz, sauerkraut*;
2. French: *cushion, entrance, grotesque, jewel, precious, sergeant, sculpture, vogue*;
3. Italian: *balcony, concerto, giraffe, fiasco, mafia, opera, pizza, risotto, violin*;
4. Spanish: *banana, bonanza, guitar, hacienda, hammock, mosquito, sombrero*;
5. Dutch: *bluff, boss, cruise, easel, knapsack, landscape, roster, poppycock*.

The English language has been enriched also by words which find their origin in languages which are not members of the Indo European language family:

6. Hungarian: *cimbalom, goulash, hussar*;
7. Japanese: *bonsai, geisha, haiku, hara-kiri, kamikaze, karate, shogun*;
8. Chinese: *ketchup, kung fu, litchi, tea, tycoon*;
9. Finnish: *sauna*;
10. Nahuatl: *tomato*.

The following lexical units find their origin in Latin: *civil, cervix, unicorn, deity, diet, form, fortify, fume, legal, lunar, magistrate, manual, patron, pavement, rural, rustic, sinister, village, virile*.

Loan-translation or calque is defined as a special type of borrowing when there is a direct, part-by-part translation of the elements of a word into the “borrowing” language [4]. Although loan translations are unusual in Modern English, one can find some examples: *superman* which is a translation of German *Übermensch*.

2. Theoretical Background

Except for morphological and phonological changes, there are certain semantic changes or shifts in the structure of loan words in the English language. These changes include the following processes [1]:

1. semantic broadening (the word takes on a wider, more general meaning than it had previously);
2. semantic narrowing (the word takes on a more restricted meaning than it had previously);
3. pejoration (the development of a less favourable meaning or connotation for a particular word);
4. amelioration (the development of a more favourable meaning or connotation for a particular word).

The following lexical relations play a crucial role when analysing the relations between the original meanings of loan words and the meanings which they acquire in the “borrowing” language [4]: synonyms; antonyms; hyponymy; homophony; homonymy; polysemy.

3. Semantic Changes of Latin Words in English

The semantic changes and lexical relations are observable within all cross-language levels but our main concern are loan words which have penetrated into the English language from Latin. The influence of Latin was strong especially after the arrival of Christianity and by the end of the Renaissance, the growth of vocabulary derived from Latin and Greek had doubled the size of the English lexicon.

In our analysis we paid attention to 200 English borrowings from Latin (all lexical units beginning in vowels a, e, i, o, u).

Broadening of meaning represents the most frequent semantic change or shift. This process has occurred also thanks to the application of the original Latin meaning in the field of science and technology. Examples:

English: *advent* – arrival; start; four weeks before Christmas; Latin: *adventus* – arrival;

English: *aero* – of the air; of the air travel; Latin: *āēr* – air;

English: *agrarian* – related to the land; a place dependant on farming, not on industry; Latin: *agrārius* – related to the land.

Narrowing of meaning finds its place in the studied relations, as well. Some original Latin meanings have not been retained as they denote phenomena not important for the English-speaking community. Examples:

English: *eternal* – lasting forever; Latin: *aeternus* – lasting forever; immortal;

English: *abstinence* – not doing something, especially enjoyable that might be bad for you; Latin: *abstinentia* – abstinence; bravery; blameless;

English: *the Orient* – the countries in the east of Asia; Latin: *orient* – the Orient; the east.

Out of the lexical relations, full synonymy is extremely frequent in the analysed material. It is necessary to point out that the meaning stays the same, but still there occur some morphological, phonological and orthographic modifications of the original Latin word. Examples:

English: *autumn* = Latin: *autumnus*;

English: *abduct* = Latin: *abdūcō*;

English: *incredible* = Latin: *incredibilis*;

English: *estimate* = Latin: *aestimō*;

English: *admiration* = Latin: *admīrātiō*;

English: *educate* = Latin: *ēducō*;

English: *emphasis* = Latin: *emphasis*;

English: *industrious* = Latin: *industrius*.

It is possible to observe homonymic relations in some cases. Since we compare lexical units from two languages one cannot find two completely corresponding forms. It is difficult to distinguish between homonymic and polysemantic relations because one can hardly state the underlying original meanings and the precise process of semantic changes. On top of this, there have been various semantic changes within one single lexical unit throughout the historical development of the English language. Examples:

English: *adduce* – to give reasons why you think something is correct; Latin: *addūcō* – bring up; bring over;

English: *administration* – the managements and tasks needed to control the operation of a plan or an organization; Latin: *administrātiō* – help; service; assistance;

English: *imbecile* – *stupid*; Latin: *imbēcillus* – *powerless*; *weak* (pejoration shift at the same time).

The remaining semantic changes and lexical relations have not been noticed in the analysed examples. Fig. 1 shows the percentage of separate semantic changes and lexical relations found in English borrowings from Latin.

A phenomenon which is not classified occurred in few cases, on the one hand, not all Latin meanings are included in the English borrowing, on the other hand, the English borrowing includes more meanings than the original Latin word possesses. Example:

English: *absolute* – *very great, not changing, powerful*; Latin: *absolūtus* – *finished; completed; very great*.

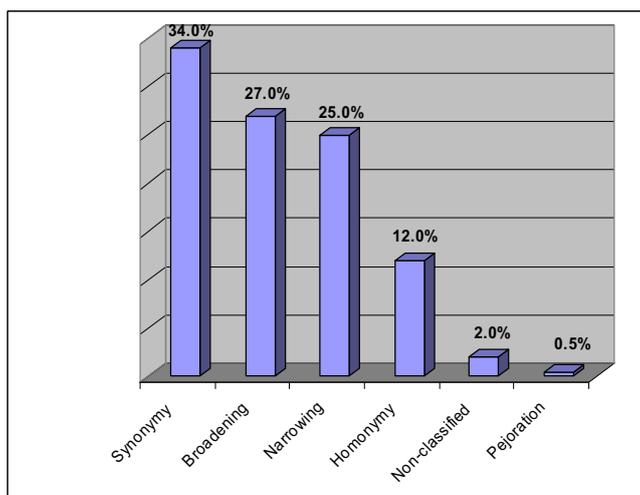


Fig. 1. Percentage of semantic changes and lexical relations found in English borrowings from Latin

4. Conclusion

When analysing English borrowings from Latin, the following types of semantic changes – broadening – 27 %, narrowing – 25 % and lexical relations – synonymy – 34 %, homonymy – 12 % find their realization.

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How to Teach the Terminology of Waste Matters The TEG Silo Cage System

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Abstract. After our personal visit in TEG Environmental plc, in Preston, UK in August 2007 we decided to use their authentic materials in terminology teaching process. TEG is the company that converts an organic waste into a high quality organic soil improver. As the environmental topics in educational process are very useful, we offer our colleagues the possibilities how to motivate students in their learning process.

Keywords: authentic materials, TEG composting sites, working with the authentic text

1. Introduction

Previously this was considered an option for management, now language skills are more in demand at all levels within a company or organization. Certainly within the EU, the smaller countries have realized that in order to promote their products and to make use of technology from abroad a basic knowledge of languages other than their own is essential.

Teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) at a technical university has its own challenges. Teacher has to answer a lot of questions: Are there really major differences between teaching English for Specific Purposes / Business English and teaching general English? Do the goals of the students differ widely? Is there a noticeable difference in motivation?

Articles on science and technology published in English and American books, magazines and newspapers can be used as teaching materials, for these unsimplified (authentic) articles are different from those of the test-oriented textbooks. When selecting the materials, try to choose the subject-related, practical ones which would arouse the interest of the students and meet their needs, and avoid using long, dull and highly specialized texts. It may be more appropriate to look for texts that are more interesting ... in order to generate the motivation needed to learn English (Hutchinson & Waters, 2002, p. 61)

2. TEG Composting Sites

TEG composting sites are divided into three distinct areas of operation:

- Red or dirty zone
- Amber processing zone
- Green or clean zone

Buildings and layouts are specifically designed to ensure physical separation of the three zones and to minimize the risk of cross contamination. Vehicle, boot and equipment washing facilities are installed as required to ensure there is no cross contamination.

The organic waste is off loaded into the waste reception area and then handled using teleporters and loading shovels.

Where necessary, larger material such as green waste is put through a coarse shredder prior to bio chopping and mixing. The green waste is then fed into a bio chopper, which acts to aerate and homogenize the waste material in preparation for feeding to the silo cages. Green waste is chopped to a size that ensures an open structure, allowing air to access all parts of the composting material. This supports the aerobic microbial activity whilst forming a layer to trap the heat generated during the composting process. Where ABP (Animal By-Product) waste material is being composted, this must be reduced to a particle size of 12mm in one plane prior to loading. Gross contamination, such as plastics, glass and metal, would be removed at this stage.

Once chopping and mixing is complete, the material is fed directly onto an automated conveyor system. It is then transferred to a centralized conveyor running above the bank of cages. This in turn feeds a traversing shuttle conveyor which fills each silo cage. Feed is cut at the desired level by ultrasonic level detectors.

The composting process the material passes through a range of temperature zones. In order to meet EU ABP specifications the compost must reach and maintain a temperature of 70°C for at least one hour and the TEG system ensures that this is easily met and surpassed.

The design of the TEG technology ensures the process is completely natural with no need for forced aeration, mechanical turning or agitation. Not only is this more economical, it also minimizes any risk of releasing bio aerosols or odour. In addition, the composting material inside the silo cages acts as a natural bio-filter further reduces odour risk. Each silo cage is fitted with temperature sensors linked directly to a computer data-logger. Temperatures inside the cage are recorded and if temperatures should fall below the required limits an alarm system is triggered. The data logger can be accessed remotely and key warning alarms can be directed to mobile phones to ensure an instant response. During composting the fresh material in the top layer is quickly heated by the material already in the cage. Microbial activity increases in the fresh material and it is also rapidly colonized by thermophilic micro-organisms from the lower layers. Each layer of material is in the silo cage for between 10 and 14 days.

An automated unloader removes material from the base of each silo cage to side conveyors, which carry the product to storage and maturation areas. There are various options available for product maturation. This allows for flexibility on a site by site basis. The end product is friable, lends itself well to material handling and screening and can be tailored towards specific target markets.

2.1. Working with the Text

1. Read the text and do the following assignments.
 - Fill in the missing headline and subheadings:

• UNLOADING	PRE-TREATMENT AND MIXING
• AUTOMATED LOADING SYSTEM	WASTE RECEPTION
• COMPOSTING IN SILO CAGES	HOW THE PLANT OPERATES

2. Choose the most suitable option and state why the other ones are not correct.
 - a. At the plant the following waste is converted into soil
 - green waste only
 - green and animal by-product waste
 - plastics, glass, metal and organic waste
 - b. The incoming waste is chopped in order to

- aerate all parts of the composting waste
 - avoid aerobic microbial activity
 - release the heat generated during the composting process
- c. After chopping the material is transported to silo cages by
- an automated conveyor system
 - teleporters and loading shovels
 - hand
- d. During the whole composting process the material
- must have a minimum temperature of 70 °C
 - has different temperatures
 - must not have a temperature of 70 °C
- e. The material of the lower layers
- cools down the temperature of the fresh material
 - heats the material of the upper layers
 - does not contain any micro-organisms
- f. The material is removed
- from the bottom of the silo cages
 - automatically from the whole cage using conveyors
 - after 10-14 days and transported to the customers immediately
3. Answer the following questions in English using your own words.
- a. How is the process of filling the silo cages controlled?
 - b. How is the temperature in the silo cages controlled?
 - c. What properties does the end product have?
 - d. What does the text say about the smell in the plant?

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English through Pop Songs

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Abstract. This paper promotes creative, subconscious and independent approach towards studying English language mainly with the use of pop songs and their lyrics in class. It helps (future) teachers of English choose songs suitable for their target group of students, and suggest ways how songs can be used in class for teaching or revising certain parts of the English grammar.

Keywords: songs, lyrics, teachers of English language, creative approach towards learning English

1. Introduction

“There is no human society without its poetry. There is no human society without its music. When put together they constitute a powerful force for both cultural cohesion and identity and for individual fulfilment.” [1]

In this paper we want to analyse why and how we can use popular songs in language teaching and language learning. We are not going to deal with traditional songs or nursery rhymes but modern pop songs that can be heard on the radio. Another reason is that they exist on CDs, DVDs, Internet and it is relatively easy to obtain them. Just before we begin using songs, David Horner [2] warns us not to use them without applying the copyright holder for prior permission.

2. Why Should Teachers Use Songs?

Many are afraid of using songs at classes; they feel like wasting the time. But there are many positive things many professionals mention. Let's have a look at them:

1. Songs have a certain place in classroom for helping create friendly and co-operative atmosphere. They are authentic materials; introduce a meaningful piece of language. They are easily learnt, catch the learner's interest, and help motivation. All teachers know how popular the lyrics and music of English songs are for many learners. Some of them started learning English only to understand the songs. Students have natural interest for songs – just watch how many are walking around with their discmans, radios, MP3 or iPods in their ears.... Because they like them we cannot obey songs, we can use them at least to relax students, to provide fun, to encourage harmony and enjoyment /when used as warm-ups/.
2. Lots of songs contain examples of real English, colloquial words, natural language that everyone is interested in. (Who would like the artificial language of many textbooks?)
3. If we are afraid that the students will not sing we have to take into consideration that for many singing is much easier than talking. [1]

4. Not only do the songs contain natural language but they also offer insight into culture and especially into the stories and myths of different societies. They offer a rich background and a social and historical context of language learning. Songs tell stories about big cities, work, love, leaving, drugs, loneliness, war and peace, education, racism, generation gap and other topics.
5. More than that they offer the learners opportunities for practicing intonation, rhythm, stress. The rhythm of songs and rhymes are natural, they help the learners to internalize words stress and pronunciation of words.
6. Many songs are suitable for vocabulary learning (e.g. What a wonderful world by Louis Armstrong is a suitable song for teaching colours, doing gap-filling exercises, etc.). The lyrics of some songs are very interesting, one can deal with them as with poems, short texts or short stories (Both sides of the story by Phil Collins, This used to be my playground by Madonna, Tom's diner by Susan Vega, etc.). One should also be aware that recently modern songs keep repeating 3 – 4 words. When we want to use them for teaching vocabulary these are usually not the best examples.
7. Lots of songs enhance discussion and open face to face conversation. They can be used like motivation tools for role-plays or any kind of free writing activities.
8. The most famous use of songs is for listening comprehension and teaching and revising grammar. Songs provide a natural context for the most common grammatical structures such as verb tenses, questions, prepositions... Because they are repeated many times they help us to memorise them. We can be sure that the students will remember them in other situations as well.

2.1. What Songs Should English Teachers Use?

It is a very difficult question; there are no rules for selecting songs. The authors give us at least a few pieces of advice such as following ones: The songs can be selected by the teachers or by the learners themselves. Songs selected by the teacher might not be interesting for the learners because of their different preferences and age. Songs chosen by the learners are the best examples because the majority of them will surely like them which will definitely promote their independent approach towards learning English. On the other hand they might not be always suitable for the activities the teacher would like to devote, what is more some of them can be examples of rude rap songs containing taboo words (Eminem) which should rather be omitted than discussed in class.

One of the most important points is preparation. The teachers have to take into consideration the age and number of student in class, their level of English (vocabulary and structures) their interests (whether they like music and songs at all, whether they are interested in any other activity, not only those mentioned in their books, whether they are lazy or exhausted,... /, then acoustics of the class, kind of music (not to disturb other classes by too loud music). The teachers have to be aware of whether they will use songs only as a warm up for teaching grammar, checking listening or any other purposes.

These seem to be far too many things that can discourage teachers from using songs. However Dale T. Griffee makes the whole problem easier. He says: "A good song to use in your classroom is a song which your students like, you /the teacher/ like, fits your lesson, and which you have a copy of." [5]

He warns us as well before using songs we do not have or know the lyrics of. "If you know 99 per cent of the lyrics, but you do not know one word or phrase, that is exactly the word or phrase your students will ask you about." [5]

2.2. What Can a Teacher Do with a Song?

As it has already been mentioned before songs in class can be used as a motivational tool, as a warm-up, for teaching pronunciation, stress, listening comprehension, grammar, for introducing real English and foreign culture. Tim Murphey brings a whole overview of activities which we might do with songs. We can:

- Study grammar
- Practice selective listening comprehension
- Read songs, articles, books for linguistic purposes
- Compose songs, articles about songs, letters to singers, questionnaires
- Discuss, dictate and translate songs
- Write dialogues using the words of a song
- Use video clips in many ways...
- Do role-plays /as people in the song, or the artist and an interviewer/
- Use a song for gap-fill, cloze, or for correction
- Use music for background to other activities
- Integrate songs into project work
- Energize or relax the classes mentally
- Practice pronunciation, intonation, and stress
- Break the routine
- Do choral repetition
- Teach vocabulary and culture
- Learn about your students and from your students, letting them choose and explain their music
- Have fun. [1]

3. Using Songs for Studying Grammar

In the final part of this paper we would like to have a special look at the first point mentioned: Using songs for studying grammar. While I was studying at a Secondary Grammar School, I was keen on songs in English. Even if I did not understand all the words, MTV was still on. I admit that I have learnt the greatest number of grammatical structures and vocabulary just by listening to the songs and singing them. I used to put down the lyrics many times, which help my listening comprehension a lot. I as a professional teacher of foreign languages do not obey using songs for teaching grammar, vocabulary, various structures, etc. Because many of the grammatical structures are being repeated many times, we sing them, repeat them as well, and they “stuck in our heads” for a long time. I will always remember a sentence from a song by U2: “But I still haven’t found what I’m looking for” which is a good example of present perfect tense.

If a teacher wants to use songs for teaching or revising grammar, he has at least two possibilities how to do it. He can work only with titles or with the whole songs (lyrics). Many authors share the same idea. They offer a list of songs, which can be used for teaching or revising grammar, special grammatical problems, verb tenses, questions, prepositions, etc. We have prepared our own list of songs. We are aware that some are a bit older but can still help and enhance learning among those groups such as adult and/or false beginners who belong to the majority of the student in our groups.

We have chosen a particular area of grammar and were looking for suitable songs which depict the very problem we may need to foster. Our advice is to use a song first as a motivation tool – let it play, the next stage might be to analyse what the song is about and/or

whether the learners recognise any special grammatical issue. Later we would like to analyse the lyrics that will be prepared handed out beforehand. The next stage can be a search for any interesting parts – e.g. past forms of verbs – we can imagine that our song is “Yesterday” by the Beatles. After searching for the past forms the students will be asked to find infinitives to these past forms. The latest step can be a free discussion about what had happened yesterday, the day before yesterday, and what the following days would bring with them. It will make the students speak about their yesterdays using past simple. The song can still play.

3.1. Suggested List of Songs

Here is our own list of songs:

Present tense	Let it be /The Beatles/	
Present continuous	Tom’s diner /S. Vega/	I’m going slightly mad /Queen/
Past tense	Yesterday /The Beatles/	Streets of Philadelphia /B. Springsteen/ Bohemian Rhapsody /Queen/
Would	El Condor pasa	Everything I do I do it for you /Bryan Adams/
Future	I will always love you /W. Huston/	All for love /Sting, Adams, Steward/ Will you be there? /M. Jackson/
Modals	The show must go on /The Queen/	Without you /M. Carey/
Imperative	Love me Tender /E. Presley/	
Wishes	SOS /ABBA/	
Present Perfect	But I still haven’t found what I’m looking for /U2/	The Unforgiven /Metallica/
Used to	Nothing compares to you /S. O’Connor/ SOS /ABBA/	This used to be my playground /Madonna/ Would I normally do this kind of thing? /Pet Shop Boys/
Questions	Who’s that girl /Madonna/	
Conditionals	Tears in Heaven /E. Clapton/	In these arms /Bon Jovi/
Past Perfect	Wicked game /Ch. Isaack/	

Tab. 1. List of songs suitable for teaching grammar

The list can be much longer depending on the interest of the concerned audience. One can also see that sometimes just the titles themselves are interesting to deal with.

4. Conclusion

In our contribution review we wanted to encourage (future) teachers of the English language to use songs in their lessons. We wanted to show the pros and cons of using songs, their choice and their possible usage. The aim was to find some songs and possible ways how they can be used for teaching grammar.

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The Meaning Extension of Anglicisms in the German and Slovak Languages

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Abstract. In this article we deal with the word formation activity of anglicisms in the German and Slovak languages. However, we concentrate on an interesting phenomenon from this field which occurs in today's modern English – the meaning extension of English expressions (anglicisms) in the German and Slovak languages. The meaning extensions have been divided into three parts according to their type. Several examples for better explanation of the problem are introduced in each part. Some of them are presented in their original version because their English translation would not express the meaning sufficiently. The examples were taken from sources which are introduced at the end of this paper.

Keywords: anglicism, meaning extension, internationalization, lexeme, zero opposition, privative opposition

1. Introduction

Every language is being enriched by new words which are usually formed by word formation on the basis of already existing lexical material or by transfer from other languages. Our main concern is an interesting phenomenon which occurs in contemporary English – the meaning extension of English expressions (anglicisms) in the German and Slovak languages.

In general we speak about the process of internationalization which is one of the results of globalization especially in the field of economy, education, health service, politics, sports etc. The internationalization is seen from two sides: a) the language becomes international in the meaning that it accomplishes the function of a communication medium while it saves its own identity; b) the language becomes international in the meaning that it is influenced by another or other languages... [1] The anglicisms pour into the German and Slovak languages by means of mass communication and information technologies, including the Internet, as well as by literature and other means of communication.

2. The Meaning Extension in Both Borrowing Languages

The meaning extension of a lexeme represents the expansion of partial meaning (generalization) of the lexeme. It is as well an intralingual as an interlingual phenomenon.

In interlingual relationship we speak about anglicisms which acquired a new (extended) meaning in the German and Slovak languages. However, this meaning cannot be found in English language. The lexeme with extended meaning in German language is in the German lexical terminology named "Semantische Scheinentlehnung" and in Slovak lexical terminology is used for this lexeme occurring in Slovak language the expression "sémantický pseudoanglicizmus". However, the use of both of these expressions is not accurate. The reason for this is that the lexemes consist of English linguistic components which were adopted by

users of the borrowing language at random. A pioneer in the field of anglicisms was Carstensen, who as the first scientist concentrated on borrowed expressions from English language in German. He searched the online versions of German newspapers and magazines that served as a source for his scientific work. He concentrated on anglicisms occurring in texts and situations.

Most of the anglicisms taken into the German and Slovak languages are nouns. The introduction of the problem is better explained on an example of the word “festival”. The English definition of this word is “a) a series of performances of films, plays, music or dancing that is usually organized in the same place at the same time each year; b) a day or period when there is a public holiday, often to celebrate a religious event”.

In German the first meaning of this word corresponds to its English definition “mehrere Tage dauernde kulturelle Großveranstaltung, Festspiele”, however, the other meanings are different. It is defined as “Fest der kleinen Preise” what expresses a sales campaign where is sold a) a number of low price products or b) one special product, but for a very low price. We find also words in German that are composed with the word “festival” and a proper noun and their meaning in this case is a) an event or meeting organized in honor of a prominent artist, politician etc.; b) the name of a company meeting or a political event named for a prominent personality or an influential figure.

It comes to differences in the meaning of the word “festival” also in Slovak language. Besides of the first meaning of this word, “pravidelná prehliadka umeleckej tvorby a výkonov”, which corresponds to the English definition we find also the second definition with the meaning “slávnostný zjazd s programom”. This meaning does not exist in English.

The phenomenon where the borrowed word from English does not correspond to its original definition illustrates the word “festival” in the German and Slovak languages. Even if the definitions of the word “festival” agree with each other in one definition, the rest of them are in a privative opposition because there were created also different definitions with the extended meaning.

When the number and the content of the extended meanings of anglicisms in borrowing languages agree with each other, we speak about a zero opposition.

The word “dress” is introduced as an example, which has the extended meaning as well in the German as in Slovak languages a) the clothes for a certain type of occasion, especially a sporting event. However, the English definition does not correspond with these meanings. In English it means 1) a piece of clothing that covers a woman’s body and a part of her legs; b) the clothes that are typical of a particular place, time in history, or occasion.

3. The Meaning Extension in Only One Borrowing Language

If from the two borrowing languages only one borrows the anglicism or creates an extended meaning of it, we talk about an interlingual meaning disjunction.

For example the lexeme “cool” does not exist in the proper Slovak language (only in slang); however, in German it means “a) to be calm and relaxed, without any fear, not nervous; b) impressive because of being fashionable or attractive” and it agrees with the English definitions of this word but in the extended meaning it is “c) safe, without any risks; d) giving no impulse to a complaint, absolutely acceptable, all right” and these two meanings are not to be found in the English language.

The lexeme “courage” serves as another example of this type which has the meaning “the ability to do something that you know is right or good, even though it is dangerous, frightening, or very difficult” in Slovak language without any meaning extension.

In German we find under this expression the extended meaning “a physical strength”.

4. The Meaning Extension and the Cultural Influence of the Borrowing Country

In some cases plays the cultural influence of the borrowing country an important part in the creation of the meaning extension of anglicisms. This extended meaning may describe some segments of culture (extralinguistic entities) which are not known for the English speaking countries.

The word “sandwich” and its meanings in the German and Slovak languages can serve as an example in this case.

In English the word is defined as “a) a light meal that you make by putting a layer of food such as meat, cheese, or egg between two pieces of bread: a ham (tuna), cheese sandwich; b) a cake made of two layers with jam or cream in the middle.”

In German the definition of this word is following: „a) zwei zusammengeklappte belegte Brotscheiben: ein Sandwich mit Käse und Tomate; b) auf Brust und Rücken zu tragendes doppeltes Plakat, das für politische Ziele, für Produkte wirbt.“ The definition a) agrees on the English definition but the definition b) is influenced by German culture.

The Slovak language defines the anglicism “sendvič” as “a) druh ľahkého bieleho chleba valcovitého tvaru; b) obložený chlebiček; c) stavebný konštrukčný prvok zložený z viacerých platní, fólií a pod., najčastejšie s výplňou z tepelnoizolačného materiálu; d) viacvrstvový obvodový plášť najčastejšie zložený z nosnej steny, tepelnej izolácie a povrchovej vrstvy.” From all the definitions in Slovak the definition b) agrees partly with its English version. The English do not know any sandwich consisting only from the bottom part of bread. They do not even know any light white bread of cylindrical shape with the name sandwich. The definition a) is influenced by the Slovak gastronomy and the definitions c) and d) are created under the influence of construction techniques of Civil Engineering used in the country.

The word “seal” and its meanings in the German language serves as another example in this case.

In English the word is defined as “a) a large sea animal that eats fish and lives mainly in cold parts of the world b) a piece of something such as wire or wax that seals a container and that you have to break before you can open the container c) a special mark that you put on something for example a document, to show that it is legal or official.

In Slovak this anglicism does not exist.

In German this word is introduced as “1a) Fell bestimmter Robbeatren; b) aus Seal hergestellter wertvoller, brauner bis schwarzer Pelz; 2) Kleidungsstück aus Seal: Sie trug einen Seal“.

The definitions in German do not agree with their English versions. They are influenced by the German culture and German lifestyle.

5. Conclusion

To sum up, it is necessary to say that the anglicisms occur in both the German and Slovak languages; however, the meaning of these borrowed words does not always agree with their English version. We speak about the interlingual phenomenon and the extralinguistic entities. In the relationship of the borrowing languages we talk about a privative opposition or a zero opposition. There are introduced examples in each part of the article for better illustration of this special relationship and understanding of the problem. It is definitely an interesting linguistic phenomenon to follow.

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Myths and Legends in J.R.R. Tolkien's The Silmarillion and The Lord of the Rings

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Abstract. The two famous books by J.R.R. Tolkien except of The Hobbit are The Silmarillion and The Lord of the Rings. These two books are related to each other and The L.O.T.R. is better known. From the point of view of time, the stories in The Silmarillion happen first and we could call The L.O.T.R. „the next chapter“ of The Silmarillion. J.R.R. Tolkien created a mythical world, which seems to be a legend or a myth, but has a deeper philosophical message for our present times – the choice between the good and the evil – which has been given to all of us. It is up to us how we use it.

Keywords: Elves, Humans, Dwarves, different races, the rings of power, legends, myths, Good, destruction, forces, fight, fighting, The Silmarillion, The Lord of the Rings, destiny, egoism

1. Introduction

Based on ancient Celtic, Scandinavian and Mediterranean legends J.R.R. Tolkien created a vast world of fantasy. The Hobbit and The Lord of the Rings (chosen by British readers as the „best book of the millenium“ in the late 1990s) are the best known works of J.R.R. Tolkien. This paper will concentrate on a book which is less known and much more difficult to read – The Silmarillion.

Many people actually do not understand this book, because it is no one single story as The Lord of the Rings, but it is composed of independent legends, which to a certain extent are connected together, but not always. Moreover there are too many topographical names in a language developed by Tolkien for his world (no English) and too many characters combined with a plot which is difficult to follow and penetrated with philosophical enigmas. From the linguistic point of view Tolkien's English requires deeper knowledge of language than other modern fiction.

Tolkien's world is a myth, but maybe it is more real than anything else. In every legend there is a truth. I think that humankind needs fantasy and myths as a balance to our purely rational thinking and materialistic way of life. The world of the fantasy is very rich, therefore my interpretation of The Silmarillion can differ from others a lot.

The book is actually based on contrasts. There is eternal struggle of the evil and the good, the struggle between creation and destruction. The humans are not presented as „the crown of the creation“, but they are confronted with other (and more sophisticated) thinking beings – the Elves. The population of the Middleearth is colourful- there are humans, Elves, dwarves, ents and other beings.

The most important characters in The Silmarillion are the Elves (or Eldar or the first born children of Iluvatar). The humans (the second born children of Iluvatar) stand in certain contrast. Eldar are tall, physically more beautiful (in fact, they are the most beautiful in Arda), wiser and physically and mentally stronger than humans. Further on, they are immortal unless killed in a battle or by mourning and the light of their eyes flashes as naked flames.

People (or some of the people) are presented as weak and coward creatures apt to „sell their souls“ for wealth or power. They kill each other, treason is a sweeter word for them than honour. The Eldar called them Apanónar – the second born ones, intruders, strangers, selfcursed and the children of the sun. Who are really the children of the sun? Is there really something malignant and destructive in their nature? If people are called intruders and selfcursed ones, does it not remind us very much of our present status on this planet?

The life, the universe and everything which exists, is a monad. There are always two sides of every story. I think there are basically two forces – creation and destruction. All other forces are a product of a combination of different ratios of these two. What we see happening on the Earth right now is (in my opinion) nothing but destruction. We are cruel, haughty and merciless. We are greedy (to possess and to know), but have no compassion and lack humility.

The prime theme of *The Silmarillion* is a fierce fight. On one hand there were the Elves, on other hand there is Melkor. The Elves never, for no price or promise, would submit to Melkor. Melkor hates them and offers them everything, but the Elves refuse it. They know exactly where the line between freedom and the golden cage is. And people? Some of them succeed, but some of them are mistaken creatures, unable to think, unable to understand the message of life and nature, unable to distinguish among basic principles... and fail in their existence. Unfortunately they fail in their human mission.

It is not a problem to choose. It is the question of destruction, the question of a wrong choice that is terrifying. Destruction followed the decision of the most people to join Melkor. In *The Silmarillion* the fight between two forces was straight, it was vis-a-vis. For wealth, for possession people took what was tempting, glittering at the sight, but rotten inside. They lost their human dignity and sometimes also their lives. Nowadays we do not fight against any visualised evil, but there is something ill in human nature and it seems this world rejects common sense and compassion and prefers darkness. The similarity between the world we live in and *The Silmarillion* (although some say it is a fairy tale) is more than striking. We should be afraid of destruction. The one which followed after the War of Anger and other battles (the final chapter of *Quenta Silmarillion*) was cruel. This is not an Apocalyptic vision, I do not like these „prophets“ who talk about the end of the world and the punishment of sins. However human obsession to kill and the destruction of nature carried out in the 20th and 21st centuries, climatic changes and other environmental changes as a result indicate something. And this is what I am afraid, we are following the scenario of *The Silmarillion* and even if it is „a pure fiction“, in the case of the human race it may not end necessarily well.

It is more than difficult to analyse this book, because of its perplexed plot and huge amount of characters. In my essay I therefore analyse only basic motives. As it was already mentioned, human characters in the book are to some extent confronted with the elves. The humans are not presented as stupid, but rather numb and blind. The elves are on the other hand wiser, have deeper understanding of this world, but it is not wisdom from our point of view, where knowledge (often useless) substitute true wisdom. This is more of a philosophical problem, but elvish wisdom seemed to be more real and true, because they were able, to some extent, to foretell the future according to their experience. Moreover, they were able to neutralize the destructive tendencies sooner than these were fully manifested. Their wisdom helped them to distinguish between the good and the evil. And they were never mistaken.

We would say, they were able „to read human minds“. For the elves some of the humans were creatures who came from nowhere and returned to nothing, confused in their life and poor in their character. Elvish attitude towards people cannot be evaluated like scorning, but rather like sorrowful. The reason was that the most humans were unable to resist evil, except for a very few, who suffered much more than those who submitted to the evil.

The Silmarillion presents humans as weak beings, feeble to resist temptation to gain power by cheating, bribing and treason. Are humans really the *creme de la creme* of creation?

Do we really have the right to decide about being or non-being of other living creatures? It is difficult to point out the most striking moments of the book, because it only gives sense as a whole and therefore I do not want to write here about poor deeds of human heroes (or rather antiheroes) of the book.

The important motive in *The Silmarillion* and *The Lord of the Rings* is chasing the wealth and power over others. In *The Silmarillion* we get acquainted with three silmarils – manmade precious stones. These three stones, gems of fire, air and water, are beautiful and almost everyone who sees them (including some of the elves) desires nothing but to own these treasures. Their value is higher than anything else and they make people, dwarves and even some of the elves to sacrifice everything to get them. Finally, because of no other solution, these three gems must vanish to stop fighting and killing. One is thrown into the sky and becomes a star, the next one is thrown into a volcano and the last one ends up in the ocean.

In *The Lord of the Rings* there are seven dwarf treasures, all gained with the help of the powers of evil. All admired and lost eventually, all bringing death to their owners and destruction to the kingdoms. As if there were invisible eyes watching all the pain which the gaining of these treasures brought and then a curse catching everyone who longed for this immense wealth. However, in both *The Silmarillion* and *The Lord of the Rings* it is said, that out of all creatures it was the hearts of men that were easiest to corrupt. No other races, even if they caused suffering, caused as much suffering as humans did and no other race was so easy to persuade to destruct. This reminds me of the present status of humans on our Earth. We suffer, but also nature itself and all living creatures suffer because of human greediness and egoism.

Each of the three books of the trilogy *The Lord of the Rings* starts with this stanza:

„Three Rings for the Elven-kings under the sky,
Seven for the Dwarf-lords in their halls of stone,
Nine for Mortal Men doomed to die,
One for the Dark Lord on his dark throne
In the Land of Mordor where the Shadows lie.
One Ring to rule them all, One Ring to find them,
One Ring to bring them all and in the darkness bind them
In the Land of Mordor where the Shadows lie.“

Here is the Czech translation. I chose to include it, because it is a very good and impressive translation.

„Tři prsteny pro krále elfů pod nebem,
sedem vládcům trpaslíků v síních z kamene,
Devět mužům: každý je k smrti odsouzen,
Jeden pro Temného pána, jenž dlí na trůně
v zemi Mordor, kde se snoubí šero se šerem.
Jeden prsten vládne všem, Jeden jim všem káže,
Jeden všechny přivede, do temnoty sváže,
V zemi Mordor, kde se snoubí šero se šerem.“

This was an elvish song, warning against potent, but malignant rings of unimaginable power. A legend says that long, very long ago, 19 rings and 1 supreme ring were made. Nothing could destroy these rings except the fire of one volcano. The rings fulfilled its owner all his wishes, but the price to be paid was exorbitant. There were 9 rings given to humans and other rings to other races. The human owner of a ring lived hundreds of years and then could not die, but became a shadow, a phantasm, a servant of the supreme ring. Even if the human had good intentions at the beginning of using the ring, slowly but systematically the ring

corrupted his heart in a way that the owner became a servant of the bad will of the ring. So the obsession for wealth and power brought again destruction.

Only the elvish rings were free from the evil and the elves were the only race that never misused the power of the rings, i.e. they never used them for dark purposes. There the one ring, the supreme one, could not dominate and rule them. Only the elves stayed free from destructive power of the ruling rings. They never misused their three rings. When an owner of a ring used it for a purpose which caused harm to anyone else, he and his ring became subjugated to the supreme ring, to one, that ruled them all. And this person did not have his free will anymore. This is what happened to dwarf and human rings, but not to elvish ones.

The motif of magic rings is quite fascinating. A psychoanalyst would probably see it as a symbol. Selling one's soul for material advantages is what many people do nowadays. In the story actually all owners of magic rings became tired and bored of all wealth and power. In that moment it was however too late for them to turn back the time of non – being (the ring stole their being), they were not alive anymore.

Again, we experience the difference between humans and the elves. Nine rings belonging to humans were misused and they were lost, their owners ruined, while three elvish rings remained unspoilt. The elves rejected the destructive use of their rings and sacrificed all the beautiful things which they created in order not to submit to the one, supreme ring. They sacrificed the most beautiful things an eye could have ever seen rather than become eternal, eternal shadows.

My attempt to analyse *The Silmarillion* and *The Lord of the Rings* is more difficult than it would seem at first sight. In these two books (they are not allegories) are hidden many philosophical issues and they are definitely more than a fairy tale.

Of course, supernatural beings, magic rings and enchanted woods are „a pure fiction“, but the books offer strikingly deep analysis of human psyche and a completely different look at the human race than any other fiction does.

One of the English editions of *The Lord of the Rings* begins with the following words (paraphrased): The English speaking world is divided into two groups, into the first belong those who have read *The Lord of the Rings*, into the second those who will read it.

I clearly realise that it is difficult to analyse Tolkien's world. I concentrated only at two points which occupy my mind the most – the question of task and mission of humans on the Earth, their true position and not generally presented smugness. The next one is the destructive power of humans. There are many more topics worth attention, e.g. the love story of the elvish maiden Lúthien and the man Beren, but many stories of *The Silmarillion* are too sad to think about.

To end there is a stanza, a song written in elvish language (Tolkien was a master of linguistics after all). Maybe we need not understand the words to understand the meaning.

„A Elbereth Gilthoniel,
Silvren penna míriel
O menel aglar elenath!
Na – chaered palan – díriel
O galadhremmin enorath,
Fanuilos, le Linnathon
Nef aear, sí nef aearon!“

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The Message of Classical Indian Philosophy and Translation of its Texts

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Abstract. Indian culture and philosophy rank to the oldest ones in the world. They can really be called ancient and the first scripts were written thousands of years ago. Part of these texts are called yoga philosophy. The western world has been discovering the classical Indian philosophy for a couple of decades. Its main motif is ahimsá – or the principle of non – violence. The article further discusses some of the terms which are frequently used in the Indian philosophy.

Keywords: indian philosophy, yoga (philosophy), ahimsá – non – violence, avatar, juga, chakra, sanskrt, Ramajana, Mahabharata, Bhagavadgíta, Herman Hesse, Arthur Schopenhauer

The Indian philosophy in Slovakia and in Europe is not very well known, our folks (or the Christian part of the world generally) often distrust it and sometimes are even afraid of it. However this philosophy, including some very ancient classical philosophical texts has been gaining more and more interest in the recent years. The Indian philosophy is the world 's oldest existing cultural tradition which intellectual legacy, message and content are very rich and have survived for centuries. While other ancient cultures like ancient Egypt, Mayas, Incas, Romans or Greeks (which reached their prime either a few centuries earlier or later after India) do not exist any more, India is still alive and its message is here for a modern human.

Many contemporary European thinkers and philosophers were attracted by the ideas, philosophical depth and message of the Indian philosophy. Here I would like to mention German philosophers Arthur Schopenhauer and especially Herman Hesse, a German writer of the 20th century, who wrote among others the novel Siddharta (which is one of the names of Buddha) and who was given the Nobel Prize for literature. Here we can quote one of his statements, which was perhaps influenced by India as well – „loneliness is the way, by which destiny wants to lead a human to him/herself.“

This should be a linguistic article rather than a philosophical one, but it is necessary to mention the name of the Indian luminary who brought the richness of India to the western world – Mahatma Gandhi (Mahatma in Hindu means the great spirit or a human of the great spirit). Lets go away from philosophy and return to language problems.

Some of the texts about classical Indian philosophy are available on Internet or published as books, whether it concerns Vedas, Upanishadas or classical teachings of Patanjali (who wrote Yoga sutras and is considered to be the founder of yoga and its philosophy). The classical Indian philosophy is becoming more and more popular in the western world (there are currently many schools and branches). It promotes peace, understanding, tolerance, non - violence and dialogue amongst religions, nations, cultures and traditions and last, but not least the protection of the environment. Some parts of India, especially the north-western regions suffer from draught, therefore people there appreciate water much more then we Europeans do

and many Indians struggle to protect the environment. The philosophical texts are written in English, but there are many Hindu words or special terms used. The origin of these terms and words is ancient, many of them come from Sanskrit, one of the world's oldest languages, which is also called „the language of Gods“ and is not used anymore.

Let's go back to the language problems and Gandhi. The central topic of the Indian philosophy and the Indian attitude towards the world is ahimsa (or ahimsá). Ahimsa means the principle of non-violence. This means, we should not cause violence or hurt anyone or anything – not by a word, action, not even by a thought or feeling. In Indian philosophy thinking and thoughts have a great power and potential, which significantly influence and determine our human existence. Thought in India has a much bigger power than in Europe and this issue will be discussed later. Gandhi or Gandhiji (ji behind a name is a suffix expressing our respect and adoration to a person) liberated India from British colonialism by his politics of passive resistance. He was the first to introduce the principle of ahimsa in real life to the western world. This term – ahimsa – is in the text usually left untranslated. But of course, when someone sees this word for the first time s/ he may not know what it means.

Let's look at an interesting term which is well known also in Europe – karma. Most of all have heard it, but what exactly does it mean? It is the law of action and reaction, the law of cause and effect. Everything, what we say, we do or think or feel will sooner or later, but certainly after some time, return to us. However the people of India do not only think in the dimension of one human life.

Karma according to their image of human existence works from our previous and in our future lives. We can say, that karma means „you will harvest, what you sow.“ When the harvest comes, it depends to certain extent from us, to certain extent „the higher powers“ decide.

Other terms from Hindu and Sanskrit known in the western world are chakra, avatar (avatara), yuga (yuga) or yoga itself. Yoga means unity, oneness (it means the oneness or the unity with the higher or cosmic, not human conscience). The unity with the higher, cosmic conscience is according to the classical Indian philosophy the aim and task of our human existence).

Chakra is an energetical centre in the human body. Avatar is a divine incarnation, that visits our earth from time to time to help people to relieve and ease them from the load of their existence, to free them from suffering and to show them the right way to live. India knows more avatars, e.g. Rama, Krishna, Sri Devpuriji, Sri Mahaprabhuji and even Jesus Christ (which means that avatars do not come only to India, but can be born anywhere in the world). Yuga is a name for a longer time period lasting several million years on the Earth. There are four yugas or periods, which change one after another. Nowadays we live in kalijuga, in the time of the reign of the goddess Kali, which is the harshest yuga filled with suffering, ignorance, pain, torture, cruelty, egoism and all negative human character features and actions bringing pain to the humanity, as well as to all living creatures.

Very interesting also is the Indian concept of God. He has three aspects – Brahma, Vishnu and Shiva. These are three manifestations of the divine spirit. Brahma is the Creator, Vishnu is the One who keeps the things and Shiva is the Destroyer. The role of Shiva as the divine bearer of the destroying principle should not be understood negatively. Shiva frees from the evil, neutralizes and cancels all negative influences and energies and in this way he brings to us a happy, prosperous, serene and harmonic life. These names of God start to appear more and more in the western world as well.

There are of course many translations from the classical Indian philosophy. The most famous works are Ramajana and Mahabharata, which includes the philosophical work of Bhagavadgita (the song of the noble one). These writings are thousands of years old.

India is still an exotic country for us, the Europeans. However, there is definitely something, that we can learn from everyone. Asians and Indians have a completely different attitude towards life. They try to live right here and right now, in this moment. We, the Europeans, are said to plan and schedule too much. And that is the reason why we are unhappy or not satisfied. If our plans fail, or when things go a different way than we wish and expect, we feel disappointed. Asians on the other hand, do not plan and expect so much, they accept the things the way life brings them. And maybe, this is a good prescription for being happy.

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Evaluation and Factors Influencing the Implementation of Language Educational Innovations

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Abstract. There are several factors that influence the implementation of educational innovations in general. The purpose of this article is to identify and examine four of them in more depth: teachers' attitudes, the clarity of the innovation proposal, support and communication during the innovation, and teacher training. These factors will be accompanied by an account of an EFL innovation dealing with the assessment of writing skill in Slovak secondary grammar schools in order to demonstrate how crucial they are for successful implementation.

Keywords: evaluation, factors, implementation, educational innovation

1. Introduction

Evaluation is the most frequently portrayed as the systematic assessment of the worth or merit of something. However, this definition can be hardly considered as a perfect one as there are many types of evaluations that do not necessarily result in an assessment, e.g. descriptive studies, implementation analyses, or formative evaluations. In our understanding evaluation should be systematic, address the needs of stakeholder requirements, and have immediate utility not only for short-term decision but also policy shaping. Therefore, we completely agree with Rea-Dickins and Germaine [1] that evaluation can be understood as a developmental tool that is expected to provide all necessary information for action and change and simultaneously inform pedagogical practice and practitioner decision making. As it emphasizes acquiring and assessing information rather than assessing worth or merit due to the fact that all evaluation work involves collecting data, making judgements about the validity of the information and inferences we derive from it. We would like to stress in the following pages not only the role of communication and the engagement of stakeholders, but also the need for a closer integration of evaluation within the implementation of innovation.

As we stated above evaluation can be characterised in different ways but basically it is about innovation, planning, and change. Educational innovations are planned to bring improvement into classroom practice with their ultimate aim of enhancing student achievement. According to Fullan and Steigelbauer [2], these innovations are the most difficult to implement as they involve changes at three levels

1. change or revision of teaching materials, syllabi or curricula
2. changes in teacher behaviour
3. changes in beliefs and principles underlying new materials and approaches

If innovation is supposed to have a positive effect on enhancing student achievement, it must occur at all three levels of changes. As Hopkins et al. claim [3] when changes occur in either of these levels rather than all three, then the chances of achieving the intended outcomes of the innovation become drastically reduced. The main aim of implementation is to find out

whether the teachers' behaviour and beliefs have changed in relation to a particular innovation, how the innovation has been taken up in the practice and the factors that have led to the successful or unsuccessful implementation. Therefore, implementation should form an integral, fundamental part of curriculum evaluation.

Within the last few years Slovak government prompted the Ministry of Education to introduce several educational reforms in the hope that with their help the teachers will better prepare future generations for life. Sad to say, the innovations proposing changes in teaching foreign languages failed more times than they succeeded. Most of the teachers either immediately rejected the innovation or pretended to accept the innovation but in reality carry on as before. Based on the implementation study carried out at secondary grammar schools in Žilina region, we would like to examine four main factors influencing the implementation of language educational innovations – in our case – introduction of marking criteria for writing in Slovak secondary grammar schools.

2. The Implementation Study

The field research took place during the fourth year of the implementation of marking criteria for writing in all Slovak secondary grammar schools. The aim of the study was to investigate the factors influencing the implementation of marking criteria for writing, i.e. teachers' attitudes towards and response to the innovation as well as their knowledge of its underlying principles. In order to achieve this aim these research methods were employed: the study of the school documentation and interview aimed at eliciting teachers' opinions of marking criteria and reactions to the innovation as well as reports of their classroom practice. Twelve secondary grammar school teachers from various schools in Žilina region were selected to take part in the study. All of them were qualified and attended two-day training organized by ŠPÚ (State Pedagogical Institute) for teachers to support the implementation of the innovation. These teachers aged from 24 to 60 years were interviewed in order to find factors that influenced them to accept the innovation. Karavas-Doukas [4] identifies several factors that influence the implementation of educational innovations in general. The following lines discuss the findings of the implementation study, focusing mainly on four factors in more depth: the clarity of the innovation proposal, teacher training, teachers' attitudes, support and communication during the innovation; in order to demonstrate how crucial they are for successful implementation.

2.1. The Clarity of the Innovation Proposal

As Fullan and Steigelbauer [2], Brown [5] and Karavas [4] claim, the lack of clarity of the innovation proposal has been a persistent problem in numerous reforms. The proposal either does not clearly state the main aims of the innovation or it does not specify the means of implementation. Furthermore, some of them use language outside the teachers' frame of reference. As a result, most of the teachers are unable to see the critical features of the innovation and are not sure what they should do in a different way to satisfied policy makers. This may lead to two forms of non-change, as highlighted by Fullan and Steigelbauer [2]:

False clarity – teachers think that they have changed their way of teaching and commit themselves to an innovation, but in a real life they have only assimilated the superficial trappings of the new practice. The majority (60%) of teachers claim that they follow the innovation suggestions by writing essays with their students and trying to assess them by using newly introduced marking criteria. However, the results gained by the analysis of corrected students' essays and from the interviews with teachers revealed that they were not really implementing marking criteria. The majority of students' mistakes were corrected

directly without using editing code. Moreover, all essays were marked without providing students with feedback that should include information about students' performance in all four features, i.e. content, organization, grammar and vocabulary. All teachers used analytical scoring instead of holistic, i.e. they read the essays and gave a single mark to the student based on overall impression of their essay.

Painful unclarity – teachers are completely confused about practical implications of the innovation and reject it or ignore some aspects of the innovation and most of them react with disfavour. The rest of the teachers (40%) involved in the study had great difficulty coming to terms with the demands of marking criteria. They could not understand the practical part of the innovation, how it could help them and their student to improve their writing skill. They corrected only grammatical and vocabulary mistakes ignoring the problems students have with putting their ideas together so their piece of writing is cohesive and coherent. Most of the students' essays could be characterised as a whole bunch of ideas that were written down until the supply of them was exhausted. Furthermore, these teachers refuse to write essays with their students more than once pre term as they consider it as a waste of them and useless when speaking about improving writing skill.

As conclusion to the above findings, we believe that teachers need to know precisely what an innovation proposal entails in practice for them and their students. Nevertheless, we should not assume that a detailed description of proposal is going to save innovation's neck. Therefore, we suggest policy makers to ensure that teachers understand not only the theoretical part, but also the practical implications of the innovation. When we want to implement changes, it is not enough to take into consideration only the clarity of proposal. We need to think of professional development activities both pre-service and in-service training which enable teachers to use a particular innovation.

2.2. Teacher Training

Everyone needs some time and space to understand new ideas in order to develop the appropriate skill in carrying the innovation out and adapt it effectively into practice. However, most of us together with the policy makers assume that teachers are trained professionals who should be able to acquire any skill that we might call for. On the one hand, many researchers, Fullan [6] and Hopkins et al. [3], highlight the importance of ongoing professional development of teachers. On the other hand, most of the innovations, including introducing marking criteria for writing, in Slovak Republic are still being introduced with the help of one or maximum three days mass training sessions during which teachers are overwhelmed with theoretical information about a new innovation and of course they are expected to return back to their schools as experts who will manage the change without problems. Moreover, the participation of teachers in these seminars is optional.

Our study revealed that despite the fact that all teachers took part in these seminars; they all claimed that they had been inadequately trained in using marking criteria for writing due to the fact that those seminars focused too much on theory, the lecturers failed in answering their questions, and therefore they could not build bridges with the classroom practice. These findings are extremely important to us as they support our hypothesis that teachers suffer from false clarity, at one side 70% claimed to use them in their everyday practice, however, the same teachers say that they do not feel prepared to implement the innovation. Therefore, we agree with Fullan [6] who claims that "teacher education still has the honour of being simultaneously the worst problem and the best solution in education." In other words, we need to understand that educational innovation will never amount to anything until teachers become skilled professionals rather than merely recipients of change who implement it on a

very superficial level. As a result, both pre-service and in-service training must be systematic and ongoing taking into account teachers' existing knowledge, attitudes and beliefs.

2.3. Teachers' Attitudes and Beliefs

As mentioned in previous paragraphs, change needs to occur at three levels if the implementation of innovation is supposed to be successful. And if we want to be honest, we need to say that changes in beliefs are the most difficult to achieve as old habits die hard. Therefore, we agree with Karavas-Doukas's opinion [4] that teachers cannot be viewed as atheoretical beings because they have established well-entrenched beliefs about both teaching and learning process which can be proved by the opinion of one of the teacher taking part in our research.

“To tell the true, I am so tired of all those changes. I quite don't understand what was wrong about my way of teaching and assessing student's essays. I wasn't taught how to write in English, but I do my best to help my students. We do every single exercise in the book so I hope that they will be prepared for their leaving exam. And I don't think that they will improve their writing skill more if I use all those symbols that ŠPÚ wants us to use. Moreover, I don't see any difference between giving a mark and points as students are very clever nowadays and they know that if they got only four points out of 20, it means that they didn't do very well. So I decided to do it my way and I think that I am not the only one at this school. I take only those ideas from all these innovations that might be useful for me and my students.”

As we can see from the lines above, the teachers may transform innovations by choosing activities that suit their existing teaching style and beliefs of the nature of the teaching and learning process. The vast majority (80%) believed that the assessment of writing needed change and improvement. The most serious complain of teachers was that ŠPÚ thinks that by sending a thin booklet of instruction how to assess students' essays, will save the situation and will guarantee the reliability of the assessment. Teachers feel betrayed as they thought that ŠPÚ would prepare materials which help them to prepare not only their students for leaving exam, but also themselves for using marking criteria. Last but not least, we believe that teachers may become excellent implementers of all innovations if they are given the opportunity to clarify their attitudes and beliefs and develop the appropriate frame of reference in which they can receive new ideas. This will enable them to discern the most appropriate ideas for their students and they can put their decision making and judgement on a more rational footing. Finally, we would like to point out that the teacher's beliefs should not be underscored and definitely not ignored by policy makers and initiators of change.

2.4. Support and Communication During the Innovation

The last factor that we plan to discuss in this article is support and communication during the innovation as it seems to more or less compound all the previous factors. It is believed that colleagues and school management support has a serious effect on a teacher's decision to use an innovation in his/her classroom. None of us wants to be a black sheep of the family. Moreover, Hopkins et al. [3] claim that a supportive school environment facilitates the acceptance of an innovation and helps to reduce the anxiety of learning a new skill. Therefore, in this kind of working environment it is easier for teachers to discuss their pressing problems, especially during the initial stage of implementation when theoretical knowledge is translated into practice.

All teachers claim that they have a good relationship with their colleagues, they support each other and they find it very useful while they are asked to implement some kind of

innovation. A substantial number of teachers (80%) also feel that they are strongly supported by their management of the school. The headmaster or deputy headmaster informs them about and allows them to participate in training activities. Moreover, they are rewarded for it, usually by day-off bonus. However, vast majority of teachers (90%) had no idea who is their appointed adviser whose role is to provide support and guidance to them if they need it. To put it all into a nutshell, the communication and support between teachers, teachers and their management can be considered as satisfactory. On the contrary, the communication between teachers and appointed adviser is extremely limited or hardly existing. Therefore, based on the research results, we suggest to school management to force ŠPÚ to appoint only such advisers who are devoted to their work and will be able to establish working groups of teachers who support each other by providing open feedback, discussing their problems, developing action plans together, etc.

3. Conclusion

To conclude, our intention throughout this whole article was to point out that the implementation of innovation does not happen overnight and without serious problems. It is a long and arduous journey. Therefore, innovations should be introduced on a fragmented basis with adequate preparation of the teaching force. In other words, both pre-service and in-service teacher education must occupy the centre stage of any educational innovation. Due to the fact that the teachers' contribution to and participation in the innovation are essential, teachers are the instruments of change and without their willingness, co-operation and participation there can be no change Brown [5]. The introduction and implementation of marking criteria for writing is a case in point. It is only throughout systematic teacher development, the clarity of the innovation proposal, being aware of teachers' attitudes, support and communication that we can change teachers who consider themselves as the victims of innovation to teachers who become the active agents of it. We firmly believe that the awareness of and sensitivity to these factors by educational policy makers may prevent duplication of some mistake made in the past and allow for more successful implementation of ELT innovations.

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The Concept of *Rei Iudicatae* in Administrative Procedure

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Abstract. The work represents the selected problems referred to the *rei iudicatae* in administrative proceedings. The author mainly focused on the problem of administrative matter identity and legal succession in case of parties and the function of the subject institution in administrative procedure as a guarantee of individual rights. The article presents new definition of *rei iudicatae* in the sphere of administrative proceedings (*rei deliberatae*).

Keywords: *res iudicata*, *res deliberata*, identity, legal succession, administrative matter

1. Introduction

There are numerous procedures (both in national and international concept) where the gravity of judged case (*res iudicata*) can be spotted. It constitutes “one of the guarantee of legal protection” and because of that reason *res iudicata* should be classed as general work of legal culture.[1] Process universality brings a common, for all procedures conducted by the courts and public administration organs, definition of *rei iudicatae* as “judicial power of binding judgment, precluding resettlement the same matter”. [2]

Res iudicata is also recognized in administrative procedure. Nevertheless it must be underlined that because of the specific character of administrative process (its parties, subject and result) for not suitable and accurate must be comprehend using the expression of *rei iudicatae*. This term refers to court’s judgment. Settlement of administration matter could not be treated equally and in unconditioned way with verdict of the court. [3] In administrative procedure the construction of *rei iudicatae* should be called using the term of the gravity of matter considered (*rei deliberatae*), defined as judicial power of the final administrative decision, resulting in impossibility of resettlement of the matter by passing new decision without recalling the first one. The identity of matter and the possibility of procedure initiation are the most problematical issues of the *rei iudicatae* (*deliberatae*) construction in administrative law.

2. The Origin of the *Rei Iudicatae* Concept

Res iudicata („matter settled”, „matter judged”) in Roman law, according to the classic formula: *Res iudicata pro veritate accipitur (habetur)* by Ulpian (Digesta, 1, 5, 25), [4] has created on the basis of finished process binding law position between parties, acknowledged as a truthfulness. The institution of *rei iudicatae* in ancient Rome referred to the issue of material validity of judgment, discovered as final and commanding settlement of the dispute between parties also for the future. As a consequence there was impossible to initiate the process in the same matter. The guarantee of *rei iudicatae* was *exceptio rei iudicatae* (the

accusation of rejudged case, entitled to defendant for the same by the same plaintiff). On the basis of material binding judgment the winning plaintiff could conducted to the execution. [5]

3. The Essence of Settled Matter Status in Administrative Procedure

3.1. The Guarantee for Legal Safety

The position of settled mater gives the individual (party of administrative process) the protection against arbitrarily and self-will change of previously reached decision.

Similar as in civil, criminal or any other procedure conducted by the state organs, the legal results of discussed institution serve as guarantee and the same – realization of the idea of legal safety. [6] *Res iudicata* is an obstacle for administrative organ against resettlement the same administrative matter.[7]

Administrative decision settled the *meritum* of the case closes conducted administrative proceedings, crowns it and the same, in the light of theoretical and practical considerations, could appear the *rei deliberatae* institution. In consequence it should be defined when such decision will proclaim the gravity of judged matter. What kind of criteria decide about creation of *rei deliberatae*. The term of this institution itself involves that the decision should have the feature of the definiteness. There is no doubt that only final decision in administrative instances course could be protected against free repeal and resettlement the same matter.

The indispensable is to estimate the borders of judged matter state, researching the elements of this matter to analyze the identity of the matters. The catalogue of premises determining creation and being of *rei deliberatae* in administrative procedure establishes definiteness of the decision and identity of administrative matter.

3.2. Identity of Matters in the Context of Rei Iudicatae (Deliberatae)

Comparison of administrative matters in the context of *rei iudicatae* is a very sophisticated subject. In the purpose of concluding the identity, similarity or differences of two matters is to previously claim the possibility of comparison of these cases. The process of comparison of the matters is possible if they are classed as matters of the same type. However the most import issue for the identity matter is coexistence of three general elements: occurrence of administrative matter, identity of parties and object of matter.

Administrative matter as an object of administrative proceedings should be characterized as the matter of certain individual person, judged by the proper state organ.

For the very accurate should be known the need of both – sized research of identity matter issue – both in objective (*eadem res*) and subjective (*eadem personam*) point of view.”[8]

Identity of parties should be recognized especially in reference to the active party of the matter (individual natural or legal person). Consequently, behind the sphere of interests stays the problematic of organ identity.

Furthermore it must be underlined that the concern of legal succession of administrative proceedings party has the general meaning in subject issue. The subject identity is retained when in the place of past party joins her legal successors [9], it means persons who acquired the certain right as a result of legal action between living persons (*inter vivos*) or as a consequence of the action in case of death (a will heritage), or an act heritage. In such case appears legal process succession. From this type of right and obligation succession must be differed the legal succession in material administrative law. According to the general

statement presented in doctrine of administrative law, succession of rights and obligations from administrative act must be recognized as impossible.[9]

In analyses of the identity of administrative parties, the issue of process substitution must be beyond the consideration range. The function of party proxy in administrative proceedings, *notabene* similar to the court procedures, is reduced to representation, giving and taking the will and making legal actions, but on behalf of and with the results for authorizing.[10]

As a result of conclusion that the subject of administrative matter consists of: legal rights (obligations) of parties, which in consequence of decision modify into acquired rights, the real circumstances and legal regulation, the subject identity will occur but on condition of identity of these above three elements.

Problem of identity matter involves individual examination and should be analyzed in reference to concrete case. Accordingly, there could be the situation that matters refer to the same object and the same party (parties) but the identity of matters do not exist because of the differential of parties rights of obligations. Hence, identity of cases in objective point occurs only in case of real and legal object identity (the same fact and legal state).

4. Conclusion

The guarantee function of *rei iudicatae (deliberatae)* is under discussion. There should be admitted that the problematic issue is the question of borders of such protection in case of defective decisions. Possibility of initiation another administrative proceedings is also a fully justified account, even though the preliminary estimation of matter shows its final settlement. Administrative state organ is responsible for answering the question of matters identity.

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On Research Findings Related to English Teachers' Questioning Strategies in the English Classroom

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Abstract. The paper deals with different taxonomies, distribution, reasons and functions as well as the impact of English teachers' questions on language classrooms. The author presents various research findings of foreign authors as well as her own research design to explore different types of teachers' questions in the EFL classrooms. The author emphasizes that language teachers must be aware of the fact that their questions are essential tools in activating students' responses in the teaching and learning process. The EFL teachers should carefully plan and formulate their questions so that each student should be given maximum time and space for practicing their speaking skills and developing their communicative competence.

Keywords: English teacher, questions in English teaching and learning process, functions of questions, taxonomy of questions, open and closed referential and display questions

1. Introduction: Teachers' Questions in the Language Study

"Questions provide the key to unlocking our unlimited potential."

Anthony Robbins (1960 -)

If we cogitate who is responsible for unlocking the unlimited students' potential in any school setting, the answer will be short and unambiguous – a teacher. The teacher is the one who begins the majority of conversations in the classroom, who asks the majority of questions, in the most extreme cases s/he is the one who answers the questions of his/her own. The way by which teacher chooses, formulates and asks questions has a tremendous influence not only directly in the lesson, but follows the long-term prospects of acquisition and learning in sciences, humanities as well as foreign languages. What kinds of questions any English teacher asks in the language classroom? This article aims to present different functions, reasons, taxonomies as well as interesting research findings of foreign authors who have explored teachers' questions in the language classrooms since 1970s.

Teachers' questions and learners' responses are considered to be the most important tools in the teaching and learning process. This issue has been dealt with by many of our as well as foreign authors (Gavora, Mistrík, Zelina, Mareš – Křivohlavý, Nelešovská, Černetová, Homolová, Velikanič, Kearsley, Bloom, Brown, Brock, Long and Sato, Lynch, Mehan, Pica, Richards and Lockhart, White and Lightbown, Wragg, etc.). Gavora [1] regards questions as the most frequent diagnostic tool in the teaching and learning process. He claims that during a single lesson a teacher asks between 40 and 150 questions, either in an interrogative form or as a task, which is formed as a statement or order, and has the potential to become a question. Nelešovská [2] agrees and adds that a question represents the basis for the consequent dialogue and together with a response is an inevitable and decisive part of any dialogue. She emphasizes the fact that any question must meet particular requirements in order to elicit a

response. These requirements are as follows: appropriateness, comprehensibility, conciseness, certainty, factual as well as linguistic accuracy.

According to Wragg [3] "teachers' reasons for asking questions, not surprisingly, vary according to the subject or topic being taught, the class, the ability of the pupils." Either in content or language classes, there is the standard interactional pattern in which the teacher asks a question, one or more students respond to that question, and the teacher evaluates the response. It is well known that questioning is one of the most common techniques used by teachers. There are several reasons why questions are so commonly used in teaching. Richards and Lockhart [4] point out that questions "stimulate and maintain students' interest, they encourage students to think and focus on the content of the lesson, enable a teacher to clarify what a student has said, enable a teacher to elicit particular structures or vocabulary items, enable teachers to check students' understanding, encourage student participation in a lesson." Brown [5] basically discusses four functions of teachers' questions. He emphasizes that these questions provide students with the opportunity to speak the language without painstakingly initiating interaction themselves, they can trigger a series of follow-up conversations between students, they also help teachers know how well students comprehend and help students to discover their own opinions. Long and Sato [6] view classroom questions first from a sociological perspective and thus they have been shown to provide one means by which, in conversation between participants of unequal status, the dominant member exercises and maintains control of the interaction and secondly this dominant teacher questioning behaviour reflects pervasive use of questions that oblige students to display knowledge rather than provide unknown information or express attitudes. All of the above mentioned reasons and functions can be taken for granted when classifying questions according to different taxonomies.

2. Taxonomy of Questions in a Verbal Discourse and Language Teaching and Learning

There have been developed different taxonomies of teachers' questions since 1970s. Kearsley (in Long and Sato, [6]) conducted a cross-disciplinary review of questions and question-asking in verbal discourse. In his taxonomy he makes the difference between four major groups of questions:

1. *Echoic*: "those which ask for the repetition of an utterance or confirmation that an utterance has been interpreted as intended" (e.g., Pardon? What? Huh?)
2. *Epistemic*: "those which serve the purpose of acquiring information"
 - a) *Referential*: "are intended to provide contextual information about situations, events, actions, purposes, relationships, or properties" (Wh-questions)
 - b) *Evaluative*: "are asked to establish the addressee's knowledge of the answer" ("display", "test", or "known information" questions)
3. *Expressive*: "convey attitudinal information to the addressee" (e.g. Are you coming or aren't you?)
4. *Social control*: "used to exert authority by maintaining control of the discourse"
 - a) *Attentional*: "allow the questioner to take over the direction of the discourse" (metamessage is "listen to me" or "think about this")
 - b) *Verbosity*: "asked only for the sake of politeness or to sustain conversation" (e.g. cocktail party questions)

Long and Sato [6] in their study of classroom discourse modified Kearsley's taxonomy with regard to the ESL classroom discourse and proposed the following taxonomy:

1. *Echoic*:
 - a) *Comprehension checks* (e.g. Alright?; OK?; Does everyone understand "polite"?)
 - b) *Clarification requests* (e.g. What do you mean?; I don't understand; What?)
 - c) *Confirmation checks* (e.g. S: Carefully. → T: Carefully? Did you say "he"?)
2. *Epistemic*:
 - a) *Referential* (e.g. Why didn't you do your homework?)
 - b) *Display* (e.g. What's the opposite of "up" in English?)
 - c) *Expressive* (e.g. It's interesting the different pronunciations we have now, but isn't it?)
 - d) *Rhetorical*: asked for effect only, no answer expected from listeners, answered by speaker (e.g., Why did I do that? Because I)

Furthermore, Pica (in Cheryl Wei-yu Chen [11]) points out that both referential and display questions can be further divided into the open and closed type. Therefore, within the basic referential/display distinction she subdivides four sub-types of questions:

1. *Referential questions*:
 - a) *Open referential questions*: "questions which are information-seeking in nature and also elicit linguistically complex answers" (e.g. Can you tell me how to make chocolate chip muffins?)
 - b) *Closed referential questions*: "question which are information-seeking in nature and result in simple elicitation of factual information" (e.g. What's your name?)
2. *Display questions*:
 - a) *Open display questions*: "questions which teachers know the answers in advance but elicit linguistically complex answers" (e.g. Can you summarize five ways to get to the airport?)
 - b) *Closed display questions*: "questions which teachers know the answers in advance and often result in short answers" (e.g. What's the opposite of "up"?)

As we have already mentioned, the question represents the basis of every consequent dialogue and together with the response is its inevitable and decisive part. The dialogue between teacher and students has its characteristic features and routine pattern. Mehan [7] calls the routine teacher-student dialogue as the three-part Initiation –Reply – Evaluation sequence (analogically to contemporary Initiation-Response-Feedback). This sequence associated with the classroom contains two coupled adjacency pairs. The Initiation-Reply is the first adjacency pair; the initiation ("What does this word say, Beth?") demands a reply ("One"). When this reply is obtained, a pair is formed. This pair then becomes the first part of a second adjacency pair. This second part is the evaluation or the feedback ("Very good") of the Initiation-Reply pair. Although this I-R-E or I-R-F seems to be restricting students' interactional abilities, it is crucial to activate students by asking such questions which trigger consequent responses. Moreover, it is inevitable to realize that in the country where English is spoken just as a foreign language mostly in schools, the English lesson must provide the time and space where the target language is constantly used and students are given vast opportunities to practice their speaking skills in such an educational setting.

The educational setting bears its unique features which are reflected not only in this sequence I-R-E or I-R-F, but it is important to realize that the level of a question affects what the student says in reply or response. The results of a vast number of studies suggest that responses to questions calling for recognition or recall of factual information are shorter than responses to higher-order questions calling for interpretation or opinion. Mehan (in Brock, [8])

emphasizes that “the use of known-information questions, or display questions in the classroom generates discourse which is fundamentally different from everyday discourse is an important consideration for language teachers. An increased use by teachers of referential questions, which create a flow of information from students to teachers, may generate discourse which more nearly resembles the normal conversation learners experience outside of the classroom.” Thus, if a language teacher wants to bring everyday reality closer to students, s/he must increase the use of such questions, which are based on the so called “information gap” since this gap is crucial for expressing students’ views, opinions, attitudes, likes or dislikes. Naturally, many foreign authors have devoted their research to exploring the essence and impact of English teachers’ questions on the classroom discourse.

3. Research Findings of Different Foreign Authors

The main purpose of Brock’s study [8] was to determine if higher frequencies of referential questions have an effect on adult ESL classroom discourse. The subjects of this study included 24 students, non-native speakers (NNSs), enrolled in classes in the University of Hawaii’s English Language Institute; also serving as subjects for the study were 4 English as a second language teachers (ESL), 2 males and 2 females. The students were divided into 4 groups of 6 NNSs (2 treatment and 2 control groups), the 4 ESL teachers were assigned to a treatment or a control group using a randomized block to control for gender. Each teacher was randomly assigned one of the groups of 6 students for a single class period of 40 minutes. None of the teachers was acquainted with the students before the class. Before the study was realized the treatment-group teachers were informed about the purpose of the study and they were given a 20-minute training session introducing the distinction between display and referential questions. Moreover, they briefly practised forming referential questions. On the other hand, the control-group teachers were only told that the purpose of the study was to examine an unnamed aspect of classroom language. The research results showed that the 2 control-group teachers asked a total of 141 questions, only 24 of which were referential and 117 of which were display. The treatment-group teachers, on the other hand, asked a total of 194 questions, 173 of which were referential and only 21 of which were display. Since the treatment-group teachers asked approximately 1.38 times as many total questions as the control-group teachers, the number of referential questions asked by the control-group teachers was weighted by a factor of 1.38. With this weighting for the unequal number of questions asked, the control-group teachers asked 33.12 referential questions. The teachers who were trained in the formation of referential questions asked significantly more of them than the teachers who were not. The mean length of all learner turns which were responses to referential questions was 10.00 words; the mean length of learner responses to display questions was 4.23 words. The difference was proved to be statistically significant. In the conclusion Brock emphasizes the fact that the 2 teachers who received training were able to increase the number of referential questions they used in the classroom. Furthermore, the learners’ responses to referential questions were on average more than twice as long and more than twice syntactically complex as their responses to display questions, which means that the use of referential questions increases the amount of learner output and thus such questions should be an important tool in the language classroom, especially in those contexts in which the classroom provides learners their only opportunity to produce the target language.

Cundale [9] in his collaborative investigation, which was carried out with 2 teachers at the Anglo Mexican Cultural Institute (Puebla), a private language school, identified the types of questions teachers ask their students as well as the teachers’ stated beliefs about communicative language teaching (CLT). The 2 teachers (Alberto and Laura), both having 7

years teaching experience, were first interviewed about their views on CLT. In the interviews they claimed that they are communicative in their teaching. Both teachers were teaching in lockstep mode, that is the teacher addressing the whole group: Alberto was working with a group of 12 young adults studying at the upper intermediate level; Laura was teaching a group of 9 pre-intermediate students, young adults. The first hour of their lessons (60-minute) was recorded and analysed. The results showed that both teachers asked approximately the same number of questions, 32 for Alberto and 37 for Laura. Alberto used a greater number of closed questions, 37% of all his questions, compared with 22% for Laura. Each of the teachers used only one closed display question, i.e. the question type that restricts classroom discourse most. In conclusion Cundale states that both teachers used a majority of referential questions and favoured the use of open over closed questions. On the basis of this, the author agrees that the two teachers use such questioning strategies which correspond to their stated beliefs concerning CLT.

Shomoossi [10] conducted his qualitative-quantitative study as a classroom research in which he observed 40 reading comprehension classes in Tehran universities during a two-month period. The subjects of the study were 3 English as a foreign language instructors (EFL) from Allamah Tabatabaee University and 2 from Tehran University, Iran as well as Iranian students at upper-intermediate level. None of them knew about the focus of the study. The research findings showed that the observed teachers asked a total of 1628 questions, 1335 (about 82%) of which were classified as display and only 293 (about 18%) as referential. This means that the observed teachers used display questions 4.5 times more than the number of referential questions. Using chi-square, the first hypothesis that there is no difference between the distribution of teachers' use of display questions and referential questions was rejected. Statistically speaking, the number of display questions was significantly higher than the number of referential questions. As for the second hypothesis that referential questions create more interaction in the classroom than display questions, these two groups of questions were randomly selected from among the obtained data for statistical analysis. The amount of time each question resulted in the classroom interaction was measured in minutes; then, they were added up; and a mean was calculated for each type (display questions – mean = 0.625 minutes, referential questions – mean = 2.833 minutes). Then using a t-test, the observed results were proved to be statistically significant and the second hypothesis was confirmed. However, the author states that there can be found a number of referential questions which required a shorter answer and after them there was a period of silence or topic-change and thus he concludes: "Most, not all, referential questions create more interaction in the classroom than display questions do." It can be noticed that this author's conclusion corresponds to Pica's research in which she identifies the whole group of closed referential questions.

Cheryl Wei-yu Chen [11] conducted her observation in one beginner, one intermediate, and one advanced listening-and-speaking class, all offered by the English Language Programme at the University of Pennsylvania. Both the beginner and intermediate classes were 100-minute long, while advanced one was 65-minute long. Her research findings showed that in both of the beginner and intermediate class, closed display questions were asked most frequently by the teacher (52.2 % and 45.3%). In the advanced class, closed referential questions were asked most often (43.3%). The percentage of open referential questions was the lowest in the beginner class (9.7%). A common feature found in the classrooms was the low percentage of open referential and open display questions. In the beginner class, only 19.4% of the referential and display questions was open, 24% in the intermediate class, and 20% in the advanced class. In the intermediate and advanced class, teachers did not ask any open display question. The author concludes that even though the overall percentage of referential questions was not low in all classes (beginner 24.5%, intermediate 33.3%, and

advanced 32.2%), the learners's responses were short and the questions did not encourage students to exercise their linguistic inventories.

The research of teachers' questions in Slovak schools was conducted by Homolová [12] during the period of 26 English lessons. The subjects of her observation were 13 Slovak teachers of EFL, 13 English lecturers - native speakers, 141 students of different grammar schools from the Banská Bystrica region. The author divided questions into two basic groups: questions eliciting short answers (analogically closed referential or display questions) and questions eliciting longer answers – creative, hypothetical, personal or general questions which cannot be answered by one or two words only (analogically open referential or display questions). The research findings showed that the observed teachers asked a total of 439 questions. The Slovak teachers of EFL asked 121 questions eliciting short answers and 81 questions eliciting longer answers. English lecturers – native speakers asked 105 questions eliciting short answers and 132 questions eliciting longer answers. Comparing the proportion of the two basic types of questions asked by Slovak teacher of EFL and English lecturers, the author found out that Slovak teachers of EFL asked 1.5 times more questions eliciting short answers (121:81). On the other hand, English lecturers asked 1.25 times more questions eliciting longer answers (132:105). Homolová concludes that although this differences are not proved to be statistically significant, Slovak teachers of EFL preferred rapid pacing and easy conversation in their own direction.

4. The Proposed Design of English Teachers' Questions Research in Slovak Grammar Schools

With regard to existing researches which were conducted mostly abroad, we have decided to deal with the issue of English teachers' questions and students' responses in Slovak educational settings. The subjects of our quantitative-qualitative research are 54 Slovak students of English at intermediate level, at the age of 17-18 (attending the third year of the fourth-year grammar schools) It was deliberate choice due to the fact that in the third year, students are used to discussing with their English teachers, they have enough developed linguistic inventories (the starting point for obligatory EFL teaching and learning is in the fifth year of a primary school) and they are heading towards passing their Maturita (school-leaving examination) in English in the fourth year of grammar school. Moreover, the new Maturita design requires the examinee to show such speaking skills which, to a high degree, correspond to the everyday discourse and real use of English outside the classroom. There participate four classes, 4 qualified EFL teachers with the range of teaching practice (5, 10, 15 and 25 years) In the first stage, based on the exploiting quantitative research design, we realize video recording of 12 English lessons (3 lessons of each of 4 teachers). The aim of this stage is to analyse the proportion of different types of teachers' question following Long and Sato and Pica taxonomy of questions. In the subsequent stage we analyse the relation of the selected types of questions (open referential, closed referential, open display, closed display) and students' responses to these questions (the length of the response in words). This step is endorsed by the fact that the type of questions influences the length of subsequent response. In the second stage – the crucial qualitative research design we conduct in-depth semi-structured interviews with deliberately selected students in which we try to answer the following research questions:

- How do Y3 grammar school students perceive the dialogic Teacher-Student conversation in EFL teaching and learning AJ?
- How do Teacher's questions influence Student's answers?
- Why do/ do not Students respond to Teacher's questions?

With regard to the triangulation, which purpose in qualitative research is to increase the credibility and validity of the results, we also conduct in-depth semi-structured interviews with the 4 EFL teachers. The data from the interviews are subsequently coded exploiting an open, axial and selective coding and subsequently the story line is formed.

5. Conclusion

In spite of the fact that modern language teachers do realize that they must encourage real communication between students in their lessons, it can be hard for them to move away from the traditional role of a controller, in which they transmit knowledge from themselves to their students, since they have been trained to teach like this for ages. Kavčičková and Ličko [13] contend that students prefer a more democratic approach in teaching. As one of their analyses shows, “a substantial majority” ... of questioned students claimed that the rather “authoritative figure” of teacher should be changed into a “...guide, ...advisor and ...controller”, who “shows the best way to learn”, “creates a co-operative atmosphere” and “inspires students to learn and tries to change passive, indifferent listeners into active and productive learners.” However, if the teacher wants to extend learners’ competence in speaking, s/he has to know when to relax his/her control over classroom interaction, so as to give the students the chance to practise freer talk. One of the possible solutions how to increase students’ exploitation of the target language is effective questioning in the classroom. Anyway, it would be unprofessional to claim that the quality of English lesson depends exclusively on the high proportion of asked referential questions. Both referential and display questions have their crucial and characteristic roles in EFL teaching and learning. They are critical to the management of the learning process, their choice depends on the goals of the lesson, the task within the lesson, the size of the class, the language level of students. It is up to the teacher to be flexible and switch from a display to a referentially driven interaction (and vice versa) at any particular time in the teaching-learning cycle. Neither fluency, nor accuracy can be achieved unless the teacher uses appropriate tasks and procedures at appropriate times. The students’ overall thinking and learning can be improved significantly if the students have the opportunity to respond to English teachers’ questions and to enjoy the process of interaction with them. Both teachers and students must work together to accomplish desired teaching and learning aims.

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The Environmental Movement

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Abstract. The paper deals with the Environmental Movement. The first part asks questions about possible causes and reasons why the Environmental Movement has been created. The second part highlights the importance and necessity of the Movement. The conclusion clarifies the essence and work of the Environmental Movement.

Keywords: environmental movement, environmental revolution, natural world, nature, environmental group

1. What Went Wrong?

The environmental movement would not exist unless we saw ourselves as somehow separate from Nature and believed we should be doing things differently. 'The aspirations of the movement are based on the assumption that we have lost touch with the natural world and that, through a blind faith in science, technology, and expansionist, capitalist economics, we are causing untold damage to the systems that support our very being.' [1]

The whole notion of human separation from Nature is full of profound philosophical and spiritual questions. How can we possibly be separate from the Nature from which we came, on which we depend from moment to moment and to which one day we shall return? It is an individual human ego which separates itself from the 'concept' of Nature.

The environmental movement is built upon the notion that the way in which we are treating Nature is fundamentally wrong. But where and when did we start to go wrong? What is the right way to treat Nature? Is there a right way to treat Nature? What do we mean by Nature and how has that changed during the course of human history?

2. The Environmental Revolution

The environmental movement can be seen as the most powerful force for change that the world has ever seen, transcending barriers of race, colour, gender and creed.

'The world's first environmental group – the Commons, Footpaths, and Open Spaces Preservation Society – was founded in Britain in 1865. At the start of the new millennium, the movement has grown to encompass 5 million people in Britain.' [1] Nearly one in ten of British people subscribes to organisations such as Greenpeace, Friends of the Earth and the World Wide Fund for Nature, making the movement larger and more diverse than any political party or social organisation.

An expanding planetary network, disillusioned with the basic structure of our global economic and political system, has united characters as diverse as Prince Charles, the Dalai Lama. Old age pensioners are linking arms with dreadlocked anarchists to protest against genetically modified crops and new sections of motorway. Around the globe, environmental

groups range from grass-roots organisations in tribal villages campaigning against World Bank dam projects, through to swish corporate-style offices advising governments.

Within the last 30 years, this movement has brought such terms as global warming, ozone depletion and biodiversity into our living rooms, while huge international conferences have tried to find solutions to these burgeoning problems. Our relationship to the planet has become the most urgent agenda of the age and the 21st century will be the last chance we have to resolve the crisis that threatens, not only our own survival as a species, but the very systems that support life itself. The Environmental Revolution has become a necessity.

'About 10 000 years ago, mankind took part in the Agricultural Revolution, making the transition from nomadic hunter-gatherer societies to the settled existence of 'civilisations' [2]. As we learnt to manipulate the natural world to our benefit, through the irrigation of the land, the cultivation of crops and the domestication of animals, our relationship to Nature changed at a fundamental level. The Industrial Revolution, which started six generations ago, ushered in a new age of mechanism and mobility, driven by the use of fossil fuels. We are now witnessing the consequences of the ensuing Industrial Age and the notions of 'growth' and 'progress' that came with it.

'While islands in the Pacific disappear beneath the waves, and global climate turns millions into refugees, a rising tide of opposition is now confronting the economic machine which is destroying the life-support systems of our planet.' [8] A green web is spinning itself around the globe, propelling an Environmental Revolution which is not only producing the technological, economic and political systems that will be necessary for us to survive beyond the next hundred years, but also philosophical and spiritual insight that we need to create an Ecological Age.

The environmental movement has evolved from isolated events and issues to a broad spectrum assault on our entire economic and political system. It is no longer just about saving whales and forests. It is now obvious that a consumer society pursuing a vision of infinite growth, while reliant on finite resources, is not only unsustainable but logically impossible. Capitalism has revealed some fundamental flaws.

What the movement is asking us to embrace is nothing less than a revolution in our world-view, an entirely new social, political and cultural paradigm which is redefining our antiquated notions of 'growth', 'wealth' and 'progress'. A 'high standard of living', gained by 'being successful', is no longer an adequate indication of our 'quality of life'.

'Information technology is clearly playing a crucial role in this global awakening, connecting pressure groups, grass-root organisations and concerned individuals from around the world.' [7] More and more of us sense that we are suffering from sort of collective insanity as we learn the truth about the world we live in now.

We have ended up in a terrible muddle, where everything is back to front and upside down. Whether we are treating medical conditions like cancer, societal problems like drug addiction, the threat of international terrorism or the environmental impact of toxic pollutants, we continue to at the symptoms rather than the causes. Unfortunately, however many drugs we develop to combat the spread of cancer, they do nothing to whatsoever to reduce the incidence of the disease.

By waging war on Nature, we are waging war on ourselves and heading towards an act of global suicide. As former Czech President Vaclav Havel once remarked, 'transcendence has become the only real alternative to extinction'.

3. Conclusion

The environmental movement is a coherent, social, cultural phenomenon-one of the most successful movements in human history. It has clearly had a profound impact on the way people think about the natural world. And their impact on it. It has produced a major infrastructures of laws, regulations, conservation programs and regulatory agencies. It has contributed to major improvements in air and water quality, the protection of undeveloped lands for recreation, and the preservation of biodiversity. Its influence has permeated human life. Describing its reach is no easy task.

The environmental movement is a dynamic, evolving organism as some groups have faded out and new ones formed. Some groups have been quite successful in maintaining their membership and support, while others have declined in popularity.

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September 11 and its Reflection in American Literature of the Twenty-first Century

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Abstract. The body of proceedings manuscript is divided into two parts. The first part solves the question whether we should call 9/11 an event. The second part generally deals with September 11 in American literature and gives an account of writers' reactions, styles of 9/11 writing, 9/11 themes, 9/11 narratives, etc. It aims at the mode the authors chose to write their 9/11 fiction.

Keywords: September 11, trauma, event, attack, the World Trade Center, 9/11 literature, 9/11 fiction, writers, men of letters, literary works

1. Introduction

The aim of this work is to show a general overview of 9/11 literature which is part of my dissertation thesis.

2. Why Do People Call “It” 9/11 or a Major Event?

Lexicographers debated which words would specify September 11 best in order to become permanent entries in dictionaries. They took into account “*a ground zero*” but it seemed to keep its original nuclear signification as “*the exact place where a bomb explodes*” [1]. Finally, the sign 9/11 with its distinctive virgule became a symbol, an abbreviation or a code symbolizing the day full of chaos, sorrow and death [8].

For Jacques Derrida by pronouncing 9/11 people do not use language in its obvious referring function but rather they name something that cannot be named because it befalls beyond language: terror and trauma. Freud defines trauma as the effect of an experience whose intensity the subject's usual response mechanism cannot cope with. A traumatic experience brings (as a consequence) terror because it denotes a danger that is both unpredictable and beyond the subject's control. Repetition is a common response to trauma: by repeating any piece of the traumatic situation the victim tries to dominate it in flashbacks. Derrida states that people likewise repeat 9/11 without asking ourselves what it names [4]. The reason for such a repetition is to strengthen the impression that “a major event” has taken place. Reference of this kind, monumentalizes the tragedy of 9/11. Calling the terrorist attacks against the Twin Towers and the Pentagon “9/11”, reduces the sense of responsibility for the failure to avert them. Unpredictability is one component of events because if something cannot be predicted, it cannot be fully explained, too. According to Derrida 9/11 was not unpredictable for the World Trade Center had been attacked in 1993. Moreover, 9/11 attack had already been prefigured by today's media – movies and videogames had been showing the gutting and falling down of the two towers.

Due to all these reasons 9/11 does not fit the notion of an event. A number of victims as well as an amount of destruction are also “too small” to be called a major event. The

impressions that 9/11 struck in people's memory around the world as well as a number of victims and bystanders could be summarized in two points: the outrage at the killings and the media obsessively naming the assaults "a major event". The first point took a form of resistance to the blind violence of the assaults combined with human compassion and infinite sadness due to loss and pain. The second point – the media, following their propagandistic aim, created an idea that 9/11 was a world major event. For the United States and Europe, for their public opinion and media, comparable killings or those greater in number have never produced such a furor when they happened outside American and European space (e.g. in Iraq, Rwanda, Cambodia, Palestine, etc.) [4].

3. 9/11 Literature

Many U.S. writers, professors and scholars presented different views of September 11. Some of them depicted 9/11 from the point of witnessing –mourning around the city, photographing, watching television, cleaning up, escorting victims' families, looking from the viewing platform. Others analyzed the tragedy from the standpoint of prior historical events – the Holocaust (comparison of 9/11 to the Holocaust in relation to hatred, racism and religious fanaticism), Vietnam, Hiroshima and Nagasaki and the beginning of the nuclear age. Several scholars pointed out that America had its own traumas of racism and slavery. A few professors and psychoanalysts elaborated on psychological, ideological and political frameworks of September 11 [5]. Some authors chose a way of juxtaposition of September 11 and classic literary works such as Shakespeare's Julius Caesar and Hamlet (The Bush administration hid behind the credo "a war on terrorism" and manipulated mourning for political achievements and goals). Several men of letters did not choose a literary work but a piece of visual art, for example, a novelist Lawrence Chua chose Andrea Mantegna's painting Dead Christ in his parable *The Quick and the Poor*, "*It was a painting of a man lying with his eyes closed and a sheet across his naked waist. His feet stuck out from the sheet, and the soles of the feet faced the viewer. There were wounds on the man's feet ... Lean dull flesh curled around the man's rib cage and his face was the color of something that no longer had breath. There were wounds on the hands also, and if one looked at the holes clearly enough, one could catch a glimpse of something moving just out of reach. In the corner of the painting, three faces leaned towards the man. They appeared to be crying, but they were not crying at all. There was something unreasonable about their sadness of pretence.*" [3] Chua's parable criticized a national media's coverage of the events. Like Mantegna's painting many photographers, reporters and presenters distorted the events – they did not give a true account.

A certain number of philosophers have mused about the existence of an Other – a victim with a shared American identity received empathy while the alien body such as the Afghan refugees did not [6].

A small number of writers compared 9/11 trauma to traumas which they experienced during their lifetime, especially when having lost their family members or friends who died in a violent way but different from that one of September 11.

It lasted several months for men of letters to incorporate September 11 into their fictional works. In the immediate days after the attacks, September 11 was identified as a general crisis for fiction and writers. As Bill Gray in Don DeLillo's novel *Mao II* says, "*What terrorists gain, novelists lose.*" [2] A lot of writers such as Lynne Tillman, Imraam Coovadia, Lynne Sharon Schwartz, Alice Elliot Dark, Siri Hustvedt, Lydia Davis, David Hollander and others also wrote about the near impossibility to express what had happened. To write fiction seemed trivial and irrelevant. Life was what mattered in the following days, not "literature" [5]. British and American novelists had to reconsider the value of their work in relation to the "9/11

present”. Short 9/11 literary works depicted two topics: *absence of presence* (a concrete loss of the people and the buildings) and the *presence of absence* (families and friends who lost their beloved) [7]. Dealing with absence of presence an author concerned himself/herself with the death and destruction as matters of fact - with what is no longer. The second sense did refer to a turn in the psyche – to the importance of loss. Within this topic the artist focused on the subjective, on how art expressed something incomprehensible that had happened, on how characters reacted to the losses [7].

Of 9/11 topic, men of letters retreated to the pessimism of domestic life - Don DeLillo (Falling Man), Jay McInerney (The Good Life) and Ken Kalfus (A Disorder Peculiar to the Country); described one day in the life of a hero – Ian McEwan (Saturday); used terrorists as “heroes” – John Updike (The Terrorist), Martin Amis (The Last Days of Muhammad Atta); enlisted the catastrophe in their city as a background and used actual photographs of the event - Jay McInerney (The Good Life), Jonathan Safran Foer (Extremely Loud and Incredibly Close); tried to recreate a pre-9/11 innocence – J. S. Foer (Extremely Loud and Incredibly Close); explored what it meant to be an American in a world shaped by American cultural, military and financial institutions - Ken Kalfus (A Disorder Peculiar to the Country), dealt with the destruction of the towers only glancingly - Claire Messud (The Emperor’s Children); depicted metropolitan voyeurism, alienation and longing for love and sympathy for those who suffer. A lot of 9/11 novels described how New Yorkers coped with the loss. The emphasis was not usually on 9/11 in relation to its historical origins but its consequences.

On the contrary, a small number of authors, usually Americans of Arab origin (e.g. Liala Halaby), depicted Arab people living in the U.S. in the fallout of September 11 attacks. They immediately became objects of distrust, fear and bigotry. These writers juxtaposed differences between Arab and American people illustrating their common vulnerabilities, pain, sorrow and yearnings for meaning in their lives [9].

American playwrights made their contribution, as well. Anne Nelson’s play The Guys was based on true experiences of fallen firefighters and concentrated on what a real hero was. The Mercy by Neil N. LaBute offered an opposite view of September 11 concerning a self-absorbed man who contemplated to utilize the tragedy to leave his family and start a new life with his mistress. Craig Wright captured 9/11 topic with elements of comedy romance and absurdity.

To sum up, writers’ fictional responses to September 11 appeared in various genres: essays, stories, parables, tales, meditations, short stories, novels and plays. Many accounts were autobiographical in which the past and present narrative frames collided. A lot of stories were written as tributes of condolence and were much rhetorical and social acts than aesthetic creations. 9/11 literary works were written for therapeutic release, too.

4. Conclusion

The contribution of the manuscript relies on a complex overview of 9/11 literature, authors and structural analysis. It is an attempt to map 9/11 fiction creation as no book was published about 9/11 literature in general. As a next step I will focus on research of particular books with 9/11 themes.

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The Expression of Freedom in Modern British Literature

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Abstract. The contribution deals with the problem of liberation of human being under the influence of philosophical theories and its manifestation in Modern British literature. It considers the mind with its cognitive faculties to create its own and unique concept of reality to be significant matter in this process. The particular examples are provided as the evidences of our hypotheses.

Keywords: freedom, independence, morality, values, subjectivity

1. Introduction

The period of Modernism was typical of yearning for freedom. Man had already achieved a great range of outer freedom and started the struggle to be more independent internally. He wanted to make his decisions and to control his life according to his own consciousness and convictions. Modernism is the period that followed the Reformation movement and the Age of Reason when people had proved the ability to think, to make decisions, to act autonomously – without outer laws, rules or commands. However, the Victorian era made strong effort to keep old values in practice and supported traditionalism, formalism, rigid social code. This resulted, especially amongst artistic groups, into the rejection of the 19th century values and into putting a stress on the freedom of expression, experimentation, radicalism and primitivism that denied conventional forms of behaviour. It was followed by a new approach to morality, religion, art, human rights, nature, organization of personality and the Universe. In our contribution we want to show different ways how literary Modernism managed to face up to the desire for freedom considering one of its significant representatives Virginia Woolf.

2. The Importance of Subjectivity

As we have already mentioned, modernism represents the monistic approach to the reality that accepted only a few credible ideas how the world and the practical life can be understood and explained. Especially the early modern period was under the strong influence of great philosophical systems such as Enlightenment, rationalism, empirism, idealism that partly contributed to the development of pluralism, but did not break the unity. The great difference was made at the end of the 19th century when the intellectual field was entered by the philosophy of existentialism and the thinkers like Kierkegaard, Schopenhauer, Nietzsche. These thinkers acknowledged the power of individual being over the society, pointing up the essential distinctive human qualities such as uniqueness, personality, subjectivity, freedom, emotionality. The Modern British literature is based on the ideas of this late – modern period.

The dominant entity became a subject. Either in philosophy or in literature, human entities demonstrate their independence of the strict determination of the material world.

According to this concept, emotional nature, perception, thoughts, dreams, observations, visions are more important, more vivid, more real than the external world that exists outside. The division „subject - object“ had been set by René Descartes in his „Discourse on the Method” resulting in the famous quotation „Cogito ergo sum“ [4] and was later elaborated by Immanuel Kant claiming that the world appears, in the way that it appears, as a mental phenomenon putting emphasis on the gap between „thing-in-itself“ and „thing as phenomenal appearance“. There is the parallel to such process of understanding the world in the new literary device „stream of consciousness style“ that supports the importance of mind in human cognitive processes.

Mind, that is the main device of „stream of consciousness style“ refers to the aspect of intellect and consciousness externally manifested by thoughts, perception, memory, will, imagination including all brain cognitive conscious or unconscious processes. Woolf compares the relation mind – external world to the reflexion in the mirror:

„In those mirrors, the minds of men, in those pools of uneasy water, in which clouds for ever turn and shadows form, dreams persisted, and it was impossible to resist the strange intimation which every gull, flower, tree, man and woman, and white earth itself seemed to declare that good triumphs, happiness prevails, order rules.” [3]

Due to the new perception based on internal faculties modern characters are relatively free for creating their unique picture of the reality that can be different from the pictures of the others. Putting emphasis on impressions that are highly subjective, each individual disposes of the image of his own. Therefore Woolf reveals a plot from numerous points of view, not just from those of main characters, but even of passing strangers that are accidentally present in the situation: *“One character will observe and assess another, only to be observed and assessed by another on turn, as the novel’s perspective is passed on and exchanged like a ball in a game.” [2]* The reality is shaped in a form of a jigsaw, and in order to be understood, all the pieces (different points of view) must be put together.

Subjective approach to reality is also assumed by Woolf’s concept of time and space. Regarding a natural flow of thoughts in mind, that can absorb present, past and future at once, Woolf tried to adapt her novels to such pattern. As she found linear plot as an inadequate form of expression, different space and time mingle providing for characters a free zone to create the picture of their own world. The moving in time and space is usually caused by „moment of being“ the protagonist experiences while running little everyday duties. In *Mrs. Dalloway*, Clarissa is going to buy some flowers for the party. She walks through London and the various kinds of impressions remind her of her past. The tyre bursting, the fresh air, the squeaking of hinges bring the memories she implies into her present state. When the Big Ben chimes, *„Leaden circles dissolved in the air.” [4]* and she is back at present. This expression appears regularly in the novel indicating how ephemeral time is. Using this technique Woolf wants to declare that time is not linear, but circular and its nature is not objective but arises from an individual human being. That means that time as we experience it, is inherent in the subject, not in the world outside.

3. Liberation of Emotions

Woolf’s use of mind as a device of understanding of the world was also the way how to acknowledge emotions whereas the modern social code was not supportive to open manifestation of feelings. First of all, it is the way how to overcome the fear from physical decline and death, that are total and unavoidable destructions of human freedom. In the flow of thoughts the present moment, illusive and floating itself, is never isolated, never lost because it is filled with very preceding moment, and is constantly in the process of change.

Time flows with the stream, having neither beginning nor end. Reality is actually timeless and spaceless, because it contains all space and all time. Under these conditions life can be perceivable as infinite, never ending, eternal and the percipient, represented by mind, free from the threat of extermination.

The attempt to integrate emotions (positive, negative) into everyday life meaningfully can be traced in Mrs. Ramsay's inner life throughout the whole story *To the Lighthouse*:

„All the being and the doing, expansive, glittering, vocal evaporated; and one shrunk, with a sense of solemnity, to being oneself, a wedge – shaped core of darkness, something invisible to the others.....There was freedom, there was peace, there was, most welcome of all, a summoning together, a resting on a platform of stability.” [3]

Mrs. Ramsay, being trapped in a relationship with a self – centred husband, finds the shelter in a peace of the inner space where “...*the range of experience is limitless.*” [3]

This approach can be compared to the idea of internal freedom and represents the possibility how to face up to the restriction of making decisions and acting. What can make her feel free – and – easy, is the mind with its dreams, expectations, thoughts, impressions and visions.

The more complex example how to deal with involuntary confinement is the case of Warren Septimus from *Mrs. Dalloway*. Despite being locked inside his mind, he realized the only way how to protect his personality from psychological abuse represented by doctor Bradshaw's suggestion to put him into a lunatic asylum. Septimus, not willing to subdue to this fate, preserves his freedom jumping out of the window. For the writer herself suffered from psychiatric problems and felt desperate not being able to cope with them, the Septimus's diagnoses „lack of proportion” can be understood as a challenge to (what is considered to be) normal behaviour, what is the free expression of one's own view of reality and what is deviation.

On the other hand, his counterpart Clarissa Dalloway is permanently losing her freedom not being courageous enough to resist the oppression of Victorian conformism. She is subject to her own cowardice and gives up her identity to rigid social order. At the end of the story it is not completely clear who stayed imprisoned and who managed to escape. There is only one moment when their lives meet, at Clarissa's party, when she reveals the meaning of his desperate act for her own life:

„Death was defiance. Death was an attempt to communicate; people feeling the impossibility of reaching the centre which, mystically, evaded them; closeness drew apart; rapture faded, one was alone. There was an embrace in death.” [4]

Comparing this matter to the other modern intellectual tendencies, Septimus's radical solution makes similarity to Kierkegaard's absurd choice „Either / Or.” [6] His theory, expressed by two contradictory terms, represents two approaches to life: the non – authentic living filled with passivity, pleasure, resignation to commitment and, adaptation to superficial solutions and its opposite that means step into nothingness in a form of rejection of all social conventions, prejudices, all acceptable ways of thinking and acting but that also calls for courage to endure fear and insecurity that are naturally interconnected to the process of losing the old, well – known ways of behaviour and achieving new values.

4. Moments of Being

This special experience appeared in modern literature as „the moment of being”. Its nature is based on a kind of awakening from monotonous routine accompanied by fascination with authenticity of the emotional states such as anxiety, fear, despair, exaltation, enthusiasm from freedom and fullness of life in which the human subject is not only in possession of

cognitive faculties but expresses itself as an acting, feeling, living human individuality. The Woolf's characters also go through the experience that provides them with the unique, incredibly vivid image of their lives disturbing them from everyday engagement of the world. The example can be seen in observation of Clarissa's soul :

„How fresh like frilled linen clean from a laundry laid in wicker trays the roses looked; and dark and prim the red carnations, holding their heads up; and all the sweet peas spreading in their bowls, tinged violet, snow white, pale--as if it were the evening and girls in muslin frocks came out to pick sweet peas and roses after the superb summer's day, with its almost blue-black sky, its delphiniums, its carnations its arum lilies was over; and it was the moment between six and seven when every flower--roses, carnations, irises, lilac--glows; white, violet, red, deep orange; every flower seems to burn by itself, softly, purely in the misty beds.“ [4]

The reader can feel the originality, exceptionality, intensity of the moment, also the connection to existential experience of authenticity and self – making. Clarissa is no more anonymous one - self, her identity has been discovered. Since the experience of awaking is highly subjective and a very brief “ray of light” in the everyday darkness, it can't be described, explained or shared. Virginia Woolf never explicitly defines what she means by “moments of being.” Similarly to existentialism, she concludes there are two kinds of experience: “moments of being” and moments of “non – being” : the appearance of Clarissa Dalloway - either the well – mannered wife of a successful politician, organizing parties, entertaining friends, running her house, or the mother trying to take care of her daughter, calm, reserved hostess that is highly in contrast to the reality of Clarissa Dalloway – frail, sensitive, imaginative, womanly with her emotional states bound to the crucial events in her life: remembering her carefree growing up with her larksome friend Sally Saton, decision not to marry Peter Walsh, permanent losing her child, recognizing herself in Septimus's suicide. Under the influence of these precious moments Clarissa can feel the true nature of her being, she can enjoy life's entire richness, she can feel free from burdens of everyday treadmill.

5. Conclusion

While searching for freedom in the period of modernism, we have traced the strong connections between modern philosophy and modern literature as well as mutual inspirations that resulted into the extension of freedom in its negative as well as in its positive mode. The revelation of subjectivity transferred the core of knowledge, perception, moral judgment from external world to inner space of personality and proved itself to be a turning point in not only theoretical field of human activity but also in practical life. Its significance increased thank to the new literary devices and techniques: destruction of linear plot, experimentation with time and space, subjective perspective, stream of consciousness style, inner monologue. Due to it each particular individual is more independent of outer conditions of either material reality or contemporary moral law. The process of subject's affirmation and its subsequent liberation that started a few centuries before the era of Modernism, has been permanently breaking the reality into smaller and smaller pieces that works as a jigsaw with numerous centres (subjects) that are in possession of rights to their own explanations, solutions, their own ways of understanding and coping with reality. Although these tendencies were mainly peripheral, the modern homogeneity started to be shattered. Thus Modernism took initiative in subject's liberation and disintegration of the world that is being fully developed in the era of Postmodernism.

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