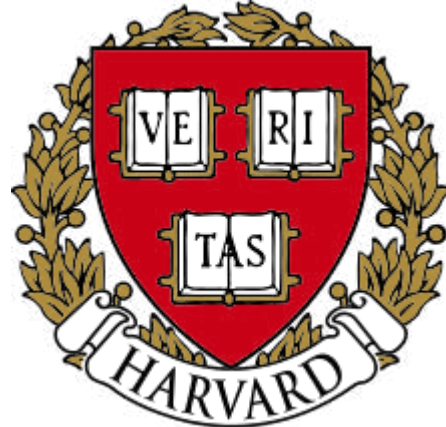


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Education & Sport

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Initial Validation of Collegiate Learning Assessment Performance Task Diagnostic Instrument for Historically Black Colleges and Universities

ABSTRACT

Aim: The purpose of this study was to develop and validate the psychometric properties of the Collegiate Learning Assessment (CLA) performance task diagnostic instrument. The CLA is currently used to assess the effectiveness of student learning at colleges and universities in the United States to measure institutional contributions to learning gained by students. Despite its wide acceptance and use in the last decade, the validity of its psychometric properties has not been established. The performance task for the CLA instrument consist of eight items designed to measure four dimensions of student learning, which are: analytic reasoning, problem solving, persuasive writing, and writing mechanics.

Study Design: Quasi-experimental One-shot Cross-sectional Case study design.

Place of Study: Fayetteville State University.

Methodology: In this study, the CLA was administered to a random sample of 254 students who were eligible to complete the CLA at a university in southeastern United States.

Results: Exploratory factor analysis revealed two items per learning dimension with adequate factor loadings and internal consistency. Confirmatory

factor analysis showed that a 3-factor measurement model exhibited sound and better psychometric properties ($D^2(6) = 9.355$, $p = .155$, $CFI = .995$, $TLI = .988$, $RMSEA = .024$) than the hypothesized 4-factor model (for a model of this complexity ($D^2 = 37.075$, $p = .001$, $CFI = .97$, $TLI = .95$, $RMSEA = .08$) currently used by universities to assess student learning. Also, convergent validity and construct validity was confirmed with significant unstandardized regression coefficients and approximately equivalent standardized factor loading per factor, respectively.

Conclusion: The initial validity of the psychometric properties of a 3-factor CLA Performance Task Diagnostic Instrument is confirmed.

Keywords: Collegiate learning assessment; AMOS; CLA; confirmatory factor analysis; exploratory factor analysis; structural equation modeling; SEM.

1. INTRODUCTION

The quality of student learning in the United States is below expectation, especially at Historically Black Colleges and Universities where most of the students come from economically and socially disadvantaged households and communities [1]. To enhance the competitiveness of the United States in the global economy, the Association of American Colleges and Universities (AACU) and the Council for Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA) encourage universities and colleges in the United States to develop specific measurable learning goals and monitor how well students in various programs are achieving those outcomes [2]. Traditionally, universities and colleges have relied on standardized test scores, grade point averages and course test scores to assess students learning outcomes. Although these measures of students learning may be useful in understanding the level individual student learning, they are generally considered to be unreliable and invalid approaches for assessing and developing effective strategies to improve the performance of students attending a particular college and university [2]. To overcome these limitations, several education commissions in the United States have endorsed the Collegiate Learning Assessment (CLA) as a measure of learning that provides a better understanding of factors associated with students performance on cognitive tasks [3,2].

The CLA is an assessment tool used nationwide in the United States to measure the institutional contribution to learning gained by students [4]. The CLA is designed to use direct measures to assess students' ability to perform cognitively demanding tasks from which quality of responses are scored on a 4-point scale

ranging from 0 =Not Attempted to 4=Mastering [4]. The U.S. Secretary of Education Commission on the Future of Education, the American Association of Colleges and Universities, the American Association of State Colleges and Universities, and independent researchers consider the CLA to be one of the most comprehensive national efforts to measure how much students actually learn. The CLA is also considered to be effective in promoting a culture of evidence based assessment in higher education [1,5,6]

Unlike traditional learning assessment instruments/strategies that rely on multiple choice items, the CLA utilizes open-ended prompts that require self-constructed written responses to measure high order thinking skills such as, critical thinking, analytic reasoning, and problem solving [2,4]. Shavelson [7] asserts that these learning abilities are developed over time by the interplay between discipline-oriented education, general education, and the general abilities students have developed and bring to higher education. Generally, CLA tasks consist of three main components. First, students are given documentation that includes a claim and supporting documentation/evidence. Second, students are asked to assess both the claim and the evidence to construct written responses to three assessment questions. Third, the CLA Performance Task Diagnostic Instrument (CLAPTDI) rubric is used by the evaluator to assess the quality of students' written assessment based on the claim and evidence. Essentially, students are asked to prepare a clear and succinct written statement consisting of their evaluation of the evidence presented, analysis and synthesis of the evidence, and conclusion within the context of alternative viewpoints. The CLAPTDI rubric utilized by the evaluator consists of three questions per assessment category (i.e., evaluation of evidence, analysis and synthesis of evidence, drawing conclusions, and acknowledging alternative explanations or viewpoints), and five written communication dimensions (i.e., presentation, development, persuasiveness, mechanics, and interest). Each question is scored on a 4-point scale ranging from Not Attempted = 0 to Mastering=4. Accurate measurement of students learning in each of these learning dimensions is critical in generating data that educational institutions can rely upon to develop and implement effective strategies for enhancing retention and graduation rates.

While the CLA seems quite promising in assessing student learning, some scholars have raised a number of methodological issues about this approach to assessing student learning [8,9,10]. Perhaps the most serious issue involved the validity of the psychometric properties used to measure the major constructs (i.e.,

critical thinking, analytic reasoning, written communications, and problem solving) in the CLA. A review of the literature indicates that none of the CLA studies that we know of have tested the psychometric properties of the CLAPTDI for reliability and validity. While these studies have advanced our understanding of the state of student learning, the use of untested instruments renders suspect the major findings and recommendations of the studies. The purpose of this study was to fill this void by performing an initial validation of the CLAPTDI using exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) procedures. In particular, the study addressed two research questions. First, what is the factorial loading of indicators on each of the CLA latent constructs (i.e. critical thinking, analytic reasoning, written communications, and problem solving)? Second, how valid are the psychometric properties (i.e., overall measurement model fit and construct validity) of the CLA performance task instrument?

2. METHODS

2.1 Research Design

This study employed a cross-sectional quasi-experimental one-shot case study design [11]. This design is generally considered to be most useful in exploring researchable problems or developing ideas for action research, and considered to be appropriate when exploring individuals acquisition of relatively new or less understood phenomenon, such as learning ability students attending HBCUs [11]. A schematic representation of the design is displayed in Fig. 1.

Treatment	Post test
x	O ₂

Fig. 1. Quasi-experimental one-shot case study design

where x is an HBCU student's exposure to high school and/or college core curriculum courses. O₂ is the level of a student's learning abilities (that is, critical thinking/analytic reasoning, problem solving, persuasive writing, and writing mechanics).

2.2 Participants and Procedure

Participants in the study included a purposive sample of students attending an HBCU in southeastern United States. The selection of this nonprobability sample design was based on an assumption that all the students have acquired a certain

level of these learning abilities from taking core curriculum courses in high school or college. Moreover, given the focus on the study on exploring the validity of the CLA measuring instrument, as opposed to drawing an inference about some characteristic of a population from a representative sample, a nonprobability sample design was considered appropriate [12,13]. In particular, the participants in this study consisted of a sample of the 254 students who took the CLA Performance Diagnostic Task during their freshman, junior or senior years. A breakdown of the sample by academic class showed that 58% were freshman, 34% were juniors, and 16 % were seniors.

The HBCU has a population of 5,567 students enrolled. A breakdown of the population by race/ethnicity shows that approximately 70% is African American, 17% is Caucasian, 4% is Hispanic, 1% is Native American and 4% is other racial/ethnic groups. The age distribution of the student population consists of 55% in the age range of 17-25 years old, 31% aged 26-40 years, and 14% is over 40 years. Most of the students (68%) are females, while 32% is males. The distribution of the population by academic class shows that 19% is freshmen, 15% is sophomore, 18% is junior, 32% is senior, and 11% is graduate. Most of the students (66%) attending the university is enrolled as full-time students, while 34% is part-time.

The CLA conducted at this institution does not focus on the level of student learning by demographics beyond academic class. Instead, the institution requires that freshman; rising juniors, and seniors take the CLA as an integral part of the overall university strategic plan for determining the level of student learning at each academic level. In particular, all incoming freshmen are required to take the CLA as a baseline measure of learning ability. Those same students are tested again as rising juniors to assess any increase in skill levels and ability. Finally, the same group of students is tested as graduating seniors so that the test scores at all levels can be compared to ensure that program learning outcomes are being met. The data generated from the CLA is used by university administrators to identify areas of learning strengths and/or deficiencies for designing an effective corrective action plan to improve or maintain acceptable retention and graduation rates.

2.3 CLA Measures

Performance Task Diagnostic Instrument is the tool used in CLA to measure students learning. The CLA Performance Task Diagnostic Instrument (CLAPTDI) consists eight items aimed at measuring five interrelated higher order thinking abilities

or skills – critical thinking, analytic reasoning, problem solving, persuasive writing, and writing mechanics [4].

2.3.1 Analytic reasoning/critical thinking

Analytic reasoning skill is measured by two items: (a) How well does the student assess the quality and relevance of evidence in terms of determining what information is or is not pertinent to the task at hand, distinguishing between rational claims and emotional ones, facts from unsupported opinion, recognizing the ways in which the evidence might be limited or compromised; spotting deception and holes in the argument of others, and considering all sources of evidence; and (b) How well does the student analyze and synthesize data and information, including; presenting his/her own analysis of the data or information rather than “as is”; recognizing and avoiding logical flaws such as distinguishing correlation from causation; breaking down the evidence into its component parts; drawing connections between discrete sources of data and information; and attending to contradictory, inadequate or ambiguous information.

2.3.2 Problem solving

Problem solving skill is measured by two items: (a) How well does the student form a conclusion from his/her analysis, including, constructing cogent arguments rooted in data/information rather than speculation/opinion, selecting the strongest and most relevant set of supporting data, avoiding overstated or understated conclusions, and identifying holes in the evidence and subsequently suggesting additional information that might resolve the issue; (b) How well the student considers other options and acknowledge that his/her answer is not the only perspective, including, recognizing that the problem is complex with no clear answer, proposing other options and weighing them in the decision, considering all stakeholders or affected parties in suggesting a course of action, and qualifying responses and acknowledging the need for additional information in making an absolute determination.

2.3.3 Persuasive writing

Persuasive writing is measured by two items: (a) How effective is the writing structure in terms of logical and cohesive organization of the argument, avoidance of extraneous elements in the argument's development, and presentation of evidence in an order that contributes to a persuasive and coherent argument; (b) How well the

student defend the argument in terms of effective presentation of the evidence in support of the argument, drawing thoroughly and extensively from available range of evidence, analysis of the evidence in addition to simply presenting it, and considering counter-arguments and addressing weaknesses in his/her own argument.

2.3.4 Writing mechanics

Writing mechanics is measured by two items: (a) How clear and concise is the argument in terms of clear articulation of the argument and the context for the argument, correct and precise use of evidence to defend the argument, comprehensible and coherent presentation of evidence, and citation of sources correctly and consistently; (b) What is the quality of the student's writing in terms of using vocabulary and punctuation correctly and effectively, demonstrating a strong understanding of grammar, using sentence structure that is basic or more complex and creative, using proper transition, and structuring paragraphs logically and effectively. Each of the items was scored on a 4-point scale ranging from 0=not attempted to 4=mastery.

2.4 CLA Performance Task

The Performance Task of this study required the students to use their critical thinking, analytic reasoning and problem solving skills to answer several open-ended questions about a hypothetical but realistic situation or scenario. The students were presented with the following scenario: Senator John McCain, a Republic Party nominee, is running for general election as President of the United States. Senator McCain's opponent in this contest is Senator Barack Obama, Democratic Party nominee. You are a consultant for Senator McCain. Senator Obama presented three arguments during a nationally televised town hall campaign stop in Ohio. First, Mr. Obama said that Senator McCain's proposal to stimulate the U.S. economy by continuing the Bush tax cut policy for the rich is a bad idea. Senator Obama said, "The Bush tax cut policy for the rich is a major contributing factor to the current economic recession which we are now experiencing, and continuing more of the same will only drive the nation's economy into a depression in the years to come. Mr. Obama supported his argument by referring to a commentary (Document A) published in the Tax Foundation website by Derald Prante, an economist, who rejects a Los Angeles Times newspaper article by Jared Bernstein, director of research program at the Liberal Economic Policy Institute, suggesting that tax cut for the wealthy

contributes to the high economic growth [14]. According to Mr. Prante, there is no evidence that lower tax rate with some spending offset helps promote economic growth. Second, Mr. Obama said, "in this very difficult times what we need is tax breaks for the middle class which has proven during the Clinton Administration years to be most effective in stimulating spending on goods and services, which in turn increased gross domestic production and jobs, and economic growth. Mr. Obama supported this argument with a chart (Document B) that compared the average GDP growth during the Reagan and Bush Administrations era when tax cuts for the wealthy was in effect to the Clinton Administration years when no tax cut for the rich was in effect [14]. Mr. Obama based this chart on data from the U.S. Department of Commerce Bureau of Economic Analysis [28]. Third, Mr. Obama said that historically, every time that an Administration has adopted a tax cut policy for the top one percent of our citizens, it has only benefitted the rich, and worse still, it has not stopped the decline in economic growth. On the other hand, a policy of no tax cut has led to relative stabilization and growth of our economy. He presented a chart (Document C) that displayed a graph showing variation in economic growth trend from 1981 to 2007 [14]. Mr. Obama based this graph on data obtained from the U.S. Department of Commerce Bureau of Economic Analysis. Senator McCain wants the best tax policy identified. As an independent public policy consultant, the student was asked to evaluate the strength and/or limitations of each of Senator Obama's three main points, explain the reasons for his/her conclusions, and justify those conclusions by referring to specific sources of evidence provided in the accompanying documents. Specifically, the student was asked to respond to three questions. First, what are the strengths and limitations of each of Senator Obama's positions on the matter? Second, based on the evidence, what conclusions can you draw from Mr. Obama's position on this matter, and why? Third, what specific information in the document and any other factors to consider (such as quality of research, factual opinion, or the data and information sources about the link between no tax cut and economic growth) led you to this conclusion? The students were instructed to be as objective as possible in their assessment of Mr. Obama's position.

To perform the assigned task, the students were provided three documents which Mr. Obama used to support his position. Document A is a commentary published in the Tax Foundation website by Derald Prante, an economist, who rejects a Los Angeles Times newspaper article by Jared Bernstein, director of research program at the Liberal Economic Policy Institute, suggesting that tax cut for the

wealthy contribute to the high economic growth [14]. According to Mr. Prante, there is no evidence that lower tax rate with some spending offset helps promote economic growth. A student who carefully reviews the commentary will realize that Mr. Prante provided neither objective data nor the source of his opinion to substantiate his claims about the link between no tax cut policy and economic growth. Instead all of his claims are based on conjectural personal opinion.

Document B is a chart that compared the average GDP growth during the Reagan and Bush Administrations era when tax cuts for the wealthy was in effect and the Clinton Administration years when no tax cut for the rich was in effect [14]. Mr. Obama based this chart on data from the U.S. Department of Commerce Bureau of Economic Analysis. If the student examines the chart carefully, he/she will notice that the chart provided conflicting average current and “real GDP growth outcomes for tax cut policy and no tax cut policy. A student who carefully reviews the chart will also realize that to base conclusions on current GDP data is less reflexive of the “true impact of tax cut on GDP since current dollar figures do not account for variation in inflation. Also, combining the Reagan era and Bush era economic growth data to make comparison with economic growth data during the year is erroneous (or spurious) since it fails to account for other variables or policies which may have contributed to the outcomes. The students were asked to base their assessment and subsequent recommendation solely on the documents provided.

Document C was a chart that displayed a graph of change in economic growth trend from 1981 to 2007 [14]. Mr. Obama based this graph on data obtained from the U.S. Department of Commerce Bureau of Economic Analysis. Although the source of the data from which the graph was generated is authentic, the student should notice that the graph does not clearly delineate a correlation between tax cut and economic growth, and hence drawing conclusions as Mr. Obama did from this evidence about the positive influence of no tax cut for the rich on economic growth is inappropriate.

2.5 CLA Performance Task Procedure

Prior to handing out the task, the students were informed that they were about to take an assessment that was designed to measure their critical thinking, analytic reason, problem solving and written communication skills. They were informed that they will be answering a series of open-ended questions about a realistic situation, and that the assessment contains a number of documents that include a range of information sources. The students were instructed that while their personal values and

experiences are important, they should base their responses on the evidence provided in these documents. The students were provided with computer terminals at the university computer lab to type their responses. They were asked to abide by the honor code and spend a maximum of two hours to prepare and submit their responses. The students were provided with an assessment scenario and questions to read before preparing their responses. They were asked if they had any questions or need further clarifications. A number of the students asked for clarifications of the assignment. The CLA proctors provided the clarifications, and asked the students to begin the CLA Performance Task. All the students completed the CLA within the specified two hour time limit, and submitted their responses.

The completed CLA Performance Task was scored by trained faculty members of the university and the data for the 254 student participants were entered into the computer for analysis using SPSS version 20.0. The resulting CLA dataset contained the eight measures of the four CLA learning abilities or components contained in the CLA Task Performance Diagnostic Instrument, and the academic class of the students.

2.6 Statistical Analysis

2.6.1 Exploratory factor analysis

The first step in validating the CLAPTDI involved performing an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to diagnose the factorability or the meaningful factor loading structure of the 8 items correlation matrix in the CLAPTDI by checking to make sure that the items are sufficiently intercorrelated to produce representative factors. The check involved assessing the degree of intercorrelation of the CLAPTDI items from both the overall and individual items perspectives. The overall measure of intercorrelation was evaluated by: (a) visual inspection of the significant correlation among the items, with substantial percentage (i.e., above 30%) of significant correlations considered to be appropriate for factor analysis [15]; (b) computing the partial correlation or anti-image correlation among the items, with small values indicating the existence of "true" factors in the data [15] (c) performing Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, with significant approximate chi-square (D) indicative of significant correlation among at least some of the CLAPTDI observed variables; and (d) estimating the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) value, with MSA values above .50 considered acceptable to proceed with factor analysis [15].

The variable-specific measure of intercorrelation was assessed by estimating the MSA value for each item, with values below .50 considered to be unacceptable [15]. The item with the lowest MSA value was deleted and the factor analysis was repeated. This process continued until all the items had acceptable MSA values, and a decision was made to proceed with factor analysis. In particular, principal component factor analysis applying the varimax rotation was used to reduce or organize the item pool into a smaller number of interpretable factors. The number of factors was determined by joint consideration of Cattell's [16] scree plot, a priori, and percentage of factors to be extracted criteria. The latent root residual (eigenvalue) criterion was considered inappropriate because the number of observed variables (i.e., 8) fell below or outside the acceptable range of 20 to 50 [15]. Thurstone's [17] principle of simple structure using pattern coefficients of absolute 0.35 as the lower bound of meaningful per factor and interpretability of the solution were used to determine the final solution [18,15]. After rotation, variables with cross-loading and communalities lower than .50 were deleted [15].

The second step of the analysis involved calculating the internal consistency estimates (Cronbach's alpha) for the items representing each factor retained from the exploratory factor analysis procedure. Cronbach's alpha of 0.6 was considered as the minimum acceptable level of internal consistency for using a factor [19,15]. For factors with Cronbach's alpha below this minimum benchmark, the internal consistency of the factor was improved by identifying and removing items with low item-test correlation and item-rest correlation [20]. If no improvement of the reliability score occurred, the factor was deleted.

2.7 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

To initially validate the CLAPTDI measurement structure derived from the EFA, a first-order confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed using AMOS 21.0 to test for the factorial stability of the scores from the CPTDI [21]. The aim of this test was to determine the extent to which items designed to measure a CLA factor (i.e., latent construct) actually do so. The four subscales of the CLAPTDI were considered to represent the factors. Because the analysis was done on original data and not data summary, missing data was handled by using the full information maximum likelihood (FIML) procedure. This allowed the maximum likelihood estimation to be on a dataset containing missing data, without any form of imputation [22]. A number of indices were used to evaluate the goodness of fit of the 4-factor orthogonal CLAPTDI

measurement model. The guidelines for determining model fit consisted of adjusting each index cutoff values based on model characteristics as suggested by simulation research that considers different sample size, model complexity, and degree of error in model specification as a basis for determining how accurate various indices perform [15,23,24]. The model's absolute fit was assessed using chi-square statistic, D^2 , with low insignificant D^2 considered a good fit [15]. Incremental fit was evaluated using Root Mean Square Errors of Approximation (RMSEA) with a value less than 0.8 indicating a relatively good fit, along with Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) with value of 0.97 or greater considered desirable [22,15,21,25]. Convergent validity among items were measured by estimating the unstandardized factor loadings and Cronbach's alpha with significant loadings and alpha of 0.70 or higher considered good reliability [15]. Construct validity of the model was evaluated by examining the completely standardized factor loadings with approximately equal factor loadings of 0.5 or higher and construct reliability (Cronbach's alpha) equal or greater than 0.7 considered to be good [15,26]. Also, parametric test of the significance of each estimated (free) coefficient were performed. Insignificant loadings with low standardized loading estimates were deleted from the model. To assess problems with the overall model, the completely standardized loadings were examined for offending estimates, such as loadings above 1.0. Any identified offending estimates were dropped from the model. Finally, internal consistency estimates (Cronbach's alpha) were calculated for the item representing each factor retained from CFA. Cronbach's alpha of 0.7 was considered as minimum acceptable level of internal consistency for retaining the factor [26,15]. For factors with Cronbach's alpha below this minimum threshold, an attempt to improve the internal consistency was made by identifying and removing items with low item-test correlation and item-rest correlation [20]. If no improvement of the reliability score occurred, the factor was deleted from the model. The likelihood that the model's parameter estimates from the original sample will cross-validate across in future samples was assessed by examining the Akaike's [27] Information Criterion (AIC) and Bozdogen's [28] consistent version of the AIC (CAIC) with lower values of the hypothesized compared to the independent and saturated models considered to be appropriate fit. The likelihood that the model cross-validates across similar-sized samples from the same population was determined by examining the Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI) with an ECVI value for the hypothesized model lower compared to both the independent and saturated models considered to represent the

best fit to the data. Finally, Hoeltes [29] Critical N (CN) was examined to determine if the study's sample size was sufficient to yield an adequate model fit for a D^2 test [30] with a value in excess of 200 for both .05 and .01 CN indicative of the CLA measurement model adequately representing the sample data [31].

Normality of the distribution of the variables in the model was assessed by Mardia's [32;33] normalized estimate of multivariate kurtosis with value of 5 or less reflective of normal distribution. Multivariate outliers were detected by computation of the squared Mahalanobis distance (O^2) for each case with O^2 values standings distinctively apart from all the other O^2 values as indicative of an outlier.

3. RESULTS

3.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation produce a final solution comprised of four factors with eight items that accounted for 84.5% of variance in the items (Table 1). Examination of the correlation matrix indicate evidence of inter-item dependence [D^2 (28, N=146) = 779.683, $p < .01$], an acceptable Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) sampling adequacy statistic (KMO = .600) an anti-image matrix that demonstrate properties approximating the desired diagonal matrix with only 8 (28%) nonredundant residual value greater than .05. Visual inspection of Cattell's [16] scree plot also suggested retention of the four-factor solution for the CLAPTDI (Fig. 1). Factor 1, which explained 34.2% of the variance, had 2 items with pattern coefficient (factor loading) of absolute value 0.3 or higher with large pattern/structure effect size (Cronbach's $D = 0.89$). This first factor was labeled "Analytic/critical thinking. The second factor, labeled "Problem solving, explained 19.2% of the variance had two items with acceptable pattern/structure effect size coefficient (Cronbach's $D = 0.89$). Factor 3, labeled "Persuasive Writing , explained 19.1% had two items with acceptable pattern/structure effect size coefficient (Cronbach's $D = 0.74$). Factor 4, labeled "Writing Mechanics explained 12% had two items with acceptable pattern/structure effect size coefficient (Cronbach's $D = 0.62$) (Table 1).

Table 1. Exploratory factor analysis principal component loadings

Component	Loading
Component 1: Analytic reasoning/critical thinking	.89
How well does the student assess the quality and relevance of evidence? (AR1)	
How well does the student analyze and synthesize data and information (AR2)	
Component 2: Problem solving	.89
How well does the student form a conclusion from his/her analysis? (PS1)	
How well does the student consider other options and acknowledges that his/her answer is not the only perspective (PS2)	
Component 3: Persuasive writing	.74
How clear and concise does the student present written argument? (PW 1)	
How well does the student defend the argument? (PW2)	
Component 4: Writing Mechanics	.62
How effective is the structure of the student s written argument? (WM1)	
What is the quality of the student s writing? (WM2)	

Table 2. Correlations, measure of sampling adequacy, and partial correlation among variables**Correlation among CLAPTDI variables**

	AR1	AR2	PS1	PS2	PW1	PW2	WM1	WM2
AR1: Evaluation	1.000	.171	.592	.094	-.036	-.358	.050	-.495
AR2: Analysis & Synthesis		1.000	.210	.803	.050	.212	-.047	.266
PS1: Drawing Conclusions			1.000	.134	.008	.198	.109	.384
PS2: Acknowledge Alternatives				1.000	.000	.162	-.095	.191
PW 1: Organized Coherent Writing					1.000	.094	.453	.021
PW2: Defending Argument						1.000	.231	.805
WM1: Clarity of Writing							1.000	.096
WM2: Quality of Writing								1.000

Notes: Bolded values indicate correlations significant at the .01 significance level.

Overall Measure of Sampling Adequacy: .600

Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: 779.683

Significance: .000

Measure of sampling adequacy and partial correlations

	AR1	AR2	PS1	PS2	PW1	PW2	WM1	WM2
AR1: Evaluation	.726							
AR2: Analysis & synthesis	-.030	.564						
PS1: Drawing Conclusions	-.485	-.079	.657					
PS2: Acknowledge Alternatives	.044	-.794	.009	.538				
PW 1: Organized Coherent Writing	.069	-.078	.033	.033	.505			
PW2: Defending Argument	.340	.010	-.165	-.002	-.024	.585		
WM1: Clarity of Writing	-.068	-.008	.084	-.065	-.444	-.201	.533	
WM2: Quality of Writing	.201	.071	.203	-.007	.052	-.773	.061	.627

Measures of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) are on the diagonal, partial correlations in off-diagonal

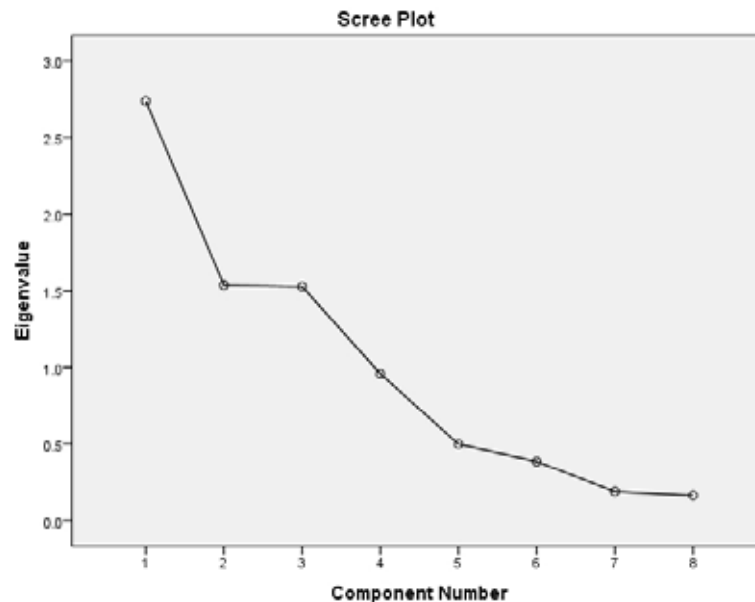


Fig. 2. Scree test for CLAPTDI component analysis

Table 2 contains the correlation matrix for the set of CLA variables along with the measures of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test value. The matrix indicates that 14 of the 28 correlations (50%) are statistically significant at .01 level, which provides an adequate basis for proceeding to an empirical examination of the factor analysis on both an overall basis and for each item. The number of significant correlations per variable shows a range from 0 (PW1) to 5 (WM2). Although no limit is placed on what is too high or low, Hair and colleagues [15] assert that significant correlation may be an indication that the item is not a part of any factor, and an item with a large number of correlation may be a part of several factors. However, before a decision was made to delete the two suspect items, we assessed the overall significance of the correlation matrix with the Bartlett's test and the factorability of the overall set of items and individual items using the measure of sampling adequacy (MSA). The Bartlett's test shows that non-zero correlations exist at the significance level of .0001. This test only indicates the presence of nonzero correlations, not the pattern of these correlations, while the MSA looks not only at correlation, but their pattern between items. The overall MSA value falls in the acceptable range (above .50) with a value of .60. The MSA value for each item also falls in the acceptable range (from a low of .51 to a high .73). Finally, examination of the partial correlations shows only one with values greater than .50, which is another indicator of the strength of the interrelationships among the variables. Collectively, these measures all indicate the CLA items are appropriate for factor analysis. Also, all the communalities (ranging from .742 to .916) of the unrotated component analysis factor

matrix are sufficiently high to proceed with the rotation of the factor matrix. Finally, reproduced correlation shows only 8 (28%) non-redundant residual with absolute values greater than .05.

Table 3 and Fig. 2 contain the information regarding the varimax-rotated component analysis factor matrix of the 8 possible factors and their relative explanatory power as expressed by their eigenvalues. Applying the joint consideration of Cattell's [16] scree plot, a priori, and percentage of factors to be extracted criteria, four factors were retained representing 84.5 percent of variance the 8 variables, which is deemed sufficient in terms of total variance explained [15]. Table 3 contains the rotated factor solution for the CLA variables and their corresponding communality. The factor loadings are all above .70, and each of the variables has a significant loading (defined as a loading above .40) on only one factor. Also, all the communalities are of sufficient size to warrant inclusion. Factor 1, which explained 34% of the variance, had 2 items with a pattern coefficient (factor loading) of absolute value 0.4 or higher with large pattern/structure effect size (Cronbach's $D = 0.89$). This first factor was labeled "Persuasive writing". The second factor, labeled "analytic reasoning" explained 19% of the variance had 2 items with acceptable pattern/structure effect size coefficients (Cronbach's $D = 0.89$). Factor 3, labeled "Problem solving" explained 19% of the variance had 2 items with adequate pattern/structure effect size coefficients (Cronbach's $D = 0.74$). Factor 4, labeled "Writing mechanics" 12% of the variance had 2 items with large pattern/structure effect size coefficients (Cronbach's $D = 0.62$).

Table 3. Rotated CLAPTDI component analysis 4-factor matrix

Variables	ROTATED LOADINGS*				Communality
	1	2	3	4	
PW2: Defending Argument	.939				.916
WM2: Quality of Writing	.881				.898
PS2: Acknowledge Alternatives		.948			.906
AR2: Analysis & Synthesis		.933			.901
PS1: Drawing Conclusions			.891		.818
AR1: Evaluation			.823		.776
PW1: Organized Coherent Writing				.884	.803
WM1: Clarity of Writing				.811	.742
Cronbach's D	.89	.89	.74	.62	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

**Factor loadings less than .40 have not been printed and variables have been sorted by loading on each factor.*

3.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Initial CFA of the 8 items and four latent constructs measurement model produced fit indexes that indicated a relatively poor fit to the data ($D^2 = 34.308$, $p = .002$; CFI = .97; TLI = .95, RMSEA = .08) for a model of this complexity [15]. To improve the model's test of the measurement theory, we performed a series of the diagnostic tests described previously.

The two items measuring "writing mechanics" were found to be problematic, in that, their standardized loadings were too low and insignificant or their item-test and item-rest coefficients were too low. These two items were dropped from the model, leaving a final solution of 6 items and three latent constructs (Fig. 2 and Table 4), and the confirmatory factor analysis was conducted again. All measured items were allowed to load only on one construct each. Therefore, the error term were not allowed to relate to any other measured variable, making the measurement model congeneric. Each of the latent constructs measured two items. Every individual construct was identified and the measures were reflective. The overall model was over identified by placing constraints on the measurement paths for each construct. Mardia's normalized estimate of multivariate kurtosis (C.R. value) is -1.715 which is reflexive of a normal distribution. The square Mahalanobis distance (D^2) values showed minimal evidence of multivariate outliers.

The overall model's D^2 is 9.355 with 6 degrees of freedom. The p -value associated with this result is 0.155, which is not significant using a Type I error rate of 0.05. Thus, the D^2 goodness-of-fit statistic does indicate that, the observed covariance matrix matches the estimated covariance within sampling variance. The RMSEA = 0.048, lower (that is, better) than the standard rule of 0.06 for good models of this complexity [15]. The CFI = 0.99 and TLI = 0.99, both good for a model with 6 variables and a sample size of 241 [15]. The CFA results suggest that the model underlying the Collegiate Learning Assessment Performance Task Diagnostic Instrument (CLAPTDI) scale indeed could produce the correlations and covariance we observed among the CLAPTDI subtests. Hence, the theoretical structure of the CLAPTDI is supported.

Focusing on the model itself, initial completely standardized estimates showed 2 loadings below the cut-off of 0.50 that were insignificant. The variables were dropped from the model leaving a final solution with 6 variables and three latent constructs. The first factor, named "Analytic Reasoning/Critical Thinking" had two items and Cronbach's alpha of 0.89. Factor 2, called "Problem Solving" had two items and Cronbach's alpha of 0.89. Factor 3, named "Written Communication" had two items

with Cronbach's alpha of 0.74. Table 2 and Fig. 2; display the completely standardized loadings of the final HPM model. The factor loadings for each of the latent constructs ranged from reasonable (0.30) to substantive (0.90) and statistically significant. Within factors, most subtests items had fairly equivalent loadings on the latent construct they were supposed to measure.

The AIC fit statistics for the hypothesized model (51.355) is lower compared to the independent model (AIC=54.000) for the independent model or the saturated model (AIC=731.084), indicative of appropriate fit of the model to the data. Also, the ECVI (.214) for the model is lower compared to the independent model (.225) and the saturated model (3.046), suggesting that the model represent the best fit for the data. Hoetler's Critical N value for the model is 324 at .05 level and 432 at the .01 level, which is indicating that the CLA measurement model adequately represent the sample data. Finally, Mardia's normalized estimate of multivariate kurtosis (C.R. value) is -1.715 which is reflexive of a normal distribution, and the square Mahalanobis distance (D^2) values showed minimal evidence of multivariate outliers; satisfying the assumptions for the conduct of SEM.

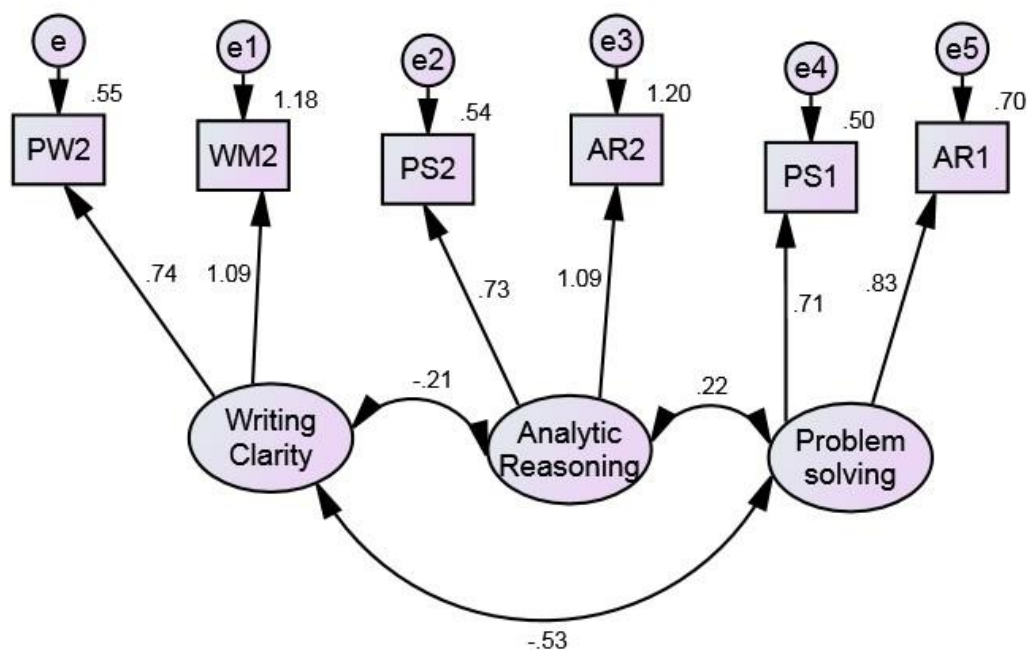


Fig. 2. Final factorial structure model for the collegiate learning assessment (CLA) performance task diagnostic instrument

Table 4. Standardized estimate for item loadings, confirmatory factor analysis

CLA Measurement Scale Items	Estimate
Analytic Reasoning/Critical Thinking	
Acknowledging alternative explanations/viewpoints (PS)	.734
Analyzing and synthesizing evidence (AR2)	1.00
Problem Solving	
Drawing Conclusions (PS1)	.709
Evaluating Evidence (AR1)	.835
Written Communication	
Persuasive Writing (PW2)	.741
Writing Mechanics (WM2)	1.00

4. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to develop and validate the psychometric properties of Collegiate Learning assessment (CLA) Performance Task Diagnostic Instrument (PTDI) among college student attending HBCUs. The CLA instrument for this study included 8 items used to assess to learning abilities of the students. Exploratory factor analysis identified a total of four subscales, measuring the four latent CLA learning constructs. The EFA helped to determine the factor structure for the underlying set of items hypothesized to measure collegiate learning.

The constructs were Analytic Reasoning, Problem Solving, Persuasive Writing, and Writing Mechanics . Each of the learning scales was measured by two items in the CLA PTDI and exhibited an acceptable factor loading and internal consistency with Cronbach s D ranging from 0.74 to 0.89 [18,15]). All the factor loadings were of sufficient size (i.e. above the lower bound of .50) to warrant inclusion in the model.

Confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) then validated the hypothesized factor structure by determining goodness-of-fit. Initial CFA excluded two items with poor psychometric properties through this process, resulting in final 3-factor scale with good goodness-of-fit indices and excellent Cronbach s alphas. The CFA results generally support a reasonably good measurement model [15]. For example, the overall model D^2 statistic is insignificant using Type I error rate of 0.05. Thus, the D^2 goodness-of-fit does indicate that, the observed covariance matrix matches the estimated covariance matrix within sampling error. Additionally, the absolute fit index (RMSEA) and the incremental fit indices (CFI and ITL) exceed the lower bound guideline for a good model of this complexity and sample size [15]. The estimated model s predictive fit indices (AIC and ECVI) exhibit appropriate fit in hypothetical

replication (cross validation) samples of the same size and randomly drawn from the same population as our study sample.

Hoetler's Critical N value exceeded the 200 lower bound at both the .05 and .01 level, indicating that the model adequately represents the sample data. Both assumptions in the conduct of structural equation modeling (normal distribution and lack of outliers) are satisfied with Mardia's normalized estimate of multivariate kurtosis (C.R. value) of -1.715 lower than 5.0 cutoff and the square Mahalanobis distance (D^2) values showed minimal evidence of multivariate outliers. Overall, the fit statistics suggest that the estimated model reproduces the sample covariance matrix reasonably well. An interesting finding emerging from this study is that a 3-factor CLA model exhibited better psychometric properties than the 4-factor model currently used to assess student learning. Collectively, these findings suggest that through exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses, valid and reliable scales with sound psychometric properties were developed to quantify Collegiate Learning Assessment at Historically Black Colleges and Universities. Furthermore, evidence of construct validity is present in terms of convergent and discriminant validity.

In summation, the study was aimed at addressing a void in institutional policy and research of student learning. In terms of policy, the validated instrument derived from this study can be used to more accurately identify factors associated with learning, as well as gaps between different groups of students, which academic institutions can use to intervene and counter patterns of learning disadvantages revealed in CLA than previous studies. As for its contribution to research, while the CLA, as a measure of learning in terms of reasoning and communicating in higher education, tracks remarkably well sociological factors at the individual, social and institutional levels, no CLA to date has tested the psychometric properties of the instruments used in this type of assessment nor its construct validity. This void raises serious questions about the reliability of CLA findings as a guide for understanding and designing policies to improve student learning. The soundness of the CLA psychometric properties derived from this study effectively addresses this void. There are two limitations to this study that should be acknowledged. First, while the results of this study suggest a good fit for the psychometric properties of the CLA measurement model, it did not cross-validate the results using data from a different sample. Hence, the external validity of the measurement instrument is questionable. To establish external validity of the CLA Performance Task Diagnostic instrument, future studies should extend the CFA to test for metric invariance using other HBCU samples [34;25]. Second, the study did not perform a Monte-Carlo longitudinal factorial test of the stability of the instrument over time. These limitations

notwithstanding, this study finding provide an initial validation of the CLA Performance Task instrument which future studies can build upon. Specifically, to establish external validity of the CLAPTDI we recommend that future studies should perform a multigroup test for the factorial equivalence of CLA performance task diagnostic instrument scores and a Monte-Carlo longitudinal factorial test of the instrument over time.

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STATEMENT OF COMPETING INTEREST

The authors have no competing interest.

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***Which is Learnt First Regular or Irregular
Simple Past Forms? A Quantitative Study in the
Context of the Undergraduate Arab Learners of English
(ALEs) under Two Different Teaching Methods***

ABSTRACT

Aims: To investigate which simple past forms are learnt first, regular or irregular forms, under two different methods of teaching writing, in the context of foreign language learning.

Study Design: Quantitative analysis for all the simple past forms produced by the participants in three chronological written texts collected in the experiment.

Place and Duration of Study: Sample of Male Arab Learners of English studying in a high school in the Sultanate of Oman 2010.

Methodology: 74 Arab Learners of English forming two groups, 34 represents the Experimental Group following the Innovated Writing Process approach, and 34 represents the Control Group following Traditional Product Writing approach.

Results: Arab Learners of English in the Experimental Group produced 670 (40.31%) regular simple past forms in the three chronological written texts and 992 (59.69%) irregular simple past forms. This is compared with participants in the Control Group who produces 588 (37.88%) regular simple past forms and 964 (62.12%) irregular simple past forms.

Conclusion: Arab Learners of English learn the irregular simple past forms before the regular simple past forms in two different teaching methods of writing.

Keywords: *Regular past; irregular past; SLA; simple past.*

ABBREVIATIONS

- AB* : Tracing the target-like and non-target-like simple past forms used by the samples of the study in the Experimental Group (the first writing after the first two weeks following the /WP).
- AM* : Tracing the target-like and non-target-like simple past forms used by the samples of the study in the Experimental Group (the second writing after the first two months following the /WP).
- AF* : Tracing the target-like and non-target-like simple past forms used by the samples of the study in the Experimental Group (the third and the last writing at the end of the experiment after spending four months following the WP).
- BB* : Tracing the target-like and non-target-like simple past forms used by the samples of the study in the Control Group (the first writing after the first two weeks).
- BM* : Tracing the target-like and non-target-like simple past forms used by the samples of the study in the Control Group (the second writing after the first two months).
- BF* : Tracing the target-like and non-target-like simple past forms used by the samples of the study in the Control Group (the third and the last writing at the end of the experiment after spending four months).
- RTL* : Regular target-like simple past form
- RNTL* : Regular non-target-like simple past form
- /RTL* : /irregular target-like simple past form
- /RNTL* : /irregular non-target-like simple past form

1. INTRODUCTION AND RELATED LITERATURE

The aim of the study is to identify which simple past verbs is acquired first, regular or irregular simple past forms in the context of Arab Learners of English ALEs, under two different teaching methods. Having into consideration the grammar textbooks and teachers of EFL/ESL start teaching the regular forms of the simple past before the irregular simple past forms. In addition, the samples of the study are Male Arab Learners of English and had been learning English as a foreign language for eight years attending four to five sessions per week on average. It was expected that they would have acquired regular simple past forms before irregular simple past forms, but as first language learners, acquiring irregular past forms comes before acquiring regular past forms.

The researcher thinks that the Words and Rules model may shed light on the interlanguage data to do with simple past tense forms. That leads the researcher to discuss and evaluate the Words and Rules model and illustrate its implementations in Herschensohn's study in which he has used the Words and Rules model in his discussion, aiming at investigating which form was acquired in the context of Arab

Learners of English as foreign language learners. In the following, the model will be discussed.

1.2 The Words and Rules Model

English has two types of verbs: regular and irregular. Regular verbs end with *-ed*. So, they are predictable such as: *walk-walked, look-looked, play-played* and so on. The list of regular verbs is open-ended. New ones are being added to the language all the time. When new words entered the language such as *fax, spam* and *mosh*, the past tense forms do not need to be introduced separately: it is deduced that they are *faxed, spammed* and *moshed*, which means we tend to add *-ed* to any new verbs [1]. It is noticed that children as first language learners not only create new words but venture into putting new verbs in the past tense using *-ed*. For instance: *smunched, speeched, eat lunched* and *cut-upped egg*. In addition, all children make errors in their speech such as: **/bayed a fire dog for grillion dollars. And, */stealed some of the people out of the boat*. This overgeneralization of the *-ed* rule is reflected in the samples of simple past tense forms from the Arabic data in the present study such as; **caught, *thought, *goed, and *finded*. The second type of verbs in English language is the irregular forms which do not have the *-ed* ending, for example: *hold-held*.

In contrast to the regular verbs which are orderly and predictable, irregular verbs are chaotic and idiosyncratic. The irregular verbs in English do not have a definite rule like regular verbs.

The past tense of *sink* is *sank* and the past tense of *sing* is *sang*. But the past tense of *cling* is not **clang*, but *clung*, the past tense of *sting* is not **stang*, but *stung*. The past tense of *bring* is neither **brang* nor **brung*, but *brought*. Also, irregular verbs form a closed list. The number of irregular verbs in English is only about 150-180, and there have been no recent additions [1].

1.2.1 Evaluating the words-and- rules theory

According to the Words-and-Rules theory, regular forms are generated by rules while irregular forms are retrieved from memory. According to the way that memory works, the more often you hear something the better you remember it. Therefore, uncommon words have weak memory entries and should be harder to retrieve [1]. The statistics of the English language provides a good resource to look at how often both the regular and irregular verbs are used.

Pinker [1] illustrated the statistics of using regular and irregular verbs in a text of a million words. Here is a Top Ten list, the ten most common verbs in English:

Verb	Number of occurrences in a million words of text
1. <i>be</i>	39,175
2. <i>have</i>	12,458
3. <i>do</i>	4,367
4. <i>say</i>	2,765
5. <i>make</i>	2,312
6. <i>go</i>	1,844
7. <i>take</i>	1,575
8. <i>come</i>	1,561
9. <i>see</i>	1,513
10. <i>get</i>	1,486

Pinker [1]

The top ten verbs are all irregular. The top four are also irregular in both past and present tenses, at least in terms of pronunciation in the case of the last two: *be-is/are*, *have-has*, *do does*, and *say-says*. And the first and sixth spots contain verbs whose past tense forms are different words altogether: *be-was/were* and *go-went* [1].

Here are some of the least common verbs in English:

Verb	Number of occurrences in a million words of text
<i>Abate</i>	1
<i>Abbreviate</i>	1
<i>Abhor</i>	1
<i>Ablate</i>	1
<i>Abridge</i>	1
<i>Abrogate</i>	1
<i>Acclimatise</i>	1

Pinker [1]

As we can see, all ten verbs mentioned are regular. A conclusion could be drawn which is that irregular verbs are the most common verbs and vice versa. The reason is that irregular forms have to be memorized repeatedly to survive in a language and the most commonly heard forms are the easiest to memorize. In the following, implementing the Words and Rules model in Herschensohn's Study will be presented.

1.2.2 Implementing the words and rules model in Herschensohn's study

It was indicated that the mastery of verbal inflection is significant in second language acquisition for there is a possible indication of morphological, syntactic and semantic competencies [2]. In the grammars of native speakers, researchers have distinguished two kinds of morphological knowledge, namely: rule-governed and rote-learned (Pinker, 1999). As Herschensohn [2] explained, in the domain of verb

inflection, regular alternations like *play-played-played*, *work-worked-worked* illustrate rule-governed morphology, while alternations like *see-saw-seen*, *go-went-gone* illustrate rote-learned forms. Commenting on the rule and rote model, Herschensohn [2] added, the rule-governed operation is open-ended – applying to the new verbs that enter the language; and onto processing, it is also not subject to frequency effects. By contrast, rote-learned forms are a closed class and are subject to frequency effects in processing: Herschensohn [2] argued that the more frequent verbs are processed faster than rarer forms and hence made a conclusion that in such evidence as this, the rule-governed and rote-learned forms are thus stored differently in the mental grammar. Beck [3] also made a similar observations positing that a "dual storage" of morphological forms exists in the mental grammars of L2 speakers.

It was discussed the relative importance of naturalistic input versus instructional input in L2 acquisition. Klein [4] in Herschensohn [2] categorised second language acquisition as either spontaneous or guided. The term "spontaneous learning" is used to denote the acquisition of a second language in everyday communication that occurs in a natural fashion and free from systematic guidance. On the contrary, guided acquisition refers to the domestication of a natural process that differs from spontaneous by its structured presentation of materials, and contrived opportunities for practice and systematic intervention. It was argued that, while naturalistic input is important to second language acquisition, it does not guarantee mastery of L2. However, instructional support and conscious effort on the part of the L2 learner do not assure L2 acquisition either [2]. It was contended that learners who receive naturalistic input acquire unconscious knowledge exclusively from primary linguistic data [5,6]. Schwartz [5] provided convincing arguments supporting why primary linguistic data are necessary for the growth of the system of linguistic knowledge.

On the other hand, there are studies [7] that support the importance of guidance for second language acquisition. Ellis [7] cited evidence concerning structured input in second language acquisition, suggesting that instructed learners outperform naturalistic ones particularly with the use of instructional aids useful in learning linguistic rules and formula.

Some empirical studies in areas ranging from morphology to syntax postulated that form- focused instruction can play a remarkable role in improving post-instruction awareness of morphology and syntax in second language. For example, Scott [8,9] made a comparison between implicit and explicit grammar teaching, and concluded that explicit teaching results in improved recall and production on tests targeted to the

grammar points in question. Moreover, White [10,11] and Arteaga and Herschensohn [12] measured the efficacy of instruction in cognate recognition and posited that teaching particular points can result in statistically measurable improvements on a short term basis.

In discussing the relationship between explicit and implicit knowledge, Fotos and Nassaji [13] noted that some researchers [14,15,5] argued that there is no relationship between the two forms of explicit and implicit knowledge. However, many SLA researchers now believe that there is a relationship that exists between them, particularly through the performance of activities that promote the learners' attention to target forms while processing input [16,17,18,19,20,21,22] or, through repeated practice and increased exposure (for example, [23,24,25] or, through making the learning process more efficient by helping learners attend to features in the input that they would not otherwise notice [26,27,21].

In the same vein, Herschensohn [2] mentioned that most form-focused studies have generally agreed that instruction is not detrimental to second language acquisition, for it enhances instead the process of guiding the learner towards certain rule-governed behaviours of the target language. Herschensohn [2] further added, second language learners do not assimilate all the grammatical structures they have been taught about or lose certain knowledge over time. Findings by [28] provided evidence that instruction does not ensure learning and it is difficult to pinpoint where, how and when a given piece of grammatical knowledge actually becomes integrated into the interlanguage grammar. In what follows, an evaluation of Herschensohn's study will be presented.

1.2.3 Evaluation of Herschensohn's study

The nature of the Interlanguage morphology of two subjects was discussed in [2]'s study: one from an instructional context and the other from a natural learning perspective. With a set of data collected from two subjects – Emma and Chloe, Herschensohn [2] identified the characteristics of their errors by evaluating the appropriateness of a rote and rule morphology model after addressing the question of spontaneous versus instructed input.

In that study, Emma learnt French in a formal environment. Her exposure to French input was one hour per day in the classroom with additional time permitted for studying through text, workbook, audio and video tapes. She did not receive primary linguistic data (PLO) from the teacher supervising her, who was not a native speaker.

In contrast, Chloe was in a nearly total francophone environment. She lived with a French family. In addition, she took a normal academic programme in a French lycee. She was obliged to use French in written assignments. She reported receiving correction from teachers, peers and family both in the academic setting and in social conversation outside the school.

It was pointed out that the most significant difference between Emma's and Chloe's exposure to French language during the six-month period was in the realm of naturalistic input: Chloe was exposed to large amounts of naturalistic French whereas Emma received limited input in a classroom setting. Chloe received five hours a week of English and 107 hours of French whereas Emma was exposed to five hours a week of French and 107 hours of English, whereas. [2]'s findings show that both subjects achieved an increase of tokens for the target-like usage. Chloe had a slightly higher marking for target-like usage than Emma. In the final interview, Chloe used 91 tokens versus 85 for Emma. The number of lexically distinct verbs has also increased. Emma's verbal vocabulary is higher at 38 than Chloe's with 32.

It was also examined L2 verb inflection to determine how morphological knowledge is represented in the L2 grammar and how such knowledge is developed. Herschensohn's study reveals that the exact nature of morphological storage for the interlanguage grammars of Emma and Chloe is not verifiable. But it is possible to infer that the learners store morphological information both as individual items and as rule-governed patterns. Herschensohn [2] also demonstrated that the Words and Rules model provides a reasonable account of the L2 morphology as it is presented in her corpus. The ability of Chloe and Emma to produce accurate verbal inflection is an indication that the grammatical knowledge of morphological rules and inflectional forms is on-line, ready for actual discourse. Herschensohn [2] concluded that both subjects have interlanguage grammars with morphological knowledge which resembles that of the native speaker.

The outcomes of Herschensohn's study do not show any significant differences between the two different contexts namely instructional input versus naturalistic input. It appears that both subjects achieved an increase in morphological competence despite the fact that the level of inflectional accuracy of Emma is 89% against 98% for Chloe. The only difference is Chloe's nearly error free performance in verb inflection which might be attributed to her six-month exposure to spontaneous input. Herschensohn posits that Chloe's improvement must be attributed to her exposure to primary data and her ability to use PLO to construct her L2 morphology although the

focus of her formal instruction was on literature, biology and maths not French grammar. On the other hand, Emma is exposed to L2 data only as formal instruction, yet she manages to learn a substantial amount of regular and irregular morphology and she was able to use it in real discourse. In what follows, I will discuss the Foreign Language Learners and the acquisition of regular and irregular simple past forms.

1.3 Foreign Language Learners and using Regular and Irregular Simple Past Forms

Previous works on the acquisition of the simple past tense in English as an L1 have noted that irregular simple past forms are acquired before regular simple past forms. Brown [29] presented the following order of language acquisition:

- Present progressive *-ing* (Mommy running)
- Plural *-s* (Two books)
- **Irregular past forms (Dady went)**
- Possessive *'s* (Oaddy's hat)
- Copula (Annie *is* happy)
- Articles *the* and *a*
- **Regular past *-ed* (She walked)**
- Third person singular simple present *-s* (She runs)
- Auxiliary *be* (He *is* coming)

It was confirmed that children learning English as a first language mastered the morphemes at different ages, but the order of their acquisition was very similar. In other words, irregular simple past forms are acquired before the regular simple past forms [30]. Bardovi-Harlig [31] concluded that irregular morphology precedes regular morphology in learning English as L2 as well. In the current study, I will investigate the Words and Rules model using all the written texts collected from all the subjects in both the Experimental Group and the Control group to investigate whether Arab learners of English follow the same sequence. However, their L1 is different from L2.

In discussing the errors of second language learners acquiring the simple past, Ramadani [32] discovered that the most common error students make in using simple past tense is with the structure of question sentences in the simple past tense where the use of regular or irregular verbs generate a different meaning. He also noted that remembering the irregular past tense form is another problem. In the same vein, Yap and Alsagoff [33] investigated errors in past tense marking in Singapore secondary school students' composition. They claimed that a learner will acquire an appropriately

morphological tense marking for telic verbs (i.e. achievements and accomplishments) before atelic verbs (i.e. states and actives). They mention that the Aspect Hypothesis suggests that the distribution of tense errors can be predicted on the basis of telicity. In their study, they formulate and test the hypothesis that the aspectual classes of verbs can explain patterns of errors in past tense marking. Their data collection consists of the middle of year examination composition scripts from a secondary school to ensure that the outputs from the subjects are not influenced by teachers or peers. Compared with the current study, the output was as a result of the teacher's input in both groups. Findings from their study reveal that the lexical semantic of verbs can account for tense marking errors.

In the Swedish Learners of English context, Andersson [34] investigated what types of errors the students make regarding time and tense and, secondly, compares the types of errors made with the results found from 1995 in *To Err Is Human* [35]. The result shows that most errors occurred in the present tense. As many as 117 errors were found in the present tense whereas 80 errors were found in the past tense, and 66 errors were found in the future tense. The errors made in the past tense are categorized into four groups, namely, the simple past, the present perfect, the past perfect, and the past passive. She found that out of the 80 errors found in the past tense, 50 per cent occurred with the simple past tense. She concludes that the school must start to teach grammar explicitly in order to give the students the chance to use the language in a target-like way in communication. In the following lines, methods will be presented.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

This section discusses the teaching methods used in the experiment, the subjects of the study, the research question and the methods used in the analysis of the written texts.

2.1 Teaching Methods Used in the Experiment

In the experiment, two types of teaching methods were followed. The first type is the Traditional Product Writing (TPW) implemented with the Control Group, and the second type is the Innovated Writing Process (IWP) implemented with the Experimental Group. Type two (IWP), is presented in detail in [36]. In the following part, I will shed light on the teaching methods.

2.1.1 Describing the Traditional Product Writing (TPW)

The TPW is a method of teaching writing, which emphasizes the students' finished written product. It is termed a product-oriented approach which focuses on what to write and the rules for writing; the teacher is the only one who evaluates the final product. My MA study Mourssi [37] indicated that product writing is a teacher-centered method, in which there is no role/space for the students to interact, discuss, negotiate, or get concrete feedback. Although some students can imitate certain styles of writing, the majority of the students produce weak written pieces which are full of non-target-like forms. The teacher evaluation is provided by putting a tick or writing "good, very good, well done or bad" and there is no space for interaction or enough feedback.

The product approach has been evaluated by a number of applied linguists who have shown the weaknesses of the product approach in language acquisition: Pincas [38] comments that in the product approach, the use of language is the manipulation of fixed patterns, these patterns are learnt by imitation; Eschholz [39] mentions that the product approach merely results in mindless copies of particular organizational plan or style; Prodromou [40] criticizes that the product approach for devaluing "the learners' potential" both linguistic and personal; Jordan [41] comments that the product approach has no practical applications; Nunan [42] similarly mentions that the product approach focuses on writing tasks in which the learner imitates, copies and transforms models supplied by the teacher. I think that the product approach does not teach how to write independently or teach learners how to think, and most of the students feel bored during the writing task.

2.1.2 Describing the Innovated Writing Process (IWP)

Mourssi [36] declared that the IWP and the CGLTA were designed to be a bridge to apply recent SLA and applied linguistic theories in pedagogical settings; the aim was for the IWP to create a relationship between Sociocultural Theory (SCT) and pedagogical settings in the classroom, while the CGLTA aimed to draw on error/contrastive analyses with metalinguistic feedback within a communicative framework.

Mourssi [43,36] thought that there should be a method which could be implemented to narrow the gap between the L1 and the L2 learners' internalized grammar system and which takes into consideration the big differences between the Arabic and English language. The researcher thought that this might be achieved

by increasing the role of the teacher's interactions and instructions while concentrating on analyzing L2 learners' interlanguage grammar. The explanation and analysis of the learners' non-target-like forms should be performed using explicit grammar learning following *Meaning* negotiation and *Form* negotiation when it is needed and using corrective feedback. Implementing these stages might motivate L2 learners and give them the opportunity to revise and redraft their writing - most of them feel that writing activity is a boring task and they do not have desire to revise and redraft as well - to develop their internalized grammar which will be reflected in their writing.

Mourssi [43,44] explained that the procedures of the IWP include: the processes of contrastive analysis and error analysis (metalinguistic feedback) based on the learners' mistakes; explicit grammar teaching; negotiation of meaning and form based on the learners' level of interlanguage grammar; interaction between teacher-students and students-students in a form of communicative grammar language teaching approach; and finally, feedback which is either direct or indirect.

2.2 The Subjects of the Study

Two classes were selected from a total of 12 enrolled in grade 12. The target location was in one of the Omani government male secondary schools (High School). Each group consisted of 37 Arab Learners of English (ALEs), with ages ranging between 16 and 18, pre- intermediate to intermediate level in English. The subjects were all Arabic speakers and had been learning English as a foreign language for eight years attending four to five sessions per week on average. One aim of this study is to identify which simple past form is first acquired, regular or irregular simple past forms under two different teaching methods? In the following, the research question is presented.

2.3 The Research Question

The current study seeks to answer the following question:

Which simple past forms is first acquired? Is it regular or irregular simple past forms? Are Arab learners of English as foreign language learners follow the same stages of first language learners (who acquire the irregular simple past forms before the regular simple past forms)? This is to provide empirical evidence in relation to the acquisition of the simple past tense forms to test hypotheses emerging from the Rote

and Rule model, and thus contribute to the advancement of theory on Second Language Acquisition.

2.4 Methods Assigned to the Research Question

For the research question presented above, quantitative analyses were followed for all the simple past tense forms produced by the samples in 222 written texts which had been collected chronologically. The author thinks that in order to explore which simple past forms are acquired first, three writing texts were collected from each sample in both groups, the first writing text (AB) from the Experimental Group and (BB) were collected after the first two weeks; the second writing (AM) from the Experimental Group and ((BM) from the Control Group after the first two months while the third writing (AF) from the Experimental Group and (BF) from the Control Group were collected at the end of the experiment. The author thinks that writing is one way to get evidence of the state of a student's internalised grammar system. Discussion will be presented in the following section.

2.4.1 The criteria used in discussing the written samples

Three pieces of writing produced chronologically as part of the course produced excellent data for the investigation of students' interlanguage development and a decision was taken to look in detail at simple past tense forms. The researcher used the three writing texts, produced in chronological order as the course went on, to trace both qualitatively and quantitatively the development of simple past tense forms. The instructions were very clear to all the subjects in both groups, which was "Use the following pictures to write a story using the simple past tense in about (100) words". The three chronological writing texts constitute the type of "text data" highlighted in [45] as being suitable for morphological analysis.

In general, the Innovated Writing Process IWP and the Communicative Grammar Language Teaching Approach CGLTA [46] were designed to be a bridge to apply recent SLA and applied linguistic theories in pedagogical settings; the aim was for the IWP to create a relationship between Sociocultural Theory (SCT) and pedagogical settings in the classroom, while the CGLTA aimed to draw on error/contrastive analyses with metalinguistic feedback within a communicative framework [46]. One aim of the current study is to investigate which form is learned first, regular or irregular simple past form.

Each occurrence of a simple past tense form in the students' written samples was carefully counted and analyzed. Intuition has been used to allocate examples to different categories.

It is noticed that learners use different forms, for example: using *run* instead of *ran*, and using *thanks* instead of "thanked". With respect to the distinction between types and tokens in calculating the rates of development in L2 learners' simple past forms, even though *goed* or *wented* are non-target-like forms, they show some kind of development in a student's interlanguage grammar. Each form produced by the subjects is discussed and analyzed for the purpose of this study. The regular and irregular verbs are presented in numbers and percentages to show whether regular or irregular forms were produced first, and to give the reader an insight into how frequently each type of error and mistake occurred.

Categorizing the forms in sequence interlanguage stages is based on particular categories that were established from the start and were confirmed as the study went along, the categories were also confirmed by calculating all the non-target-like and the target-like forms produced by all the samples of the study. The students' non-target-like forms were categorized into seven types as follows: first, using the root or the simple present forms, second, using spoken target-like forms but written non-target-like written forms, third, overgeneralizing the *-ed* to irregular verbs, fourth, using verb to *Be* + the simple past, agent, the past participle or the gerund etc, fifth, number concord errors in the target-like verb forms, sixth, using blended forms (using *have*, *has* + the simple past or the past participle, and using infinitive *to* + the past simple or the past participle), finally, overgeneralizing a sub-rule of irregular simple past on other irregular simple past or regular simple past [47,48].

The total number of essays analyzed was 74, with 37 samples from the Experimental Group and 37 samples from the Control Group. These essays were of about 100 words each. The total amount of simple past tokens for the Experimental Group was 1587 forms, and the total amount of the simple past tokens for the Control Group was 1500 forms.

All the regular and irregular target-like and non-target-like simple past tense forms were carefully counted in all the stages, to cover all types of interlanguage behaviour which occur in the three stages of the experiment and to get an empirical evidence and consistent results for the study showing how the simple past form is acquired by ALEs and what interlanguage stages they may pass through to correctly

acquire the simple past tense forms in English. It is worth mentioning that in the current study all verb forms were identified in the texts produced by all the students in the Experimental and the Control Groups. These were divided into target-like and non-target-like forms.

The analysis of the acquisition of the simple past forms in English using the students' written essays produced as part of the IWP was not a straightforward matter and the results must be interpreted with caution. In categorizing the learners' non-target-like forms, some non-target-like forms were repeated in different stages. So, it was difficult to make a clear dividing line between one stage and the next. Analyzing all the non-target-like forms produced by all the subjects of the study in both groups, and categorizing the interlanguage stages followed in acquiring the simple past tense, does not mean that these stages can be generalized to all second language learners in acquiring the simple past forms in English, but attempts to cover most of the variety of types of interlanguage behaviour adopted by ALEs while acquiring the simple past tense forms in English. The acquisition of simple past for this detailed study seems to be varied perhaps because Arabic L1 students may be in different stages from the stages investigated by other researchers in different contexts. E.g. using the verb to be with the root or with the simple past form or with the past perfect form (*was go*, *was went*, and *was caught*) can represent one of the characteristics of the interlanguage grammar development followed by ALEs in the acquisition of the simple past tense. I also think that explicit teaching/learning and metalinguistic feedback can help students - ALEs - go through the stages more quickly and this point will be investigated later on.

Another issue in categorizing the stages of interlanguage behaviour is that some second language learners produced some non-target-like forms which cannot be grouped into a recognizable category; this is because it is difficult to establish which verbs they are. For example: *stoke* (S 11 AB), *colle* (S 15 AB), *arer* (S 3 BB), *dicet* (S 14 BB), and *akrusnt* (S 27 BB). It was difficult to categorize these forms as performance non-target-like forms such as: *showted*, *brook*, *trayed*, *foneshed*, and *snated* which are categorized as stage two in the interlanguage grammar development stages proposed in the acquisition of the simple past tense in the current study. Producing these forms (*showted*, *trayed*, *snated*, *finished*, and *hapenned*) can be evidence that the student's internal grammar has taught him/her that you should add *-ed* to these verbs, and can be evidence that the learner has developed the

regular "add *-ed*" rule. Learners who produced these forms at this stage need to learn the target-like form in learning the simple past tense in English in order to improve their written accuracy.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In response to Research Question, participants' target-like and non-target-like regular and irregular simple past forms were noted. The learners' development in their use of the regular and irregular simple past tense forms was traced in three different written texts produced by the participants in the Experimental and Control Groups.

3.1 Tracing the Participants' Simple Past Forms during the Experiment

In the following paragraphs, a comparison is made between the Experimental Group and the Control Group at the three different stages. First, the development will be traced of the regular and irregular simple past tense forms used in the three different written texts collected from the participants in both Experimental and Control Groups stage by stage. This is followed by tracing the target-like and non-target-like regular and irregular simple past forms used in the three different written texts.

3.1.1 Tracing the Participants' Regular and Irregular Simple Past Forms during the Experiment

Table 1 shows the raw and relative percentages of regular and irregular simple past tense forms in the three chronological written texts produced by ALEs in the Experimental Group and the Control Group.

Table 1. Regular and Irregular Simple Past forms produced by the Experimental Group and the Control Group at the three stages

Group/Stage	Regular simple past	Irregular simple past
AB	221 (42.10%)	304 (57.09%)
AM	223 (39.47%)	342 (60.53%)
AF	226 (39.52%)	346 (60.48%)
Total	670 (40.31%)	992 (59.69%)
BB	207 (38.05%)	337 (61.95%)
BM	187 (37.40%)	313 (62.60%)
BF	194 (38.18%)	314 (61.82%)
Total	588 (37.88%)	964 (62.12%)

The first part of Table 1 represents the Experimental Group. It shows that the participants used a number of 221 (42.10%) regular simple past forms in the first writing text, and used a number of 304 (57.09%) irregular simple past forms in the first writing text. And the number of the regular simple past increased slightly in the second

writing text. They used a number of 223 (39.47%) regular simple past forms compared with 342 (60.53%) irregular simple past forms. In the final piece of writing, the percentage of regular forms increased to 226 (39.52%) compared with 346 (60.48%) irregular simple past forms. A comparison between the regular simple past forms and the irregular simple past forms shows that the participants in the Experimental group used a total number of 670 (40.31%) regular simple past forms compared with 992 (59.69%) irregular simple past forms.

The second part of Table 1 represents the Control Group. It shows that the participants used 207 (38.05%) regular simple past forms in the first writing text, compared with a number of 337 (61.95%) irregular simple past forms. They used a number of 187 (37.40%) regular forms compared with 313 (61.82%) irregular simple past forms in the second writing text. The proportion of regular simple past forms increased in the third writing text to 194 (38.18%) compared with 314 (61.82%) irregular simple past forms. A comparison between the regular simple past forms and the irregular simple past forms shows that the participants in the Control group used a total number of 588 (37.88%) regular simple past forms compared with 964 (62.12%) irregular simple past forms.

3.1.2 Tracing the Participants' Target-like and Non-target-like Regular and Irregular Simple Past Forms during the Experiment

Table 2 shows the raw and relative percentages of the target-like and non-target-like regular and irregular simple past tense forms in the three written texts produced by ALEs in the Experimental and the Control Groups.

Table 2. Target-like and non-target-like forms produced by the Experimental Group and the Control Group at the three stages

Group/Stage	Regular simple past		Irregular simple past	
	Target-like	Non-target-like	Target-like	Non-target-like
AB	123 (56%)	98 (44%)	173 (57%)	131 (43%)
AM	130 (58%)	93 (42%)	212 (62%)	130 (38%)
AF	209 (92%)	17 (8%)	320 (92%)	26 (8%)
Total	462 (68.95%)	208 (31.05%)	705 (71.05%)	287 (28.95%)
BB	66 (32%)	141 (68%)	138 (41%)	199 (59%)
BM	80 (43%)	107 (57%)	159 (51%)	154 (49%)
BF	147 (76%)	47 (24%)	218 (69%)	96 (31%)
Total	293 (49.83%)	295 (50.17%)	515 (53.42%)	449 (46.58%)

The first part of Table 2 represents the Experimental Group. It shows that the participants used a number of 123 (56%) target-like regular simple past forms in the first writing text. And the number of the target-like regular simple past increased in

the second writing text. They used a number of 130 (58%) target-like regular simple past forms while the number increased to 209 (92%) target-like regular simple past forms. In the final piece of writing, the percentage of non-target-like forms reduced from 44% to 8% over the end of the course.

Table 2 also shows that the participants in the Experimental Group used a number of 173 (57%) target-like irregular simple past forms in the first writing text. And the number of the target-like irregular simple past increased in the second writing text. They used a number of 212 (62%) target-like irregular simple past forms while the number increased to 320 (92%) target-like irregular simple past forms. The participants in the Experimental Group produced 131 (43%) non-target-like irregular simple past forms in the first writing text and the number reduced to 130 (38%) non-target-like irregular simple past forms while the number reduced to 26 (8%) non-target-like irregular simple past forms.

The second part of Table 2 represents the Control Group. It shows that the participants used 66 (32%) target-like regular simple past forms in the first writing text. The proportion of target-like regular simple past forms increased in the second writing text to 80 (43%) and to 147 (76%) in the third piece of writing. The participants produced 141 (68%) non-target-like regular simple past forms in the first writing text but the number reduced in the second piece to 107 (57%) non-target-like regular simple past forms and to 47 (24%) non-target-like regular simple past forms in the final piece of writing.

Table 2 also indicates that the participants in the Control Group used a proportion of 138 (41%) target-like irregular simple past forms in the first writing text, but the number of target-like irregular simple past forms increased in the second writing text to 159 (51%) and to 218 (69%) in the final piece of writing. The participants in the Control Group produced 199 (59%) non-target-like irregular simple past forms in the first writing text reducing to 154 (49%) in the second piece of writing and to 96 (31%) in the final piece of writing. The results of the experiment for both Experimental and Control Groups show an increase in production of target-like simple past forms usage. The table indicates: the Experimental Group's target-like regular simple past forms usage increases from 123 (56%) to 130 (58%) to 209 (92%), while the target-like irregular simple past forms usage grows from 173 (57%) to 212 (62%) to 320 (92%). The table indicates also: the Control Group's target-like regular simple past forms usage increases from 66 (32%) to 80 (43%) to 147 (76%), while the target-like irregular simple past forms usage grows from 138 (41%) to 159 (51%) to 218 (69%).

The numbers of the verbs used by the two groups whether they are target-like or non-target-like, regular or irregular verbs, refer to the differences which are significant, these results and the differences reflect and support the results the Words and Rules model and Brown [29]'s study, and indicate that ALEs follow the same sequence of first language learners in learning the irregular simple past forms before the regular simple past forms.

4. CONCLUSION

Comparing the number of target-like regular and irregular simple past forms between the Experimental Group and the Control Group reveals that both groups have achieved a remarkable increase in the number of target-like regular and irregular simple past forms, but the Experimental Group achieved a higher percentage than the Control Group. There are many reasons behind these results. The most important two are: the Experimental Group practised the IWP and the CGLTA, and followed the techniques of revising and redrafting based on focus-on-form in a communicative way through interaction.

What is also noticed during the experiment is that Arab learners of English have a group of integrated resources and different strategies-primary linguistic data as well as cognitive strategies for grammatical rule formation- in order to perform the different tasks related to L2 learning. Some of them depend on the L1 and try to transfer or borrow using cognitive strategies-practising, receiving and sending messages between each other, analyzing and reasoning and creating structure for input and output- which enable them to understand and produce new language by different means.

To sum up, ALEs acquire the irregular simple past forms before the regular simple past forms, although each group was under different teaching method of writing. It is concluded that ALEs follow the same the same sequence of first language learners in learning the irregular simple past forms before the regular simple past forms. However, textbooks and teachers start presenting the regular simple past forms before the irregular ones.

COMPETING INTERESTS

Author has declared that no competing interests exist.

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Pedagogical background of professional competitive translator training

Abstract: The thesis focuses on Ukrainian scholars' different approaches on the problem of translators' training. The authors attempted to identify the appropriate ways of competitive translators' training in today's Ukrainian realities.

Key words: *translators / interpreters, training, curriculum, multilingual and multicultural competence, competitiveness.*

Our time makes special demands for future translators' training due to the processes taking place on the international scene: Ukraine's accession to the European and world community, joining the national higher education system to the Bologna Declaration, with a focus on Common Guidelines for Languages, the increasing participation of Ukraine in humanitarian and peacekeeping missions of the UN, various programs of cultural and educational exchanges, expanding business contacts. A foreign language is seen as a necessary but insufficient condition for the implementation of interpreters' professional goals on a high level. Modern universities are challenged to provide future translators not only with professional knowledge, abilities and skills, but also with the ability to self-presentation in the labor market, work in accordance with the new conditions of society, with modern technologies, being mobile and competitive.

Aspects of translation study, requirements to be met by translators, certain personal qualities of the representatives of the profession, peculiarities of their training have been the subject of scientific analysis of such scholars as R.Zorivchak, I.Korunets G.Miram and others.

In recent years, several theses emphasizing the importance of the formation and development of certain aspects in the future translators' training have been conducted in the Ukrainian educational science: bilingualism (T.Pastrik), socio-cultural competence (I.Golub), intercultural competence (I.Bakhov), professional skills (T.Koknova), professional communicative competence (Z.Pidruchna), professional communication (N.Sobol), cognitive independence (L.Tarkhova), the use of ICT tools (O.Matsyuk, A.Yankovets), professional training (O.Sergeeva), world outlook (Zh.Talanova) and others.

These investigations undoubtedly contribute to the knowledge accumulation and systematization of some problematic aspects. However, despite the available scientific work and the significance of the results obtained by the scientists there are some contradictions that hinder the promotion of the future translators' competitiveness, namely the discrepancy between the demands of the modern labor market to the translators' training and insufficient process of future translators' competitiveness formation while their training.

The purpose of our memoir is to consider the concept "training" and to precisely define the concept "translators' training", to determine the latter in the context of future translators' competitiveness.

In pedagogical literature, "training" is viewed as an organized, systematic process of professional and pedagogical knowledge and skills formation necessary for future professional activity and the way of mastering systematized knowledge, abilities, skills, and necessary personal and professional qualities [1].

Having analyzed the definitions we ascertained that in most cases it is considered as a deliberately organized process that aims at the acquisition of professional knowledge, skills and the formation of certain personal qualities that ensure the possibility to work effectively within the chosen profession.

The analysis and synthesis of interdisciplinary researches made it possible to state that the top of influential factors of future translators' training modernization reduces to a limited group, i.e. globalization, European integration, information transfer and commercialization of the translation services, as they have a positive impact on the translators' future development in the new millennium [2].

While examining Ukrainian theses for "Candidate of Science" degree we've come across various scientific approaches to the essence of the future translators' training.

Thus, O.Pavlyk sees no difference between translators' professional training and that of other specialists as she treats it in the same way as the notion "training" itself [3].

One cannot quite agree to the above mentioned idea, as it is known that knowledge and skills vary from occupation to occupation so any specialist requires particular abilities, knowledge and talents to fulfil his duties.

However, L.Tarkhova considers translators' training as educational activities aimed at mastering the profession of an interpreter, the process of specialists' identity formation. This obtained knowledge and skills in combination with professionally important qualities allow a specialist to perform his translation activity. Nowadays the quality of training is also determined by the desire to learn something new, by the intellectual and creative potential. Thus, the process of future translators' training must contain such an element as an independent cognitive activity, through which professionals can improve themselves, solve complex professional tasks and analyze their work [4].

We support this opinion, as it shows the complex nature of the phenomenon under analysis, and believe that future translators' training has its own peculiarities, and thus, should be significantly different from that of other professionals. It finds a great deal of support in scientific investigations.

V. Pasyuk, a Ukrainian scholar, notes that a conceptual approach should be used while training interpreters. Its aim is orientation of the contemporary studying on national and universal values, human relations and harmony of the world; teachers and students' creative cooperation in order to form and develop permanent spiritual self-improvement, maximum development of language and translation aptitudes and abilities while mastering the profession; formation of linguistic philosophy, good attitude to both native and other languages; structuring of knowledge as a means of holistic understanding and cognition of the world; practical mastery of the language and translation in accordance with the needs of the present; science and practice of translation integration, etc. [5].

O.Matsyuk suggests forming translators' professional competence by means of information and communication technologies. As a result of the investigation it is proposed to improve the content, forms and methods of translators' training by means of ICT tools, to teach students to use available software for language learning and adapt them to translation disciplines; to actively engage free computer teaching programs and Internet trainers in the educational process, which is supposed to cause interest

and encourage students to self-improvement and their professional growth. Yu.Kolos, A.Yankovets, R.Oleksiyenko have also proved the feasibility and effectiveness of using information and communication technologies in the future translators' professional training [6].

I.Bahov's thesis shows the urgency of professional translators' intercultural competence formation. It is conditioned by the complexity of social and professional communicative tasks which should be solved by a translator fulfilling his professional activities in a modern society. It is proved that intercultural competence is an essential component of modern translators' professional culture, because their activity is related to the role of intercultural mediator. The author treats intercultural competence as an integrative personal formation, which is characterized by a set of knowledge, skills, values, resulting in successful solving professional problems in terms of cultural interaction and in the style of cooperation and tolerance [7].

The formation of future translators' sociocultural competence in learning the German language after acquiring English has been studied by I.Holub. It is proved that professional activity involves the mastery of sociocultural skills in order to successfully overcome the translation intercultural linguistic and ethnic barriers and provide communicative and functional equivalence of the original and translation [8].

Future translators' training is believed to be a process of their communicative competence formation, which involves not only the acquisition of the language as a means of communication, learning, self-education and provides free, legal, correct and functionally adequate knowledge of all types of speech activity in a foreign language at a level close to that of a native speaker, but also enables them to exercise all necessary translators' duties after graduating from a higher educational establishment.

The importance of future translators' language competence is accentuated in the developed concept of Ukrainian translators' training in the twentieth century. The main goal of training is to acquaint students with the linguistic pattern of the world, consisting of conceptual structures, organized and displayed in each language on their own. R.Zorivchak believes it necessary for a translator to master at least two foreign languages as soon as he is able to get knowledge of two different cultures. The scientist lists courses (foreign languages, translation studies, country study, literature, etc.) that contribute to the achievement of a high level of the professional linguistic competence [9].

It should be noted that this fully agrees with the recommendations of the Council of Europe, which clearly outlines the task of forming students' multilingual and multicultural competence. Mastering a foreign language, translation in particular, suggests attraction to another culture, learning a new social and cultural matter [10].

We do not deny the importance of linguistic and translation training in the process of interpreters' training, but believe that competitive translators' training should be integrated and one that will teach students to act in a rapidly changing external professional environment. In addition to learning the language and the subjects connected with translation itself it is necessary to prepare students for the peculiarities of their profession. In this regard we consider plausible the idea that training should be the basis for human development and progress of society and guarantee specialists' individual development and their formation as highly-qualified, professional, mobile and competitive specialists.

In our opinion, competitive translators' training should be defined as the process of qualitative accumulation of professional knowledge, the development of skills, personal qualities aimed at the interpreters' successful work in the multinational society, their non-standard solution of professional tasks and achievement of the desired social status under conditions of continuous rivalry.

Thus, future translators' competitiveness should not depend on their specialization, as while performing their professional duties they translate both orally and in written form, so this characteristic of a specialist should contribute to a qualitative professional performance of duties regardless of the type of a specialist. The said above requires new approaches to translators' training who would be good at the subject (translation), able to formulate and solve professional tasks; adapt in a dynamic professional environment; overcome linguistic, socio-cultural and psychological barriers, have high culture of interpersonal and inter-ethnic communication system, have universal values, knowledge and skills necessary for the effective performance of their professional duties.

Unfortunately, there is no typical or common framework program for Ukrainian universities translators' training, particularly for series of practical subjects to study foreign languages.

As a rule, professional training of future translators at the university is realized while studying "Theory of translation" which aims at developing the students' basic and partly special and specific components of the translation competence, which refers to

as knowledge and skills that enable interpreters to solve their professional tasks successfully.

The basic components of translation competence include knowledge and skills that are necessary for all types of translation (translation or interpretation in one of its varieties) and regardless of the genre of the translated text (scientific, technical, business, newspaper-journalistic, etc.). Special components include the knowledge and skills required in one or several related types of translation (written, oral, consecutive, simultaneous, etc.). Specific components of translation competence are elements necessary for translating texts of specific genre and style: legal, economic, scientific, technical, artistic, medical, etc.

Nevertheless having analyzed the curricula of Ukrainian leading universities, training interpreters/translators we found out that students study the humanitarian and socio-economic sciences, natural sciences and get vocational and practical training. We are strongly sure it is positive that future specialists' training in translation is not confined to the study and improvement of native and foreign languages only as students can deepen their knowledge of the history of Ukraine, become politically aware, learn mentality and philosophy of life of representatives of foreign countries, develop their outlook, gain basic knowledge of psychology, sociology and other disciplines, as in their work, they may face different kinds of translation and in various fields of science. It is important that the curriculum include a number of subjects that teach future interpreters intercultural communication skills, be tolerant to different ethnic groups, religions and faiths. However, the disadvantage is that the students are hardly involved in their future profession while learning these subjects. Their content is not professionally oriented, thus students are not motivated to study them as they doubt to consider them to be professionally important. This can be explained by lack of lecturers' skills to define and realize interdisciplinary ties in future specialists' professional training.

To make our investigation valid we analyzed the list of professional and practical training subjects, their number, particularly the subjects that provide students with information about the essence of the profession, the traits of character, skills that should be developed for the successful professional duties implementation. Unfortunately, there has been no single typical program for Ukrainian universities that train interpreters/translators so far. Having compared the curricula of some higher educational institutions which train translators, we found out differences in subjects naming, their number and in the amount of credits. Thus, all the subjects of the professional and practical training cycle may be divided into three groups, those that: 1) promote the formation

of translation knowledge and skills; 2) focus on mastering a foreign language. We concluded that the normative part includes language courses (Practical Course of the language, Practical Grammar, Practical Phonetics, Comparative Stylistics, Comparative Lexicology, etc.), subjects that provide students with knowledge of translation (Practical Course of Translation, Theory and Practice of Translation, Translation of various functional styles, etc.), subjects that acquaint students with the English-speaking world (Country Study, etc.).

Unfortunately, there are hardly any subjects aiming to challenge students become acquainted with the profession itself. Few universities (Taras Shevchenko National University of Kiev; Ivan Franko National University of Lviv; Ternopil V.Hnatiuk National Pedagogical University) include the subject "Fundamentals of translators' professional work" in their curricula, and "Methods and tools for interpreters' self-training" – in Donetsk National University.

We became convinced that the curriculum does not provide courses aimed at the competitive interpreter/translator's development, because we define such a specialist as the one who has some ability to intercultural communication, tolerant, is able to adapt to changeable and not always regular conditions of his work, has significant knowledge of the languages and ways of translation, works with translation programs; has ideas about the image of a specialist of this type (make-up, clothes, manners, norms of behavior, etc.) and knows self-management.

It is necessarily important but not professionally enough for students to fulfill exercises improving their memory get knowledge of absorbing vast amounts of information; of managing their emotions, moods, regardless of the speaker's feelings, be able to switch from one language to another. But it is not always sufficient in order to be competitive.

Translators' training should be integrated, including not only professionally designed training courses and electives, but also psychological training, auditory training and translators' personality formation at different stages of the development. Taking into account international experience in the field of translators' vocational education it will improve the quality of their training in Ukrainian higher educational establishments.

The analysis of Ukrainian scientists' educational researches proved that the problem of translators' training remains relevant at the present stage of the Ukrainian education development. Scholars aim to improve educational curricula in the field of translation based on the dynamics of translation services market trends, needs and

opportunities for individual students, the quality of education standards at European and global levels.

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The aim and content of the educational activities of the teacher of the high school

Abstract: In the article revealed the main objective of pedagogical activity teaching high school in modern conditions. In accordance with the objectives defined the main tasks of educational activities.

Keywords: pedagogical activity, purpose, function, structure, teacher, high school.

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Мета та зміст педагогічної діяльності викладача вищої школи

Анотація: В статті розкрита основна мета педагогічної діяльності викладача вищої школи в сучасних умовах. Відповідно мети визначені основні задачі педагогічної діяльності.

Ключові слова: педагогічна діяльність, мета, функції, структура, викладач, вища школа.

Педагогічна діяльність це особливий вид соціальної діяльності, спрямований на передачу від старших поколінь молодшим накопиченого людством досвіду і культури, створення умов для їх особистісного розвитку. Педагогічна діяльність це також вид професійної діяльності, змістом якої є навчання, виховання, освіта і розвиток студентів. Педагогічна діяльність може бути професійною і непрофесійною. Непрофесійною є діяльність батьків по вихованню дітей в сім'ї. У сімейному вихованні немає спеціальних уроків, запланованих бесід про мораль, при-

роду, красу. Все сімейне життя з його повсякденними турботами, стосунками, радощами і драмами – це уроки, які дають дорослі дітям. І ці уроки, як правило, залишаються з людиною на все життя, формуючи її педагогічні погляди на виховання наступного покоління дітей.

Людина, яка займається професійно педагогічною діяльністю, може називатися по-різному: вихователь, учитель, викладач, педагог. Часто це залежить від закладу, в якому людина працює. Педагог – родове поняття по відношенню до всіх інших вище перерахованих понять.

Отже, педагог – це фахівець, який має спеціальну підготовку і професійно здійснює (виконує) навчально-виховну роботу в різних освітньо-виховних закладах.

Професійна діяльність вимагає від педагога спеціальної освіти, тобто оволодіння певною системою спеціальних знань, умінь і навичок, що необхідні для виконання функцій, пов'язаних з цією професією. Негативні наслідки неправильно вибраної професії зачіпляють як саму людину, так і її соціальне оточення. При правильному виборі професії індивідуальні особливості випускника вищого закладу освіти в цілому співпадають з вимогами професії. Підготовка до професії педагога повинна починатися задовго до того, як людина здійснить свій професійний вибір, і продовжуватися у процесі її професійної підготовки у певному навчальному закладі.

Слід розмежовувати терміни «педагогічна професія», «педагогічна спеціальність» і «педагогічна компетентність». Професія – це вид трудової діяльності, що характеризується сумою вимог до особистості. Спеціальність – це вид занять у рамках цієї професії. Компетентність – це рівень і вид професійної підготовленості, що характеризує можливості спеціаліста у вирішенні певного класу задач.

Педагогічну діяльність можна представити як сукупність таких взаємодіючих компонентів: ціль діяльності, суб'єкт діяльності (педагог), об'єкт-суб'єкт діяльності (студенти), зміст, способи та результат діяльності.

Уважаємо, що метою професійної педагогічної діяльності є ціль виховання особистості в гармонії з собою і соціумом. При всіх відмінностях педагогічних професій у них є спільна мета, властива педагогічній діяльності - залучення людини до цінностей культури. Саме в меті проявляється специфіка цієї діяльності. Ця мета визначається як особлива місія, призначення якої це самовизначення особистості в культурі та утвердження людини в людині.

Можна визначити, що змістом викладацької діяльності є:

- процес організації навчальної діяльності студентів, спрямованої на засвоєння ними предметного соціокультурного досвіду як основи і умови розвитку;
- процес організації власної діяльності.

А відповідно засобами діяльності педагога є:

- наукові (теоретичні та емпіричні) знання;
- у якості «носіїв» знань виступають тексти підручників чи результати самостійних спостережень студентів;
- допоміжні засоби: технічні, графічні, комп'ютери і т.і.

Результатом викладацької діяльності впевнено можна вважати розвиток студента, його особистісне, інтелектуальне удосконалення, становлення його як особистості, як суб'єкта навчальної діяльності.

Таким чином, діяльність педагога представляє собою неперервний процес вирішення величезної кількості задач різних типів, класів, рівнів.

До видів педагогічної діяльності ми відносимо:

- викладання – такий вид спеціальної діяльності, який спрямований на управління переважно пізнавальною діяльністю студентів;
- виховна робота – педагогічна діяльність, спрямована на організацію виховного середовища і управління різноманітними видами діяльності (у т.ч. і пізнавальною) вихованців з метою вирішення завдань їх гармонійного розвитку;

Викладання і виховна робота – дві взаємопов'язані сторони одного процесу (педагогічного), воєдино злиті в ньому:

- діяльність з самоосвіти і професійного самовиховання;
- управлінська – діяльність керівників освітніх закладів та їх заступників;
- методична – діяльність методистів з вивчення кращих досягнень психолого-педагогічних наук і передового педагогічного досвіду;
- науково-дослідницька – діяльність педагогів-експериментаторів.

Основні функції педагога в сучасному розвитку суспільства: інформаційна, розвивальна, орієнтувальна, мобілізаційна, конструктивна, комунікативна, організаційна, дослідницька. Педагог реалізує означені функції у різноманітних видах викладацької і виховної діяльності.

Педагогічна діяльність як складна динамічна система складається із взаємопов'язаних компонентів, що являють собою відносно самостійні функціональні види діяльності. До таких компонентів ми відносимо: конструктивний, організаційний та комунікативний.

Конструктивний компонент пов'язаний з відбором та композицією навчально-виховного матеріалу у відповідності з індивідуальними особливостями студентів, з плануванням і побудовою педагогічного процесу, з проектуванням навчально-матеріальної бази для проведення навчально-виховної роботи.

Організаційний компонент передбачає включення студентів у різноманітні види діяльності, організацію студентського колективу та перетворення його в інструмент педагогічного впливу на особистість.

Комунікативний компонент означає встановлення педагогічно доцільних взаємин з студентами, колегами, батьками, представниками громадськості.

Педагогічна діяльність педагога, як і будь-яка інша, характеризується певним стилем. Стиль діяльності (наприклад, управлінської, виробничої, педагогічної) у самому широкому смислі слова – це стійка система способів, прийомів, що проявляються в різних умовах її існування. Він зумовлюється специфікою самої діяльності, індивідуально-психологічними особливостями людини.

Сьогодні розрізняють поняття індивідуального стилю діяльності. Стиль педагогічної діяльності, відображаючи її специфіку, включає і стиль управлінської діяльності, і стиль саморегуляції, і стиль спілкування, когнітивний стиль її суб'єкта – педагога.

Стиль педагогічної діяльності виявляє вплив щонайменше трьох факторів:

а) індивідуально-психологічних особливостей педагога, що включають індивідуально-типологічні, особистісні й поведінкові особливості;

б) особливостей самої діяльності;

в) особливостей студентів (вік, стать, статус, рівень знань і т.п.).

Стилі педагогічної діяльності диференціюються насамперед на три загальні види:

- авторитарний,
- демократичний,
- ліберальний.

За А. Макаренком, вимогливість, довіра і повага до особистості, готовність допомогти молодій людині, обстановка високої моралі – ці та інші характеристики педагогічного керування сприяють створенню умов співробітництва, готовності до подолання труднощів, співпереживань тощо [1].

При авторитарному стилі студент розглядається як об'єкт педагогічного впливу. Педагог одноосібно вирішує, приймає рішення, встановлює жорсткий кон-

троль за виконанням поставлених ним вимог, не обґрунтовує свої дії перед студентами. В наслідок цього студенти втрачають активність або проявляють її лише при керівній ролі педагога, у них низька самооцінка, проявляється агресивність. При авторитарному стилі сили студентів спрямовані на психологічний захист, а не на засвоєння знань і власний розвиток. Головними методами впливу такого педагога є наказ, повчання. Для таких педагогів характерні низька задоволеність професією, професійна нестійкість. Педагоги з цим стилем діяльності головну увагу звертають на методичну культуру, у педагогічному колективі часто лідирують.

При демократичному стилі студент розглядається як рівноправний партнер у спілкуванні, колега у спільному пошуку знань. Педагог залучає студентів до прийняття рішень, враховує їх думки, заохочує самостійність суджень, враховує не тільки успішність, але й особистісні якості студентів. Методами впливу є спонукання до дії, порада, прохання. У таких педагогів студенти частіше відчують стан спокійної задоволеності, високу самооцінку. Педагоги-демократи більше звертають увагу на свої психологічні уміння. Їх характеризує висока професійна стійкість, задоволеність своєю професією.

При ліберальному стилі педагог уникає ситуацій прийняття рішень, передає ініціативу студентам і колегам. Організацію і контроль діяльності студентів здійснює без системи, проявляє нерішучість, вагання. У групі нестійкий мікроклімат, є приховані конфлікти.

Отже, педагогічну діяльність викладача вищої школи потрібно розглядати тільки за допомогою системного підходу з урахуванням зазначених в даній статті елементів. А ефективність педагогічної діяльності залежить і від мотивів майбутнього викладача до вибору цієї професії.

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Classification of Landing Positions in the Female Artistic Gymnastics

Abstract: This article is devoted to the classification of variety landing positions in Female Artistic Gymnastics. There are three blocks in this classification: the landing on feet, the landing on one foot, and others variants of the landing.

Keywords: female artistic gymnastics, landing positions, elite level gymnasts.

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Классификация приземлений в женской спортивной гимнастике

Аннотация: Данная статья посвящена классификации вариантов приземлений в женской спортивной гимнастике. В предлагаемой нами классификации выделяются три блока вариантов приземлений: одновременно на две ноги, на одну ногу и другие варианты.

Ключевые слова: женская спортивная гимнастика, приземления, гимнастики «элитного» уровня.

Все виды спорта имеют свои специфические особенности выполнения спортсменами двигательных действий. Эти действия обусловлены, во-первых, их целевой направленностью, во-вторых, влиянием внешних условий (например, параметрами и техническими характеристиками спортивного снаряда или оборудования), в-третьих, существующими в данном виде спорта правилами соревнований. В спортивной гимнастике главными требованиями к соревновательным

упражнениям являются техническая правильность выполнения, выразительность движений, сложность и композиционное построение комбинаций. Женская спортивная гимнастика «элитного» («олимпийского») уровня на современном этапе развития характеризуется высочайшей сложностью программ на всех снарядах и, в том числе их завершающей фазы, – соскоков (с разновысоких брусьев и бревна), приземлений (после опорных прыжков и акробатических соединений на вольных упражнениях).

Приземление, как двигательный навык, присутствует во многих сферах человеческой деятельности: в повседневной жизни, при физической подготовке в армии, силовых и правоохранительных структурах, в сфере искусства (цирк, балет, кинематограф). Однако наиболее широко распространено приземление в спортивной деятельности, например, в фигурном катании, прыжках на акробатической дорожке, прыжках на лыжах с трамплина и лыжном фристайле (раздел «Акробатика»), где сохранение устойчивого равновесия в момент контакта с опорой после фазы полёта является одной из основных технических задач, предписанных правилами соревнований.

Правила соревнований по спортивной гимнастике предъявляют гимнасткам «элитного» уровня высокие требования не только к трудности выполняемых элементов (в том числе и с фазой полёта), соскоков со снарядов, опорных и акробатических прыжков. Спортсменки должны завершать все эти двигательные действия чётким и технически правильно выполненным приземлением. В спортивной гимнастике, помимо вертикального перемещения, добавляется практически всегда ещё и горизонтальное перемещение гимнастки перед приземлением. Владение универсальным навыком – техникой приземления, стабилизации, фиксации или восстановления равновесия в акробатических и опорных прыжках, соскоках, гимнастических прыжках или, другое название, «танцевальных элементах» (Dance elements – leaps, jumps, hops) различной структуры и сложности является непременным условием достижения «элитного» уровня мастерства [1, 2, 3]. При выполнении соскоков с разновысоких брусьев и бревна, опорных прыжков, большинства акробатических прыжков в вольных упражнениях, согласно Правилам соревнований, гимнастки должны приземляться одновременно на две ноги. Вместе с тем, например, на бревне и на вольных упражнениях при выполнении как акробатических, так и гимнастических прыжков спортсменки могут выполнять и другие варианты приземлений.

Для системного представления об универсальном навыке приземления необходимо произвести классификацию его возможных вариантов в соответствии с существующими Правилами соревнований. Ранее автор уже выполнял подобную исследовательскую работу [4]. Однако с того времени Международная Федерация гимнастики (ФИЖ) дважды изменяла Правила соревнований по спортивной гимнастике для женщин. Поэтому целью данной работы является разработка классификации приземлений в женской спортивной гимнастике с учётом последней редакции Правил соревнований ФИЖ на 2013–2016 годы [5].

На первой ступени предлагаемой нами классификации выделяются три блока вариантов приземлений: одновременно на две ноги; на одну ногу; другие варианты. Наиболее многочисленным является первый блок – приземления на две ноги. Этот блок на второй ступени классификации состоит из двух групп приземлений:

- после вращений вокруг фронтальной оси тела в полёте (то есть «по сальто» вперёд или назад) – это соскоки с бревна, разновысоких брусьев, опорные прыжки, акробатические прыжки на вольных упражнениях;

- в гимнастических прыжках на бревне и на вольных упражнениях, в которых может присутствовать вращение вокруг продольной оси тела в полёте.

По аналогии с первым блоком, второй блок на своей второй ступени классификации также состоит из двух групп приземлений:

- после вращений вокруг фронтальной оси тела в полёте («по сальто» вперёд или назад) и вокруг сагиттальной оси тела в полёте («по сальто» боком);

- в гимнастических прыжках на бревне и на вольных упражнениях, в которых может присутствовать вращение вокруг продольной оси тела в полёте.

Возможны три варианта приземления на одну ногу – другая нога вперёд, назад, в сторону – причём, как в первой, так и во второй группе. Например, приземление на одну ногу, другая назад на бревне – сальто назад прогнувшись с приземлением на одну ногу (5.313) и прыжок шагом в шпагат (2.101).

Наконец третий, самый немногочисленный блок на второй ступени включает в себя другие варианты (три группы) приземлений, характерные для отдельных снарядов:

- в упор сидя верхом на бревне после различных фляков с высокой фазой полёта (5.208, 5.308, 5.408);

- в упор лёжа на согнутых руках на вольных упражнениях – прыжок Schuschunova и его усложнённые варианты с поворотом на 180° и 360° (1.108,

1.208); прыжок в группировке с поворотом на 720^0 (1.313); прыжок «пистолетик» с поворотом на 360^0 (1.214); прыжок Tsavdariduo (3.107).

– в поперечный шпагат (только два варианта): на бревне «толчком двух ног – наскок не касаясь в шпагат» (1.305); на вольных упражнениях «прыжок шагом в шпагат с поворотом на 360^0 в положение шпагат сидя» (1.301).

На втором варианте следует остановиться подробнее. Впервые в женской спортивной гимнастике приземление в упор лёжа на согнутых руках, ноги вместе был показан в середине 1980-х годов советской гимнасткой, абсолютной чемпионкой Олимпийских игр 1988 года Е. Шушуновой. Она исполнила «прыжок ноги врозь согнувшись с последующим их разведением через продольный шпагат, сведением назад и падением в упор лёжа на согнутых руках». В Правилах соревнований он стал «именным» (Schuschunova). До начала 2000-х годов различные прыжки с приземлением в упор лёжа на согнутых руках были достаточно популярны у гимнасток «элитного» уровня. В частности, их в свои программы включали известные российские гимнастки, олимпийские чемпионки С. Хоркина (1996 и 2000 годов) и Е. Замолотчикова (2000 года), бронзовый призёр Олимпийских игр 2004 года Н. Зиганшина. Однако в настоящее время прыжки с таким вариантом приземления достаточно редко включают в свои программы гимнастки «элитного» уровня в связи с их невысокой трудностью – максимально «группа С» (1.313).

В начале 1990-х годов велась дискуссия о возможности выполнения такого варианта приземления и после акробатических прыжков, например, $1\frac{1}{4}$ сальто вперёд (в группировке, согнувшись, прогнувшись) в упор лёжа. В США, даже после запрещения подобных элементов Международной Федерацией гимнастики, было внесено предложение об их допущении в студенческих соревнованиях (NCAA – collegiate competitions) [6]. Единственный акробатический прыжок «поворот на 90^0 – сальто боком ноги врозь с поворотом на 90^0 с приземлением в упор лёжа на согнутых руках», который присутствует в современных Правилах соревнований ФИЖ, – это элемент, выполненный греческой гимнасткой В. Тсавдариду, ставший «именным» (Tsavdariduo). В связи с низкой трудностью этого прыжка («группа А») он не включается гимнастками «элитного» уровня в свои программы.

В 1980-е годы следуя тенденции, популярной тогда в мужских акробатических прыжках на вольных упражнениях, гимнастки «элитного» уровня стали осва-

ивать прыжки с приземлением на руки и последующим переходом в кувырок вперёд. Впервые на международной арене такие «мужские» акробатические прыжки продемонстрировали советские гимнастки:

- полтора твиста (Arabian salto) в группировке (Е. Давыдова, абсолютная чемпионка Олимпийских игр 1980 года);
- полтора сальто боком согнувшись ноги врозь (Е. Шушунова);
- полтора твиста прогнувшись (О. Стражева, чемпионка Олимпийских игр 1988 года в командном первенстве).

Однако Международная Федерация гимнастики запретила подобный вариант приземления для девушек в связи с высокой травмоопасностью. Следует отметить, что современные Правила соревнований ФИЖ (мужская спортивная гимнастика) запрещают акробатические прыжки на вольных упражнениях с подобным приземлением для гимнастов-юниоров и ограничивают их включение в программы гимнастов-мужчин.

Таким образом, в результате нашего исследования и анализа Правил соревнований ФИЖ (женская спортивная гимнастика) на 2013–2016 годы была разработана классификация приземлений, состоящая на первой ступени из трёх блоков: одновременно на две ноги; на одну ногу; другие варианты (Рис. 1). Каждый из этих блоков на второй ступени классификации состоит из своих групп приземлений. Данную классификацию можно использовать на практике как методическое средство для целесообразной последовательности обучения гимнасток этому универсальному навыку.

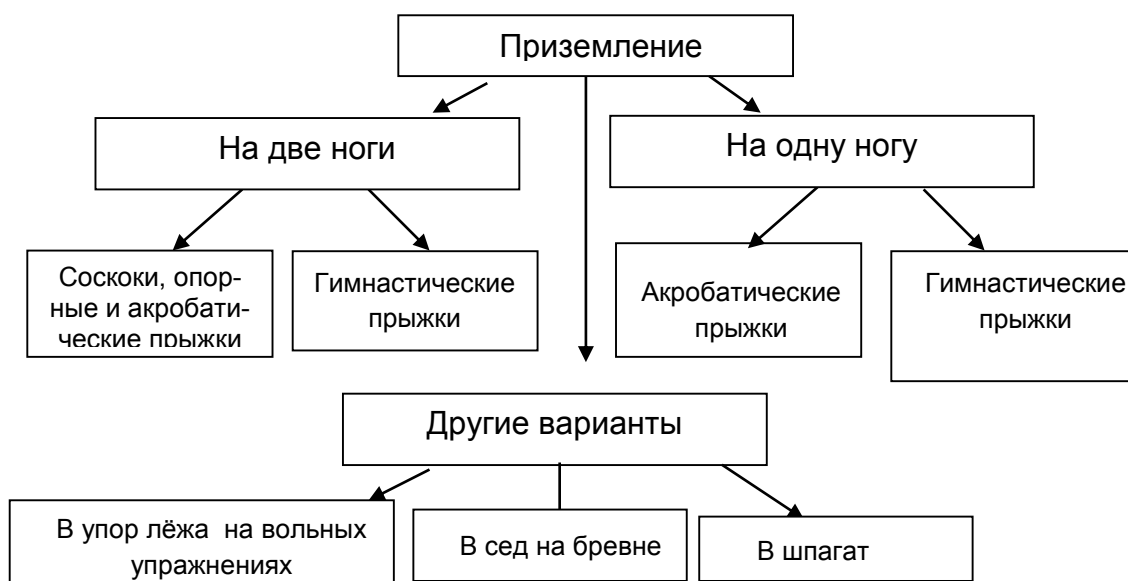


Рис. 1. Классификация приземлений в женской спортивной гимнастике

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Relationship of methodical thinking with a level of methodological competence of educator

Abstract: the article is devoted to the problem of the methodical competence of the teacher. In the article the link methodical thinking with a level of methodological competence.

Key words: competence, teacher, thinking, levels, forming.

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Связь методического мышления с уровнем методической компетентности педагога

Аннотация: Статья посвящена проблеме формирования методической компетентности преподавателя. В статье рассмотрена связь методического мышления с уровнем методической компетентности.

Ключевые слова: компетентность, преподаватель, мышление, уровни, формирование.

Развитие цивилизации диктует необходимость периодической модернизации образования и, как следствие, изменение его ценностных ориентаций. Основу новой структуры ценностей составляют компетентность. В отечественной и зарубежной литературе последних лет используется понятие «ключевые компетентности», основными признаками которых являются многофункциональность, надпредметность, междисциплинарность, многомерность. В настоящее время не представляется возможным точное определение состава ключевых компетенций. Однако, как показало исследование, для профессиональной педагогики

наиболее значимыми из них являются: социальная, коммуникативная, социально-информационная, персональная, специальная компетентности.

Необходимость непрерывного совершенствования профессионального уровня преподавателей в условиях быстрого устаревания имеющегося педагогического опыта, появления новых педагогических технологий актуализировала проблему совершенствования методической компетентности как ведущего структурного компонента профессионально-педагогической компетентности.

Как отмечает А. А. Орлов [1], важнейшей характеристикой личности является ее направленность, а наиболее существенным показателем профессиональной направленности преподавателя предстает осознание им своей деятельности как непрерывного процесса решения педагогических задач с целью развития личности обучающегося.

Если иметь в виду методическую работу преподавателя, то здесь особую роль играет сформированность *методического мышления*.

Под методическим мышлением преподавателя мы понимаем особенности мыслительной деятельности, обусловленные характером и видом профессионального труда. Главное в методической работе – рациональная и эффективная организация деятельности студентов с целью оптимального обучения, воспитания и развития личности каждого из них.

Методическое мышление преподавателя не следует отождествлять с философским, логическим и даже общепедагогическим. Ещё Б.М. Теплов [2] подчеркивал, что интеллект у человека един и едины механизмы мышления, но различны формы мыслительной деятельности, поскольку различны задачи, стоящие в том и другом случае перед умом человека.

Методическое мышление – это определенное видение преподавателем процесса конструирования и организации обучения по своей дисциплине, видение обучающегося в контексте изучения им учебной дисциплины и т.п.

Методическое мышление преподавателя – явление многоуровневое, т.к. в нем отражаются конкретные установки, психолого-педагогические знания, профессионально-личностные качества, способы умственных и практических действий.

Специфика методического мышления преподавателя определяется тем, что это не только познавательный, но и конструктивно-преобразовательный процесс. Важнейшей чертой этого вида мышления является осмысление каждой

учебно-воспитательной ситуации, оперативный выбор и реализация оптимального варианта ее решения.

Поэтому наряду с такими качествами, как целенаправленность, концентрированность, гибкость, объективность, решительность, научность, диалектичность, логичность, особую роль в решении преподавателем мыслительных задач играет творческий характер мышления. На это указывал еще К.Д. Ушинский, подчеркивая, что педагогическая деятельность – один из видов искусства, которое требует от педагога высокоразвитого творческого мышления [3].

Иначе говоря, особенности методического мышления обусловлены также общей стратегией педагогической работы, ее «сверхзадачей», которая заключается в том, что бы включив обучающегося в деятельность и общение, сделать его субъектом этой деятельности.

Необходимо подчеркнуть, что понятие «методическое мышление» отражает не только особенности мыслительной деятельности преподавателя, но и профессиональную специфику его восприятия, внимания, воображения, памяти, а также особенности его эмоционально-волевой сферы. *Уровень сформированности методического мышления позволяет охарактеризовать степень методической компетентности преподавателя.*

Решение преподавателем методических задач, имеющих обычно целостный, многосторонний, комплексный характер, требует умения интегрировать знания, приобретенные при изучении различных наук. В системе категорий, которые регулируют решение методических задач в качестве основных мыслительных единиц профессионального мышления выделяют следующие:

1. ведущие идеи, которые определяют общую направленность деятельности преподавателя и которые должны стать личными убеждениями, основаниями его педагогического кредо (например, идеи развивающего обучения, гуманизации образовательного процесса и др.);
2. разработка конструктивно-методических схем, конкретизирующих общие идеи и принципы (например, построение системы междисциплинарных связей, конструирование системы учебных занятий и др.);
3. совокупность приемов деятельности при решении оперативных учебно-педагогических задач.

Анализ научных публикаций и проведенный нами опрос будущих и достаточно опытных преподавателей свидетельствуют о том, что преподаватели за-

трудняются на основе полученных в вузах знаний формировать собственное отношение к методическим проблемам современной высшей школы. Многие не умеют формулировать педагогические цели и задачи, находить оптимальный вариант их решения. В их деятельности преобладает так называемый мероприятияный подход: они не решают задачи, направленные на развитие личности обучающегося средствами своей дисциплины, а планируют и проводят учебные занятия.

Значительная часть преподавателей ориентирована на знаниевый подход в обучении, а от теории педагогики, психологии и методики они ожидают универсальных рецептов.

Наше обращение к уровням сформированности методического мышления преподавателей ВУЗов позволило выделить три основных уровня:

1) *Низкий уровень*. Преподаватель не умеет применять теоретические знания на практике. Как правило затрудняется самостоятельно формулировать задачи дидактического и воспитательно-развивающего характера. Возникающие трудности решает шаблонно, ориентируясь, в основном, на внешние обстоятельства, на сам факт, не связывая процесс решения задачи с диагностикой состояния и выявления особенностей объекта и субъекта деятельности.

2) *Средний уровень*. Отмечаются лишь некоторые умения синтезировать теоретические знания и использовать их на практике. При решении дидактических и других задач в определенной мере опираются на знания, полученные путем образования или самообразования. Имеют вполне осознанную личную позицию, основанную на современных педагогических и дидактических концепциях. Однако она еще неустойчива и может деформироваться под негативным воздействием реальной жизни. Для методического мышления характерны отдельные творческие элементы.

3) *Высокий уровень*. Творческий нестандартный подход к анализу педагогических ситуаций, выбор оптимального решения задачи на основе диагностирования особенностей конкретных условий. Системность использования категориального аппарата. В процессе моделирования своей деятельности опирается на категории, принципы, методы, критерии психолого-педагогических дисциплин. В конкретных ситуациях опирается не только на теоретические знания и передовой педагогический опыт, но и на педагогическую интуицию, свое эмоциональное восприятие и личный опыт.

Таким образом, уровень методической компетентности преподавателя напрямую зависит от методического мышления. Совместно вся эта деятельность проявляется в основных видах методической работы, которая образует два взаимосвязанных и взаимообусловленных направления – учебно-методическую и научно-методическую.

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The Concept and Foundations of Communicative Quest Typology

Abstract. The article presents an attempt of clarification of the Communicative Quest (CQ) concept in the context of designing modern learning activities and developing pedagogical tools for interpersonal intercultural communicative competence formation and support. The article notes the dialectical nature of communicative and meta-communicative / meta-cognitive, strategic plans interrelation and interaction in CQ. So the first principal division is drawn from the contrast of generalization and concretization of discourse/ rhetoric move /utterance.

There are four major basic types of communicative quests, derived from the predominant learning content criteria: (a) applied (performance-focused), (b) strategic (critical thinking focused); (c) scenario-management focused and (d) constructive (i.e. a regulatory one).

Keywords: Communicative Quest Design, Linguodidactics, innovative language training technologies, intercultural communicative competence.

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***Понятие и основы типологии коммуникативного
квеста***

Аннотация: Статья посвящена уточнению понятия Коммуникативного Квеста (CQ) в контексте проектирования учебной деятельности и разработки педагогического инструментария для формирования и развития интеркультурной межличностной коммуникативной компетенции. В статье отмечается диалектическая природа взаимодействия коммуникативного и мета-коммуникативного / мета-когнитивного, стратегического планов организации CQ; противопоставляются две ведущие тенденции в риторической и лингводидактической организации коммуникативных квестов – тенденция к конкретизации языковой оболочки речевых действий говорящего и тенденция к категоризации речевых действий, коммуникативных тактик.

При опоре на критерии фокусного содержания обучения авторами выделяются следующие основные четыре типа коммуникативных квестов: прикладные (практико-ориентированные исполнительские), стратегические; сценарные и структурные.

Ключевые слова: Коммуникативный квест, лингводидактика, инновационные технологии обучения языкам, интеркультурная коммуникативная компетенция.

Настоящая статья посвящена разработке понятия коммуникативного квеста (англ. Communicative Quest – CQ) как инновационной технологии коммуникативного обучения иностранным языкам. Предметом рассмотрения выступают различные возможные трактовки понятия коммуникативности, возможная типология коммуникативного квеста в лингводидактике.

За точку отсчета в развитии понятия «коммуникативный квест» можно принять выделение оно в качестве видового термина по отношению к родовому понятию веб-квеста. Последний традиционно трактуется как основанная на алгоритме / последовательности действий инновационная педагогическая технология, название которой подчеркивает акцент на эксплуатации возможностей компьютера и сети «Интернет». Введенные в методический оборот с легкой руки профессора университета Сан-Диего Берни Доджа (Bernie Dodge [1; 2]) понятия и соответствующие методические подходы приобрели планетарную популярность. Вместе с тем, насколько представляется возможным судить, понятие коммуникативного квеста по-прежнему выделяется по типологическому признаку (иг-

ровой) задачи, классифицируемой как коммуникативная (например, «взять интервью», «выступить с речью» [2]). Но насколько данное определение термина является определением *коммуникативной методике* по существу?

Если под «коммуникативностью» понимается готовность выйти в пространство сети Интернет и осуществить там некоторый поиск, то почему бы тогда не отнести эту готовность к области технической и поисковой компетенции? Если речь же идет об обсуждении фрагментов более полного общего образа на основе неполных данных участников группового обсуждения, то чем собственно эта разновидность веб-квеста (впрочем, и необязательно «веб-») принципиально отличается от других?

Что собственно *коммуникативного* содержится в том или ином предлагаемом учащемся квесте? Следует ли полагать в равной мере достаточным основанием для наречения квестового задания коммуникативным позиционирование *коммуникации* (а) как повода (например, «слухи») для получения нового знания / опыта; (b) как цели получения знания (e.g. «успешное общение»), (c) как образа представления результата нового знания / опыта («проведение заседания круглого стола» или «обращение с пламенной и убедительной речью» [cf. 2]); (d) как темы квеста (e.g. «Сила слова», «Язык глухонемых»); (e) как некоторой ожидающей решения проблемы (например, «Как рассмешить принцессу»); (f) как объекта исследования или его значимых свойств (e.g. «Китайская чайная церемония», «Коммуникативные функции заголовка в гламурном журнале»); (g) как *формы, метода и средства* получения нового знания / опыта / умения / готовности? Казалось бы, в данном перечислении представлена достаточно убедительная типология коммуникативности и коммуникативного квеста. Но в то же время остается некоторая драматичная *недосказанность*, природа которой может быть определена как двоякая. Вероятно, окончательной классификации квестов по указанным критериям препятствует предельная широта и сопутствующая ей размытость понятия коммуникации. Да и что такое коммуникация – связанный с контакто-установлением и обменом высказываниями и смыслами элемент жизни и деятельности, необходимое условие интеракции / взаимодействия или же сам непрерывный жизненный процесс, участие в биении пульса мировой жизни? С другой стороны, дабы не впасть в ошибку, не следует игнорировать педагогический контекст квестового задания, а именно – *содержание обучения*. Ниже в качестве приоритетного содержания будет рассматриваться межкультурная / интеркультурная *коммуникативная компетенция* [cf. 3].

Прежде всего, вызывает сомнения возможное представление о коммуникативном квесте как о монотипе. Этому допущению противоречат как представления о многоуровневой организации системы языка, так и о многоуровневой организации *языковой личности* говорящего (коммуниканта). В первую очередь здесь заслуживает упоминания многоуровневая модель языковой личности в становлении, которую разрабатывал Г.И. Богин [4; 5 etc.]. Упомянутый автор концепции (вторичной) языковой личности учащегося многократно отмечает неравномерность в формировании и наполнения граней языковой личности говорящего (слушающего, читающего и пишущего) индивида. Следовательно, существует педагогическая и методическая целесообразность выделения разновидностей коммуникативных квестов с точки зрения выбора различных направлений и горизонтов совершенствования коммуникативных готовностей учащихся (cf. насыщенность *versus* ситуативная обусловленность речи). Отметим в этой связи также современную тенденцию к возрастающей специализации профилей обучения, индивидуальных образовательных траекторий и маршрутов учащихся.

В то же время представляется допустимым рассматривать процесс коммуникации в обществе (и культуре) как основанный на гармонии разнородных факторов и детерминант успешной межличностной деловой коммуникации. Каждая очередная попытка уяснить природу коммуникации приводит к все большему осознанию *интеграционной* природы не только коммуникации как таковой, но и коммуникативного квеста как проекта организации обучения в современном коммуникативном ключе. Вместе с тем понятие коммуникации как всеобщего участия в переписывании картины бытия в контексте обучения языкам и культурам общения представляется слишком широким.

Подчеркнем, что успешность интеракции в целевой культуре не гарантируется и не обеспечивается знакомством только с грамматикой и словарем. Не всё то, что является потенциально допустимым с точки зрения грамматики языка, соответствует нормам общения его носителей. Язык как мощнейшая из известных человечеству интерпретационных систем обслуживает формирование и реализацию личных и профессиональных целей человека. Вместе с тем зона господства *грамматики говорящего*, принятых в обществе правил и стандартов общения, прагматических факторов, определяющих коммуникативное поведение индивида, может рассматриваться как доминантный план организации коммуникативного воздействия и взаимодействия, или «дискурса» и «коммуникации» [cf. 6].

Интерпретация семантического и прагматического аспектов высказывания обусловлены употреблением в контексте общения. В предлагаемой В.Г. Гаком модели оценки условий успешного понимания в межкультурной коммуникации и адекватного перевода с одного языка на другой выделяются «форма» высказывания и *прагмема*, трактуемая как зафиксированная в определенной культуре *социальная функция акта речи* [7, 570-571]. Отмеченная печатью неявности / небуквальности прагмема в контексте межкультурного общения может представлять собой *лакуну* – один из источников непонимания, недоразумения, асимметричного истолкования, неожиданный и непонятный и незаметный для непосвященных нераспознанный элемент иноязычного инокультурного дискурса [ibidem; 8].

Обучение иной коммуникативной культуре на предметных образцах иноязычного дискурса предполагает перевод изучения абстрактных категорий и принципов общения в плоскость *лично пережитого знания* учащегося в модусах затруднения, открытия, переживания успеха или неудачи в опоре на собственный опыт действования и коммуникации, ошибок и успехов. В предельном случае обучение по означенной технологии может определяться как обучение через вовлечение, увлечение, игру, как самораскрытие нового коммуникативного потенциала вторичной языковой личности в стихии целевой культуры общения. В идеальном представлении технологии коммуникативного квеста речь может идти о непрерывном обучении, когда квест прорастает в жизненные практики, а уровень интереса к предмету достигает готовности к исследованию целевой культуры во «внеучебных» условиях, e.g. в жанре *dérive* – путешествия без карты.

Одним из частных преимуществ технологии CQ является возможность достичь определенной компрессии времени на изучение многословно трактуемых, но трудно усваиваемых явлений языка в его коммуникативной функции. Вместе с тем следует отметить как признак качества квестовой разработки *баланс объяснительного/ интерпретационного и демонстрационного подходов* в обучении практике языкового общения [cf. 9, 381-383]. В обучении языку как средству межличностного общения, как ни в какой другой области необходим баланс эксплицитной (объяснительной) и имплицитной (практической – речевой, текстовой) форм введения нового учебного языкового материала [cf. 10,8].

В коммуникативном квесте коммуникация как способ (как средство и путь) приращения опыта и коммуникация как проблема. Ситуация коммуникации (как единственного пути получения информации) становится проблемной. В этой

точке развития сценария коммуникативного квеста имеет место выход в область критического мышления (cf. “devising a new algorithm is critical thinking.” [11, 11]). В коммуникативном квесте учебная деятельность раскрывается как самодвижение опыта, балансирующее на весах моментальной интуиции и (неспешной) рефлексии.

Коммуникативный квест указывает нам на то, что условием решения коммуникативной задачи является не один вид рефлексии, а несколько. В том числе рефлексия *мета-коммуникативная*, *мета-когнитивная* и *метаязыковая* в их взаимоотношенности и взаимодействии «Что собственно я сказал, когда я это сказал? Как я ответил на вопрос, когда мне задали вопрос? Что послужило причиной и что результатом моего коммуникативного действия?».

Коммуникативный квест имеет место там, где происходит постоянное переключения из коммуникативного режима учебной деятельности в метакоммуникативный и вновь в коммуникативный. При этом мы должны ввести первое деление коммуникативных тестов *на конкретизирующие и категоризирующие* (также «структивные» [12; 13]) в зависимости от выдвижения на первый план установки на формирование обобщенного понятия некоторого коммуникативного действия («речевого хода») или на конкретизацию обобщенного понятия речевого хода в виде типичного и все же единичного языкового высказывания / речевого шага.

Мета-коммуникативный план квеста может включать в себя имплицитные сигналы или эксплицитные рекомендации по организации пространства и процесса общения. К имплицитным сигналам отнесем запрограммированные провалы в игровой коммуникации. К эксплицитным отнесем, например, «Рекомендации российским предпринимателям по оптимизации речевой интеракции с немецкими деловыми партнерами» [14, 34-35.]; продуктивные и контрпродуктивные стратегии ‘ice-breakers versus ice-makers’ в межкультурных деловых переговорах [cf. 15, 175 etc.]. Мета-коммуникативные рекомендации могут носить конкретный прикладной характер, как в указанных случаях, а могут оперировать обобщенными категориями большой емкости. Общая тенденция метакоммуникативного мышления заключается в формировании особого метаязыка – языка описания коммуникативных событий и процессов, способствующего категоризации осуществляемых коммуникантами действий (e.g. понятия статусно-ролевой характеристики, прагмемы как типа языкового знака etc.).

Собственно коммуникативный план квеста может рассматриваться как *конкретизация* единиц метакоммуникативного плана в сегментных единицах организации речи. Переход от абстракции к конкретике речевого взаимодействия подразумевает обращение к базе данных аутентичных форм, стратегий, дискурсивных практик изучаемого континуума языка-культуры. Универсальные единицы организации речи, находящие описание метакоммуникативного плана (обращение, вежливая просьба, согласие, извинение, перформативы и т.д.), требуют конкретизации в системе риторических средств изучаемого континуума языка-культуры. Инвентарь мета-коммуникативных риторических средств организации речи вне ресурсной базы языка не имеет прикладного значения. *Единицам-типам* мета-коммуникативного плана описания в стихии изучаемого языка соответствуют такие коммуникативные *единицы-события* дискурса как успешное *дискурсивное событие* (М.Б. Бергельсон [6]), *коммуникативное событие, эпизод коммуникации, речевой поступок / речевое действие* (здесь отношение обратимое), *вопросно-ответное единство, речевой шаг, прагмема, коллокация, актуализованная словоформа, молчание как нулевой знак в беседе и т.д.* Узко трактуемый коммуникативный квест призван конкретизировать умения учащегося в том или ином жанре общения, перевести декларативное знание правил общения на уровень умения.

Статусно-ролевая игра, создание фиктивного персонажа, процессуальность образа персонажа в динамическом контексте прохождения коммуникативного квеста способствуют вовлечению учащихся в учебную деятельность. Не только элементы рефлексии, но и вживание в ролевой игре (интенциональное, эмоциональное, поведенческое), готовность улавливать и входить в чужие контексты, находить себя в них (как «чужое-свое»), возделывать эти контексты и решать задачи характеризуют коммуникативный квест [cf. 16; 17].

Не всякая опора на коммуникативный материал делает задание *коммуникативным* по содержанию обучения. В этой связи следует упомянуть *психологические* тесты и квесты. Например, в популярном веб-тесте «Какой Вы москвич?» приводится следующий фрейм и скрипт коммуникативного поведения в нем: «Метро, переполненный вагон. Вам нужно выходить на следующей станции, но нужно пробиться к дверям. Вы: (а) «Делаете лицо кирпичом и невозмутимо пробиваете себе путь, как ледокол, не обращая внимания а тихий мат в ваш адрес»; (б) «Терпеливо ждете, когда поезд прибудет на вашу станцию, надеясь на дружбу и сознательность горожан, которые уж точно растают от вашей улыбки и дадут

возможность спокойно выйти на перрон»; (с) «Задаете один и тот же вопрос десяти незнакомым людям «Простите, Вы сейчас выходите?» [18]. Несмотря на драматизм и художественный психологизм описания, детально и точно представленную конкретику коммуникативного поведения в стандартной повседневной ситуации, *процессуальность образа коммуниканта в динамическом контексте* и наличие *опции значимого выбора* данный тест не может быть признан коммуникативным квестом, поскольку *не обновляет* мир опыта человека его проходящего, а только утверждает в его статичности и неизменности. В случае если *прирост коммуникативных навыков и познаний* в ходе решения интерактивного задания не осуществляется, представляется корректным утверждать о сюжетно-ролевой форме тестирования коммуникативных готовностей, но не о коммуникативном квесте как обучающей технологии.

В качестве промежуточного результата исследования мы можем предложить следующую возможную типологию коммуникативных квестов в контексте формирования коммуникативной компетенции

(а) Коммуникативные квесты *уровня исполнителя*

а.1. Прикладные CQ направлены на формирование конкретных коммуникативных готовностей для выполнения стандартных коммуникативных задач в устойчивых стереотипных контекстах институционального общения. Прикладные квесты посвящены обучению коммуникации в рамках определенных фиксированных жанров, типовых ситуаций и сценариев их развития. Из всех разновидностей квеста они наиболее полно обеспечены на уровне ресурсной базы соответствующих стандартных аутентичных номинативных средств. Отрабатывается выбор риторической тактики, оптимального субституента речевого хода, шага, номинативного средства (высказывания, термина, словоформы etc.). Разумеется, речь идет о стандартных, стереотипных коммуникативных событиях и сценариях. Пользуются спросом на рынке образовательных услуг (например, для таких специальностей как «маркетинг», «сервис» etc. [cf. 19]) и в сфере управления кадрами.

а.2. Стратегические CQ направлены на формирование готовностей к действию в нестандартных коммуникативных ситуациях при опоре на использование технологии критического мышления (ТКМ, [cf. 11 etc.]), ориентированные на поиск нестандартного решения, выхода из ситуации. Распространены в игровой индустрии, используются в программах развития ТКМ, при подготовке персонала для работы в чрезвычайных ситуациях.

(b) Квесты *мета-коммуникативного уровня*

b.1. Структивные CQ направлены на формирование готовности к осуществлению управления коммуникативным поведением других людей (педагог, руководитель, председатель диссертационного совета etc.). Используют мета-язык категоризованных коммуникативных действий (e.g. «Заседание объявляется открытым»; «Уважаемые члены диссертационного совета, объявляется свободная дискуссия»; «Переходим к тайному голосованию»; «А сейчас мы готовы ответить на все ваши вопросы» etc.).

Структивы выполняют важную функцию сегментации диалога: «Они объединяют высказывания, которые служат для исполнения действий зачина и окончания диалога; активизируют внимание слушающего; прогнозируют мену коммуникативной роли участников интеракции, осуществляют передачу права говорения, прерывание говорящего или сохранение роли говорящего, поддержание говорящего и сохранение права говорения, а также переключение темы диалога, указание и уточнение темы и т.п.» (цит. по [13, 158]).

b.2. Сценарные / коррективные CQ направлены на формирование готовности к внесению корректив и управлению предпочтениями в выборе коммуникативных стратегий и коммуникативных ходов, распределения и делегирования коммуникативных ролей в изменившемся социокультурном контексте [cf. 15; 14]. Например, варьирует объем времени, выделяемого на распространенный в англосаксонской коммуникативной культуре жанр “small talk” варьирует в зависимости от деловой культуры страны пребывания [15, 40] и подлежит элиминированию там, где он неуместен в деловых переговорах с точки зрения принимающей коммуникативной культуры. Уместность обращения по именам, правила обращения к старшим, затрагиваемые темы, предпочтительные виды аргументов, соблюдение дистанции по отношению к собеседнику, правила вежливости и прочие проявления альтернативной культурной логики подлежат учету и соблюдению в инокультурной среде.

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