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SECTION 1. EDUCATION, EQUALITY AND DEVELOPMENT

UDC 371.2

Bashmakova N. Professional training of specialists for the judicial system in the context of competence readiness for the future profession

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Abstract. *The article is concerned with the problem of professional readiness of a specialist for the judicial system in the competence-based approach. The notion of "professional readiness" from the viewpoint of psychological and pedagogical approaches is elaborated. The author's concept definition of "professional readiness of a specialist for the judicial system" is suggested. The concept essence of "competence-based approach" is determined. Core aspects of professional readiness of specialists for the judicial system as the foundation of competence-based approach in professional training are identified.*

Keywords: *professional training of specialists for the judicial system, professional readiness, competence-based approach, information technology*

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1. Introduction

At the stage of society's transition to the information-network stage of progress, there are changes and complete networking of communication space, affecting various spheres of activity, including the legal one. In these circumstances, there arises the problem of specialists' compliance with the professional standards of modern society for the judicial system. For instance, while following the position of humanity in the assignment of fair punishment, some experts [1] bring forward today the concept of introducing the so-called "electronic scales of justice", which enable to make more relevant judgements. What is at stake today is the capacity of professionals for the judicial system to be capable of using the full range of information technology in their professional activities for the welfare of society.

Under these prerequisites, special emphasis should be placed on the professional readiness of future specialists in the judicial system for implementation of practical actions.

The relevance of the topic is due to the state need for highly skilled professionals. A person who acquired higher education, with a range of theoretical and practical knowledge, skills and abilities should join the world of labor. And this requires the readiness to perform functional obligations at a high quality and at a sufficient level. Despite the fact that the issue of readiness for professional activity of specialists has been focused on in many scientific papers, however, its

correlation with the competence approach is not sufficiently disclosed, which, in our mind, necessitates more detailed study and research.

2. Material and methods

The theoretical basis of the research was based on the competence approach, promoting the formation of future specialists' experience of solving professional tasks independently, constituting the content of education (V.I. Baidenko, I.A. Zimnyaya, V.V. Serikov, etc.), the systemic approach, considering education as an integral process (A.N. Averyanov, V.G. Afanasyev, V.S. Ilyina, B.F. Lomov, V.A. Slastenin, etc.).

The key principles of professional education (A.K. Markova, A.V. Leontiev, etc.) have also been used.

The object of the study is the professional training of specialists for the judicial system.

The theoretical aspects of readiness as the basis of the competence-based approach in the professional training of specialists for the judicial system are the subject of the study.

The aim of the study is to substantiate the need for a study on readiness for professional training for the judiciary in the context of the competence-based approach.

The aim of the study allowed us to outline a range of research methods.

The key methods of the research have been theoretical methods, implying the study and analysis of the Federal State Educational Standard for the training direction 40.05.04 "Judicial and prosecutorial activity" for further modeling the process of incorporating modern information technology in teaching social and humanitarian complex disciplines in a law school; and empirical methods, implying observation.

The aim gives rise to the following logic of the article: to specify the essence of the category "professional readiness"; to clarify the concept "competence approach" in relation to this study, to identify the key aspects of readiness of a specialist for the judicial system for further professional activity.

The logic of considering the concept under study necessitates considering the interrelated concepts of "readiness" – "professional readiness" – "professional readiness of a specialist for the judiciary" in a certain sequence.

The reference literature interprets the term "readiness" as a "state in which everything is done, everything is ready for something" [7; p. 138].

Psychological treatment of the concept under study allows researchers (M.I. Diachenko, L.A. Kandybovich) to consider readiness as a special mental state, an attitude of a person to perform a certain activity [6].

Pedagogical treatment of readiness gives researchers an opportunity to interpret readiness as: 1) a property of a person, 2) a state of a person, 3) a need, 4) a system of social knowledge and skills, as a finished result of purposeful activity of a person [4].

The starting point for determining the meaning of "professional readiness" in our study is the notion that the problem of readiness of a future specialist for the judicial system should be considered in the context of his/her competence and professionalism [4].

The analysis of scientific and pedagogical literature suggests that researchers have not yet been able to reach a consensus on the content of the concept "readiness for professional activity". Being a complex, multi-level concept, the latter is studied at the following key levels [3]: 1) personal, where readiness acts as a manifestation of individual-personal qualities, determined by the nature of forthcoming activity (B.G. Ananyev, A.N. Leontiev, I.S. Kon, A.G. Spirkin, E.V. Shorokhova et al.); 2) functional, in which readiness is interpreted as temporary readiness and diligence, the forthcoming activation of mental functions, the ability to initiate the necessary physical and mental potential to implement the activity (E.P. Ilyin, N. D. Levitov, L.S. Nersesyan, V.N. Pushkin, etc.); 3) personality-activity, in which readiness is viewed as a holistic manifestation of all components of personality, allowing the ability to effectively perform their duties (A.A. Derkach, L.A. Kandybovich).

T.A. Amelchenko's position, according to which professional readiness of a specialist represents a transitional stage from cognition of professional environment to its transformation on the basis of intellectual, situational, retrospective and prospective reflection and includes such components as awareness of professional tasks and determination of professional behavior in specific situations, assessment of one's capabilities in accordance with the complexity of the task [2], appears relevant within the framework of this study.

Based on the above, we regard it reasonable to treat professional readiness as a bridge between professional competence and professional competence. Specifying the indicated concepts within the framework of this article, we will rely on the studies of the above mentioned methodologists, which allows us to consider professional competence as a combination of three components (key competences, technological competences, professionally important personal qualities) contributing to the practical implementation of professional competence - a set of general knowledge, skills and generalized ways of action, which can be implemented during the performance of professional activity of a person.

In line with the stated theme, it seems appropriate to briefly elaborate on the content of the concept of "competence-based approach" in relation to the professional readiness of professionals for the judiciary for their future professional activities.

The analysis of the sources related to this issue suggests that this approach has been the subject of study by many researchers and has many interpretations. Following Davydov L.D. [5], we believe that the competence approach as applied to professional training in general should be viewed from two different perspectives.

Whereas on the one hand, the competence approach should be seen as "a combination of general principles for defining educational goals, selecting educational content, organizing the educational process and evaluating educational outcomes", on the other hand, the competence

approach in professional training should be regarded in the context of forming a number of key competencies in future specialists that determine their successful adaptation in society [5].

The new vision of the aims and outcomes of higher vocational education and training, as well as the requirements for other parts of the educational process - content, pedagogical technologies, control and assessment tools - are oriented towards this approach.

The introduction of this approach to professional training for the judiciary demands the design and implementation of teaching technologies that enable students to engage in different activities and thus solve different professional tasks that may lead to the formation of one or another competence.

Under the Federal State Educational Standard for the direction 40.03.05 "Judicial and Prosecutorial Activity", a future specialist for the judicial system should hold a number of key competences. Among them one should mention: social-personal; economic, organizational-managerial; general scientific; general technical; general professional; special.

In this context, the development of the competences outlined above in the professional training of professionals for the judiciary calls for the following Improvement of educational technologies, which involves: 1) shifting the focus from the subject-disciplinary and content side to the competencies and expected outcomes of the educational process; 2) reflection of the dominant perspectives in the main educational program to guide the training of graduates for effective activities in the future world; 3) use of modular organization of the main educational programs; 4) increasing the students' freedom regarding the choice of individualized educational trajectories.

3.Results of the study and discussion

From the point of view of our study, professional readiness is a multidimensional and integrative concept, which cannot be defined unambiguously.

The concept's genesis enabled us to reach an understanding of professional readiness as a complex integral entity that serves as a connecting link between professional competence and professional competency.

The competence-based approach to training professionals for the judicial system in higher education institution is to develop and acquire a set of key competencies, which identify the successful adjustment of the specialist in society and professional community.

Conclusion

To conclude, it is relevant to highlight the importance of focusing society's attention on the professional readiness of professionals for the judiciary, which progresses at the stage of personal formation during the training process within the competence-based approach. Given the fact that professional readiness measures the compliance of a specialist with a certain level of competence, it is of utmost importance to develop students' abilities to apply in practice the acquired knowledge, skills and abilities in the course of professional training in higher education institution.

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SECTION 2. OIL, GAS & ENERGY

UDC 69

Zavgorodny A.N. The effect of motor oils on the durability of tractor engines

Влияние моторных масел на долговечность тракторных двигателей

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Abstract. *The problem of reducing the operational durability of tractor engines due to the use of unsuitable types of oils is considered. The information proving the hypothesis of the use of semi-synthetic and synthetic motor oils is collected and analyzed. Suggestions for ensuring the normal operation of the engine are also indicated.*

Keywords: *engine oil, engine, tractor, unit, agriculture.*

Аннотация. *Рассмотрена проблема снижения эксплуатационной долговечности тракторных двигателей вследствие использования неподходящих типов масел. Собрана и проанализирована информация, доказывающая гипотезу о применении полусинтетических и синтетических моторных масел. Также указаны предложения по обеспечению нормальной работы двигателя.*

Ключевые слова: *моторное масло, двигатель, трактор, агрегат, сельское хозяйство.*

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Несмотря на то, что в настоящее время крестьянские и фермерские хозяйства нашего региона в основном обеспечены современной техникой и высокопроизводительными машинно–тракторными агрегатами, сельхозпроизводители иногда вынуждены использовать в работе тракторы, имеющие достаточно длительный срок эксплуатации. От качества горюче–смазочных материалов, от их видов и сортов зависит ресурс работы двигателей этих тракторов, то есть их межремонтная наработка.

В настоящей работе поставлена цель – провести исследование влияния различных типов моторных масел на изнашивание деталей двигателей внутреннего сгорания, а также обозначить эффективность использования моторных масел в учебных тракторах техникума. Выдвинута гипотеза – применение полусинтетических и синтетических моторных масел в тракторных двигателях уменьшает скорость изнашивания деталей двигателя.

Известен целый ряд исследований, посвящённых изучению влияния отдельных факторов эксплуатации на работоспособность составных частей и сборочных частей трактора[1]. Одним из таких факторов является применение моторных масел различных видов, а также их качество.

Масло в дизеле с течением времени подвергается качественным и количественным изменениям. Качественные изменения выражается в снижении концентрации присадок, увеличении органических кислот и асфальто–смолистых веществ. Установлено, что чрезмерному износу способствует применение загрязнённого картерного масла. В масло попадают пыль, продукты износа двигателей, вода и не сгоревшее топливо.

Работа с маслами не тех марок, которые рекомендованы инструкцией, увеличивает скорость изнашивания деталей двигателя почти в 3 раза[2].

Условия, в которых работает любой двигатель, постоянно изменяются. После остановки мотор остывает, после запуска прогревается, во время эксплуатации двигатель также постоянно изменяет свой режим работы – меняются обороты, температура, скорость трения и прочее. Поэтому идеальным моторным маслом для двигателя внутреннего сгорания могло бы быть такое масло, свойства и характеристики которого не изменялись бы при вышеперечисленных условиях эксплуатации. Поэтому на определенном этапе развития моторостроения вопрос обеспечения максимальной стабильности свойств моторного масла при разных условиях стал особо актуальным[3].

Чаще всего при обслуживании тракторов применялось минеральное масло. Минеральное моторное масло – это масло, полученное из нефти. Но как раз сама минеральная основа моторного масла не стабильна, поэтому ученые, путем синтеза молекул, получили синтетическую основу, которая значительно менее подвержена влиянию внешних факторов и свойства которой более постоянны в процессе длительной эксплуатации масел.

Впервые синтетическое моторное масло было применено в авиации, когда появилась необходимость запуска двигателей при очень низких температурах (-40 градусов и ниже). Минеральное масло при таких температурах просто замерзало. Понятно, что себестоимость синтетического масла была в те времена очень высокой, что не позволяло массово применять его в двигателях тракторов. Со временем синтетические моторные масла стали более дешевыми в производстве и начали применяться в автомобильной и тракторной промышленности.

Так какое моторное масло лучше – синтетическое или минеральное?

Главным эксплуатационным отличием синтетического моторного масла от минерального является более высокий уровень стабильности его свойств и характеристик при различных температурах и длительной эксплуатации.

Это означает следующее:

– синтетическое моторное масло меньше реагирует на низкие и высокие температуры;

– синтетическое масло дольше сохраняет свои свойства в процессе эксплуатации;

– некоторые параметры моторного масла, обязательные для многих современных двигателей, невозможно реализовать на полностью минеральной основе[3].

Путем исследования нами изучено влияние различных видов моторных масел (минерального и синтетического) на долговечность деталей двигателя трактора. Для этого в течение длительного времени проводились наблюдения за эксплуатацией двух тракторов МТЗ–82, которые работали практически в одинаковых условиях, а затем сравнивались не только качество и внешний вид использованного моторного масла, но и детали двигателей, подвергшиеся износу. Сравнительная характеристика проводилась органолептическими методами, то есть без применения лабораторных исследований, поэтому может считаться приблизительной, но даже такое исследование показало, какое моторное масло может продлить ресурс двигателя, а значит более качественно и быстро выполнить поставленную задачу.

Для исследования при эксплуатации тракторов систему смазки одного из них заправляли минеральным моторным маслом марки М10Г$_2$, а для другого использовали синтетическое моторное масло HX85W – 40.

По техническим условиям для тракторов МТЗ–82 при проведении технического обслуживания №2 через 500 моточасов моторное масло подлежит замене[4]. При выполнении данной операции органолептическим методом провели сравнение образцов масел, слитых из систем смазки тракторов. В результате установлено, что минеральное моторное масло после работы стало гуще и темнее, чем синтетическое.

Очевидно, что после длительной работы синтетическое моторное масло почти не содержит вредных примесей, в составе его наверняка еще присутствуют необходимые присадки, хотя и в небольших количествах. Это означает, что дополнительно замену синтетического моторного масла можно проводить немного реже, чем минерального (если это вынужденная мера), что не окажет отрицательного влияния на детали и механизмы двигателя трактора.

После длительной работы исследуемой техники и частичной разборке двигателей установлено, что коленчатый вал и поршни двигателя трактора, который работающем на минеральном масле, имеет заметные следы износа.

Конечно, исследование на данном этапе не подкрепляется специальными данными лабораторных опытов, но все–таки можно считать, что использование синтетических моторных масел может удлинить срок использования смазочных материалов до необходимости их замены, что в конечном итоге увеличивает ресурс деталей двигателя, да и самого трактора в целом.

Проведенная работа по обоснованию влияния различных видов моторных масел на долговечность тракторных двигателей позволила рассмотреть этот вопрос с точки зрения экономичности использования масел, тем более что минеральное масло придется менять чаще, чем синтетическое. Поэтому, если параметры синтетического масла подходят для конкретного двигателя, лучше в систему смазки заливать именно его, что дополнительно даст экономию при покупке моторного масла.

Гипотеза о том, что применение синтетических моторных масел в тракторных двигателях уменьшает скорость изнашивания деталей двигателя, подтверждается данными, полученными в ходе исследований.

В связи с изучением работы системы смазки тракторных двигателей следует напомнить ряд необходимых первоочередных требований для обеспечения нормальной работы двигателя [5].

Сюда можно отнести своевременную проверку уровня масла в картере двигателя, жесткий контроль за давлением и температурой масла в системе. Рекомендуется своевременно и тщательно выполнять операции по обслуживанию масляных фильтров, а также обязательно применять моторное дизельное масло соответствующего сорта: зимой — зимнее, летом — летнее.

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SECTION 3. PEDAGOGY, LANGUAGE AND CULTURE IN EDUCATION

UDC 37

Kozhatayeva B.B., Seitzhanova E.K., Palvanova D.N. Typology of cross-lingual coorelations

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Abstract. *This paper focuses on typology of cross-lingual correlations and identifies the ways of their translation. The cross-lingual structural system and semantic relatedness of phraseological units can identify the major criteria that determine the presence of phraseological equivalents of various types.*

Keywords: *phraseological unit, phraseological equivalent, cross-lingual parallelism, intralevel correspondence.*

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It's obvious that phraseological picture of the world of related and unrelated languages is an imaginative, subjective and evaluative interpretation of the world based on ordinary, non-scientific knowledge. In connection with this, the phraseological units present great difficulties in intercultural communication, as they are most ethnologically, nationally and culturally marked out of all types of linguistic signs [1].

Cross-lingual lexical equivalents may differ by a connotational part of their values. Many papers stressed that the national specifics of connotations is manifested more clearly than at the level of subject-conceptual, denotative meanings. In connotational part of the word "objectification of the subject is not the world, and the attitude that displays some form of emotive response of entity on the denoted" [2]. The constituents of connotation are the evaluative, associative and imaginative, emotive and functional-stylistic components.

Phraseology covers the most important pieces of subjective reality. Phraseological units are variable combinations, stable metaphorical phrases, idioms. A typical feature of phraseological units, that is related phrases, is the prevalence of a meaning of the whole over a meaning of the components. For example, the English phraseology differs by a great semantic and stylistic indifferentiations making it difficult to find correspondences in translation. The best way to translate the phraseological units is the use of equivalent or variable compliances.

In identifying types of cross-lingual correspondences of analyzed units and ways of their translation it's necessary to pay attention to the degree of permanence of intralevel

correspondences. Thorough analysis of the factors forming the cross-language equivalence of phraseological units allows considering that there are both polyequivalent cross-language phraseological units and inequivalent phraseological units already on the thematic level.

It became apparent that during translation under setting to challenge of the most appropriate transfer of the original, the fixing of permanent intralevel correspondences is not always possible for the translated language, and phraseologism lies in the peculiar dependence on the language-original [3]. Even under presence of solid cross-lingual correspondences the linguistic units can be partly varied semantically, and it leads to the emergence of contextual language equivalents which do not coincide with other correspondences at the level of language. Compliance arising under translation, may be completely different formally, if it is required by keeping the semantic and functional-stylistic value of the original. Meanwhile, the establishment of an international phraseology provides for both language and speech equivalence.

At present the notion of equivalence is used, for example, when studying the relation of a word and an idiom, vocative sentence and the actual proposals in the framework of one language, words, idioms, and other units. The types of concept and terminology demarcation of linguistic equality are given as follows:

- identity equivalence (material, meaningful and functional commonality of language units);
- direct equivalence - the similarity of structural organization, forms, common values and functions, structural-typological similarity;
- synonymous equivalence, i.e. meaningful and functional equality in related language units.

Cross-lingual equivalence of phraseological units meaning is achieved not only by using a specific method of translation, but the selection of additional information about semantics, etymology of the expression. In this regard, a priority task should be not identifying the ways of translating these lexical units and the definition of specifics in interpretation of English idioms in literal translation; identification of types of their cross-lingual parallelism and differences. We believe that further in translation practice, the knowledge of the semantic nature will facilitate the implementation of competent and accurate translation or transfer meanings of any phraseological units.

In different languages phraseological units are transmitted through the equivalent lexical items. In this case, there is a cross-lingual parallelism. Such relationships arise not only due to the case of translations. Many identical facts in the life of nations receive the same recomprehension. Therefore, the reasons of cause of phraseological units of a thematic group in the different languages may be different. They may depend on the sameness or the proximity of the living conditions of people; linguistic similarities and structural proximity of related languages; the borrowing as a result of historical-cultural interactions and common linguistic area; the presence of similarities of the

spiritual life, the invariance of the elements of appropriate forms of social consciousness, the similarity of the historical experience of the people [5].

Quite often, phraseological units are subjected to tracing under translation from one language to another. Tracing of the original forms leads to more qualitative changes. However, the tracing process is a progressive one. In this case, the traced phraseological units enrich the spiritual life of the people and increase their language.

This fact indicates the presence of international phraseology, which in spite of the variant and invariant features of each local culture has its isomorphic features. Isomorphic internationalisms are rather productive and have the functional activity. They can fill up an international phraseological fund. But not always the similar in morphological structure idioms have the same lexical meaning.

The cross-lingual structural system (or rather the component) and semantic relatedness of phraseological units can identify the major criteria that determine the presence of phraseological equivalents of various types.

Semantic relatedness is only indirect, since the comparable languages are the mixed series of closely related and distantly related languages, and for the distantly related languages an immediate tangible identity of grammatical structures is not typical. Basically, we are talking about semantic identity and difference of components of phraseological units in their non-phraseological, regular meaning, i.e. more or less analogy.

Typology of cross-lingual equivalents, among which are the structural and semantic (combining structural and semantic relatedness, that are phraseological equivalents) and semantic (meaningful identity only under presence of the difference between lexical structure of phraseological units) is based on the interaction of these two criteria [6]. Absolute phraseological equivalents is only a smaller part of the structural and semantic equivalents (mostly borrowed from the third sources of idioms); in other cases, the equivalence is incomplete, i.e. there are certain syntactic or lexical differences which do not affect to the total meaning of phraseological units. It is necessary to note a fairly large proportion of the total (as mentioned above, despite of some syntactic differences) and partial structural and semantic equivalents of phraseological units in comparable languages. This may be explained by the common models redefining the vocabulary of the complex in these phraseological units.

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UDC 37

Ulpetay N., Gabdul-Muttalip S., Berdaly A. The Internet and World Wide Web's Role in Foreign Language Teaching

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Abstract. *Technology has certainly changed our teaching and our lives, whether or not it has improved or made our instruction easier, better, and more efficient is open to debate. However, technology is certainly not new to the foreign language teacher or classroom: we have been using many technologies for years in the forms of tape recorders, the language lab, short wave radio and the old blackboard. The Internet can be used to retrieve and access information. The World Wide Web is therefore a virtual library at one's fingertips. It is a readily available world of information for the language learner. By using the Internet technologies, we can find the information easily in any language. Because, understanding the culture of the target language enhances understanding of the source language. By using the Internet technologies, we can also save our time. To this end, the Internet is a valuable resource to both language teachers and learners. A foreign language instruction today subsumes a plethora of newer technologies such as computers, CDs, DVDs, LCD projection, flatbed scanners, digital cameras, distance learning, and the World Wide Web along with a host of other Internet tools. Technology today has an impact on almost every part of our lives, and it has changed many aspects of the way foreign language teachers' function. Therefore, this article will discuss the Internet and World Wide Web's Role in teaching a foreign language.*

Keywords: *technology, the Internet, World Wide Web, a foreign language, foreign language teaching.*

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The Internet, sometimes called simply "the Net", is a worldwide system of computer networks. It was conceived by the Advanced Research Projects Agency of the United States government in 1969 and was first known as the Arpanet. The original aim was to create a network that would allow users of a research computer at one university to be able to "talk to" research computers at other universities. A side benefit of Arpanet's design was that, because messages could be routed or rerouted to more than one direction. The network could continue to function even if parts of it were destroyed in the event of a military attack or other disaster. Today, the Internet is a public, cooperative, and self-sustaining facility accessible to hundreds of millions of people worldwide. Physically, the Internet uses a portion of the total resources of the currently existing public telecommunication networks.

According to Irvin: "in practical and functional terms, the Internet is:

- a 24-hour nonstop global forum and communications system
- an online library and international information system
- a business and corporate communications medium
- a distance learning and remote education system
- a commercial transactions medium
- a multimedia delivery information service.

All of the above simultaneously" [1].

The Internet also serves as a medium for experiencing and presenting creative works. While students can peruse the information on the Net, they can also use it as a platform for their own work such as essays, poetry, or stories. Numerous public schools, for example, are making use of the World Wide Web for publishing student work, which can be accessed by other web users. Students therefore become not only consumers of content, but in fact generate the content [2]. Some people, however, still do not quite realize that the Internet and the World Wide Web is not the same thing. According to Irvin: "The Internet itself is the underlying communications framework, a massive network of hardware and software. On the other hand, the World Wide Web, like e-mail, is an application, a specific use built atop the communications facilities provided by the Internet" [1]. Thus, students have the opportunity more actively use the communication potential of the Internet by publishing their work on the Web. Students are able to share their work with the others and researchers around the globe and receive feedback from new sources. The students' web pages have the added benefit of serving as an electronic portfolio, something that students can continually update. The Web has shattered the boundaries of traditional communications. E-mail and online discussion groups allow everyone to communicate with a wide range of people. «According to Klotz: Teachers, students and parents can present their own ideas, their teaching and learning strategies and materials, for the entire world to see. In doing so, they are creating a large body of educational material. It is possible to publish graphics, animations, videos and sound as well as multicolored text. In all educational subjects, this diverse potential can serve of a variety of users» [3].

Main part

Researchers all over the world are now using the World Wide Web not only as an efficient source of information but also as repository for their own data. This creates an enormous database of the most up-to-date information, which can be easily accessed by classes with an Internet connection.

«According to Conway: there are four ways in which educational technology supported specific techniques of teaching and learning.

- Direct Instruction/Explicit Teaching. In this approach, students are presented with materials in small steps followed by checking for their understanding. The approach enabled active and successful participation of all students. This model of instruction was classified as a transmission

model as opposed to information-processing model which was well grounded in the behaviourist theory.

- Cooperative/Collaborative Learning. In this cognitive approach to learning, academic materials are mastered through collaborative group work. The teams consist of learners of varying abilities, gender and cultural backgrounds. Reward systems are group-oriented rather than individually-oriented [4].

«According to Dierker: The Internet created new learning opportunities by enabling individual learning experiences. It also enabled students to venture beyond the walls of their classrooms and had the potential of enabling students to interact with others across the globe» [5]. The Internet can be used to allow students to construct complex knowledge bases. The Internet facilitates knowledge exploration by students. Students can find information on the Internet, create and build information through designing web sites, and communicate and share knowledge through the Internet. One of the most important factors that have played a role in the improvement of education is the availability of internet. Remote learning, online learning is some of the common terms that are used these days. This is because the reach of education has increased considerably and education is able to reach almost all the nooks and corners of the world. The use of Internet, where a particular module that has been used for teaching is used again and again with minor updates has made it very cost effective. This is just one of the advantages of Internet usage in education. Interactive sessions are also possible through the Internet. In fact, Internet suggests different information and resources to their users.

Basic collection of services may include: e-mail; video conference, possibility to publish own information, to create own homepage and to advertise it on web-server, access to informational resources, reference books searching systems chat. These resources maybe actively used at the English lesson. Computer teaching programs have many advantages before traditional method of teaching. They allow training different kinds of speaking activities and their different combinations, to help to perceive language phenomena, to form linguistic abilities, to make communicative situations, to automatise language and speaking actions, and also supply an ability of control leading representative system, realization of individual approach and intensification of students' individual works.

Teachers and students alike can access information about countries where the target language is spoken and learn from and about the people who speak the language. Internet technology gives immediacy and context to World language Learning. Basic uses such as e-mail exchanges and web logging, as well as more sophisticated applications such as videoconferencing, can provide students with extended, in-depth interactions with native speakers of the languages learning. Internet provides the opportunity for authentic communication.

Internet access to a multitude of World Language websites, ranging from news to entertainment and culture, gives students a close look at the "real world" applications of the language they are learning. Rather than simply following exercises in a book that may have been

published many years ago, students are learning the language in a landscape of up-to-date events and cultural happenings. It is a very good way to captivate students' interest. Students are able to search for information and pursue their own individual interests and hobbies by finding target-material online. Technology can bring the cultures, connections, and comparisons goals to life, even as they allow students to use their communication skills to participate in a wider community of speakers of the language as they are learning.

What about safety, children need to understand Internet safety as well. For young children there should be restrictions as to the websites students can visit and the length of time. There are many websites that offer software for schools and parents to make sure their children are being safe on the Internet.

Conclusion

As we live in XXI century, where new types of technologies entering to our lives to make it easier, better and efficient, we should also try not to lag from them, vice versa we should follow them. Computer technology has much to offer foreign language teachers who can integrate new tools into the curriculum in a meaningful way. The Internet can also help foreign language teachers further their professional development by keeping them abreast of theoretical, pedagogical, and technical developments in the field. Internet use clearly supports the national standards for foreign language learning in the areas of communication, authentic language use, cultural connections and comparisons, extensions into communities.

The main idea of writing this work was to explain teachers and students the importance of Internet technologies usage in teaching or learning foreign languages.

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UDC 740

Zak A. Characteristics of the actions of fourth-graders in composing tasks

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Abstract. *The article presents a study aimed at determining the characteristics of children's actions in the preparation of spatial-combinatorial tasks different complexity in different forms of action. Conducting 224 individual experiments with 4th grade students made it possible to show for the first time that the form of action determines the successful compilation of spatial-combinatorial tasks to a greater extent than the degree of their complexity.*

Keywords: *fourth-graders, composing problems, individual experiments, actions in a subject-effective and visual-figurative form.*

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1. Introduction

The Federal State Educational Standard of Primary General Education, approved in 2009 [5], specifies the provisions according to which in the course of teaching children in primary school, not only subject results, but also meta-subject results should be achieved. The latter should show how schoolchildren develop various kinds of universal learning activities. Such actions ensure the communication of schoolchildren with each other and with teachers, underlie the regulation of their actions by children in solving educational problems, and are included in cognitive activity when mastering educational program material.

It should also be noted that in a number of provisions of the Standard under consideration, the importance of forming cognitive actions related to creative activity in the primary grades is indicated. Such activities are carried out by schoolchildren, in particular, when they create new assignments, both on the basis of school subjects and on non-educational material.

The present study is aimed at identifying the features of the actions of fourth-grade students when they create new tasks in different forms of action: object-effective, associated with operating material objects, and visual-figurative, associated with operating images of material objects.

The study was based on the assumption that composing new problems in the conditions of an objective-active form creates more opportunities for creative actions of schoolchildren than composing new problems in the conditions of a visual-figurative form of actions.

A total of 224 fourth-graders participated in the individual experiments of the four series of the study.

2. Materials and methods

The experiments of this study were carried out on the material of tasks related to the combination of objects placed in different points (cells) of the playing field. In particular, in problems of this type, it is required to change one (initial) order of placing objects in the playing field in a certain number of actions so that a different (desired) order of their placement is obtained (for more details on problems of this type, see our studies [1], [2], [3], [4]).

For example, the initial order of placing letters: | H | R | | should be changed in two steps so that the desired order of their placement is obtained: | R | | H |. The solution of problems of this type is based on the following rule: one action is to change the location of one of the letters in the original order by actually transferring it to a free space (if the letter is drawn on a card) or mentally transferring it (if there are no cards).

Thus, the solution to this problem lies in the fact that the execution of the first action is associated with the transfer of the letter H to the free space: | H | R | | --- | | R | H |, and the execution of the second action consists in transferring the letter P to an empty place: | | R | H | --- | R | | H |.

2.1. First series of experiments

In individual experiments of series 1, it was necessary to solve problems of the type under consideration in an objectively effective form and invent new ones. For this, cards were used, on each of which a circle, square, triangle, rhombus, etc. was drawn. The solution of the problem was carried out by shifting the card with the desired geometric figure to an empty place in the original order of placing the cards.

First of all, the student was asked to cope with two easy tasks in order to practice applying the rule for solving them. In each task, it was necessary to perform one action in order to change the original order of placing the cards (on the left) to the desired order (on the right), see fig. 1 and 2.

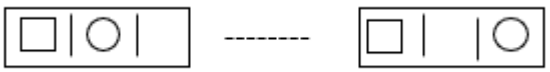

Figure 1. One action - to the next cell

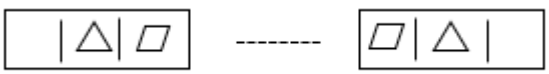

Figure 2. One action - through the cell

The condition of each problem was drawn on a separate sheet, which made it possible to use the playing fields (for the initial and desired placement of cards) with cells 3 sq.cm. The student was told that in each task on the left is the original order of placing cards with figures, and on the right is the desired order of their placement. It was noted that in the initial order of placing the cards, any of them can be shifted to an empty space. The main requirement is that the same cards, after

they are rearranged in the original order, are placed in such cells in which they are in the required order.

If the student experienced difficulties, the experimenter explained to him what was incomprehensible.

After the student coped with two training tasks, he was asked to solve the first main task. In it, as well as in the training tasks, it was required to find a solution by performing one action. However, unlike the two training tasks, the playing fields in the problem under discussion consisted of four cells and three cards were used.

In the first main task, you need to find one action for the same placement of cards in the original order in which they are placed in the desired order (Fig. 3).

In the second main task, you need to find two actions for the same placement of cards in the original and desired order (Fig. 4).

In the third main task, you need to find three actions for the same placement of cards in the original and desired order (Fig. 5).

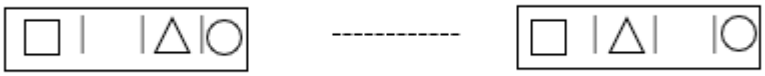

Figure 3. First main task

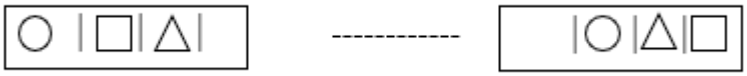

Figure 4. Second main task

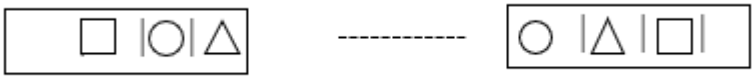

Figure 5. The third main task

It is important to pay attention to the fact that, while solving problems in an objectively effective form, the child could make preliminary attempts to shift different cards to a free place. Thus, he had the opportunity to control his own actions aimed at finding a solution.

To invent new tasks, the student received, firstly, the original and necessary playing fields, consisting of four cells and free from cards (Fig. 6) and, secondly, a set of cards with drawings of a square, circle, triangle, etc. (Fig. 7).

Figure 6. Playing fields

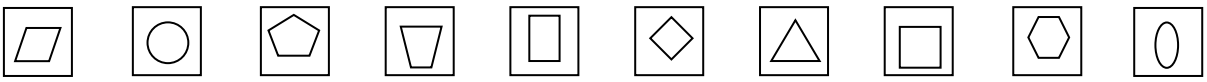

Figure 7. A set of cards with pictures

The experimenter instructed the child: “Try to come up with tasks in which you need to find one action. You can think of several such problems”. At the same time, the child's attention was drawn to the first main task, the condition of which was on the table.

The original playing field (left) and the desired playing field (right) were directly in front of the student. He received the following instruction: “Try to arrange the cards with the figures on the left in such a way that you need to make one shift of the card to the free space and they will be in the same cells where they are on the right. Then there will be a task that can be solved in one action, in one shifting the card to an empty place”.

In the course of inventing tasks, it was possible to observe different actions of schoolchildren. There were 4 groups of subjects.

Children from group 1 acted formally, because they came up with such tasks that could not be solved if only one action was performed. In this case, tasks were usually proposed not of the first (with one action), but of the second degree of complexity (with two actions), - Fig. 8.

Figure 8. A task that cannot be solved in one action

The actions of the children in this group were similar to those of the experimenter at the very beginning, when he gave problems to solve. In other words, the children also laid out the cards in the cells of the playing fields on the left and right, and they laid them out not in the same way, but in such a way that some cards with the same figures were placed differently. It is important to note that the children of this group, thus forming the condition of the new task, did not ask themselves how many actions are needed to solve it.

Unlike the subjects of group 1, the subjects of group 2 were able to compose a task, for the solution of which it is enough to perform one action. Their behavior was characterized by the following. They not only (like the subjects of group 1) noted that in the condition of the first main task,

cards with the same geometric figures were placed in the original and required order. In addition, (different from the subjects of group 1) they found, comparing the placement of cards on the left and right, that one of the cards in the placement on the right is not in the place where it is on the left. As a result of this observation, they placed any three cards with figures on the left and after that three cards with the same figures were placed on the right in the same cells as on the left (Fig. 9).

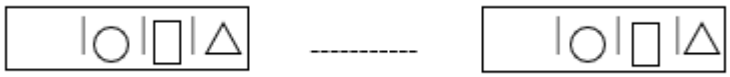

Figure 9. Initial arrangement of cards (test group 2)

The next step in their work was that a card with a triangle was shifted to the free space in the cells on the right. This is how the required task was created (Fig. 10).

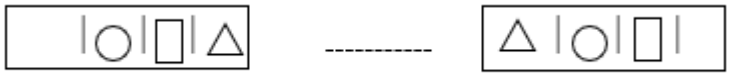

Figure 10. An example of the problem being solved

Thus, the subjects of group 2 acted meaningfully. Such a qualification of their actions is due to the fact that not every placement of cards with figures was suitable for these children. They wanted to come up with a task with one action and, thereby, fulfill the experimenter's requirement.

The subjects of group 3 (like the subjects of group 2) acted meaningfully, inventing tasks to be solved. However, their actions differed from the actions of the subjects of group 2. In particular, they did not place the cards in the cells of both playing fields at once (which was typical for the actions of the subjects of group 2), but, placing the cards in the cells on the left, put two cards in the cells on the right in the same way. , as in the cells on the left, and one card (rhombus) - differently than the card with this figure was located in the cells on the left.

Figure 11. Initial arrangement of cards (test group 3)

Then the playing fields with cards representing the condition of the invented task were put aside and the subject continued on with other playing fields, filling them with cards as he did in the previous case.

It is important to note that, using the experience of compiling the first problem, the subjects of group 3 did not invent only one or two problems (as the subjects of group 2), but usually created 3, 4 or 5 problems. And, it is essential to emphasize that all invented tasks had the same way of solving, when the card to be placed in the free space occupied the same cell in the conditions of all tasks (Fig. 12).

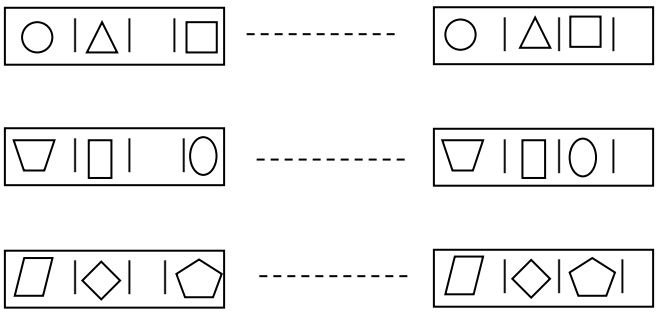

Figure 12. Tasks of the subjects of group 3

Qualifying the features of composing problems by the subjects of group 3, we can say that they acted not only meaningfully (like the subjects of group 2, inventing problems that have a solution), but also productively, inventing many correct problems.

Group 4 subjects acted as follows. First, when thinking up the first problem, they, like the subjects of group 3, started by placing cards with figures in the cells of the playing field on the left. After that, they placed cards with the same figures in the cells of the playing field on the right in the same way as on the left, and one card was placed differently. Then, in the course of further inventing tasks, the subjects of group 4 acted in a new way. At the same time, they tried to change the location of the free space from task to task (Fig. 13), or to vary the route of transferring cards to the free space: to an adjacent place (task with a hexagon), through two places (task with a triangle), through one place (task with a pentagon).

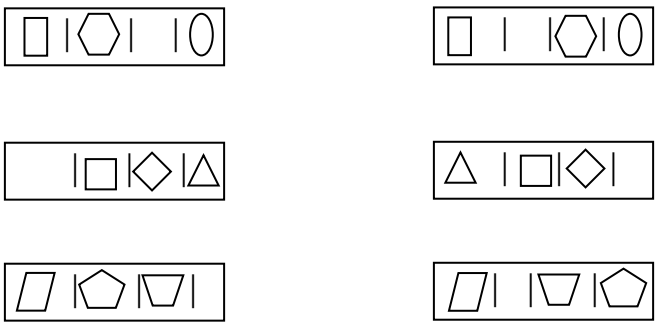

Figure 13. Tasks of the subjects of group 4

Summing up the results of the actions of the subjects in series 1, it should be noted that both the subjects of group 3 and the subjects of group 4 came up with many tasks. However, in the first case, tasks were composed according to a single scheme, a single template, and in the second case, all tasks were different. This allows us to consider that the subjects of group 4 acted not only productively, but also in an original way.

2.2 Second series of experiments

In the individual experiments of series 2 (as in series 1), it was necessary to solve the same combinatorial problems in an object-effective form and invent new ones. But in series 2 there were

certain differences: the children had to come up with tasks that required the performance of not one (as in series 1), but two actions.

In connection with this circumstance, not all subjects participated in series 2, but only those of them who were able to cope with solving problems in three steps. (Recall that in series 1, subjects participated who could not solve a problem with three actions).

If the child could successfully complete a task in three actions, then he had the opportunity to invent tasks with two actions. To do this, in front of him on the table for example, there was a condition of the second main task (with two actions).

Based on the results of composing tasks in series 2, the same four groups of schoolchildren were identified that took place in series 1.

The subjects of group 1 demonstrated a formal approach to inventing tasks, because, after looking at the condition of the second main task, they placed cards on the left and right playing fields. The result was a problem that could not be solved in two steps.

One part of the children of group 1 (subgroup 1.1.) received tasks that can be solved in one action (Fig. 14).

Figure 14. Task with one action instead of two required

The other part of the children of this group (subgroup 1.2.) received tasks, the solution of which requires the performance of three actions (Fig. 15).

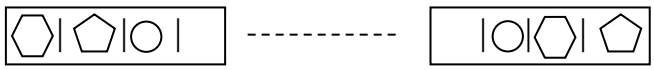

Figure 15. Task with three actions instead of two required

The subjects of group 2 demonstrated a meaningful approach to inventing tasks, since they composed one or two tasks, the solution of which required the performance of two actions. The actions of the children of this group repeated the actions of the children of group 2 in series 1: there was a study of the conditions of the second main task, during which the children paid attention to the fact that two cards in the cells on the right changed their places compared to what places they occupied in the cells left. After that, they placed three identical cards in the cells on the left and right. Then, in the cells on the right, one card was transferred to a free place (Fig. 16), and then another card was transferred to the vacant place (Fig. 17).

Figure 16. Task condition after the first action

Figure 17. Task condition after the second action

As in series 1, the subjects of group 3 acted meaningfully, inventing 3-5 tasks to be solved - in this case, they focused on the first invented task, taking it as the basis for compiling subsequent tasks (Fig. 18).

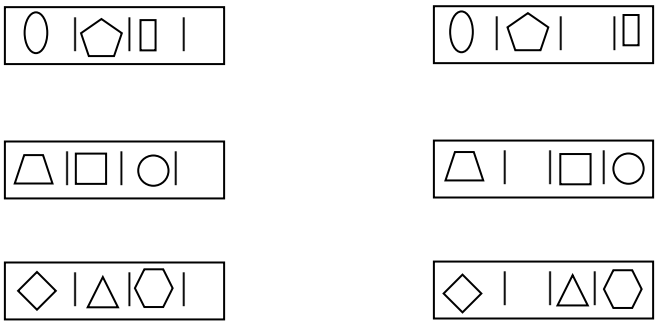

Figure 18. Tasks of the subjects of group 3

The subjects of group 4 (as well as the subjects of the same group in series 1 demonstrated an original approach to composing tasks, inventing 3-5 different tasks, trying to ensure that in different tasks the free space was in different parts of the playing fields (Fig. 19).

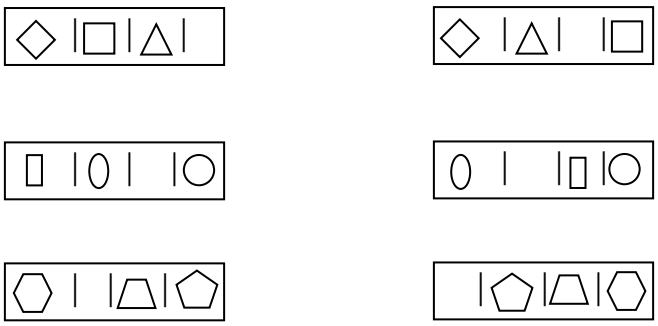

Figure 19. Tasks of the subjects of group 4

The organization of experiments in series 3 differed from the organization of experiments in series 1 and 2 in that the subjects were asked to solve the first, second, and third main tasks and to compose new tasks in a visual-figurative form, without touching the cards on the playing fields, but acting only mentally.

When planning to move one or another card to a free space, the subject simply named the figure that was drawn on it. In particular, when solving a problem with two actions, the child indicated,

for example: "... the first move to an empty place makes a rhombus, the second - a triangle ...". The conditions of the main tasks were presented for solution not in the form of cards on two playing fields (left and right), but in the form of drawings of geometric shapes in the cells of the playing fields.

In this series, it was proposed (as in the first two series) to solve problems with one, two and three permutations, i.e., respectively, No. 1 (Fig. 5), No. 2 (Fig. 6), No. 3 (Fig. 7). If the subject managed to cope with solving problems not only with one, but also with two or three permutations, then he was asked to further compose problems with one permutation (of the first degree of complexity). At the same time, to the left of him on the table (as it was in both previous series) there was a sheet with the condition of the first main task drawn on it.

2.3. Third series of experiments

In series 3 (as in series 1 and 2), the child had to solve three main tasks in succession: the first, in one action (Fig. 3), the second, in two actions (Fig. 4), the third, in three actions (Fig. 5). The subject had to compose tasks with one action (similar to the first main task) if he managed to successfully solve not only the first, but also the second main task.

When compiling tasks, it was necessary to act in an internal plan (that is, to operate only with the images of the figures placed on the cards, and not with the cards themselves with the images of these figures). Therefore, the children were given not such playing fields as in the first two series of experiments, but such, where each cell was marked with a number (Fig. 20).

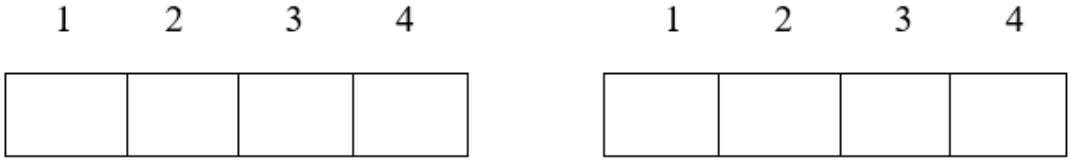

Figure 20. Playing fields where the cells are marked with numbers

At the same time, to compose each new task, the subject was offered three cards with drawings of figures for the playing field on the left and the same three cards for the playing field on the right. The inventing of new tasks was organized as follows: the child named the drawing on the card and the numerical designation of the cell where this drawing was to be placed.

Just as in series 1 and 2, it was possible to observe differences in inventing problems: the subjects of group 1 had a formal approach to composing problems, the subjects of group 2 had a meaningful approach, the subjects of group 3 had a productive one, and the subjects of group 4 had an original one.

2.4. Fourth series of experiments

In series 4 (as in series 3), children had to solve and invent problems in a visual-figurative form. But unlike series 3, in series 4 the child was asked to invent problems of the second degree of complexity (with two actions) and only if he was able to successfully solve the third main problem (with three actions).

The compilation of tasks was organized in the same way as in series 3: the subjects called the digital designation of the cell and the drawings on the cards for their placement in the cells of the playing fields on the left and right.

In series 4 (similar to what happened in series 1, 2 and 3), the subjects were divided into 4 groups: the subjects of group 1 had a formal approach to the formulation of tasks, the subjects of group 2 had a meaningful approach, the subjects of group 3 had a productive one, and group 4 subjects - original.

3. Results

Among the fourth grade students, 56 people participated in the first series, 54 in the second, 58 in the third, and 56 in the fourth.

The table presents data on the nature of the compilation of tasks by students in grade 4.

Table

The number of fourth-grade students who acted formally, meaningfully, productively and originally in each of the four series of experiments when compiling spatial-combinatorial problems (in %).

Actions for compiling tasks	Series of experiments			
	First	Second	Third	Fourth
Formal	3,6	7,4	10,3	21,5
Meaningful	3,6	14,8	20,7	17,8
Productive	64,2	59,3	53,5	50,0
Original	28,6	18,5	15,5	10,7

An analysis of the data presented in the table allows us to formulate a number of provisions.

First, the number of children who make up unsolvable tasks (i.e., acting formally) and solvable tasks (i.e., acting meaningfully, productively, or in an original way) directly depends on the degree of their complexity. Thus, in the first and third series, the number of children to be solved was greater than in the second and fourth series, respectively, although in the first-second and third-fourth series they were asked to compose problems under the same conditions (recall that in the first and the third series, it was proposed to compose tasks of the first degree of complexity, and in the second and fourth series - tasks of the second degree of complexity).

Secondly, the number of children who make up unsolvable tasks and tasks to be solved directly depends on the conditions in which they act: in an objective-effective form or in a visual-figurative form. Thus, in the first and second series, the number of children to be solved was greater than, respectively, in the third and fourth series, although in the compared series they were asked to compose tasks of the same degree of complexity - the first degree of complexity (in the first and third

series) and the second degree of complexity (in the second and fourth series), we recall that in the first and second series it was proposed to compose tasks using cards, and in the third and fourth series - without cards, mentally.

Thirdly, it is of interest that the form of actions in compiling tasks has a greater influence on the success of compiling tasks than the degree of their complexity. Thus, the total number of children who compose tasks in a meaningful, productive or original way in the second series (i.e., with the help of cards, but of the second degree of complexity) is greater than the number of children who compose tasks in a meaningful and productive way in the third series (i.e., without cards, but the first degree of complexity).

4. Conclusion

This study is devoted to the study of the peculiarities of the creative actions of fourth-graders when compiling combinatorial problems associated with changing, according to certain rules, the initial location of objects in the cells of the playing field to the required order of their location. Four series of individual experiments were conducted with 224 schoolchildren.

In the first two series, the children made up tasks in an objective-active form: in the first series - the first degree of complexity, in the second series - the second degree of complexity. In the remaining two series, tasks had to be drawn up in a visual-figurative form: in the third series - the first degree of complexity, in the fourth series - the second degree of complexity.

As a result of the study, new facts were found.

First, four approaches were identified for children to formulate tasks: formal, meaningful, productive, and original.

Secondly, it was shown that the form of actions in the preparation of tasks has a greater influence on the success of the preparation of tasks than the degree of their complexity. Thus, the total number of children who compose tasks in a meaningful, productive or original way in the second series (i.e., with the help of cards, but of the second degree of complexity) is greater than the number of children who compose tasks in a meaningful and productive way in the third series (i.e., without cards, but the first degree of complexity).

In general, based on these data, it can be said that, in relation to spatial-combinatorial tasks, primary school age is a period of relatively intensive formation of productive actions when composing tasks, since such children make up the majority in each series of experiments.

This fact gives serious grounds for the assumption that in the middle grades of the school more than half of the pupils will act in an original way when composing new problems, inventing many different problems.

In further research, it is planned to conduct a series of similar experiments with students in grades 5 and 6.

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UDC 37

Zholdasbekuly Sh., Yerdaulet A.Y. Computer abbreviations in the english language

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Abstract. *The article discusses computer terms formed by the method of abbreviation in the English language, including initial abbreviations and acronyms.*
Keywords: *computer terms, abbreviations, acronyms*

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At present, it can be said that computer terms from the lexicon of programmers and developers of computer technology are gradually becoming a commonly used vocabulary. English computer language, as one of the most dynamically developing layers of special vocabulary, requires study and systematization. "Computer terminology functioning in English is very diverse in both its structure and semantics and is represented by word-terms, terminology phrases and phraseologisms" [2, p. 277].

One of the most productive ways to replenish the vocabulary of the terminology of many languages, including English, was abbreviation. According to S.A. Volodkova, "the widespread use of various abbreviations is a kind of response to the intensively developing formation of multicomponent terminology combinations in all special languages" [4, c.7].

According to D. Crystal, such a method of word formation as abbreviation became popular by 1839, when reductions such as OK ('all correct'), PDQ ('pretty damn quick'), GT('gone to Texas') and many others [7, c. 120]. Obviously, in these examples, not words are abbreviated, but whole phrases. D. Crystal also notes that abbreviation is always in vogue, but in the 20th century the appearance of abbreviations in science, technology and other special fields was unexpected. He writes: : «The fashionable use of abbreviation – a kind of society slang– comes and goes in waves, though it is never totally absent. In the present century, however, it has been eclipsed by the emergence of abbreviations in science,technology, and other special fields» [7, c. 120].

The main reason for the intensification of the process of the appearance of reduced lexical units is the tendency to save language funds both in writing and orally. "But this is far from the only moment. The reasons for the occurrence of abbreviations are also the following: the need for new words, saving effort, the need for a detailed and accurate description of reality in language, negligence in speech, an increase in the emotional component "[3, p. 46].

D. Crystal rightly notes that using the abbreviation is to be "your own" in the social group where this abbreviation is used. Computer enthusiasts around the world use the abbreviations ROM and RAM, DOS and WYSIWYG in their speech. You are not an amateur if you cannot use such forms or you need to search, what they mean. So, D. Crystal writes: «Abbreviations also help to convey a sense of social identity: to use an abbreviated form is to be 'in the know' –part of the social group to which the abbreviation belongs. Computers buffs the world over will be recognized by their fluent talk of ROM and RAM, of DOS and WYSIWYG. You are no buff if you are unable to use such forms, or need to look them up (respectively, 'read-only memory', 'random-access memory','disk operating system', and 'what you see is what you get').It would only irritate computer-literate colleagues and waste time or space (and thus money) if a computer- literate person pedantically expanded every abbreviated form» [7, c. 120].

E.M. Dubenets notes that in modern English a significant number of initial abbreviations from phrases are formed. "Most often, technical terms, as well as the names of public groups and organizations, are abbreviated. Usually abbreviations are used more often than full forms of names " [5, p. 145]. For example:

DOS (Disk Operating System) – ДОС (disk operating system);

GIF (Graphics Interchange Format) – graphic exchange format - image compression format. One of the commonly used graphics formats on the Internet.

Many linguists emphasize the fact that abbreviations present certain difficulties in translation. First of all, it is necessary to remember the ambiguity of abbreviations. G.G. Babalova writes about this: "PC has a well-known English equivalent *Personal Computer.* However, it has other equivalents: *potential controller; printed circuit; process control; programmable control; propulsive coefficient;* And this is far from a complete list of homonyms. Only deep knowledge of the subject can help to correctly understand the term" [1, p. 21].

There are also a number of other factors to consider. "To ensure the correct perception of unfamiliar abbreviations, an effective method of decoding them is needed, and in this regard, a clear understanding of such a complex linguistic phenomenon as abbreviation, its role and place in the language, as well as knowledge of the methods of formation of abbreviations and the structure of abbreviated units formed as a result of abbreviation of the original names" [4, p. 7].

E. M. Dubenets emphasizes the fact that most neologisms-abbreviations are initial abbreviations and pose difficulties for translators. In some cases, translation of the original abbreviation is not possible without special reference literature, so there is a need to compile abbreviation dictionaries in various fields [5, c. 139].

For example, in the preface to 'The English Computer Terminology Glossary', author O.A. Rumyantseva says that definitions in Russian are offered in a simple and accessible form, so they are understandable not only to specialists working in the field of information technology, but also to a wide range of PC users. [Rumyantseva, p. 3].

It should be noted that it is the original abbreviations that make up the largest group among computer abbreviations. For example:

ADPCM (Adaptive Differential Pulse Code Modulation) - outdated with the advent of MP3 algorithm for compressing audio information;

CGI (Common Gateway Interface)- common gateway interface - a protocol that defines the rules for interaction of external programs with the web server or other information servers;

FTP (File Transfer Protocol) -file transfer protocol;

URL (Uniform Resource Locator) – unified resource locator, web address. Standard way of addressing web documents (pages) on the Internet;

HTML (Hyper Text Markup Language) – hypertext markup language when writing web pages;

HTTP (Hyper Text Transfer Protocol) –hypertext data transfer protocol. It is mainly used for the exchange of data between users and resources of the Internet - it is a means of communication of distributed components of the World Wide Web;

DLL (Dynamic Link Library)- "dynamically connected library." A special kind of software modules that can be used (including jointly) with a large number of programs;

MPEG (Motion Picture Experts Group) – a group of audio and video compression standards, which in some cases can reduce their volume by tens of times. Used in VideoCD and DVD.

Among computer abbreviations, a small group of acronyms can be distinguished. Acronyms mean abbreviated words or phrases that are pronounced as independent words and have homonyms in the form of words in a given language. The main task in compiling them is the readable alternation of vowels and consonants, since the acronym must not only preserve its original meaning, but also be easily pronounced. For example:

BASIC (Beginner's All-purpose Symbolic Instruction Code) – Basic One of the first and most popular programming languages so far;

ROM (Read–Only Memory) –permanent memory;

SMART (Self-Monitoring Analysis and Reporting Technology) – System of operational self-diagnostics built into hard drives of the latest models;

SOHO (Small Office Home Office) -"home office";

WOMBAT (Waste Of Money, Brain AndTime) – Wasting money, thoughts and time.

Thus, computer abbreviations are very diverse. The largest group consists of initial reductions. Acronyms represent a minor subgroup. Special dictionaries are often required to translate computer term abbreviations. English computer terminology, as one of the most dynamically developing layers of special vocabulary, and productive methods for the formation of terms, including abbreviation, require study and systematization.

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SECTION 4. SOCIAL JUSTICE AND SOCIOLOGY

UDC 81

Ishutina E. The linguistic personality of the court speaker in the aspect of the legal profession

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Abstract. *The article deals with the main linguacultural aspects of the linguistic personality of a court speaker, reflecting the specifics of the legal culture. The linguistic personality phenomenon makes it possible to observe the formation of the social status of an individual and reflects the culture from the legal point of view. The article highlights the main features distinguishing the linguistic personality of a court speaker. The selection of linguistic means and translation of authentic extracts of the speech of Atticus Finch, a lawyer, from the work of Nell Harper Lee "To Kill a Mockingbird" is implemented.*

Keywords: *personality, language personality, lawyer, legal culture, court speaker, communicative tactics*

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The relevance of the research topic is caused not only by the importance of developing oratorical skills required for the proper development of the character of a court speaker, but also by the lack of research on this subject in the context of contemporary legal culture.

Introduction

The study of the linguistic personality of a courtroom speaker seems particularly necessary in the context of the integration of linguistic cultures, which is a natural development in the modern world.

The purpose of the study is to identify the most important linguacultural aspects required by a court speaker, and to consider the possibility of their application in the professionally oriented activities of a lawyer.

The set purpose requires the study of the conceptual apparatus and comprehension of the key aspects of this concept, taking into account the linguacultural component.

Degree of research of the subject.

The definition of linguistic personality at the current stage of development of society attracts the attention of native linguists. These include: B. B. Vinogradov, L. P. Krysin and others.

The analysis of the existing theoretical source base allowed us to identify the main priorities. In addition to the existing ones, the following should be highlighted: 1) cognitive (A.M. Shakhnarovich); 2) pragmatic (Y.S. Stepanov); 3) communicative-active (S.A. Sukhikh); 4) national (V.V. Vorobyov). In particular, it can be noted that in the context of globalization and integration of communities, the linguistic and cultural focus acquires special importance. This direction interprets the studied concept from the position of the national context, as a component of the national culture. This position results in the possibility of considering the linguistic personality on a global scale.

The commitment to the study of linguistic personality in this direction is explained by the interest in a linguacultural understanding of this phenomenon. Starting from such a position, it seems appropriate to illustrate visually the most important aspects of the understanding. This fact determines the choice of research material on linguacultural aspects and the logic of the article: clarification of the conceptual apparatus, including such concepts as “linguistic personality” and “court orator”, determination of the main relevant methodological approaches to the content of the studied concepts “linguistic personality”; illustration of the key linguacultural concepts of the court orator through English-language defense speeches [1].

In accordance with the set purpose, it seems important to trace the genesis of the linguistic personality.

On the basis of the materials studied, it becomes clear that linguistic personality is a fundamental phenomenon of philology that needs to be illustrated by examples [2]. Such a work can vary taking into account various criteria. In the framework of this work, speech personality is considered as a systematizing determination that allows to assess the social status of a person in the sphere of legal cultural activity [3]. The most logical definition seems to be that of J.N. Karaulov, in which the ability to create a linguistic work is taken as a basis [4]. Concretizing what has been said, it seems important to consider the speech of a court orator in the linguacultural understanding, which includes the following sequence: the choice of speech acts of the rhetorician; the formation of personality [5]. This consideration makes it necessary to illustrate the linguacultural aspects through the prism of the lawyer's communicative tactics on the example of Atticus Finch's speech (Table 1).

Table 1

Communication tactics of a lawyer in the context of legal culture

Communicative tactics	An example from a speech of a lawyer
Appealing to authorities	So, gentlemen, in this country our courts are the great equalizers.
Degrading enemy; racial disparagement	And what did she do? She seduced a Negro. She was white and she seduced a Negro. She did something that in our society defies description: She kissed a black man.
Persuading the audience	Now there is circumstantial evidence that Mayella Ewell was brutally beaten by a man who led almost exclusively with his left hand. And Tom Robinson now sits before you, taking the "Oath" with the only good hand he possesses, the right hand.
Identifying oneself with the nation	The State has presented not one iota of medical evidence that the crime of which Tom Robinson is accused ever occurred. Instead, it relies on the testimony of two witnesses whose testimony was not only seriously questioned on cross-examination, but was categorically denied by the defendant.
Addressing tradition, appealing to duty and honor	In God's name, do your duty.

Having traced the logic of the narrative, it should be noted that the identified communicative tactics, should be applied in the legal sphere to carry out professional legal activity in accordance with the communicative intent.

The results of the study:

1) the main linguacultural aspects of the judicial speaker have been identified;

2) the possibility of application of communicative tactics in professional legal activity has been considered;

3) parts of lawyer's speech on the example of Atticus Finch have been considered.

Conclusion

Proceeding from all of the above, it should be concluded that the use of communicative tactics is an integral part of a lawyer's activity, regardless of his own style of communicative behavior.

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SECTION 5. PHILOLOGY

UDC 80

Kotova A.A. Topical issues of determinants

Актуальные вопросы детерминантов

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Abstract. *The article discusses the history of the origin of the term "determinant", various approaches to the definition of this concept. In addition, the features of the functioning of determinant word forms in a sentence and their distinguishing features from other minor terms are considered.*

Keywords: *determinant, non-verbal connection, syntax, compatibility, semantics.*

Аннотация. *В статье рассматривается история возникновения термина «детерминант», **различное содержание** данного понятия. Кроме того, рассматриваются особенности функционирования детерминантных словоформ в предложении и их отличительные признаки от других второстепенных членов.*

Ключевые слова: *детерминант, неприслованая связь, синтаксис, сочетаемость, семантика.*

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В.В.Виноградов отмечал «такие второстепенные члены предложения, как обстоятельства времени, причины, цели, уступки и условия могут непосредственно относиться ко всей остальной части предложения в целом, следовательно, не связываются непосредственно ни с группой подлежащего, ни с группой сказуемого» [2, 26].

Это утверждение Виноградова коррелирует с на учении А.М. Пешковского о слабом и сильном управлении. [3, 285]. К Сильному управлению Пешковский относит рассматривает как зависимость между глаголом и существительным, при этом есть необходимая внутренняя связь. Слабое **управление, п**о мнению ученого, подразумевает «простое сопровождение действия или состояния одного субъекта таким же действием или состоянием другого» [3, 286], то есть сильная внутренняя связь между существительным и глаголом отсутствует. Пешковский считает, что такая связь может относ**иться** к любому действию вообще и значит является слабой. Кроме того, автор выделяет особенности слабоуправляемых второстепенных членов предложения: определить к какому слову они относятся помогает порядок слов в предложении, легко отрываются от других слов, могут быть обособленными членами предложения, часто слабоуправляемые словоформы связаны не с отдельным словом, а со словосочетанием.

На основе положений утверждений Пешковского Виноградов начинает изучение свободных словоформ как членов предложения, которые относятся ко всему предложению, эти

идеи были развиты такими учеными, как Н.Ю.Шведова, Г.А.Золотова, В.А.Белошапкова, П.А.Лекант, В.В.Бабайцева, В.П.Малащенко и др.

Термин «детерминант» как один из распространителей предложения был введен в научный обиход Н.Ю Шведовой, впервые упоминается **ею** в статье «Детерминирующий объект и детерминирующее обстоятельство как самостоятельные распространители предложения»,

она дает следующее определение: «падежную форму или предложно-падежное сочетание, обозначающее лицо или предмет, связанные с предикативной основой предложения отношением направленности, значением отнесенности» [Шведова].

Шведова с помощью учения о детерминантах пытается ограничить словоформы, распространяющие только конкретное слово, в частности глагол от словоформ, выступающих распространителем всего предложения.

Шведова выделяла следующие признаки детерминантов:

1. Неприсловная позиция детерминанта – он относится ко всему предикативному ядру, распространяя все предложение в целом. Рассмотрим на примерах: **к утру** его было не узнать. Словоформа «к утру» распространяет не слово и не входит в состав словосочетания. А местоимение «его» в этом предложении распространяет переходный глагол «узнать». **В коллективе** его не ценят. Словоформа «в коллективе» относится тоже ко всему предложению в целом.
2. Определенная синтаксическая позиция – в начале предложения (можем наблюдать на примерах, приведённых ранее), кроме того, коммуникативная функция детерминанта – тема, что тоже определяет его синтаксическую позицию, но стоит отметить, что не всякая словоформа в начале предложения будет являться детерминантом, эту же позицию может занимать распространитель присловный. К контрольной она не готовилась. Словоформа «к контрольной» является присловным распространителем глагола.
3. Последний признак детерминанта – его способность сочетаться с различными структурными схемами. Особенно хорошо это видно на детерминантах с обстоятельственной семантикой: В зале тихо. В зале тишина. В зале не смолкает звук аплодисментов. Одинаковый детерминант может функционировать в безличном, номинативном и двусоставном предложении. Это доказывает, что детерминант относительно самостоятельный распространитель предложения и нет связи с определенным словом.[Шведова год стр]

В 1973 году Шведова дорабатывает учение о детерминантах и выделяет два типа детерминантов: обстоятельственные детерминанты с различной семантикой (времени, места, причины, цели и т.д.) и необстоятельственные детерминанты (субъектные и объектные), Шведова уточняет, что на семантическом уров**не** обстоятельственные и необстоятельственные детерминанты нельзя вычленить из предложения, но на

формальном и грамматическом уровни такие распространители в состав предложения не входят.

В.П.Малащенко в своей работе «Свободное присоединение предложно-падежных форм в современном русском литературном языке» вводит новый термин для описываемого Шведовой явления. Термин «детерминант» он заменяет понятием «свободно присоединяемые предложно-падежные формы», которое подчеркивает на зависимое положение именной словоформы и на её отнесенность к какому-либо элементу текста или «самостоятельные распространители», что подчеркивает независимость члена предложения от семантики окружающих слов. [5, 24]

Малащенко уточняет, что следует различать самостоятельные распространители, факультативные и обязательные распространители. Обязательные распространители должны восполнять семантическую сочетаемость слова, к которому относятся, а вот факультативные распространители могут быть семантически предсказуемы для конкретного слова, но не восполняют его семантическую недостаточность и необязательно выражены в предложении. А вот самостоятельные распространители не имеют связи с отдельным конкретным словом в предложении, их употребление задает коммуникативная ситуация и они автономны по семантике. «Свободно присоединяемые предложно-падежные формы» могут быть без труда удалены из предложения без потери смысла, при этом слова в предложении не могут указывать на обязательность их употребления, «не имплицирует опущенную форму как это бывает при изъятии факультативной управляемой формы имени».

Условия для сочетаемости свободно присоединяемой предложно-падежной формы определяется семантикой этой формы и семантикой грамматической основы предложения, особенно характером действия глагола, если же предложение неглагольное, то употребление свободной словоформы определяется лексическим наполнением самого предложения.

Из учения В. П. Малащенко можно сделать вывод, что детерминанты могут относится не только ко всему предложению, но и только к грамматической основе.

Рассмотрим **предложение: «При** умирающих огнях, В неверной темноте тумана, безмолвно два стояли ста**кана** На помраченных высотах (А. Пушкин)

Глагол «стояли», лексическом значении которого заложено «положение в пространстве» обуславливает наличие словоформы «на высотах», но этот же глагол не требует наличие словоформ со значением времени или условия «при огнях» и «в темноте», именно эти словоформы нельзя объяснить какими-либо лексемами в этом предложении. Данные словоформы не являются компонентом словосочетания и не находятся в подчинительной связи с определенной лексемой. По учению Шведовой словоформы «при огнях» и «в темноте» относятся ко всему предложению и называются детерминантами, а по

учению Малащенко относятся к грамматической основе этого предложения и являются с свободно присоединяемыми предложно-падежными формами.

В связи с процессом конструирования в русском языке новых типов словосочетаний образовываются новые субстантивные словосочетания на основе срастания детерминанта с существительным, входящим в состав предложения – подлежащим или дополнением.

Рассмотрим подобные связи на конкретных примерах. В предложении: «На постоянную работу требуются мерчандайзеры» группа слов «на постоянную работу» является детерминантом по отношению к целому предложению. В силу семантических процессов (определительные отношения между детерминантом и подлежащим), которые поддерживаются положением детерминанта в конце предложения, тогда происходит переразложение связей, в результате которого детерминант будет определителем к имени существительному: мерчандайзеры на постоянную работу».

Переразложение связей и появление новых именных словосочетаний на основе срастания существительного с детерминантом – характерный процесс для современного синтаксиса.

Словосочетания, которые возникают на базе срастания детерминанта с существительным вступают в отношения функционально-смысловой относительности с существующими конструкциями, новые связи являются основой для процессов смысловых, стилистических и функциональных расхождений.

Рассмотрим подобные связи: проблемы незначительные для взрослых – проблемы незначительные на масштаб взрослых.

Переразложение связей и образование новых словосочетаний -активное явление языка, такие конструкции обогащают строй словосочетаний и усложняют систему рядов.

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