METHODOLOGICAL AND CROSS-CULTURAL ASPECTS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE ACQUISITION BY REFERENCE TO RUSSIAN AND BRITISH TEXTBOOKS

Alexey Artyomov

N. A. Dollezhal Research and Development Institute of Power Engineering (NIKIET)
2/8, ul. Malaya Krasnoselskaya, Moscow, 107140, Russia

Abstract. This paper examines the methodological and cross-cultural aspects implemented in the British textbooks of Russian, Colloquial Russian: the Complete Course for Beginners and Colloquial Russian 2: the Next Step in Language Learning, and in the two volumes of the Russian textbook of English, Angliiskiy Shag za Shagom (English Step by Step). The article presents their structure, advantages and disadvantages. By way of conclusion, the author gives some considerations concerning the development of high-quality textbooks of foreign languages, and demonstrates a personally designed sample lesson.

Keywords: language learning, methodology, textbooks of Russian, textbooks of English, materials development, cross-cultural aspects


At present, everyone who wants to learn foreign languages makes an effort to find the most effective methodological approach. The choice of one method or another can be rather difficult because there are a great variety of them, and each of them pursues its own goals. Therefore, there is no need to strictly adhere to one specific methodology when learning foreign languages, as for the purposes of developing speech abilities in four basic language skills we need to use all possible methods and approaches adapting them to a particular study situation.

In the area of foreign language education, the main methodological approaches are the grammar-translation, direct, audio-lingual, and communicative ones. All methods include obvious or hidden decisions concerning the choice of language elements (words, models of sentences, etc.) that will be used in the course. We can refer to the following main parameters according to which it is possible to classify groups of methods [2, p. 148]:

1. The aim of learning a foreign language (understanding literature and translating texts and/or language in general – paying maximum attention to the practice of speech).
2. The central concept (the system of rules, live speech, a communicative situation).
3. The leading language skill (reading, speaking, listening, writing).
4. The explanation of grammar. There are two opposite methodological approaches: the inductive one (the teacher first gives a set of examples of how a rule is used, and only later explains it) and the deductive one (the explanation of the rules first, exercises to practice them later).
5. The presence or exclusion of the mother tongue when learning a foreign language. The exclusion of the mother tongue assumes that the target language has to be the only means of communication. However, the presence of the native language can be useful when studying new words and explaining difficult concepts and grammatical rules.
6. The introduction of lexical and grammatical phenomena, which can be organized by parts of speech, by frequency or by the level of complexity (from elementary to advanced).
7. Language material: there is an enormous variety of language material, from fiction and to specifically constructed training dialogues.
8. The character of training (conscious or unconscious).
9. The manner of learning (memorization, repetition, imitation, play).
10. The place of cultural information: how the culture of native speakers of the target language is represented (in literature, patterns of speech and/or dialogues).

The changes in methods of teaching throughout history reflect the changes in students’ foreign language learning goals, which demonstrate a trend towards prioritizing spoken proficiency. Today, a constantly growing global interaction requires students learning foreign languages to have not only linguistic knowledge but also cross-cultural competence. Language and cultural mistakes can be easily avoided if we put emphasis not only on the knowledge of grammar and vocabulary in the textbook but also on the understanding of other people’s cultures. As Svetlana Ter-Minasova notes, “the main answer to the question of solving the burning problem of teaching foreign languages as a means of communication between representatives of different nations and cultures lies in the fact that languages should be studied in an inseparable unity with the world and the culture of the nations speaking these languages” [6, p. 28].

The success of any activity, including cross-cultural communication, is directly related to the amount and quality of the background knowledge that the person has when carrying out this activity. As regards mastering skills of communication with representatives of other cultures, four contexts of background knowledge can be singled out: the linguistic, psychological, cultural and geopolitical ones. They are closely connected with one another: language phenomena reflect psychological features, which in turn result from cultural traditions. The body of knowledge regarding basic categories of the four said disciplines gives the chance to place the process of teaching foreign languages in a wide information context and make it more comprehensive and aimed at the achievement of the macro-purpose: the ability to reach most effectively the goals set in the course of cross-cultural communication [3].

These educational goals require adequate learning materials. Proper textbooks can help students imitate the conditions of real-life communication, which is more than just the process of giving people information – it also demands that information should be rich in content and the exchange of it should be purposeful. However, most teaching materials do not entirely take into account these two important propositions, and, as a consequence, turn out to be not comprehensive to help students in developing their communicative competence.

This study is an attempt at applying the said concepts to a comparative analysis of the methodological and cross-cultural aspects implemented in the British textbook of Russian, *Colloquial Russian*, by Svetlana le Fleming & Susan Kay [5], [4], and in the Russian textbook of English, *Angliiskiy Shag za Shagom (English Step by Step)*, by Natalia Bonk, Izadora Levina & Irina Bonk [1].

*Colloquial Russian* is a course of Russian in two volumes (*The Complete Course for Beginners* and *The Next Step in Language Learning*) of the British publishing house, Routledge, intended for studying on your own or with the teacher’s help. Using the methodological parameters mentioned above one can make the following observations:

1. The aim of learning in the first volume is free self-expression in Russian both in the spoken and the written form.
2. The central concept is a communicative situation. Students are supposed to communicate in Russian as if they were in real situations that they can face in Russia, from asking for and giving directions and ordering food to writing letters and discussing business opportunities.

3. The leading language skills are reading and speaking. This places primary emphasis on vocabulary improvement, study of grammar rules and practice of casual conversation.

4. The explanation of grammar is deductive (from rules to examples of use to exercises).

5. The mother tongue of the readers (English) is used as an intermediary. English words and expressions are given equivalents in Russian.

6. The introduction of lexical and grammatical phenomena is arranged in accordance with speech intentions.

7. Language material is varied, from trite phrases to fully-featured texts.

8. The course is intended for conscious training (students are supposed to understand grammar rules).

9. The manner of learning is drama. Students play some roles related to real life situations.

10. Cultural information is provided in speech patterns.

The essential feature of the second volume compared to the first one is that its aim is to drill the educational material gained from the first volume and to improve the understanding of the Russian grammar and vocabulary. The manner of learning is repetition. Students need to learn word lists in Russian and their equivalents in English, as well as grammar rules.

To summarize, one can say that this textbook is aimed at the progressive development of the four speech skills and is written in British English. One of its features is that there is no translation to any texts or dialogues (this problem is apparent throughout the whole course). However, there are glossaries to texts and an English-Russian vocabulary for clarity. While the authors claim beginners can use it, in fact it implies an intermediate level of language proficiency.

Angliiskiy Shag za Shagom (English Step by Step) is a course of English in two volumes of the Russian publishing house, Rosman, intended for self-study or for groups with a teacher. Using the same methodological parameters, one arrives at the following observations:

1. The aim of learning in the first volume is to read literature in English.

2. The central concept is the system of rules.

3. The leading language skills are reading and speaking (hence the emphasis on vocabulary building, pronunciation and grammatical structures).

4. The explanation of grammar is deductive.

5. The mother tongue of the students (Russian) is used for explanation and translation.

6. The introduction of lexical and grammatical features is arranged by level of complexity (from elementary to advanced).

7. Language material is highly varied.

8. The character of training is conscious (knowledge of the grammar system).

9. The manner of learning is repetition and imitation. Students learn phrases by means of mimicry.

10. Cultural information is presented in patterns of speech.

The main feature of the second volume differentiating it from the first one is that its aim is the consolidation of previously learnt material, the expansion of vocabulary and a deeper understanding of the traditional English grammar. Lexical and grammatical phenomena are introduced according to their frequency. The manner of learning is repetition and memorization.

By way of conclusion, one can note that this course is aimed at the progressive development of the four speech skills. It includes separately published answers to exercises and a collection of additional texts with exercises that have no answers. There is no explanation of the articulation of sounds. As stated in the introduction, it has to be explained by someone who knows it (a teacher). The study of letters and sounds is timed over the two-year course. This means that in order to read a page of any book in English correctly, the student will need the knowledge that will be gained in the two-year period. In contrast to the authors' statements, the presentation of language material requires from students a higher level than the elementary one, which can discourage beginners and lead to the loss of interest in studying English.
From the comparative analysis of the British and Russian textbooks in question, it may be concluded that both courses contain certain background cultural information: some real phenomena of the native speakers' life. In *Colloquial Russian*, it is introduced through the history of the Soviet Union, and in *Angliiskiy Shag za Shagom*, through dialogues and literary texts. There is also a similarity in methodological approaches: both courses use elements of the grammar-translation, audiolingual and communicative methods. In other words, one could qualify these textbooks as comprehensive ones since their final goal is to form and improve language abilities in the four speech skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing.

On the basis of this analysis, one can conclude that a comprehensive textbook of a foreign language should include information on pronunciation (sounds, accents, rhythm, intonation), vocabulary (translation, idiomatic expressions, phraseological units, pictures, context), grammar (explanation of rules with enough examples in context and a set of exercises: multiple choice, compliance, writing sentences, filling the gaps, translation tasks), and culture (literary texts, dialogues, audio podcasts, cultural comments).

As an example, below are included some fragments of a lesson of English that was designed in the light of the above elements.

Each lesson has to begin with a clear explanation of its content, illustrating it whenever possible. Next come the elements that are peculiar to this subject. In the present case, these are adverbs of time and place (Fig. 1). After this, we should provide a piece of useful information on adverbs and show the difference between them if we have synonyms.

It should be noted that there is no point in giving all information on forming affirmative, negative and interrogative sentences at the same time as is done in many textbooks. The best plan is to give some relevant information that can come in useful, for example, prepositions, phrasal verbs, etc., gradually passing on to negative and interrogative sentences.

It is good practice to give some notes. In the present sample, it is information on the pronunciation of adverbs.

Exercises (in context) have to be organized so as to arouse interest and make students think when giving the answer. It is also essential that verbs should be given with their possible structures and idiomatic expressions (Fig. 2).

Exercises of considerable degree of complexity must have the vocabulary with the synonyms and antonyms highlighted in different colours with a short explanation or translation (Fig. 3).

For the best retention and clarity of information, it is desirable to use illustrations (Fig. 4).

It is important that all examples, notes, and comments should be translated into the language of the student (Fig. 5).

After any complicated subject, it is necessary to review it briefly (Fig. 6).

On the basic level, we should give simple but interesting texts with cultural comments and subsequent exercises to test the understanding of the text (Fig. 7).

Reading, writing, listening, speaking and, in recent years, watching and translation are integral parts of learning (Fig. 8 & 9).

In conclusion, it may be said that the design of the textbook is essential because it must draw students' attention, be bright and colourful. In other words, students should feel they are entering a new world (much like with an absorbing plot in fiction). Thus, the final design of the lesson for language teachers is performed in the traditional form, and yet there is a wide variety of colours not only to produce a strong impression but also to draw attention to important information (Fig. 10, 11 & 12).
The Present Simple

In the Present Simple the verb form for all personal pronouns, except the third person singular, is precisely the same as the bare infinitive.

I go
you go
he/she/it goes
we go
they go

We use adverbs of indefinite frequency to say how often we do something:

never /ˈnɛvə/  hardly ever /ˈhɑːlɪ ˈevə/  rarely /ˈrɛli/  sometimes /ˈsʌmtaɪmz/  usually /ˈjuːʒuəli/  often /ˈɒfn/  always /ˈɔːlweɪz/

Grammar: we put these adverbs BEFORE the main verb, but after the auxiliary and modal one:

We usually use public transport.
Kate is often late for work.

Note:

rarely
not (very) often (in everyday speech instead of rarely)
seldom (in carefully written speech)

Grammar: adverbs of manner (how something happens), place (where something happens), time (when something happens), and definite frequency (daily, weekly, monthly, every year) usually go in end position, but front position is possible if you want to give them special emphasis.

Every morning, I start work at 8.30.
Here he comes!

Third Person Singular Verb Conjugation

Figure 1. At the beginning
1.8 Use the affirmative form of the verbs in brackets.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mon</th>
<th>Tue</th>
<th>Thu</th>
<th>Wed</th>
<th>Fri</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>09.00-10.00</td>
<td>Chemistry</td>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>German</td>
<td>08.00-08.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.00-11.00</td>
<td>Music</td>
<td>Maths</td>
<td>Literature</td>
<td>08.55-09.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.30-12.30</td>
<td>Maths</td>
<td>PE</td>
<td>Physics</td>
<td>09.50-10.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.30-13.30</td>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>PE</td>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>11.15-12.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.00-16.00</td>
<td>Literature</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Maths</td>
<td>12.10-13.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.00-17.00</td>
<td>Art</td>
<td>German</td>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>13.05-14.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: maths /mæθs/ (abbr. mathematics), PE /ˌpiːˈiː/ (abbr. physical education).

Example: Evelyn goes to school every day.

1. Evelyn (go) to school five days a week.
2. On Mondays the classes (start) at 09.00.
3. On Fridays Evelyn (finish) school at 14.00.
4. Evelyn (have) a maths class every day of the week.
5. At Evelyn's school the pupils (study) Russian.

Go: Uses and Expressions

Go /gəʊ/ usually expresses a movement away from the position the speaker is in now.

When you leave a place in order to do an activity, you often express it either with go + -ing noun or go (out) + for a + noun:

We want to go shopping.
She wants to go swimming.

When you want to say / ask if a road or form of transport takes you somewhere:

Does this bus go to (take me to) the National Gallery?
I don’t think this road goes to (leads to) the station.

Idioms:

at one go (BrE) in one attempt
He can swallow it at one go.

be on the go (infml) very busy or active
He’s on the go all day.

Figure 2. Exercises and expressions
Affirmative Intonation

Affirmative statements have a falling intonation. The voice falls on the last stressed syllable of a group of words.

The weather is warm today. Ice cream is cold and delicious.

Function words are words that have grammatical meaning, such as prepositions, articles, pronouns, and conjunctions. These are words that show the relationship between other words and don’t have much meaning in themselves.

Content words, on the other hand, are words that have lexical meaning, not grammatical meaning, such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and question words. These words have meaning in themselves; they refer to objects, actions, or ideas in the real world.

1.9 Use the negative form of the verbs in brackets.

Romeo and Juliet

Two families, the Montagues and Capulets, live in Verona, Italy, but they 1 (get on) don’t get on with each other. Romeo, son of Montague, thinks he is in love with Rosaline, but unfortunately she 2 (love) him. He goes to see her at a party at the house of his enemy Capulet, but there he sees Juliet, Capulet’s daughter. She 3 (know) his name because he has a mask.

Tybalt, one of the Capulet family, tries to fight with Romeo, but Capulet 4 (allow) this. However, Tybalt 5 (agree) with him, and 6 (forgive) Romeo for coming to the house. Romeo manages to talk to Juliet, and he kisses her. They 7 (understand) that their families are enemies. When Romeo learns the truth, he 8 (care) that his love for Juliet could be very dangerous. Later he goes back to the house and stands in the garden. Juliet is standing on the balcony talking to herself about Romeo, but 9 (see) him below in the garden. After he talks to her, they soon show their love for each other, and agree to get married. However, they 10 (realize) that a terrible tragedy is about to happen.

Vocabulary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Syn./Ant.:</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>be about to do sth</td>
<td>be going</td>
<td>to intend to do sth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>be in love with sb daughter</td>
<td>fall in love with</td>
<td>to start to love someone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enemy family</td>
<td>son</td>
<td>someone’s female child</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get on with sb</td>
<td>friend</td>
<td>someone who hates you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get to see sb</td>
<td>get along with</td>
<td>a group of people who are related to each other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>live in sth</td>
<td>call on</td>
<td>to have a friendly relationship with sb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>manage to do sth</td>
<td></td>
<td>to visit someone for a short time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get married</td>
<td>tie the knot</td>
<td>to have your home somewhere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verona</td>
<td></td>
<td>to succeed in sth, especially sth difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>very dangerous</td>
<td></td>
<td>to begin a legal relationship with someone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>the name of a city in northern Italy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>likely to cause sth bad to happen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Daily Routine

1. get up  
2. take a shower  
3. brush my* teeth  
4. shave  
5. get dressed  
6. wash my* face  
7. put on makeup  
8. brush my* hair  
9. comb my* hair  
10. make the bed  
11. get undressed  
12. take a bath  
13. go to bed  
14. sleep  
15. make breakfast  
16. make lunch  
17. make dinner  
18. have breakfast  
19. have lunch  
20. have dinner

* my, his, her, our, your, their

1.11 What do you do every day? Make a list.
1.12 Interview some friends and tell about their everyday activities.

Figure 4. Clarity of information
### Prepositions of Time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prepositions</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>At</strong> before</td>
<td>exact times: The meeting is <strong>at</strong> five o’clock. I don’t like talking <strong>at</strong> breakfast. special holiday periods: I like it when it snows <strong>at</strong> Christmas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>On</strong> before</td>
<td>days of the week: We go shopping <strong>on</strong> Tuesday. My birthday’s <strong>on</strong> the 7-th of November.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>In</strong> before</td>
<td>day-parts: We have dinner <strong>in</strong> the afternoon.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Of</strong> before</td>
<td>months: His birthday is <strong>in</strong> May.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>For</strong> before</td>
<td>seasons: Berlin is a cold place <strong>in</strong> winter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>At</strong> before</td>
<td>years: The Normans invaded Britain <strong>in</strong> 1066.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>After</strong> before</td>
<td>centuries: Newton was born <strong>in</strong> the 17th century.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Exceptions:** at/by night, by day.

**Note:**

To emphasize the whole day, you can say the whole day long, the whole day through, all day long.

She can sit out here the whole day long.

In is also used to show how long something takes to happen or after which length of time something will happen.

I'll see you in a week.

He can run 100 meters in under 10 seconds.

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1 The text in this page is supposed to be in the mother tongue of the students. Here it is given in English for clarity.
Review

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affirmative</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I work</td>
<td>I do not work</td>
<td>Do I work?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you work</td>
<td>you do not work</td>
<td>Do you work?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he/she/it works</td>
<td>he/she/it does not work</td>
<td>Does he/she/it work?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we work</td>
<td>we do not work</td>
<td>Do we work?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they work</td>
<td>they do not work</td>
<td>Do they work?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.3 Add -s or -es to the verbs in the sentences if it is necessary.

1. I watch____ TV every day.  
2. She goes____ to work by car.  
3. The film finishes____ at ten o’clock.  
4. We play____ tennis every weekend.  
5. They go____ on holiday in August.  
6. He speaks____ Italian and French.  
7. She does____ her homework every night.  
8. We start____ work at half past eight.

1.14 Write sentences about Mark.

+ — like      ++ — love      - — not like      -- — hate

Example: (tennis -) He doesn’t like tennis.

1. (coffee +) ________________________________
2. (films -) ________________________________
3. (his job +) ______________________________
4. (fish --) ________________________________
5. (holidays ++) _____________________________
6. (soccer -) ______________________________

1.15 Write the questions, using the ideas from the box.


1. __________________________ Yes, I speak French.
2. __________________________ Yes, he listens to the radio in the morning.
3. __________________________ No, but he loves cats.
4. __________________________ No, I prefer classical music.
5. __________________________ Yes, he plays the piano.
6. __________________________ Yes, I read one book every week.
7. __________________________ Yes, he has two cups in the morning.
8. __________________________ Yes, I love musicals.
9. __________________________ No, I don’t like films.

Figure 6. Practice makes perfect
Food

In the week, I have breakfast at 7.30 a.m., lunch (a meal that you eat in the middle of the day) at 1.00 p.m., and dinner (the main meal of the day, usually eaten in the evening) around 7 p.m. I also have one or two snacks (small amounts of food), e.g. cakes, biscuits or fruit, during the day at work. As I live alone / on my own / by myself (without any other people), I also have to make my own breakfast and dinner, but during the week I don’t bother (make an effort) to cook very much. I also have to feed (give food to) my two cats twice a day as well.

Note: with breakfast, lunch or dinner in general, there is no definite article (the).

Culturological Comments

The traditional full English breakfast served in many British hotels may include fruit juice, cereal, bacon and eggs, often with sausages and tomatoes, toast and marmalade, and tea or coffee.

The traditional American breakfast includes eggs, some kind of meat and toast. Eggs may be fried, ‘over easy’, ‘over hard’ or ‘sunny side up’, or boiled, poached or in an omelette. The meat may be bacon or sausage. People who do not have time for a large meal have toast or cereal and coffee. It is common for Americans to eat breakfast in a restaurant. On Saturday and Sunday, many people eat brunch late in the morning. This consists of both breakfast and lunch dishes, including pancakes and waffles that are eaten with butter and maple syrup.

Lunch is the main meal of the day for some British people, though people out at work may have only sandwiches. Most workers are allowed about an hour off work for it, called the lunch hour, and many also go shopping. Many schools offer a cooked lunch (school lunch or school dinner), though some students take a packed lunch of sandwiches, fruit, etc.

Sunday lunch is special and is, for many families, the biggest meal of the week, consisting traditionally of roast meat and vegetables and a sweet course. In the US, lunch is usually a quick meal, eaten around midday. Many workers have a half-hour break for lunch, and buy a sandwich from near their place of work. Business people may sometimes eat a larger lunch and use the time to discuss business.

The main meal of the day for most people is the evening meal, called supper, tea or dinner. It is usually a cooked meal with meat or fish or a salad, followed by a sweet course. In Britain, younger children may have tea when they get home from school. Tea, meaning a main meal for adults, is the word used in some parts of Britain especially when the evening meal is eaten early. Dinner sounds more formal than supper, and guests generally receive invitations to ‘dinner’ rather than to ‘supper’. In the US the evening meal is called dinner and is usually eaten around 6 or 6.30 p.m. In many families, both in Britain and in the US, family members eat at different times and rarely sit down at the table together. Many people also eat snacks between meals. Most have tea or coffee at mid-morning, often called coffee time or the coffee break. In Britain in the past, this was sometimes also called eleventhes. In the afternoon, many British people have a tea break.

Housework

I do the shopping (buy the food) on Saturday.

Fortunately (luckily), I have a cleaner (a person who cleans) and she does most of the housework: she does my washing (washes the clothes), the washing-up (washes the dishes) and does most of the ironing (make clothes smooth with an iron).
1.17 Find two things which belong to each person.

As the week ends I like playing tennis. When it's raining I like listening to pop music.

I like reading in my bedroom. I also like playing the clarinet and I play in the school orchestra.

I like skiing but my favourite hobby is playing computer games.

My favourite hobby is painting and I like rollerblading too.

1.18 There are four things which don’t belong to anyone. What are they?

Reading

Every Weekend is Important to the Garcia Family

Every weekend is important to the Garcia family. During the week they don’t have very much time together, but they spend a lot of time together on the weekend.

Mr. Garcia works at the post office during the week, but he doesn’t work there on the weekend. Mrs. Garcia works at the bank during the week, but she

Figure 8. Basic language skills
doesn’t work there on the weekend. Jennifer and Jonathan Garcia go to school during the week, but they don’t go to school on the weekend. And the Garcias’ dog, Max, stays home alone during the week, but he doesn’t stay home alone on the weekend.

On Saturday and Sunday the Garcias spend time together. On Saturday morning they clean the house together. On Saturday afternoon they work in the garden together. And on Saturday evening they watch videos together. On Sunday morning they go to church together. On Sunday afternoon they have a big dinner together. And on Sunday evening they play their musical instruments together.

1.19 What’s the Answer?

Model: What do the Garcias do on Saturday morning?
They clean the house together.

1. Does Mr. Garcia work at the post office?
2. Do Jennifer and Jonathan go to school during the week?
3. Does Mrs. Garcia work at the post office?
4. Do Mr. and Mrs. Garcia have much time together during the week?
5. Does Jennifer watch videos on Saturday evening?
6. Do Jennifer and her brother clean the house on Saturday morning?
7. Does Mr. Garcia work in the garden on Saturday evening?

Watching

1.20 Watch the video. Circle T for true or F for false.

1. The monkey festival is on the last Sunday in November. T F
2. The monkeys dance. T F
3. The people give the monkeys lots of food. T F
4. The monkeys cut the electric and telephone cables. T F

1.21 Watch the video again and answer the questions.
1. In which country is Lopburi?
2. What do the people do for the monkey festival?
3. What is the first goal of the festival?
4. What is the second goal of the festival?

Figure 9. Basic language skills (continued)
1. WORD ORDER

В английском предложении, в отличие от русского, прямой порядок слов:

SUBJECT  PREDICATE  OBJECT  MANNER  PLACE  TIME

INDIRECT  DIRECT

DIRECT Обозначает того, кому предназначено действие или на кого оно направлено. Ставится между сказуемым и прямым дополнением.

INDIRECT Обозначает то лицо (или предмет), которое подвергается действию. В русском языке относится к переходному глаголу и стоит в винительном падеже без предлога.

1.1 PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Местоимения заменяют собой существительные и предикативы, приобретая четное значение только в контексте. Личные и притяжательные местоимения употребляются не выделяются.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>OBJECT</th>
<th>ADJECTIVE</th>
<th>PRONOUN</th>
<th>REFLEXIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>me</td>
<td>my name</td>
<td>mine</td>
<td>myself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he, she, it</td>
<td>him, her, it</td>
<td>his, her, its name</td>
<td>his, hers, its</td>
<td>himself, herself, itself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>our names</td>
<td>ours</td>
<td>ourselves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>them</td>
<td>their names</td>
<td>theirs</td>
<td>themselves</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Grammar: местоимение 1-го лица выступает в качестве буквы и стоит под ударением, только если она соединяется с союзом с ударным членом предложения, например, Mark and I.

Note: так и вы передается одним местоимением you, которое даже при вежливом обращении пишется со строчной буквы. Отношение к собеседнику передается интонацией, выбором соответствующих слов и конструкций.

Grammar: употребляется в отношении неисключенных предметов, кроме кораблей, так как Английское, наши мореплаватели, купившие на острове, жизнь которой без корабля невозможна, абстрактных понятий и животных (если не домашние лошади), а также детей до 3-х лет. В сложных словах he- имеет значение самец, she- самка, например, he-dog (кобель).

Culture: необходимо помнить, что местоимения он или она не следует использовать в присутствии лица, о котором ведет речь. В данной ситуации нужно воспользоваться именем собственным этого человека.

В русском языке есть местоимение свой (свой, свой), которое может относится ко всем лицам. В английском языке аналогичного местоимения нет, поэтому слова "свой, свой, свой" переводятся на английский язык соответствующим притяжательным местоимениями. Они являются обязательными при существительных, обозначающих части тела, предметы одежды и родственников.

Note: для усиления смысла после притяжательных местоимений может употребляться own in значения собственной, родной. Например, my own brother.

Grammar: mine, yours, his, hers, ours и theirs употребляется вместо сочетания one's + существительное, которое, как правило, в предложении уже было упомянуто, например, my apple and yours. Иными словами, во избежание повтора.

Note: возвратное местоимение -self-selves (ед. число/мн. число) указывает на того (то), кто (что) является объектом своего собственного действия или подвергается, что действительное существительное, ставится после подлежащего либо в конце с предлогом "by" в значении сам, без восторженной помощи, например, I myself ran (all by myself), что придает высказыванию большую выразительность.

Pronunciation: если личные и притяжательные местоимения 3-го л. начинаются с буквы "h", стоит в середине или конце предложения, то звук "h" не произносится. Гласный в данных местоимениях краткий.

he → /h/ ~he ~
him → /hm/ ~him ~
his → /hiz/ ~his name ~
her → /h/ ~her car ~
them → /θ/ ~ them ~

Figure 10. Introduction
FEELINGS AND EMOTIONS

1.1 Определите, как изображено на картинках.
1.2 Попробуйте определить, мужское это имя или женское, затем прослушайте запись.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Amy</td>
<td>Bill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anna</td>
<td>Jack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mandy</td>
<td>Tom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lucy</td>
<td>Tony</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.3 Замените имена личными местоимениями.

1.2 TO BE

Grammar: to be употребляется при именной части составного сказуемого, в каких случаях обозначает устойчивый признак подлежащего, его качественную характеристику (высокий, храбрый, красивый, стройный, умный), а также выполняет функцию самостоятельного глагольного сказуемого в значении "не находится в".

Grammar: weight /weɪt/ — исключение, а также следует помнить: be + number или be + number + years old / of age.

В русских предложениях, относящихся к настоящему времени, в отличие от английского, глагол TO BE не употребляется.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am</td>
<td>We are</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You are (not)</td>
<td>You are (not)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He/she/it is happy.</td>
<td>They are happy.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: глагол to be — это единственный глагол в английском языке, у которого формы инфинитива не совпадает с формой настоящего времени. В утвердительных и отрицательных предложениях (в полной форме) употребляется не выделяется.

Grammar: местоимение it может иметь значение «это», когда речь идет об узнавании какого-нибудь лица или предмета, а также используются как формальное наложение в некоторых предложениях, например, в которых говорится о погоде, времени, расстоянии и различных измерениях: It is John (при разговоре по телефону), It is cold. It is four o’clock.
**1.6 Составьте утвердительные предложения.**

1. He is afraid.
2. They are interested.
3. He is tired.
4. She is bored.
5. He is thirsty.
6. He is bored.

**1.7 Задайте к каждому предложению вопрос и дайте на него краткий отрицательный ответ.**

**1.3 WH-QUESTION**

1. What is your name?
2. How are you?
3. When is your birthday?
4. What is your name?
5. How old are you?
6. When is your birthday?

*Culture: How are you?* Подразумевается только положительный ответ. Мы, даже если дела идут совсем не ладно, привыкли прибегать к антисин. Антисинтих к американам какой вопрос соотносится с высоким уровнем жизни. Обычно отвечается свободно, живым языком.

**1.8 Ознакомьтесь с двумя базовыми диалогами.**

— Hello / Hey, my name is ____ / I’m _____. What’s your name?
— Hello / Hey, my name is ____ / I’m _____.
— Nice to meet you.
— You, too.

What is (‘s) your name? My name is Alex / I’m Alex.
How old are you? I’m nearly 27.
When is (‘s) your birthday? It’s on the seventh of May.

**1.4 INDEFINITE ARTICLE: INTRODUCTION**

1. You’re students. And what is my job? / what’s my job?
References


About the author:

Alexey Artyomov, BA in Linguistics, is 3rd Category Engineer (conference administrator) at N.A. Dollezhal Research and Development Institute of Power Engineering (NIKIET). Research interests: language education, textbook analysis, materials development.
E-mail: alexey.artemov.1993@gmail.com

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