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ОБЪЕДИНЯЯСЬ ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНО ПО ВОПРОСАМ ПРЕПОДАВАНИЯ АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА В АЗИИ: НА ПУТИ К СОВЕРШЕНСТВУ

Материалы
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CONNECTING PROFESSIONALLY ON ELT IN ASIA: CROSSING THE BRIDGE TO EXCELLENCE

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Настоящее издание содержит материалы международной конференции, проводимой Дальневосточной общественной организацией преподавателей английского языка и Пан-азиатской ассоциацией преподавателей английского языка Asia TEFL совместно с Дальневосточным федеральным университетом. Статьи освещают вопросы лингвистики и методики преподавания английского языка и культуры.

Издание адресовано специалистам, студентам и аспирантам, занимающимся проблемами лингвистики, преподавания иностранного языка и культуры.

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Abstract: This paper takes a critical look at recent developments in English Language Teaching in Russia, sets them in the context of global trends in the field and appeals for Russian teachers of English to be given the tools they need to get on with the job of teaching English to their students in ways that are best suited to them. This is in contrast to recent trends in Russia which tend to dis-empower the language teacher, rely on imported methodologies and teaching materials and promote a one-size-fits-all approach to what should be the highly individualised process of helping our students to learn.

Keywords: *ELT*, *Russia*, *global trends*, *empowerment*, *localisation*

Fifty Years of Change

In March 2016, *TESOL Quarterly*, the house journal of TESOL International, celebrated its 50th anniversary with a Special Issue (Mahboob & Paltridge, 2016). To mark the occasion, the editors commissioned Suresh Canagarajah to write a special article (Canagarajah, 2016) in which he reviewed a half century of changes in pedagogy, research and theory in the field of English Language Teaching by re-visiting a number of articles published by *TESOL Quarterly* over that period. In doing so, he charted a paradigm shift in our theory and practice, which he characterizes as a transition from Modernism to Postmodernism. Powered by the triple forces of globalization, increased transnational interactions and multiplying language contacts, this shift has made a significant change in the way we approach three of the central elements of language teaching: language, communication and learners.

Our view of language, Canagarajah claims, has moved away from the old idea that it is a fixed, stable entity, unchanging across all social domains, to seeing it as a vast and varied tool box for expressing meanings from which individuals acquire and deploy different combinations of tools. So, there is not one English, which we all learn and use, but a pool of resources from which each person draws differentially to convey meaning in specific settings and with specific interaction partners. Thus, language has come to be seen as a resource which empowers its users to express themselves in a variety of situations: the more language and languages one knows, the more resources one has to draw on in order to communicate. At the same time, argues Canagarajah, our view of communication has changed. In a Modernist world, communication was normative and abstract, but our Postmodern view has taken us beyond that conception, to see communication as a “contact zone”, a place where people and worldviews meet and interact. He goes on to argue that our view of the “language learner” has also changed. No longer are learners seen as having identical needs and going through a uniform series of universal learning stages towards language acquisition. The Postmodernist view sees learners as differentiated and various, bringing with them to the learning experience different linguistic and cultural resources and seeking to add different resources to their communication repertoire through contact with the language.

The effects of this paradigm shift are apparent in three domains, he concludes. Our idea of linguistic competence has moved away from the native speaker ideal towards the "multicompetent" user, ready to use linguistic resources in any communicative situation. Our ideal for the ELT classroom has changed from being a monolingual "English Only" environment, to a place where learners can use all their linguistic resources to interact, the so-called "bilingual turn" in language teaching. Finally, teachers are no longer seen as consumers of pre-packaged materials but as producers of relevant, localized learning materials suited to the needs of their specific learners.

Meanwhile in Russia

We have dwelt at some length on Canagarajah's article, as it makes a stark contrast with recent trends in ELT in Russia, where, if anything, there appears to be a move in the opposite direction. We suspect there is a danger that the English language is coming to be seen in Russia as a single entity, a body of information and practices (rather than a set of resources), to be taught to everyone in one particular way, using a single set of materials. Effort has been put into identifying "the best" materials for Russian classroom and now financial and human resources are being deployed to ensure that all language teachers are trained in "the correct" way to use those materials, so that students' mastery of "the" English language can be assessed in a single, uniform test. Reports from South Korea of a teacher who is, literally, a robot (Palk, 2010) may seem like a caricature of Russian realities but we fear they may come to be seen as a warning.

If we are correct and this trend continues, we foresee a dystopic future in which teachers become disempowered curriculum-delivery agents, pre-programmed to teach any student in the same way. We wish to argue against this disempowerment of the teacher and to propose that, in fact, an active, engaged, empowered teacher is the key to language learning success in our Postmodern world. To do so, we present a series of simple, even common-sensical, pedagogical principles which we draw from our training and practice as language teachers.

Principle 1: Teachers are the key to students' success.

In our experience, four areas of knowledge are necessary to support learners in their language learning endeavours: knowledge of the language, knowledge of language teaching methodology, knowledge of local circumstances and knowledge of the students. While deep, comprehensive knowledge of foreign languages has long been focused in universities, and language teaching methodology emerges from the interaction of theory and practice, both can be taught to teachers and, indeed, have been taught to teachers in pre-service and in-service teacher development/training programmes, through publications and websites and at language teaching conferences. What nobody but the teacher can understand well, though, is the local situation in which the language is being taught and the specific needs, strengths, weaknesses, motivation and learning goals of each student.

In speaking of the local context, we include everything from the physical characteristics of the classroom to the local political balance of power between the various stakeholders in the educational process, and from attitudes to language learning in the local community to whether students have eaten well enough that morning to be able to focus on their studies. The teacher on the spot is uniquely positioned to understand these things, just as s/he knows each student's learning capabilities better than anyone else.

We see the teacher then as the locus where all four areas of knowledge essential to the teaching/learning process intersect. By knowing each student, their context and various facets of the English language, and having a repertoire of teaching methodologies, the teacher is uniquely placed to take the moment-by-moment classroom decisions that lead to students' language learning success. The more we empower teachers to take those decisions, the better the outcome for students will be.

Principle 2: Students are as unique as grains of sand on a beach.

Lying behind the need for teacher knowledge of individual students is our assumption that each student is a unique combination of variables that make up a learner profile and that each of these variables can play an important role in determining how best the student will learn. Lightbown and Spada (2013) have identified a number of the variables that make a difference in language learning. We note that many of these things are not within the power of the teacher to bestow; they are things that the student brings to the learning experience: personality, age, experiences, cognition, native language, extrinsic motivation, culture, status, access to proficient speakers, etc. Each learner, then is a mosaic of these variables; each has a unique predisposition to learn in particular ways.

Yet, when perusing the pages of commercially available textbooks one would hardly know this. Many international textbooks depict learners in their pages as generic beings, often with excitingly cosmopolitan backgrounds, stable home lives and a uniform determination to learn. Beyond the learner depicted lies the learner implied: the approach in such textbooks is to assume that all learners have similar needs and to move them towards those needs in lock-step: present continuous today, future with "will" six lessons later.

We understand well that the homogeneity of learners both depicted and implied is a necessary consequence of the need to find the largest possible market for the textbook. This is commercial reality. But this is precisely the reasons why textbooks should be viewed by teachers as resources to be used where and when appropriate rather than as templates of how to teach, what and when. If textbooks are presented to teachers as a cornucopia of teaching ideas, teachers are empowered to choose what is best for their students. If textbooks are presented as the roadmap to success, to be followed page by page as they guide our students on the way to learning, both teacher and student will suffer this disregard of each student's uniqueness.

Principle 3: The English language is both our common goal and our common creation.

We often hear discussion of which variety of English we should teach. Should we use the American or British version of a textbook? Which native speakers do we want our students to sound like? In recent years, the question has been compounded by awareness of non-native varieties of English. Kachru's concentric circle model (1992) offers both outer circle models (e.g., from India and

Nigeria) and expanding circle models (e.g., China, Brazil and Russia). And yet, there is still a feeling among language teachers in Russia that aiming for a native speaker model is best. Students are encouraged to sound like the native speakers in their textbooks and visiting native speakers find that they are invited to classrooms to serve as models.

In many parts of the world, however, the idea of having a “model” or “target” at which one “aims” has been rejected. Cook (2016) points out that “Teaching should concentrate on producing successful L2 users, not imitation native speakers.” Canagarajah (2016) describes a language not as a target but as a set of “semiotic resources that people can appropriate” based on their needs. This shift has occurred for practical as well as theoretical reasons. The idea of a “native speaker” privileged by accidents of birth and up-bringing has long been questioned (see, for example Majlesifard, 2012 and Baker, 2010). Data from Graddol’s *English Next* report (2006) is often used to point out that worldwide the overwhelming majority of interactions in English do not involve a native speaker. For what then are we to prepare our students? For a world in which they will need to use all their linguistic resources to communicate in ongoing interactions with people near and far, very few of whom are likely to be native speakers of English. In other words, if we are to provide a model at all for our students, it should be a model of a resourceful non-native speaker.

Fortunately, there is such a model in every classroom in Russia: the teacher herself. As a resourceful user of English, she can demonstrate to her students how they can build up their own resources as users of English to prepare themselves for a future in which they can draw on both Russian and English communication resources to make their way. Thus, we prefer the metaphor of co-creation, teacher and student working together to develop resources, to that of a target.

Principle 4: It is most unlikely that a single set of materials will meet the needs of all our learners.

We have touched on this issue before in saying that our students our each unique, we know them best and there is no way a textbook writer far away could know exactly what they need. And yet, the allure of the internationally marketed textbook is strong in Russia right now. They do offer a number of strengths: they are authored by some of the leaders of our profession, based on pedagogical principles that apply worldwide; they are extensively tested in major markets; they are expensively produced (full colour, gorgeous layout) yet relatively inexpensive to buy, thanks to the economies of mass-market sales.

However, they feature generic characters in generic situations, speaking a generic kind of English. We examined one such series (McCarthy, McCarten, & Sandiford, 2014) and found a number of features that would be puzzling to Russian students. The unit on National Holidays and Celebrations deals predominantly with US holidays (Halloween, Valentine’s Day, graduation…). An exercise later in the book asks students to survey each other on who took which subjects in high school. Arguably, these elements could be used to point up differences between Russian and US culture, but the problem runs deeper. Cursory attention is given to grammatical and lexical items that are problematic for Russian learners and several exercises are devoted to items that are not problematic at all. Thus the use of *present continuous* (going to) to talk for plans is just the same as in

Russian. But the attention and book room given to this construction surpasses the attention given to *present simple* to express future in clauses of time and condition so difficult for Russian students.

Our point is not that internationally produced textbooks are useless for our students, but that, where available, they should be seen as one among several resources which the teacher can decide how best to use, drawing differentially on the resources provided by textbooks to tailor her pedagogy to the particular situation of her students, their common language, similar cultural background, shared local situation, unique learning styles, interests and motivation.

Principle 5. The theories and axioms that support our field are as complex as they are vital to success.

The search for the "best" way to teach English is an alluring one. If modern scientific methods are applied to foreign language pedagogy, surely a definitive answer can be found to the question of how best to teach English and this method can be used as a basis for materials design and teacher training. Indeed, once the magic method is found, teacher training will become a much simpler issue. There will be no need to arm teachers with a deep understanding of pedagogical principles before they step into the classroom. A brief training course on the magic method will suffice, thus saving time and freeing up a lot of the resources that have until recently been devoted to training teachers.

Indeed, if we take seriously the claims of major publishing companies, one might think that the magic method had already been discovered. Although as classroom teachers we are aware that education can never be as simple as that, the claims made for a particular approach or method can be very persuasive to administrators who are at one or more removes from the classroom and constantly under pressure to make the best use of limited resources.

In fact, for reasons that should be clear from the principles outlined in this paper so far, there is no such method and can be no such method. Sound pedagogy consists of applying complex principles in specific local situations, using the resources available. This is what Canagarajah (2016) means when he speaks of a shift from teachers as consumers of materials to teachers as producers.

This shift has been underway for some time. Back in 1991, Allwright claimed "The Death of the Method" (1991) and since then scholars are generally agreed (Arikan, 2006; Kumaravadivelu, 1994; McMorrow, 2007) that we are living in a post-methods era. "Post-method" does not mean that we have no idea what to do in the classroom. It means that the search for the magic method has been called off and the onus is now on teachers to understand how best to teach their students.

Principle 6. The development of teachers is a never-ending task.

It should be clear from the principles discussed so far that current world trends in ELT put enormous responsibility on the teacher. It is the teacher who must take key decisions about her students' education and implement them on a daily basis. With this responsibility comes an equally enormous need to make sure that teachers are properly equipped to take and implement such decisions.

To make informed decisions in the classroom, teachers need a deep and nuanced understanding of pedagogical theory and research. This means that initial teacher training needs to be both thorough and well-resourced. However, as our understanding of teaching and learning is constantly developing, it also means that they need access to ongoing teacher development opportunities throughout their careers. This can be in the form of journals, websites, conferences and seminars, but should also include frequent refresher courses and in-service training opportunities.

However, the teacher needs to know not only pedagogy but also the local situation in which it will be implemented and the individual students she will work with. This means that the teacher needs to be a researcher, too, constantly seeking opportunities to inform herself about the community and the school in which she is working and the individual students she is working with. Further, she needs to be an experimenter, trying out new ways of teaching, seeing how effective they are in her classroom, adopting, adapting or modifying them, as appropriate. In this context, the “reflective teacher” model (Farrell, 2008) – Problem, Plan, Act, Observe, Reflect – can be a powerful heuristic for classroom practice.

The teacher does not stand alone in her quest for informed classroom decision making. She has colleagues and peers, fellow professionals working in similar contexts, whether locally or across the country. Teacher discussion groups provide a forum not only to exchange ideas and information about what works and what does not, but also an opportunity for reflection on the whys and hows of teaching in specific contexts.

None of these teacher development activities happens by itself. They all need planning and the allocation of time and other resources. Empowering teachers to make good pedagogical decisions is not an inexpensive option. It requires a high level of support from administrators throughout the system and the active participation of teachers themselves.

Conclusion

This paper was inspired by a number if worrying trends we see in ELT in Russia today, yet its message is a hopeful one. If we empower the teacher to teach, to make informed decisions about the students she knows best, to explore together the linguistic resources offered by English and to make choices from the variety of materials available to help her to do this, we will have a pedagogy that is uniquely tailored to the needs of students in each classroom. Nothing could be further than the robotic teacher of some dystopic visions of the future.

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Analyzing NEST and NNEST Linguodidactic Discourse in Japanese ELT

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Abstract: This paper dwells on the subject of intercultural awareness in ELT discourse. The author suggests that terms, though typically defined as lexical items possessing a fixed, specified and neutral meaning, can nevertheless convey some socio-cultural characteristics of their users. These characteristics can be observed, analyzed and interpreted by means of socio-cultural approach and critical discourse analysis. The material under study is s term corpus collected from the teaching articles published in *The Asian EFL Journal*. It gives us an interesting insight of native and non-native English speaking teacher's discourse in Japanese context.

Keywords: *linguodidactics*, *discourse*, *term*, *CDA*

Introduction

The objectives of the following study are detecting, analyzing and interpreting socio-cultural features of linguodidactic discourse of native and non-native English speaking teachers.

Detecting various socio-cultural features in this field can nowadays be considered one of the most important goals for linguodidactics as a field focused on general principles of language teaching. Description, analyzing and realizing specific features typical for different kinds of EFL discourses is essential not only for effective teaching, but also for successful communication of professionals – EFL teachers all over the world.

Data description

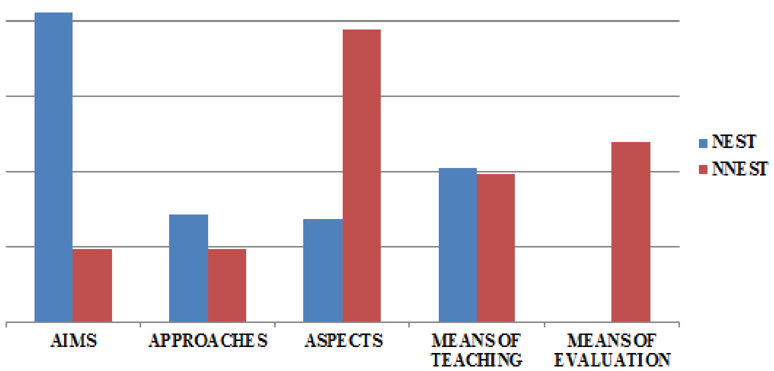
The material under study is a corpus of linguodidactic terms. This very type of material – a term - can sometimes be viewed with suspiciousness when we`re trying to achieve goals somehow connected with the words like “social” or “cultural”. The reason why it happens lies in the general understanding of the word “term”. In every dictionary this word is typically defined as “lexical item possessing a fixed, exact and neutral meaning” (*Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary*). It means that a “normal” term just cannot possess the features we are searching for – it cannot vary according to the social status of the person using it, it does not depend on the culture. It is supposed to be a perfect word for description of a singular fact true for every professional.

But it is not like that. The term in Humanities does not define a unique item existing somewhere in the world, if defines a unique attitude existing somewhere in one’s mind. And this very attitude depends greatly on one’s background and socio-cultural context **(**Lovtsevich, 2009).

This simple idea – that the term does convey socio-cultural characteristics of its user – makes it possible for us to use it as a material for a study like this.

We collected the term corpus from the 42 teaching articles published in *The Asian EFL Journal* in the period from 2010 to 2015. The whole corpus consisted of 126 terms which were then divided into three groups according to whether they were used in the articles written by native, non-native speakers or in a co-authorship of the first two groups. For the further study we used the first two groups.

Then the terms and key words were divided into the following categories: 1) Aims of teaching; 2) Approaches; 3) Aspects; 4) Means of teaching; 5) Means of evaluation; 6) Other linguodidactic terms and keywords. To conduct the research we decided to concentrate on the first five categories because these categories are considered to be “the basics of teaching system” (Azimov, Schukin, 2009: 27), they are essential for understanding the nature of EFL teaching and they effect the whole further process of teaching. The frequency of terms from these five categories occurring in the corpus for both groups can be seen on the following diagram:



The percentage shows quite an interesting situation. Most of the categories have noticeably different level of occurrence in two analyzed groups. It illustrates difference in concerns and values of the two analyzed groups, their positions on importance of the basic linguodidactic categories.

Aims of EFL teaching

The terms in this category indicate that both native and non-native English speaking teachers generally have the same point of view on the aims of teaching English in Japan, but in one group we can see the goals clearer while in the others they are hidden.

Both groups consider the communicative aim, the aim of developing practical communicative skills as the leading one in EFL teaching. This aim is fully revealed in the examples of terms used by the first group of authors. The most frequently used lexical items here highlight the importance of teaching English as a mean of communication, particularly of intercultural communication ("Cross-Linguistic Awareness" or "Cross-cultural Communication"). This group also stresses the significance of "critical" aspect of teaching, implying that it is crucial to teach not only a language as a structured system and a mean of communication but also to develop students' skills of critical thinking which means that a student should grow to realize various social, cultural, ideological and ethnical aspects of using this system (Fairclough, 1999). It can be seen in the terms like "Critical Thinking" or "Critical Language Awareness".

The second group of authors mostly uses far more neutral terms to describe the goals set. For example, "teaching English as a foreign language". On the one side EFL implies existence of practical and communicative aspects. On the other hand, though, the very definition of this term focuses more on the "lack of social surrounding, where the language is used as a communicative tool" (Collins Online Dictionary). Also, there are no terms stressing the importance of cross-cultural communication in this category. So, the conflict looks like this: the first group of authors highlight the main aim of teaching English as a mean of communication while the second group avoid doing it explicitly. The similar paradox is shown in the studies of Russian linguist V. M. Alpatov. He says that "on the one hand, the English language can be seen everywhere in Japan … on the other hand, there is no multicultural communication and the amount of bilingual speakers is quite small" (2008: 118).

Approaches

Approach is a basic category of language teaching, it determines strategy and choice of methods (Azimov, Schukin, 2009: 200). This category is shown in the study in relation of 7.2 and 4.8%. The difference in quantity of usage makes 2.4% which is considered to be quite small, that is why we can conclude that the issue of approaches attracts equal attention.

One of the most typical terms found among the lexical items used by both groups is "Content-based Instruction" or "CBI". The approach focuses not on teaching language itself, but on teaching range of various things with the help of language (Genesee, 1994). This strategy allows integrating many disciplines into one complex, developing critical thinking skills of a student and also to raise the level of his/her independence which, put all together, describes the modern communicative and practical aims of L2 teaching.

Other terms found in this category are also quite close to each other. They are, for example, "communicative teaching/Approach/CLT", "Pragmatic-focused Pedagogical Approach". The fact that the last of the terms was actually found in the second group of authors proves the suggestion made in the previous paragraph (implied communicative aims). It also shows that the conflict between these two groups is being solved and the strategies of 2L teaching in Japan are changing from Knowledge-Based Language to Competency-Based Language. But this is not the only tendency present nowadays, because, if we look at the details, we will see the second, traditional one, opposing it. It understands language more like a system and knowing the system but not using it, is considered to be the ultimate aim here. Presence of this point of view is proved in the following categories of terms.

Aspects of teaching English as a foreign Language

Aspects of EFL teaching are the parts of EFL teaching system: speaking, vocabulary, grammar, phonetics, stylistics etc. (Azimov, Schukin, 2009: 20). This category of terms is the material on which we can check whether and to which level the aims and approaches (communicative and practical mostly) match with the actual material that the students are supposed to learn during their studying and to find out which aspects of EFL teaching authors consider to be the most important.

The category "aspects of EFL teaching" is shown in quite an unequal percentage. It makes 6.9% of the term corpus used by native-speaking teachers and 19.5% of terms present in term corpus used by the non-native speaking teachers. This fact alone gives us the evidence that the second group is much more interested in finding the answer to the question "What exactly should we teach them?" rather than "What for?". The aims for them are not as essential as the particular problems occurring in the process of teaching. The tendency of putting practical issues on the first place can be observed in the further analysis of this category.

Aspects, mentioned by the first group of authors are notable for their relative globality. The key aspect is lexical and is connected to productive skills. The content is usually specified by the words *oral* or *written*. Communicative and pragmatical aspects are also mentioned. The assumption can be made that the key objective for this group of authors is developing speaking and understanding skills based on the knowledge of vocabulary (essential for further development of communicative competence). We can also say that this aspect is considered to be the most problematic for this group of authors, because the opportunity for actual communication is quite limited by extra linguistic factors. Both of these assumptions can be confirmed by the works of linguists, mentioning low level of practical skills formed, unlike wide range of theoretical knowledge. Some of them speak about so called "University English" (Gottlieb, 2005: 70-71) which means learning rules to pass the test, rather than developing any communicative skills. All the methods focus on different structural elements rather than on practice (Honna, 2008). The first group of authors highlights importance of switching from the structural to communicative paradigm of ELT.

Among the aspects mentioned by the second group of authors, the leading positions are held by phonetic and grammar aspects. The typical terms for this category are "Pronunciation" and "English L2 morphology". The particular interest in these spheres can be explained by actual typological difference between the native language of the students and their second language. Unlike the first group of authors, the second one consider these structural differences between the languages to be the most problematical in the process of language teaching and, therefore, the most in need of attention.

The second aspect mentioned by this group is translation, especially translation from Japanese into English "Translation into L2", and this is the only aspect where we can see any practical function of the L2.

Means of EFL teaching

The term "means of teaching" is defined like a set of textbooks, technical equipment and other materials witch one uses in the process of teaching and learning language. Structurally this category can be divided into two parts: the first one contains all the materials designed for a teacher, like State Educational Standard, program, various Teacher resource books, etc. The second part includes materials designed for students (Azimov, Schukin, 2009: 291).

The percentage of the terms in this category is almost equal for both native and non-native English speaking authors. It means that the both groups believe it to be really relevant in the process of teaching. However, the authors emphasize the relevance differently.

Terms used by the first group fully correspond with the terms used in the category of aims. The most frequently used terms are "program" and "curriculum". They are used in such collocations as "CLIL program", "CLIL curriculum" or "curriculum design". We can also find them in combinations like "EAP/ESP program". These examples show that the terms used outline and shape the leading aim set by the native English speaking teachers and the aim is reforming and modifying the system of EFL education in accordance with the communicative and practical goals. The part of terms referring to the materials designed for students consists of the single term "textbooks" used in a neutral context with no specifications. It tells us that this group of authors follows the up-down approach and does not consider student books to be more or even as important issue as the problem of modernizing curriculums and programs at a global level.

Terms used by the second group of authors show rather different sphere of interests. This group also contains terms, referring to the modification process mentioned above ("New English Program") and it tells us that these authors are also aware of the challenge. Most of these terms are, however, unspecified and do not provide us with any information about how and according to which approach should a new program be designed. The non-native English speaking authors focus their attention mostly on students' materials. They mention the term "Authentic Materials" and, unlike the first group of authors, also address the matter of technical means of teaching.

Means of evaluation

This category contains mostly abbreviations and titles of tests. It is also quite important for the process of EFL teaching because it allows us to see the results and understand whether the process of teaching itself answers the goals and objectives set.

Any terms referring to the means of evaluation are not presented in the corpus of the native English speaking teachers. It tells us that this problem is not considered to be essential and is totally out of sight of the group. The fact that they do not consider the issue of evaluation to be the primary objective proves that they are following the “up-down” paradigm of ELT reforming and implies the need balance, because there would be no way of checking whether the approach works or not no matter how detailed the whole upper part of the scheme is.

On the contrast, the second group of authors fully describe the category. They use neutral terms just to shape the topic “English Language Test” and explore the issue of testing and assessment in general. They also specify it, using various abbreviations like TOEFL. Attention paid to the process of preparation for international tests shows that the impact of the English language is gradually growing in the society and there are a lot of people who need these new strategies to take the test, pass it and use it to apply for a job or to study abroad.

One more test mentioned is “JFSAT-English test” “Japanese University Entrance Examinations”, “Entrance Examination”. Authors mention it retrospectively, comparing it to the modern Japanese and international tests. “JFSAT” (Joint First-Stage Achievement Test) was replaced by “National Center for University Entrance Examinations” (also mentioned) in 1990. The difference between these two tests clearly illustrates the direction of reforming Japanese ELT education. NCUEE is more democratic, it can be applied to the larger number of universities, and it was designed to move the focus of the universities from academic knowledge to practical skills and achievements of the student. But, it is still clear that westernalization of Japanese ELT and generally educational system is quite a challenge because some higher status universities and traditional society oppose, thinking that the reforming will do more harm than good, and stressing the fact that hard and difficult process of teaching is considered to be one of the nation’s values (Yasuhiro, 1999).

Conclusions

Having overviewed the terms used by native and non-native English speaking teachers in Japanese context we can conclude that their discourses have both common and distinctive features. The most essential common part of these discourses is their direction towards changing and improving ELT system. Both NESTs and NNESTs believe that it is necessary to step away from traditional, theoretical and academic way and move to the communicative and practical acquisition of the English language. NEST authors’ terms are mostly characterized by consonance and balance of all aspects of the system. We can also trace the “up-down” approach in the manner of valuing importance of the elements. Terms used by NNESTs show us more complicated picture. We see implications of the communicative aims, explications of communicative approaches, traditional “Knowledge-Based” aspects functioning in the discourse simultaneously. The focus of studies in this discourse is set on the range of particular local objectives, which all together hardly form any direction. However, at the same time we see the process of understanding and reflection upon the experience of the past and present, comparing them to each other and making something of it. Such controversial picture can be explained by the fact that reforming of the system is far from being completed. It is still in the state of emerging and the “western” and “international” features introduced are constantly opposed by the traditional approaches and values.

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ESP Teaching Under Pressure of New Educational Standards

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Abstract: New educational standards in professional training are becoming more and more demanding. Current economic processes and increased competition in the labor market set the demand for the specific skills and competencies of “freshly baked” university graduates, as well as for new forms of professional education and training. Ever-lasting search for new tools and instruments, methods and techniques in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) teaching should bring some very substantial results to comply with the requirements both of new educational standards and industry. Educational institutions ensuring occupational training consider their main task to provide wider range of professional programs; the standards of higher education focus on formation of general and specific professional competencies. ESP teaching is the integral part of the educational process; as such it should comprise the formation of the mentioned professional competencies within the framework of the discipline to prepare the graduates with new skills and broad knowledge.

Keywords: *ESP, educational standards, problem-based learning, task-based language teaching, method of projects*

Introduction

Our days are characterized by a standardized approach to all areas of life. Standards are everywhere; various organizations, companies and enterprises use standards in their everyday operations. Standards are designed to make our lives safer, easier, more efficient and unified. Any company or business to become competitive and to survive in global crisis should become a part of a unified standardized international or national markets, should comply with the existing requirements and regulations. Educational industry is the part of this global tendency. New educational standards in professional training are becoming more and more demanding. Current economic processes and increased competition in the labor market set the demand for the specific skills and competencies of “freshly baked” university graduates, as well as for new forms of professional education and training.

For the sake of the current paper we need to specify the meaning of the term ESP. Following the definition of T. Hutchinson and A. Waters (1987), we agree that ESP is an approach and it does not involve a particular kind of language, teaching material or methodology. The question “Why does this learner need to learn a foreign language?” in their opinion, forms the foundation of ESP. Need is defined by the reasons for which a student is learning English; either to work or to use it for the post graduate education. The choice of the language to be taught depends on the above reasons.

P. Robinson (1991) gives the ESP definition also based on the priority of needs analysis: ESP is “normally goal directed”, “aims to specify as closely as possible what exactly it is that students have to do through the medium of English”. Needs analysis (also known as needs assessment) plays a vital role in the process of designing and carrying out any language course, whether it is English for Specific Purposes (ESP) or English for General Purposes (EGP).

Many educationalists understand ESP as English for Academic Purposes (EAP), though there is more than one option, and it is necessary to clarify this item. P. Robinson (1991) classifies ESP in the following way:

ESP

EAP EOP

Needs analysis helps to make a choice of ESP branch to be taught (EAP or EOP). Depending upon the students’ needs we make a decision on the discourse, instruments and tools to be used in teaching process. EAP refers to any English teaching that relates to a study purpose. The students need help with the language of academic disciplines and the specific “study skills” required during their academic course. EAP should make use of the essentially problem-solving methodology of academic study (Widdowson, 1983). EOP includes professional purposes in various subject areas. At the same time it is important to remember that ESP includes not only special terminology, discourse, but also skills required in professional activity and awareness of the situations of professional communication, contexts supported by the necessity to use this language.

The table below shows comparison of Academic and Specific Purposes in teaching English language:

EAP	EOP
to fill in registration form for conference participation	to complete requisition form
to make a presentation at the conference	to report a ship's position
to read the materials of symposium	to read machinery specification
to comprehend a convention program	to comprehend instructions of VTC center
to prepare paper abstracts	to make a repair list
to present the results of the research done	to explain the operation of a device/machine
to address the audience	to contact Procurement Department

In our case we deal with technical students, the students whose interests are determined by the needs of their future profession in the field of technical studies and occupation. Their knowledge and skills in literature and languages are sometimes rather weak. None of them has previously attempted to pass exams in foreign language. The results of their assessment tests are sometimes even worse than disappointing; they show level A1 (beginner) or A2 (elementary) in conformity with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR).

Whatever teachers, model courses, text books, regulatory recommendations and instructions are, all of them encounter a wall of ignorance, poor knowledge, lack of the appropriate skills, and low motivation. This is the reality. We register very low level of school education consequently poor preparation of students for ESP acquisition.

Our life is governed by standards and squeezed into framework. The tendency is the international one. Standards stipulate each and every type of people's activity; those wishing to be in line with modern trends and requirements, to be competitive and successful need to comply with them. For example, there exists the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) – an international body dedicated to promoting international standards. ISO is an independent, non-governmental international organization with a membership of 162 national standard bodies. Through its members, it brings together experts to share knowledge and develop voluntary, consensus-based, market relevant International Standards that support innovation and provide solutions to global challenges.

A standard is a document that provides requirements, specifications, guidelines or characteristics that can be used consistently to ensure that materials, products, processes and services are fit for their purpose.[1] Various institutions, companies and enterprises tend to become a part of international standardization system(s) to successfully compete in the global market. For example, there are standardized requirements and regulations governing training, certification, watch keeping, as well as other activities in shipping industry.

Education is not an exception. Good example of it is the mentioned above Common European Framework of Reference for Languages of the Council of Europe. Russian Federation is a member of many International bodies and organizations regulating scientific, educational and business activities.

[1] http://www.iso.org/iso/

Besides the international standards, regulations and requirements there are national corporate and industrial standards mandatory for national institutions, companies and enterprises. Education is an example of the standardized system utilization. GIA, EGE, FGOS VPO, FGOS VGOS VO are abbreviations familiar to any educator. Among others are National Educational Standards constituting the set of requirements and conditions mandatory in realization of the educational programs of all levels of education. They ensure the unity of the Russian Federation educational area, the continuity of all levels of educational programs. Every standard includes three types of requirements to the structure of educational programs, to the conditions of the programs realization, and to the results of the programs acquisition.

The existing standards specify numerous items of the educational process, including the teaching staff, professional activity and specific purposes of institution graduates, their skills and competences, various certification and assessment issues, etc. At the same time strict requirements concerning the curriculum and syllabus design have been replaced by rather generalized notation of the credit unit and only good will of content area departments can make a decision on a number of credit units assigned for a subject.

The majority of the third generation Federal educational standards of higher professional education refer foreign language to the basic part of the humanitarian, social and economic cycle disciplines. The amount of credit units assigned for language acquisition depends on many (sometimes subjective) factors. As a result we need to teach language for occupational purposes not mentioned among the professional cycle of disciplines. At the same time the English language proficiency might be professionally important and included into the list of mandatory competences (marine specialists, pilots, logistics specialists, etc.). Besides, some university or institute principals assign minimum quantity of credit units for foreign language studies though among their regulatory tools are the disciplines of variable and optional part of the mentioned standards. There is an apparent tendency to minimize the amount of credit units assigned for language studies for the students majoring in technical subjects.

Consequently this means fewer academic hours for foreign language teaching; the latter fact is aggravated by the fact that “foreign language” course is included into the first years of students’ studies. Junior students have no sufficient basic knowledge of their content area so it is really difficult if not impossible to teach EOP under such circumstances. The only option is to teach EAP. The students need help with the language of academic disciplines and the particular “study skills” required during their academic courses.

However, some technical specialities require sensible EOP knowledge; among them are transport logistics, navigation, marine engineering, fisheries and others. They need to be able to use specific English to fulfill their specific tasks. This is the most challenging of all problems arising. The main one is how EOP can be taught under the pressure of educational standards (both national and international); that is how we can teach junior students, sometimes low motivated, low-leveled with a minimum of credit units assigned for EOP. Besides, there exists one more challenge – to find the proper balance and/or ratio between the skills to be formed which is extremely important both in setting goals and creating objectives.

An EOP instructor in this case is a kind of a rope-walker, who needs to find the balance between the regulatory documents, standards, model courses requirements; curriculum, competences (cultural or professional), credit units, time framework, syllabus design (year of studies), assessment and testing required (if any) on the one hand and students' strengths and weaknesses, needs and motives (EAP or ESP), autonomy, plus instructors' subject area knowledge, creativity and dedication on the other hand.

The problem of EOP teaching can be solved on a step-by-step basis, that is: do the needs analysis, identify the strengths and weaknesses, prioritize the set goals and objectives, do the context analysis, identify and optimize the required materials and course contents, determine teaching methodology, "instruments and tools" and identify assessment standards and requirements.

To fulfill the above mentioned tasks it is important to have at least some knowledge and understanding of the subject area. An ESP/EOP instructor is not an expert in the subject area so it is important to work in close cooperation with the subject specialist including consultations on the subject syllabus, professional activity of a specialist, materials writing in collaboration with the subject specialist, peer review of all materials and so on. An EOP teacher must be a well-trained EL teacher who is sincerely interested in the specialized area being focused upon (Master, 1983).

The basic information on students' needs can be obtained from the federal and international (if any) standards, consultations with the subject area instructors, experts in professional activity, potential employers, and other stakeholders. Students' strengths and weaknesses can be easily determined by means of diagnostic/assessment tests. Depending upon the results we can structure and "fill in" the program, manage students' classroom and autonomous activities. The latter might become another challenge due to low motivation of students.

Consequently, we are experiencing hard time being under the pressure of national and international standards, regulations and rules, as well as under the burden of students' low motivation and laziness, lack of professional knowledge and skills both of the instructors and students. But a rolling stone gathers no moss.

Depending upon the year of students' studies, their professional activity it is absolutely necessary to clearly formulate needs, to prioritize them and try to find some sort of equilibrium between needs and capacities, i.e. students' needs and teaching capacities.

Implementation of student-centered active learning methods into academic activity is a very useful resource in our fight for the students' motivation and success. Luckily, we can choose out of many possible teaching/learning options to be used in our daily work, among them are: problem-based learning (PBL) and method of projects, as well as task-based language teaching (TBLT). All of them applied in EOP classroom are good options under the circumstances. PBL is a sort of a simulator when we reproduce real situation which might arise in professional activity; open ended problems are formulated to find a solution or answer to the key problem, to activate students' knowledge, ask for professional advice and help; etc. TBLT focuses on the use of authentic language and on asking students to do meaningful tasks using the target language. Method of projects is among the standard teaching methods. It is generally considered a means by which students can develop independence and responsibility, and practice various modes of behavior.

Whenever constructivist concepts, inquiry-based learning, problem-solving, and design are discussed in vocational and industrial education as well as in other fields of American education, the "project" is considered to be one of the best and most appropriate methods of teaching (Knoll, 1997). The most difficult task for any EOP instructor is to formulate the task, problem or determine the project to be worked at.

All of the above require preparatory work done by the instructors, their time and energy but the results meet all expectations. The success of the venture depends upon the devotion and creativity of an instructor supported by his/her knowledge in the subject area or co-work with the subject area instructors and experts. Properly formulated problem can raise students' interest, inspire or force them to carry out research, find required information, refer to specialist's advice, etc. The task is quite difficult for any EOP instructor, especially a novice one. Even at first stage of preparations it is important to form close contact with the subject area instructors; their assistance, advice and participation is badly required and strongly recommended to achieve the desired results. To formulate the problem, to find interesting projects, to show the ways for problem-solving, to substantiate use of technical means in achieving the required goals, to update methodology used in search for the results is not the complete list of contact points in this peer collaboration. Use of authentic materials and means, guidelines of experts and professionals, the necessity to cope with the professional tasks bring missing motives back into the classroom.

We cannot state that all students are equally interested in the process of problem-solving and are project-oriented; some of them get clear understanding of their future profession, others get the idea of the language proficiency importance. Most of them are active players and participants of the process; therefore they are soaked into a problem, project (dealing with his/her professional activity) or task, they feel their weaknesses (in subject area, grammar, vocabulary, etc.) and try to find the way-out. Like appetite which comes while eating.

Use of PBL and method of projects is also an instrument in our eternal pursuit of the ways to organize students' autonomous work, to optimally arrange classroom activity and to expand time frames. PBL, method of projects, TBLT, etc. can be greatly supplemented by the use of Internet resources and computer-based laboratories. Technical students are great fans of various technical devices and appliances; they are well-skilled in their usage and we need to take into consideration the fact as well while structuring both in-class and after-class activity. Some professions are closely connected with the use of machinery, like marine engineers, navigators, fishermen, etc. Educational institutions training such professionals should be equipped with simulators; co-work of subject area and EOP instructors can help to implement simulators into EOP training. Even junior students can get clear idea of their future professional activity, the importance of EOP in it and the necessity to study well to become an expert in the area chosen.

Conclusion

Both educational and corporate standards state a set of regulatory requirements to be complied with and it is quite practicable to use their wording in preparing specific tasks for our classroom activity. In this case all problems, tasks and themes will be authentic and will represent actual professional activity.

Standards have already penetrated all aspects of our life, they govern and rule, they can help to make our lives both easier and more difficult at the same time. The problem is how to find the right direction using the right guidelines and aids, the right people in the right place, i.e. instructors to fulfill the task of complying with the standardized requirements. The task is quite feasible and the results are worth the work done. Only dedication of instructors, their creativity, knowledge and good will supported by technical teaching aids, Internet resources, properly chosen methodology help to motivate students, make the process of studying interesting and challenging. The combination of the above as well as the right dosage of each can do wonders.

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Beyond Linguistic Accuracy: What Speaking Tests Must Also Evaluate

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Abstract: When evaluating speaking many teachers focus only on a narrow definition of accuracy, namely how grammatically correct were the student's utterances. However, speaking is a far more complicated matter. Furthermore, not all speaking is the same; presentations, conversations, and interviews are different genres of speaking and have different features. Matching the test construct to the instructional content for speaking courses requires matching evaluation methods with instructional ones. This paper briefly outlines some of the defining characteristics of speaking genres, and discusses some issues related to commonly used methods for evaluating student speaking ability and offers some practical suggestions for teachers.

Keywords: *speaking, evaluation, assessment, interview test, role-play*

Introduction

When asking about someone's ability in a foreign language, we most often phrase the question in terms of their ability to speak that language: Do you speak English? Sprechen Sie Deutch? Parlez-vous Française? This commonplace observation reveals the primacy of speaking in human language use. Literacy is a highly developed language skill only acquired after extensive formal education. Interactional speaking skills, by contrast, are acquired naturally and seemingly effortlessly by small children in every culture, and speaking remains the most frequent type of language use in day-to-day life.

The centrality of speaking in language is somewhat obscured when it comes to learning a foreign language. Learning to be literate in a foreign language is seen as a proper use of class time. Learners can use writing as a valuable aide-memoire while studying, and can engage with the target language when no other person is present by reading. Literacy skills lend themselves more readily to empirical assessment and thus fulfill institutional goals more visibly. There is also the effect from the native language situation, i.e. anyone who is literate in his or her native language is assumed to be able to speak it fluently. The assumption that high standards of literacy in L2 must translate into matching levels of spoken ability is a tempting, but actually erroneous assumption. A learner with high-levels of reading ability may have very limited conversational abilities.

Teaching learners to speak the target language is, or should be, the central concern of any language program. As Bygate (1987) says, "it [speaking] is the skill by which they [learners] are most frequently judged … It is the vehicle *par excellence* of social solidarity, of social ranking, of professional advancement and of business" (p. vii). However, it is important to realize that, just as the genre of writing can be subdivided into fields such as academic, creative, and business writing, so, speaking is not a monolithic genre and the ability to perform adequately in one genre of speaking, for example engaging in conversation, will not automatically transfer into another genre, for example, giving a presentation.

Genres of speaking

In the broadest of categories, speaking can be said to have four basic genres: monologues, for example lectures, presentations, and speeches; power and rights differential dialogues, for example, interviews, formal discussions, and debates; transactional speaking, for example, service encounters; and phatic communication that is, conversation.

Monologues are when one person speaks for an extended time. While they can be extemporaneous, they are often heavily prepared, including being pre-written, revised, and rehearsed. Monologues are one of the least common genres of speaking.

Power and rights differential dialogues, such as interviews, are pre-planned often with the interviewer writing, or at least mentally preparing, questions in advance. They also have an uneven distribution of speakership rights, meaning the interviewer controls topic(s), length of the interviewee responses, and total time limit of the interview. Again, these kinds of dialogues occur infrequently.

Transactional speaking transpires when one person is seeking to interact with another to achieve a recognizable real-world outcome, that is, a change of state. Person A seeks to bring about an outcome, person B can help bring this outcome about, and a transaction occurs. Transactional speaking is one of the more common forms of speaking, occurring daily, and often happens in service encounters such as buying something at a store, ordering food in a restaurant, etc. However, transactional speaking also arises in the course of daily life, such as asking someone the time, finding out what's for dinner, or clarifying expectations, and is often mixed in with conversation.

Conversation is the most frequently occurring genre of speaking. Conversation is not necessitated by a practical task, like transactional speaking, and rarely has, or seeks, specific outcomes other than creating and maintaining social relationships. All participants in the conversation have equal rights to control the conversation, and topics drift as participants nominate and abandon them. Phatic communication, that is communicating for social reasons, is a primary feature of conversation.

How speaking is (often) evaluated

Despite the primacy of traditional paper tests in language evaluation, there are methods for evaluating speaking skills of students. These methods generally fall into the following categories: 1) interview tests, 2) role plays, 3) presentations. In addition, counterintuitive as it may sound, paper tests may be administered to evaluate speaking skills.

The following sections will discuss the strong points and shortcomings of each of these forms of evaluation. It is proposed here that there should be some recognition of what sort of speaking is evaluated by each method, rather than making the claim that each assessment method can be said to reflect some super ordinate category of "speaking." Interview tests reflect the ability of the learner to take part in interviews, not to take part in conversations or give presentations. The corollary is that if a certain evaluation method is employed, then classroom activities must prepare students to perform in that genre.

Traditional tests

Despite the obvious shortcomings of using one language skill to test another, in the experience of the authors, traditional tests, often called paper tests or written tests, as well as standardized tests such as the TOEIC, are often used as evaluation methods for oral communication classes. In truth there are certain advantages to using a paper test for evaluation. First, traditional tests are by far the easiest way to evaluate large numbers of students. For example, large undergraduate compulsory EFL courses in Japan may consist of several thousand students organized into classes of up to fifty students each, and administrating a machine graded, multiple choice test is the easiest way to collect scores for both teachers and administrators. In fact, practical and institutional pressures, such as time and money, are important considerations for assessment and greatly influence how testing is conducted (Brindley, 2001). Second, generally speaking students are familiar with how to take a traditional test. The procedures of receiving a test, reading questions, choosing the most appropriate answer, and filling in a scoring sheet are familiar to most students.

However, there are significant shortcomings of using a traditional test for evaluating speaking. First and foremost, it is not a test of speaking. It is a test of reading, and often listening, but not of speaking. Additionally, paper tests measure receptive skills, not productive skills, and at best these skills are an indirect measure of productive ability (Powers, 2010), at worst they have no correlation at all.

Furthermore, traditional language tests with selected response formats, e.g. multiple choice questions, evaluate what the students know about the target language, but not how well they can use that knowledge (Katz, 2014). Moreover, again in the experience of the authors, the linguistic knowledge tested can be highly prescriptive with no practical communicative purpose. The question listed below is an example of an actual question taken from a paper test used by a Japanese university for evaluating oral communication.

Before (1)________ down for a nap, the boy (2) _________ down the book.

A: Lie	D: Lay
B: Lay	E: Laying
C: Laid	F: Lying

This question, while highly discriminating of a student’s knowledge of the difference between the verbs *lay* and *lie*, and their subsequent conjugations, is not a very good predictor of a student’s ability to speak. It is hard to imagine a situation where one would need to orally produce this sentence, outside of a language classroom of course, and focusing on this kind of linguistic accuracy not only will unfairly and inaccurately evaluate a student’s speaking ability, especially in phatic communication, it may have a washback effect of making an oral communication class into a grammar class. Lexico-grammatical accuracy, while important, cannot be the only criteria for evaluating a student’s ability to communicate orally.

Monologues: Speeches and Presentations

In the experience of the authors, one of the more common tasks used to assess student speaking ability is a monologue, i.e., speeches and/or presentations. These can consist of either a live performance or a recording of a monologue (Thornbury, 2005). On the surface speeches and presentations seem to provide an excellent alternative to a paper test and have a number of advantages.

First, it is a speaking task. Second, speeches are individual activities, thereby limiting the assessment to a single student. Finally, many speeches can be evaluated with clear criteria such as, “did the speaker make eye contact” or “did the speaker organize his or her presentation with a beginning, middle and end” making assessments clear and objective.

However, there are a number of issues with using monologues for evaluation. First, while speeches and presentations are speaking, they are a minor genre of speaking. With some notable exceptions, teachers being one of them, most people do not engage in lengthy, single speaker speech acts on a regular basis. In fact, speeches are not even the most common speaking activity in a language classroom, discussions are (Lazaraton, 2001) and therefore presents a problem as an evaluation method. Imagine, for example, a reading classroom. Throughout the course of the semester students engage in reading non-fiction prose, such as magazine articles, but on the final test for the semester, they are presented with a poem. Although they are both reading acts, most reasonable people would agree that learning to read non-fiction prose does not prepare a student to read poetry, as they are different genres. The same is true with presentations and discussions. Learning how to participate in a discussion does not prepare someone to give a speech.

Finally, the last issue with monologues is that they are usually rehearsed, often memorized, and are more akin to vocalizations of written essays. Many of the skills needed to give an effective speech are related to being able to effectively write a speech before performing it. (O’Hair, Rubenstein & Stewart, 2010).

Task observations, e.g. role-plays

Another common speaking assessment method is an observation of a task such as a role-play. Role-plays are one of the more common speaking activities in language classrooms (Lazaraton, 2001) and because of student familiarity with these types of tasks, they are easily adapted for assessment (Thornbury, 2005). The advantages of task observations are that they are spontaneous, interactive speech acts, are usually familiar to the students, and are similar to the kinds of speech acts students will have to perform in the real world (Littlewood, 1992). Additionally, assessment can be primarily based on whether or not, or how well, they were able to accomplish the task.

There are, however, a few issues with task observations. One of the more difficult issues is that role-plays are often performed with another student, so that being able to successfully complete the task may depend on a student’s partners ability, not on his or her own ability. Additionally, success on a task can depend on the student’s knowledge of the context and if a written prompt is used it also becomes a test of the student’s reading ability (Thornbury, 2005).

Finally, the last issue with role-plays used as observed tasks is that role-plays require a specific kind of performance ability. This is best summed up by van Lier (1987):

> Role-playing ability can be compared with acting ability, and of course not everyone is a good actor. Nor is being a good actor equivalent to being a good communicator. Furthermore, role playing is a specialized kind of acting, requiring ad-libbing ability. Not every good actor is a good ad-libber (p. 502).

And not every student is a good role-player.

Oral Proficiency Interviews (OPI)

Oral proficiency interviews (OPI) are widely employed to test speaking skills, but it is by no means clear that the skills required to perform well on an OPI are readily transferable to other genres. The positive aspects of OPI's are that the learner (ideally) produces a large amount of the target language, and that this language is produced in response to utterances made by another (the interviewer). Thus, in addition to creating lexically and grammatically comprehensible utterances in the target language, these utterances are made in real-time and the turn-taking practices of naturalistic spoken interactions are, to some extent demonstrably present in the learner's output (See Sacks, Schegloff, Jefferson, 1974). OPI's can therefore be used as a venue for demonstrating lexical, grammatical, and phonological abilities, interactional skills and some level of spontaneity. Another benefit of OPI's (from an institutional standpoint) is that a rubric can be created with which to evaluate the interviewee's performance in empirical (or quasi-empirical) terms.

The downside of OPI's is that interviews are a relatively minor genre of speaking. Although they may have high stakes, the actual amount of interviews that a person engages in during daily life is very small. In addition, the interactional architecture of an interview is unbalanced and one-sided, with the interviewer holding control over such issues as onset, duration, termination, topic selection and the like. The rights of the interviewer and interviewee are rigidly set and unequal, and the interaction will most likely follow the question and answer format. Although there may be a certain amount of local spontaneity, the questions may be predictable and the answers may be loosely prepared in advance. An adequate performance on an interview will not necessarily demonstrate that a learner will be able to participate in spontaneous conversation, with its implicit speaker equality, phatic intent, joint responsibility to nominate and negotiate topics, theme and rheme structure, stepwise topic transitions and so on. Finally, most OPIs have specific testing procedures that the examinee must follow and unlike paper exams most students may not be familiar with the procedures. Students unfamiliar with these procedures may struggle to perform the tasks in the prescribed manner, and despite having adequate oral proficiency, may "fail" the OPI.

Implications for the classroom

Teaching speaking is an integral part of any language learning curriculum and with modern teaching methodologies such as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) speaking is gaining more and more class time and resources. It is important that teachers have a clear understanding of what speaking is and how it relates to assessment (Luoma, 2004). What follows are three principle pieces of advice for teachers based on the authors' experience.

Speaking has different genres

First and foremost, teachers and students, must recognize that not all speech acts are equivalent, that speaking has different genres with different features and sub-skills, and that mastering one area of speech does not automatically transfer to another. Just as teaching poetry doesn't prepare a student to write a business letter, teaching a student how to have a conversation doesn't prepare him/her to give a presentation.

Conversation is problematic

The genre of conversation, despite being the most frequent in daily life, is the most resistant to empirical evaluations, with its quality of spontaneity and local relevance available only at that time and only to those participants. It is highly susceptible to the observer's effect; the possibility of external evaluation renders the talk as something other than conversation. Because of this, if improving conversation ability is a primary goal of an oral communication course, teachers and administrators should take great care when setting up assessment methods for conversation in order to minimize these effects.

Test what you teach and teach what you test

First, teachers need to make sure that their evaluation methods match classroom realities. If a teacher wants to use a presentation to assess students, then they need to be teaching students how to write and perform speeches. Second, if teachers have a fixed evaluation method, for example an exam imposed by the administration, include classroom activities to match the evaluation. For example, if teachers are required to conduct an OPI, they should include activities that give students an opportunity to practice being interviewed.

Conclusion

By being aware of the various genres of speaking, their various features, and the short-comings of often used evaluation methods, teachers are better able to create teaching and learning tasks and activities, and assessment and evaluation methods that match. By doing so they will be able to better prepare their students for assessment and conduct it in a fair and equitable way.

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An Exploration of Chinese Idioms as Resources for the EFL Classroom

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Abstract: This paper intends to promote the perception that learners' native language is a resource with additive value in the EFL (English as a foreign language) classroom. Following the notions of "language ecology" and "English localization", this paper shows that Chinese EFL learners, despite being in a learning environment where standard British and American English are dominant, may still preserve and disseminate their own linguistic and cultural wealth through localizing use of idioms in English. Finally, this paper revisits the issue of intelligibility of Chinese English and recommends a more inclusive orientation for approaching culture in the EFL classroom.

Keywords: *English localization*, *Chinese English*, *idiom*, *language ecology*, *EFL*

Introduction

As a language of international status, English with its wide-ranging value has resulted in language shift and replacement (Gupta, 1994; Kamwangamalu, 2003; Xu, 2007). Informed by the notions of "language ecology" and "English localization" as well as the EFL context of China, this paper proposes the idea of Chinese idioms as resources for enriching the EFL learning experience and resisting language replacement and advocates teaching diverse cultures of the world and communicative strategies in the EFL classroom.

Why "Language Ecology"?

Pioneered by Einar Haugen (2001), "language ecology", refers to "the study of interactions between any given language and its environment" (p. 57). Like biological species, languages grow, change, live and die in relation to other languages within an ecosystem. Therefore, the introduction of a new language into a particular ecology of languages may inflict serious consequences on the survival and development of the other languages. This ecological perspective finds due evidence from English, whose powerful expansion into other linguistic ecologies has resulted in subtractive language shift and loss which in turn endangers the maintenance of indigenous cultural knowledge (ICK). Local language is the major instrument for communicating ICK between generations (Nettle & Romaine, 2000). If ICK is gradually lost through language shift, many cultures are likely to end up dying out.

English Localization

In face of the international status of English and the significance of language ecology, a middle ground may seem desirable for language teaching professionals, learners and education policy makers to steer clear of the extremes of fighting the spread of English for linguicide or celebrating a global language at the cost of one's native language and culture. The wake of post-structuralism – a modern philosophical school of thought holding the idea that there is no single 'truth' and all truths are but partial truth (Lincoln & Guba, 2000: 185) opens doors for constructing this third place, because it enables English teachers, learners and users to be emancipated from approaching English dogmatically. Instead of conforming to a single rigid set of Anglo or Western standards and norms of English use, people in some parts of world such as India and Singapore have developed their own variety of English that preserves distinct local linguistic and cultural characteristics and allows them to find an expression of their national identity (Carter & Nunan, 2001: 4).

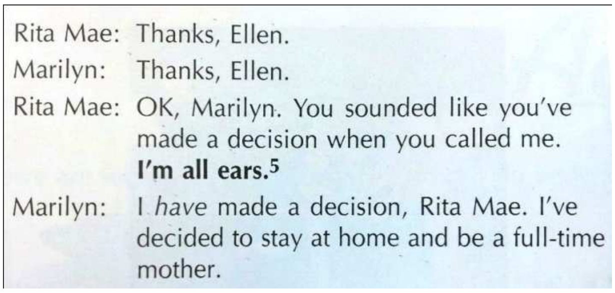
The Chinese EFL Context

Despite the presence of World Englishes and the pluricentric approach suggested for EFL teaching (Kirkpatrick, 2007), English education in China does not seem to sufficiently heed the rich cultural resource accrued in students' native language. This negligence appears obvious when the linguistic and cultural conventions of standard British and American Englishes (Adamson, 2004) pervade the textbooks used in the country, sparing very limited room for the incorporation of Chinese culture (Yuen, 2011; Xie, 2014). Furthermore, the institutionalized exam-oriented pedagogy and assessment, which is faithfully based on the textbooks, grants teachers little leeway to deviate from the standards mandated. Although it is seemingly impossible to revolutionize China's public English education overnight, teachers may still explore ways to answer to the limited English language curricula built on static norms. One question worth consideration is whether Chinese idioms laden with local culture can be fused into English as a means for evading language and culture shift when Chinese students are required to pursue standard British or American English by the current educational system.

Methods

In the following, two English textbook excerpts with English idioms targeted for learning will be presented. One textbook is *Family Album U.S.A.* which originated in the US and features communication in American everyday life. The other textbook is *New Horizon College English: Speaking, Listening, Viewing,* which is developed in China as a national-level textbook for higher education. Both textbooks are used for public college English education in China. The connotation of the targeted English idioms will be explained. Then, the idioms will be juxtaposed with their Chinese counterparts, whose origin and connotation are also explicated and use exemplified. This comparison aims to demonstrate that the Chinese idiomatic expressions can be used for rephrasing and expanding the textbook English idioms to retain Chinese cultural perspectives in EFL learning in China.

Findings



Rita Mae: Thanks, Ellen.
Marilyn: Thanks, Ellen.
Rita Mae: OK, Marilyn. You sounded like you've made a decision when you called me. **I'm all ears.**[5]
Marilyn: I *have* made a decision, Rita Mae. I've decided to stay at home and be a full-time mother.

Figure 1: Textbook excerpt No.1 (Beckerman, Cooperman & Lefferts, 1991: 106)

Figure 2: Xu You (Wangchao.net.cn., n.d.)

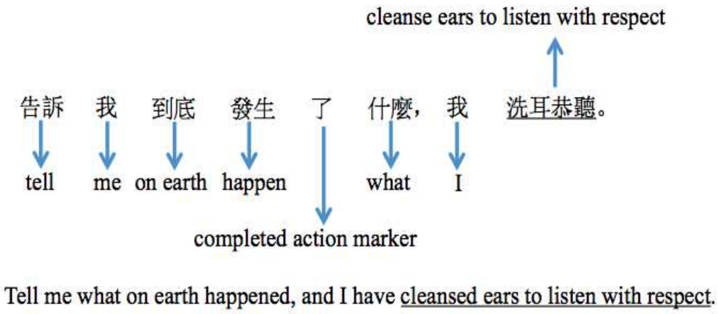


Figure 3: Example sentence and its English translation

"I'm all ears" in Figure 1 connotes the act of listening attentively to somebody (Cowie, Mackin, & McCaig, 1993: 6). This idiom is often employed when people express great interest in hearing what their interlocutor has to tell. The Chinese idiom similar to "I'm all ears" is '洗耳恭聽' (xǐ ěr gōng tīng), which literally means cleanse (洗) ears (耳) to respectfully (恭) listen (聽). The phrase *cleanse ears* stems from an old Chinese story recorded in the book entitled *Playing the Zither* (Wu, Huang & Liu, 2009: 1945). The hero of the story is named Xu You, a Chinese recluse respected for his lofty morals by the legendary sage emperor Yao (2356-2255 BC) during his reign over China. When the emperor Yao deemed Xu an appropriate successor to his royal throne and presented him with an official offer by an envoy, Xu declined the offer and commented that his life of morals was not meant for an exchange for political power. Feeling humiliated, Xu went down to the Ying River to cleanse his ears of this insult (Cai, 1985: 13) (see Figure 2). Through the story of Xu You, *cleansing ears* has gained the connotation of removing worldly concerns so as to concentrate better. Today it is often used with "respectfully listen" to refer to the act of listening with concentration and respect (see Figure 3). Since attentive listening connoted by "I'm all ears" also implies respect and concentration, the idiom may be considered interchangeable with "cleanse ears" or "cleanse ears to listen with respect". When approaching the textbook excerpt in Figure 1, Chinese EFL students may also learn to say "I have cleansed my ears", along with "I'm all ears". It is, however, worth noting that *I'm all ears* is expressed with the simple present tense to signal immediate readiness for action. Therefore, it is necessary to retain this sense of readiness when the idiom is restated with its Chinese equivalent. By use of the present perfect tense, *I have cleansed my ears* may well suggest that the speaker is now ready to listen to his/her interlocutor.

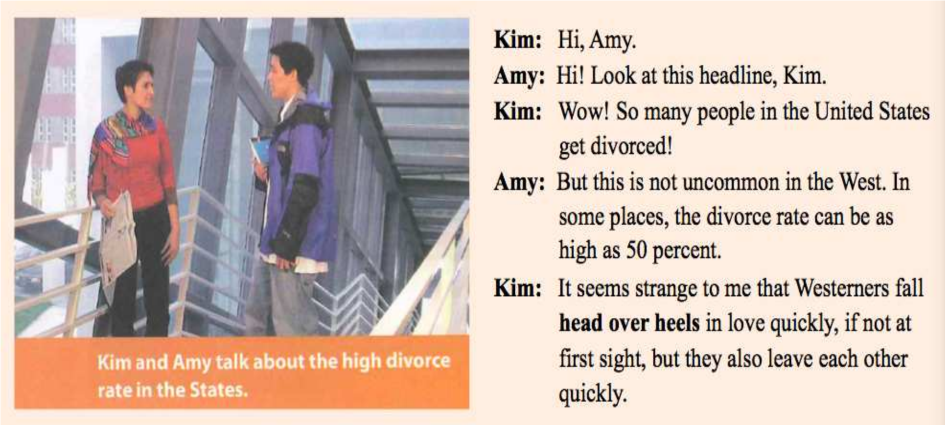


Figure 4: Textbook excerpt No.2 (Zheng & Wang, 2011: 62)

Figure 5: Example sentence and its English translation

When referring to the act of loving someone deeply in English, people may employ the figurative expression *fall head over heels in love*'(Wehmeier, McIntosh, Turnbull, & Ashby, 2005: 717), as exemplified in the dialogue of Figure 4. Similar to *head over heels* in meaning, the idiom '神魂顛倒' (shén hún diān dǎo) renders a Chinese portrait of the act of intensive love – spirit (神), soul (魂), upside (顛), down (倒). This Chinese idiom can trace its origin to a literary collection composed in the Ming Dynasty (1368-1644 AD) – *Lasting Stories to Awaken the World* (Wang & Yu, 2010: 1079). One of the stories tells of a handsome and wealthy libertine whose spirit and soul went upside down when flattered by young women adoring him (Feng, 1984: 292). Today, the Chinese idiom is used for describing a person who cannot think straight when being obsessed in love with someone (see Figure 5). Considering the consistency in connotation demonstrated by the pair of idioms in discussion, Chinese EFL students may learn that "people fall head over heels in love quickly" could also be rephrased as "people's spirit and soul go upside down for each other quickly". Likewise, they should heed the syntactic variation resulting from merging the elements of two languages. That is, *fall head over heels in love* functions as the main verb in the sentence, whereas *spirit and soul go upside down* becomes the subject and verb of the sentence and requires the complementary phrase 'for each other' to make the meaning complete.

Discussion

Since English has embraced the idiom *beat swords into ploughshares* from the Hebrew Scriptures (Isaiah 2:4), why can it continue to absorb idiomatic expressions from other languages and cultures, such as "I've cleansed my ears" as an alternative for *I'm all ears*, "spirit and soul upside down" as an option for *head over heels*? These hybridized idioms of English conform to the phonetic, lexical, grammatical and syntactic conventions of Standard English and thus do not seem to disadvantage Chinese EFL learners in the country's current educational system. Also, when the cultural features of learners' native language are legitimately woven into textbook English, they are prompted to perceive all languages that they possess as resources with added value instead of hindrances or problems to their language learning. Linguistic hybridity thus enables the creation of a learning context that is not threatening to EFL learners' identities but transforms their shame and frustration of using "standard" English improperly into a sense of pride in being able to perceive the world through different cultural lenses (Garcia, 2009: 318). By learning to compare, contrast and use two different sets of idioms with equivalent connotation, EFL learners are also granted the opportunity to interpret idioms of their native language in English and explain the story or cultural values and beliefs packaged into each idiom, which may spur them to deepen their knowledge and understanding of local culture or indigenous cultural knowledge (ICK). Hence, linguistic hybridity also contributes to the inheritance and even transmission of ICK, because ICK incorporated in English varieties can be further disseminated back to the Anglo centre and further to the world (Kirkpatrick, 2007: 97).

Intelligibility of English with Chineseness in Communication

When discussing this issue, McKay (2002: 52-53) explains that intelligibility causes problems in the use of English for intercultural communication because it entails questions of culture and context. Also, she maintains, "When English is used cross-culturally, it is very possible that the speakers will work together to achieve interpretability." In order to facilitate this "mutual work", this paper contends that all participants involved in a communicative event should make equal efforts to understand each other's culture and learn some communicative strategies (e.g. juxtaposition of cultural similarities and differences, paraphrasing, translation) that can accommodate linguistic and cultural differences and repair communication failures. Similar claims have also been put forward by Seidlhofer (2004) and Jenkins (2006). This, in turn, suggests that not only British or American cultures but also diverse cultures of the world underlying the international language as well as communicative strategies should be effectively incorporated and highlighted as essential learning components in English education in China as well as other EFL countries where fair play in communication is sought after.

Conclusion

Faced with the dilemma of choosing between celebrating an international language and shielding local language ecology, this paper is in support of a third option - localizing the global language, but deems it appropriate to begin with rhetorical attempts, given the social reality that "standard" English still dominates China's public educational system. With two idioms from English textbooks used in China, this paper expounds how the idiomatic idiosyncrasies of Chinese English may circumvent the public educational system's preference for standard English and proffer Chinese EFL learners a channel for expressing their cultural identity and values in a global language of hegemonic power, which is conducive to the retention of indigenous cultural knowledge that safeguards language ecology. In closing, this paper calls attention to teaching and learning diverse cultures that the global language bears and communicative strategies in the EFL classroom.

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An Empirical Study on College English Writing

(based on **www.pigai.org** and Human Scoring)

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Abstract: This paper explores the results of students' compositions which are examined by the computer-automated essay scoring system (pigaiwang) and teacher's scoring. They reveal the high correlation between them and it stimulates students' motivation to improve their writing, but some problems are discovered, such as mistakes in word usage and grammar, etc., which are not found by the system. The students' compositions should be marked by the computer-aided scoring system and human scoring together.

Keywords: *English writing, Pigai Wang, teacher's scoring, comparative analysis*

Introduction

Jukuu English Essay Assessor, a computer-aided scoring website based on the modern information technology of computer and Internet integration, is currently the largest English writing platform in China. This network is broadly embraced by both teachers and students. However, there is only a small amount of systematic research regarding this topic. In my point of view, only when more researches are done on this topic, could Jukuu be improved, so that it serves both the teachers and students.

I. Technical features and application of Jukuu English Essay Assessor

1. Technical features

1.1. Easy operation

Both the teachers and students need to register in the website, www.pigai.org, and then get into it, which is OK.

1.2. Immediate feedback

After students submit their compositions, the system will respond immediately in the following aspects: vocabulary, grammar, text structure and content, the individual work will be ranked in class, too. Comments and improvements would be presented, while similar lexical and grammar examples will be detailed in the sentence assessment.

1.3. Specific comments

All the sentences of the compositions will be assessed by the system, and detailed comment will be listed in terms of spelling, singular/plural usage, choice of words, sentence error and further analysis, etc.

1.4. Plagiarism and punctuality check

Teachers could easily tell whether students committed plagiarism, for the system could detect all the similarities in the works at any given time.

1.5. Term appraisal

With term appraisal supporting English teaching, the teacher could get a thorough grasp of student writing competence.

2. Application in English writing teaching

The author first used this website in 2013, and then came to realize some deficiency in the system after using it several times.

II. Feasibility study of Jukuu English Essay Assessor

1. Focus of study

The aim of this study is to argue:

a) Is there a correlation between computer-aided scoring of Jukuu and human scoring?

b) Can Jukuu motivate students to write?

c) Can Jukuu replace human scoring?

d) To what degree can Jukuu help improve writing?

2. Object of study

This study is based upon the teacher's daily writing teaching practice. Learners are freshmen with roughly the same English ability according to their college entrance English test. All students have a basic knowledge of vocabulary and grammar, and they are aware of the concept of text, but there is no clear indication whether or not they are interested in computer-aided scoring. The corpus for this study consists of 120 texts submitted by students at four different times throughout one term, the literature form of which is mainly narration and argumentation.

3. Research tools

Research tools of this study are calculation of mathematical formula, records from Jukuu, and random interviews. Computer-aided scoring is based upon the principles and standards of the English writing of CET-4, ranging from text structure, relevance, coherence, vocabulary, grammar, long sentence to writing standardization. Full marks is 100 points.

4. 4. Results and analysis

4.1. Correlation analysis of human scoring and computer-aided scoring

Table 1. Results of test paper scoring

	Human scoring				Computer-aided scoring			
	H1	H2	H3	H4	C1	C2	C3	C4
Average score	72.7	68.9	74.2	75.0	73.7	72.5	76.2	77.0
Standard Deviation	10.7	15.6	9.2	8.1	9.3	9.0	7.8	5.4

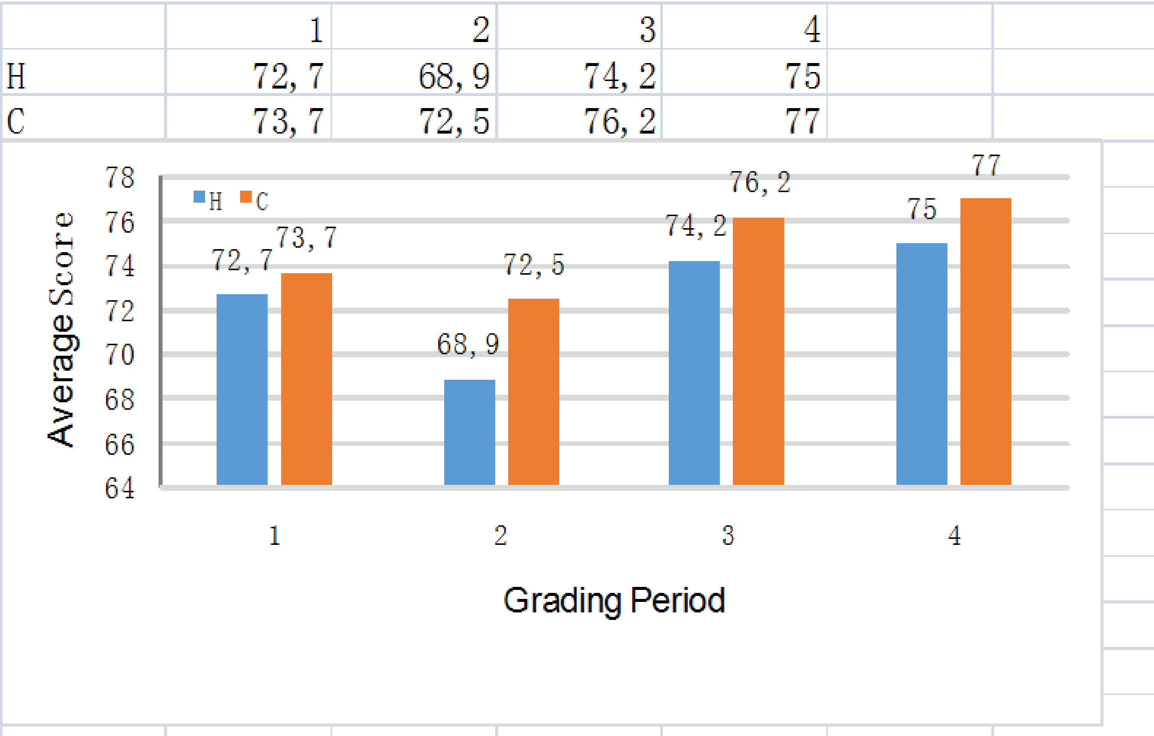

Figure 1. Contrast of score variation between human scoring and computer-aided scoring

The variation trends of both human scoring and computer-aided scoring present great similarity. The second average scores both decreased as shown in the figure with a smaller decline in computer-aided scoring, which shows stronger robustness in automated correcting. Following average scores are all on the rise since the second average scores, presenting a pattern of learning progress.

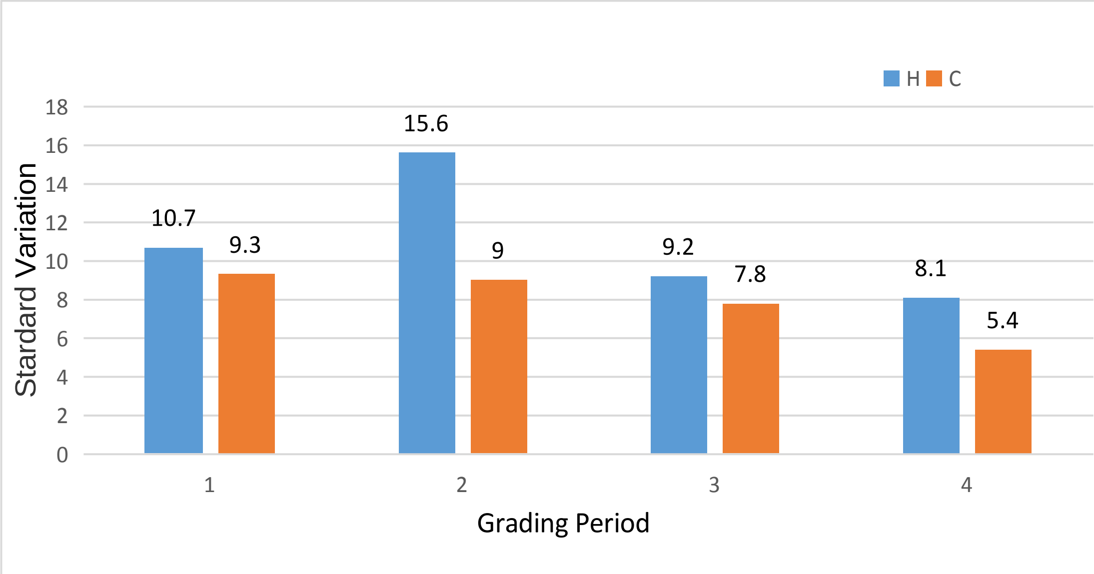

Figure 2. Contrast of standard variation between human scoring and computer-aided scoring

The standard variation of human scoring in each scoring is comparatively bigger than that of computer-aided scoring. The standard variation of computer-aided scoring is decreasing steadily, yet in the second scoring period, there appears an abnormal rise in the standard variation of human correcting. Thus computer-aided scoring bears certain stability.

Calculation of two sets of correlation coefficients

Two sets of data are established as follows:

X1(1), X1(2), X1(3),,,,,,,,,,,,,,X1(n)

X2(1), X2(2), X2(3),,,,,,,,,,,,,,X2(n)

Correlation could be observed through correlation coefficients.

Calculation formula:

$$r_{X_1X_2} = \frac{\sum X_1X_2 - \sum X_1 \sum X_2 / n}{\sqrt{\sum X_1^2 - (\sum X_1)^2 / n}\sqrt{\sum X_2^2 - (\sum X_2)^2 / n}}$$

Calculation could be carried out with SPSS and Matlab.

Table 2: Autocorrelation matrix of human scoring

	H1	H2	H3	H4
H1	1.00	0.86	0.84	0.47
H2	0.86	1.00	0.86	0.42
H3	0.84	0.86	1.00	0.57
H4	0.47	0.42	0.57	1.00

Table 3: Autocorrelation matrix of computer-aided scoring

	C1	C2	C3	C4
C1	1.00	0.85	0.93	0.68
C2	0.85	1.00	0.83	0.69
C3	0.93	0.83	1.00	0.72
C4	0.68	0.69	0.72	1.00

The correlation of adjacent scores indicates the validity of test paper and the reliability of scoring standard. As can be seen from the table, the first three test papers are feasible with high validity and reliability. In terms of the fourth test paper, there is some problem that draws stronger response in human scoring. Such phenomenon raises a question that the insensitivity of computer-aided scoring towards abnormal test paper still has a long way to go, and requires much consideration.

Table 4: Correlation between human scoring and computer-aided scoring

H1/C1	H2/C2	H3/C3	H4/C4	Average
0.97	0.94	0.85	0.60	0.84

The correlation between human scoring and computer-aided scoring stays at a high level in the first three tests, and gradually declines with progress in learning, especially so when it comes to the fourth test, where the correlation drops dramatically. This is likely because that the accuracy of computer-aided scoring can be affected by progress of study and increasing difficulty of assignment, which can be limited for English writing teaching.

4.2. Computer-aided scoring is efficient in improving enthusiasm and participation of English writing among students.

On the analysis of motivation of students, statistics from Jukuu show that the first ten students have made at least ten corrections of their texts. No.1 made 39 corrections, No.10 made 12, there are 23 students in total that made corrections more than ten times. Thus it can be seen that students are motivated to make corrections through Jukuu, which is of assistance to their writing.

Correction ranking (top ten) (from Jukuu)

	Name	Class	Correction
1	Student Shi	English D8	39
2	Student Xiao	College English D	37
3	Student Han	Animation	23
4	Student Zhang	English D	22
5	Student Yu	College English D8	20
6	Student Meng	English D8	18
7	Student Chen	College English D	16
8	Student Li	College English D	14
9	Student Li	College English D8	13
10	Student Shao	8	12

4.3. Problems in Computer-aided scoring

4.3.1 Gap in high score and low score

In one composition, there was only one sentence which means no points granted, but the system gave it a score of 33. As for another composition graded 79.5 given by the computer, the human gave 70, and another one with no obvious grammatical mistakes only scored 79.

4.3.2Not all mistakes in words and grammar found

Assessment system sometimes fails to identify and correct errors. For example, in terms of grammar, “As my father drive me to the dormitory, there are lots of students hurrying to the dorm to see their new room.” this narration should have been written in the past tense, the words “drive” and “are” should be replaced with “drove” and “were”. In another sentence, “People always read messages on newspaper before, but now there is a lot of people search information in the Web”. Two verbs appear in the same sentence” (“is” and “search”).

Conclusion

Automated writing correcting system is a great assistant to teaching, but could never replace the teacher. Students are still in much need of the teacher to give lectures and guidance in class, and should not be optimistic about results from automated correcting, which still has a plenty of scope for improvement in some aspects, such as grammar correcting, word correcting, the tone of text, etc.

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Listening Autonomy through Podcasts

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Abstract: This study reports the effects that metacognitive instruction has on an advanced learner of English as a foreign language (EFL). The author uses English language podcasts to enhance listening comprehension for personal and professional purposes. Journal entries and interviews during a three-week period illustrate how, with explicit feedback and guidance, the learner implemented aspects of metacognitive instruction and developed techniques to become a more successful listener.

Keywords: *metacognitive instruction, autonomy, podcasts, feedback*

Introduction

Listening is a multi-tiered construct that is relevant to each individual (Rost, 2011), whether he or she is a monolingual, or a bilingual/multilingual language user. To state that listening can be assigned to one specific domain, or is influenced by one concept ignores the contributions from and the interconnectedness of relevant disciplines (e.g., humanities, applied sciences, business and law, social sciences, natural sciences, computer sciences and systems sciences). Previous and current literature express the importance of teaching listening strategies as clusters or in groups, not as individual units (Graham & Marco, 2008; Field, 2008). As exposure to listening increases, information processing becomes more automatized, permitting an individual to dedicate additional metacognitive resources to develop strategic listening skills (McBride, 2011), particularly when metacognitive instruction is involved (Goh, 2008).

Prior research employed metacognitive instruction with interventions based on traditional methods of listening comprehension (e.g., foreign-language designed audio, programs with a lower speech production rate). The exposure, while relevant, is limited to the number of hours and practice opportunities provided for the listeners (Cross, 2014). The advances in technology allow listeners to select authentic materials that they believe is more suited for their personal interests, needs, and skills. According to Cross (2014), the portability of podcasts permits access to "an up-to-date, varied and extensive online source of audio and video broadcasts for learners wishing to improve their language learning beyond the confines of the classroom" (p. 9). This grants an individual more autonomy over his or her learning, allowing for more strategic listening practice (e.g., noticing new second language lexis, grammar, and function) beyond the classroom environment. Furthermore, Cross (2014) stated that the "vast range of authentic, semi-authentic and non-authentic audio or audiovisual podcasts" (p. 13) extend beyond the traditional confines of the classroom. Learners can potentially increase their exposure to the target language structures, culture and other aspects necessary for improving language acquisition. Studies conducted by O'Bryan & Hegelheimer (2007), and Hegelheimer & O'Bryan (2009) researched the integration of podcasts within classroom contexts. Participants' self-reports indicated a high degree of satisfaction with their podcast-enhanced courses. However, without explicit instruction, the question remains whether or not a second language learner will reap the benefits from listening to podcasts, particularly if the learner has a high degree of language proficiency; hence, the basis for this study.

The majority of studies have focused on beginner to intermediate L2 learners of English, with only brief suggestions how to assist more capable (i.e., advanced) learners. Corrective feedback is part of the process of achieving L2 proficiency, having been hypothesized (Swain, 1995) that when learners' attention is focused (i.e., noticing) on correction, their metacognitive awareness will bolster their acquisition skills (Ellis, 2009). Other variables unique to advanced L2 English learners may affect listening acquisition in ways which have not yet been noted (Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010; Vandergrift & Baker, 2015). The research questions for this study are:

1) To what extent will an advance learner of English benefit from explicit instruction?
2) To what degree will a listening journal assist an advanced learner of English with listening acquisition?

Methodology

Participant

Sally (a pseudonym) is post-doctoral research assistant at a national university in Japan. She is a Malaysian citizen whose first language is Mandarin, and a multi-language user of English, Hokkien, Cantonese, Malay, and Japanese of varying degrees. Sally completed her compulsory education in Malaysia, then enrolled in an undergraduate and a graduate programs at a university in

Taiwan. Sally has a high degree of motivation, which is shown to have an impact upon language acquisition. Sally engages in daily (L2) activities that sustain her level of motivation, professionally (analyzing articles in English, presenting findings of her current project at weekly meetings) and personally (watching American-based dramas and movies, listening to podcasts, communicating with friends in English).

Instruments

A questionnaire comprised of items that targeted bilingual/multilingual language users and assessed motivational factors (Baker, 2011; Vandergrift, 2005; Gullberg & Indefrey, 2003; Marian, Blumenfeld, & Kaushanskaya, 2007) was given to Sally. Responses to the items were used to suggest appropriate podcasts for Sally, and the language(s) she should listen to.

Sally was given a notebook to use as a listening journal. The intent was to examine Sally's podcast notes; to identify the extent to which she used metacognitive skills and strategies while listening; and to ascertain if explicit feedback assisted with her listening (Cross, 2014).

Procedures

Prior to the commencement of the study, a questionnaire was administered to Sally. As previously mentioned, the purpose was to determine which languages she rated as necessary for listening. Sally stated that "in my current situation, English is the most important since everything (articles, research, conferences, publications, and employment) uses it." She stressed the importance of being a scientist (i.e., researcher) and the need of having high English language comprehension. After establishing the most important language in her current context (English), we began the process of choosing appropriate podcasts based on her interests (science, Japanese, English as a second language) and self-study needs (Cross, 2014) to ensure that her motivation would remain high and would not be negatively impacted by the upcoming tasks (listening and recording information in her journal).

After we identified the types of podcasts she would use, we explored how Sally would use the journal to assist with listening comprehension. The basis for this approach originated from Goh's research (2008) related to metacognition and listening. If given explicit instruction and feedback (Stafford, Wood Bowden, & Sanz, 2012; Mackey, 2007), Sally's metacognitive awareness would be heightened, permitting her to become a more proficient listener in the future, and thereby reduce the cognitive load that would be placed upon her working memory.

During our first meeting (before listening to the podcasts), we revised the approach to the journal. It was apparent that Sally automatized many of the aspects that she would have been required to complete for the journal. When asked, she said that "I do this in my head, and I don't want to waste time." Her comment indicated the importance of automatization for individuals, whether it is in the L1 or another language (de Bot, 1996).

Based on her other responsibilities, Sally could not commit to the five-week treatment. At her request, we revised the schedule (three weeks) and increased the number of podcasts (once a day) "to make up for lost time." The procedure was also revised: (1) Sally would choose podcasts of interest; (2) while listening to the podcast, she would write down any vocabulary or expressions that were new or she had a vague meaning about; (3) she would write a short reflection about the podcast (e.g., what she enjoyed about it, any challenges she encountered, and other aspects that interested her; (4) when possible, review the transcript (if one is available) and email the url; and (5) meet with me and review the information recorded in her journal.

Results

Questionnaire

The questionnaire, administered a week before the treatment began, revealed that in her current context (Japan), Sally actively uses Chinese (Mandarin) and English for speaking, listening, writing, reading, grammar and pronunciation. These two languages dominate the professional and personal aspects of her life and are the most important languages for her "at this time in my life." When asked for clarification, she stated that "it changes where I am. In Taiwan, Chinese (Mandarin) was more important than English, except for my studies. But, I used English when I spoke with friends and watch programs."

Prior to the first podcast, I met with Sally for a brief interview. The purpose was to verify, from her perspective, the importance of English language acquisition and to solicit her opinions when presented with communication issues (see Goh, 2008; Vandergrift, 2005; Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010); and Yeldham & Gruba, 2014). She exhibited greater metacognitive awareness, and was performing at an extremely advanced level. Her responses ("this is what I do" and "you do the same thing, right?") support the fact that L1 speakers and advanced L2 speakers prefer to use as few resources as possible when engaged in communication acts (i.e., listening and speaking), a proficiency indicator. Advanced learners similar to Sally could possibly benefit more from top-down instruction/intervention rather than bottom-up methods (Yeldham & Gruba, 2014).

Journal

In her first journal entry, Sally organized her entry as she felt was appropriate. Rather than suggest a format to follow, I reiterated the necessity of including identifying information (podcast name, date, and duration), a brief summary, a short reflection, and new or unknown vocabulary. When we discussed the podcast ("Babies move tongue to learn new tongues"), I inquired about her vocabulary note ("pull the plug" and "pacifier"). She described the former as "terminating or removing a power source, like life support" and the latter as "someone who makes things calm." Having listened to the podcast prior to our meeting, I asked her to think about a secondary meaning of her vocabulary selection, the first used as humor, and the second used as an object. With this "indirect" explicit instruction, Sally reviewed the podcast's transcript and listened again, perplexed about the new meanings. When I explained the meanings ("pull the plug" = "remove the plastic nipple from the baby's mouth"; "pacifier" = "a plastic nipple given to infants to suck on"), the information became clear. In fact, she stated that the pacifier is called "a soother in Malaysia." My explanation increased her metacognitive awareness ("pull the plug") and also enabled her to access a word that is an established part of her lexis ("soother").

Sally's next podcast entry illustrated elements of clearer organization. The podcast from *Happy English* was "easy to listen to, but I always learn new vocabulary." One of the new expressions ("someone is done") was written, yet as with the previous journal entry, Sally incorrectly guessed the literal grammatical meaning, not the idiomatic expression ("the person is in trouble"). It was the first time for her to encounter the expression. She correctly inferred the meaning of "do it on the fly" primarily "from the context of conversation." These two entries demonstrated that with explicit instruction and directed input, a learner will notice changes and will attempt to use the correct forms in the future, or add the information to his or her lexis.

As time progressed, Sally's journal entries became more detailed and more reflective without any prompting. Her subsequent reflections represented the internal cognitive effects the listening treatment had. She progressed from maintaining surface-level notes to having a detailed, reflective journal that could potentially be used as a lexis reference. She stated that the journal could be a new reference source, "like a dictionary."

Discussion

A few limitations may have impacted the effectiveness of the intervention. They are discussed below.

Podcasts. Transcripts of audio and audio-visual programs assist learners with evaluating the different types of speech forms used during a podcast, and provide the opportunity to engage in analysis of the linguistic and discourse features unique to said podcast (Cross, 2014). Lexical items could be visually confirmed (e.g., spelling), which assists a learner when searching for the meaning of unknown vocabulary. Podcasts from non-profit or publically-funded stations (e.g., Scientific America, BBC World Science) had detailed transcripts available for download, or were featured alongside the podcast from its webpage, allowing one to listen and scroll through the text simultaneously. Questions about what was said, or problematic areas could be read and processed, aiding with comprehension in the present and for the future. Transcripts for other podcasts selected by Sally had cursory information available (*Happy English*), or required paid membership to have full access.

Even though the podcasts were selected at her discretion, the podcasts' speed was sometimes problematic for Sally. A podcast which she has listened to for the past three years, *60-Seconds Science*, has "always been a bit challenging." The speech is fast and contains "scientific English." Sally stated that she "can understand the context, but can't trace every words' meaning. I understand the whole story at the first time, understand every words need to listen 3 times & transcript."

Time. Due to increasing professional responsibilities, Sally's participation was limited to three weeks of time instead of the original five weeks. Sally volunteered to increase the number of podcasts from once a week to "whenever time is available" to make up for the reduced time and listened to a total of twenty-seven podcasts, ranging from one minute to as long as twenty-seven minutes. To lessen the impact of fatigue, a longer treatment period (e.g., twelve weeks) and fewer podcasts (e.g., twice a week) might be more beneficial.

Journal. For learners, regardless of proficiency, a format to follow for journal entries might be suitable. Learners who could be classified as low-intermediate and below would benefit from whereas the latter approach could be more beneficial for high-intermediate and advanced learners. This is also supported by Sally, who stated that the journal "would be useful for new learners, but it depends on level of English.” Lower level learners could “read and listen with the transcript, and write their ideas in the journal” to assist with their listening, and increase their lexis.

Quantitative assessment. The instruments administered to Sally were useful in obtaining her perspective towards language, listening, and understanding her motivations for learning. However, analyzing the constructs described by the participant (e.g., motivation, confidence, agency and proficiency) could corroborate Sally’s statements, and thereby support the argument for using podcasts.

Conclusion

This study has illustrated that an advanced L2 learner of English could benefit from explicit instruction to assist with listening comprehension, and to provide an opportunity to expand the lexis through aural input. The participant’s journal entries and interviews reinforce the aspect that all learners will make advancements in their listening comprehension skills. In conjunction with the use of journals, learners will increase their metacognitive awareness, thereby improving their listening efficacy. Additionally, explicit and corrective feedback with relevant explanations will enable listeners to expand their lexis, and apply this knowledge to future listening contexts (Stafford et al., 2012; Lyster & Saito, 2010). Metacognitive instruction is needed for individuals, regardless of their level and the language being used.

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Cooperative Learning in the EFL Classroom in a Russian University

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Abstract: English language teachers are often reluctant to implement cooperative learning in the classroom because they fear they might lose control of the teaching process or that lower level students will not participate in the group work. The present paper discusses the benefits and drawbacks of applying cooperative learning in the EFL classroom in a Russian University. Several examples of implementing cooperative learning activities in the EFL classroom have been introduced. Special attention has been given to the role of the teacher.

Keywords: *EFL classroom, cooperative learning, English proficiency*

Introduction

To function successfully in the globalized world students are required not only to learn academic subject matter, but also to learn interpersonal and small group communication skills. This is a requirement which stems from cultural, social and economic changes in the society. To satisfy the demand of teaching the subject matter and improving students' social abilities, EFL teachers tend to apply Cooperative Learning activities in which English Language Learners practice the English language in a low-risk environment which poses no threat to the learners, who otherwise might feel insecure and fear they do not produce proper language skills. Working in cooperative learning groups with other students provides supportive conditions for students, who practice the English language and learn to communicate in the English language environment at the same time.

Cooperative Learning as a teaching method has been around for a long time but has become especially popular in recent years. Foreign language teaching has changed from a teacher-centered model to a student-centered model, and ~~a~~ great attention is given to engaging students in independent work. Nearly all modern ESL textbooks encourage students to "work with a partner" or "in groups". Cooperative Learning enhances learner self-regulation and self-reliance in the language classroom; students become more capable of clarifying their own knowledge by communicating and monitoring their language use. Many of them are able to effectively teach each other along the way. The axiom says, "Those who teach learn twice" (Murphey & Jacobs, 2000).

The ultimate purpose of learning for the students is to no longer need the teacher but to be able to use English independently whenever they need it. However, many students and teachers feel more comfortable with a teacher-centered style of learning.

What is Cooperative Learning?

Cooperative learning refers to a variety of teaching methods in which students work in groups to help each other learn academic content. In Cooperative Learning classrooms, students are expected to talk to each other, to discuss various problems, to assess each other's progress, to act as teachers if necessary thus filling in gaps in each other's knowledge. In the Cooperative Learning EFL classroom this is an environment in which English speaking instruction gives way to actually speaking the language.

Comparison of traditional teaching and cooperative learning shows that in traditional EFL classroom in Russia, like in many other countries, students work competitively. It is a competition to determine who is the best in the class without taking into consideration the performance of the other students. Students mostly interact with their teachers. The emphasis is made on grammar and vocabulary exercises and review of knowledge by the teacher. Teachers transmit knowledge and evaluate the academic progress of learners, acting as controllers.

Cooperative learning, on the other hand, promotes interaction among students and cooperation. Teachers act as facilitators. The emphasis is made on speaking the language. While in traditional learning situations lower level students may often feel unmotivated, cooperative groups are believed to promote enjoyment of the learning process and involvement of each and every student.

In the traditional language classroom, teachers are known to do most of the talking. As suggested by Cohen (1994), student language production is sequential, which results in minimal student language production. Cohen suggests that up to 80 percent of class time could be scheduled for activities that include opportunity for student talk. Long and Porter (1985) found that one of the main reasons for low achievement by many learners is simply that they do not have enough time to practice the new language. In a language class of 30 students, under typical teacher-centered procedures, the average time that a student spoke was only 30 seconds per 50-minute lesson or just one hour per student per year. However, when students worked in groups of three for just one quarter of a 50-minute period, the individual student talk increased more than 500 percent.

Fortunately, in a Russian University EFL classroom we do not have 30 students. We have 15 to 20 students, which still does not allow for much more time for a student to speak. For example, let us look at a typical task of retelling a text or speaking on a given topic. In a traditional class, a student will only speak for two minutes and listen (or not listen) to his fellow-students up to the end of the lesson. In a Cooperative Learning class, a student can speak in groups of four for two minutes, listen to the questions and answer questions for another two minutes, listen to the members of his group delivering their retelling, practice asking questions, listen to their peers answering the questions, etc. They do not have time to waste, as they are engaged in practicing the language and they are communicating.

The *Two Types of Cooperative Learning* as described by David W. Johnson and Roger T. Johnson are Formal Cooperative Learning, which consists of students working together for several weeks to achieve shared learning goals and complete jointly specific tasks and assignments and Informal Cooperative Learning which consists of having students work together to achieve a joint learning goal in temporary, ad-hoc groups that last from a few minutes to one class period (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 2008).

To differentiate Cooperative Learning from simply putting students into groups, the teacher must be aware of the several key components of Cooperative Learning, among which are positive interdependence, i.e. students are supposed to achieve a certain objective; individual accountability which implies that each team member is responsible for his/her fair share to the group’s success; promotive interaction which refers to the interaction of students in order to help each other accomplish the task and the group’s shared goals.

The teacher’s role is different from that in a traditional classroom. In cooperative learning, teachers have to observe how each group and each member is functioning. They explain the task and facilitate the process, offer support when it is needed, and help to solve the group conflicts if there are any. The teachers are expected to actively participate in the class work, moving around the class, listening to what the students are saying, and providing assistance. Teachers have to evaluate each student's performance and also the development of the whole class. When grading students, the teacher first of all considers the average performance of the group. In a cooperative learning class, teachers are facilitators who guide their learners on the way to achieving educational objectives.

In view of all stated above it might be surprising that English language teachers are often reluctant to implement cooperative learning in the classroom. Some of them fear they might lose control of the teaching process; others feel that lower level students will not participate in the group work. I have been using CL techniques in *my EFL classroom* to see whether this method really outperforms traditional teaching strategies.

I find that students actively participate in language speaking activities and may learn from each other. Higher level students are usually ready to offer support to lower level learners, although a lot of teacher assistance is often necessary.

Most students enjoy working in a group. Still, some students do not work well with their peers, and often cause conflict in their group.

In a competitive society, more advanced students often take over the majority of the activity instead of helping other students learn. This results in some learners becoming passive and falling behind.

It is often very hard to evaluate group members individually. Evaluating all group members as a group leads to everybody receiving the same grade regardless of how much work they contributed. As a result, the learners do not acquire the language skills sought after.

Finally, Cooperative Learning in an EFL classroom means much more work for a language teacher than for a traditional lesson. The method needs extensive preparation due to the fact that apart from language skills, social and communication skills have to be taught.

Conclusion

Cooperative learning in EFL is an effective teaching model. The benefits of applying Cooperative Learning in EFL are connected to the time spent on actually practicing the language. Cooperative learning does create a positive learning environment which helps learners to master their English. First of all, students' speaking skills improve significantly. However, there is more emphasis on communication skills than on the English language which seems to be a medium rather than the target.

Three important components in the development of students' speaking skills are fluency, accuracy, and pronunciation. Although Cooperative Learning can produce extraordinary results in creative activities such as role playing or presentations, speaking skills have improved significantly, but only in fluency. As for pronunciation and accuracy, which among other things refers to the mastery of grammar, the outcome is not so impressive. According to Thornbury (2005) speaking English accurately means doing without or with few errors. Since the objective of Cooperative Learning is for students to have an opportunity to communicate in the target language, teachers and students alike concentrate on the meaning of the utterance, not the grammatical correctness. Some experts believe that with practice, grammar errors should disappear. Experience shows that grammar errors do not disappear unless grammar patterns are practiced in earnest. The same is true about pronunciation.

English language learners in Russia learn English as a foreign language. There is no so-called Natural English Language Environment to help them hear and practice English outside their classroom. The teachers cannot and should not rely on the social interaction alone to improve students' language skills. They have to act as English Language models for the learners who will, perforce, copy their teachers.

If the purpose of the English Language instruction is communication and making oneself understood in everyday situations, Cooperative Learning is indispensable. However, for academic purposes, for students to study and work in an English speaking environment where accuracy is as important as fluency, I should recommend using Cooperative Learning activities for occasional projects throughout the year or incorporating them into daily classroom work, blending cooperative learning activities with more traditional English language teaching techniques.

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Appendix

Examples of activities used in my classroom which have proved successful. Depending on the purpose of the lesson I integrate these activities into a traditional lesson structure.

1. If the class needs to practice a grammar pattern, I would assign students to pairs or triads and explain the task.

Reported Speech Exercise

The students have to ask 3 to 6 questions on a topic being discussed. The partner has to answer the questions and to report to the larger group or to the whole class what he/she has asked his partner and what his partner has answered, e.g. I asked S. whether he was a risk taker and he said he was risk-averse. In this exercise students practice asking questions, reporting questions, listen to each other, correct each other if necessary. If the students need support, the teacher provides it.

2. Higher-level interpreting practice. The students are assigned to groups of 4, two English-speaking participants (one member of the “delegation” and one “interpreter”) and two Russian speakers (one member of the “delegation” and one “interpreter”). Based on the article which they read at the previous lesson the students “participate in the negotiations” discussing the theme of the article, acting as representatives of the delegation and their interpreters.

In this exercise students participate in the activity they are likely to work in after graduation. Apart from practicing the vocabulary, they simulate the natural environment of negotiations, acquiring the skills needed in real life situations.

3. Based on the vocabulary learned in class students prepare for a debate on a given topic:

At home think of arguments for or against vaccination. Think of examples and reasons for your point of view. In groups of 4 discuss your arguments. Come up with an improved list of arguments. Try to anticipate the questions the other group might ask you. Get ready for the debate. Meet with the other group to discuss the issue.

In this Cooperative Learning task each student is required to formulate his or her answer before the class. Students share their answers with their partners, listen carefully to their partner’s answer. Then the group creates a new answer by integrating their initial answers, building on each other’s thoughts, and finally participate in the discussion.

4. As the final part of work on Unit 4 in Unlock by Cambridge University Press, the learners were supposed to speak about hazards and risks. The research project prepared by the students involved coming up with a list of hazards students might encounter on FEFU campus and the ways of reducing these risks. The students were assigned to pairs of different levels. Each student in the group

was responsible for his/her part of the presentation. The presentations were recorded on camera and sent to the teacher who graded them based on the average performance of the group.

Building Communicative Grammar Teaching Methodologies: Not an Either/Or Approach

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Abstract: While methodologies to improve communication skills have been widely discussed, grammar teaching methods which enhance communication abilities have generated little attention. This implies that communication skills can be developed without creating a grammar foundation. Studies done in this fashion not only ignore, but also shallowly limit, a holistic view of English abilities. Further, these learners learn grammar as only mechanical memorization-centered activities. In this study, the authors explain the importance of creating effective methodologies for teaching communicative grammar with the purpose of enhancing “communication skills to understand and convey information and ideas *properly*” (emphasis added). The authors also demonstrate grammar teaching activities which enhance both learners’ communicative skills and grammatical understanding.

Keywords: *communication*, *grammar*, *vocabulary*, *inversion*

Introduction with a Quiz

Let us start this paper with a quiz. Select the best answer to complete the sentence below.

> The student ID card reader only works at close (   ); you need to hold the card right up to the electric eye to activate the copy machine.
>
> (A) space   (B) zone   (C) range   (D) distance

In 2008, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) revised the curriculum guidelines and clarified grammar’s position by situating it in relation to communication skills. Much attention has been paid to communication-centered methodologies. Grammar and vocabulary teaching methods have not changed over the past few decades (e.g., Onishi, 2014), although as many reports (e.g., Nakata, 1999; Murasato and Orita, 2008) have shown that one of the main reasons that demotivate learners is *never-changing* grammar and vocabulary teaching methods which are mostly a teacher-, memorization-, examination-centered style. Furthermore, teachers who undertake communication-centered English teaching have no choice but heavily depend on the infamous traditional memorization-centered style when they introduce new grammar rules and vocabulary. It appears to be that grammar and vocabulary teaching is destined to be boring and painful and that the marriage between communication and grammar/vocabulary is not going to happen anytime soon, if at all. The challenge all teachers face, especially in Japan, is that they are now expected to teach the reason why (D) is incorrect ("close distance" is a commonly found misuse), while (C) is the correct answer, not only without depending on an orthodox memorization-centered grammar/vocabulary teaching methods but also in a way that could improve learners' communication abilities.

Japanese Learners

Many scholars, such as Usuki (2003), have attempted to understand Japanese learners and their cultural background thoroughly. As Usuki (2003) argues, Japanese learners are quite autonomous, particularly when studying for entrance exams. Concerning Japanese students' attitude toward learning, most of them are accustomed to examination- and teacher-centered English classes (e.g., Gitsaki, 2005). Nakata (1999), undertaking a series of interviews, explains that Japanese students lack interest in, or even worse, hate English due to the prevalence of the teacher-centered classroom and the lack of specific purpose after the completion of entrance exams. Simply put, university students in Japan tend to be passive toward learning English and lack interest in it. In addition, they tend to memorize everything they need to know for exams, which leads them to not think about the etymological background of vocabulary and grammar rules.

The Purpose of This Study

Since creating a grammar foundation plays a crucial role in enhancing communication skills, the marriage between communication and grammar teaching must be pursued in dealing with the goal of English education. The aims of this study are to explain the importance of creating effective methodologies for teaching communicative grammar and to demonstrate grammar as well as vocabulary teaching activities which improve both learners' communicative skills and understanding of grammar rules and vocabulary.

Communicative Grammar Instruction

As mentioned above, many Japanese students get used to memorization-centered learning. For instance, consider the following typical example:

(1) AFFIRMATIVE: You **<u>are</u>** a Japanese. ⇒ INTERROGATIVE: **<u>Are</u>** you a Japanese?

Most students remember the rule to make an interrogative sentence like (1). The rule is that when the affirmative sentence contains the primary auxiliaries, such as *is*, *am*, *are*, the interrogative sentence will begin with these words. The second example comes from the list of auxiliary verbs.

One of our students asked one important question to figure out the sense of auxiliary verbs. She could not understand the meaning of the past form "would" since "will" is to express desire in the future and there is no such a thing as the future in the past. Another question is related to the degree of politeness. The question is the reason why the phrase "Could/Would you~?" is a more polite way to make a request than "Can/Will you~?." In fact, they learn it mechanistically because they are simply taught as idiomatic expressions which deliver different degrees of politeness.

Given these questions above, there are at least three problems faced by students. First, most students do not know the reasons behind grammar rules since they learn grammar as only mechanical memorization-centered activities. Second, when learning new grammar rules, they do not connect what they already know and what they newly learn, treating them as separate rules. Last, if they learn grammar mechanistically, they do not truly understand communicative aspects.

To solve these problems, the authors suggest four characteristics of communicative grammar instruction. As Nation (2001) claims, it should be as minimally mechanical as possible to work out learning burden. Further, it should be to foster both communicative and grammatical understanding. Needless to say, it should stimulate learners' interests, as Nakata (1999) states. Fourth, it should help students understand the core of grammar/vocabulary to improve their communication skills.

Undertaking Communicative Grammar Instruction

Pertaining to the problems encountered by students, the authors had them think about the reason why *are* is moved in front of *you* when making an interrogative sentence such as (1) above. We also showed them the following sentence as another example of inversion and helped them understand why the word order is reversed and the difference between the sentence including inversion (2) "Never did I watch such a great movie." and the affirmative sentence "I never watched such a great movie."

Connecting the examples (1) and (2), they came to understand the core of inversion, which makes a sentence sound striking or unusual (used for emphasis or special effect). To verify that they understand different nuances between the affirmative sentence in (1) and the sentences including inversion and have them connect what they already know and what they newly learn, the authors used movie scripts such as *Scott Pilgrim vs. the World* and the *Harry Potter* series. The reason why we used movies is that movies can be utilized as an effective medium for communicative grammar instruction. Characters in a movie, *Scott Pilgrim vs. the World*, exchange the following utterances.

(3) RAMONA: Roxy?

SCOTT: You know this girl?

ROXY: Oh boy, <u>does she know me</u>.

SCOTT: What...is...she...talking about?

ROXY: He really doesn't know?

Learners might wonder why a period instead of a question mark is used in the underlined sentence in spite of the fact that inversion takes place and the sentence has the same form as an interrogative sentence. However, if they have practical knowledge on the core of inversion as stated above, they will understand the reason why the question mark is not put into this expression and that inversion is used for emphasis, based on the context.

Concerning the difference between "Could/Would you~?" and "Can/Will you~?", as communicative activities, teachers probably tell students to make a series of requests to each other using these expressions. However, a grammatical explanation on the reason why these expressions convey different degrees of politeness will not be sufficient. Students might increase their pragmatic abilities to use these expressions by repetition without gaining grammatical understanding between *would*/*could* and *will*/*can*, which can come in handy later when learning different other rules of grammar. To help them understand the reason why these expressions convey different degrees of politeness, they need to grasp the core of the past tense. The past form, in general, shows that an event happened at a point in past time remote from now. This implies that past tense morphology conveys "distance" (e.g., Langacker, 1991), which is the core of the past tense. The notion of "distance" allows "Could/Would you~?" to be a more polite way to make a request than "Can/Will you~?". For example, in *Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets*, Harry and Uncle Vernon have the following conversation over an irritating noise that Uncle Vernon thinks Harry's bird is making.

> (4) UNCLE VERNON: I'm warning you, if you can't control that bloody bird it'll have to go!
>
> HARRY: But she's bored! If I could only let her out for an hour or two.

If learners have practical knowledge of the difference between *would*/*could* and *will*/*can*, they will understand the different nuances Uncle Vernon and Harry make and why Uncle Vernon uses *can* and Harry *could*. This sort of practical knowledge can enhance learners' communicative skills, and there are a number of examples in movies that teachers can use to guide learners to obtain grammatical understanding as a foundation for their communication skills.

Conclusion

It is important to teach English grammar effectively because it can help them improve communication skills. Grammar learning is not mechanistic, but communicative because grammatical understanding is a foundation for their communication skills. To develop their communication skills, much attention should be paid to discover effective ways to integrate grammar teaching into communicative English learning, focusing on reasons behind grammar rules. Teaching vocabulary can be also done communicatively, by explaining the subtle nuances expressed in a word or a phrase. For instance, "close" means a decreased range between two objects as in "Come closer", "Close the door!" On the other hand, "distance" consists of two words, *dis* and *stance*, meaning that an object is moving away from its stance. A phrase, "close distance" is incorrect because these two words head to totally opposite directions. Furthermore, only "range" is determined by two objects, while "space" and "zone" are not. By understanding etymological backgrounds of terms, learners will be able to select correct phrases over wrong ones.

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Exploring the EAP Curriculum in EFL and ESL Contexts

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Abstract: This paper provides suggestions for the development of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) curricula frameworks through a presentation of the results of research conducted both in English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language（EFL）contexts. Our study first involved interviews and document research of two EAP programs in the Hong Kong ESL context. Incorporating findings from the research, we devised and conducted a survey of four EAP curricula in the Japanese EFL context. Through published document research, a questionnaire, and interviews, we investigated aspects such as educational mission statements, objectives of the EAP courses, and program assessment. For the development of EAP curricula, we would like to suggest the necessity of collaboration between English language teachers and other subject teachers in

developing course design and materials, and the need for an incorporation of external perspectives to program assessment.

Keywords: *EAP, EGAP, ESAP, curriculum*

Introduction

In the era of globalization, the Japanese government agencies consider internationalization of universities as the main issue of higher education. In order to advance internationalization, there is a strong demand for improvement in English education in tertiary institutions. In 2009, Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in Japan (MEXT) implemented the "Global 30" project, which proposed the following three targets: (1) increasing the number of university classes to be conducted in English, (2) inviting 300,000 international students to Japan, and (3) supporting 13 universities as centers for internationalization (MEXT, 2009). Consequently, in many universities, a pressing need has been felt for developing and implementing EAP curricula. However, there is not yet a common framework of reference for assessment, such as the accreditation scheme by British Association of Lecturers in English for Academic Purposes (BALEAP) (2016) for designing EAP curricula in Japan. This was the impetus for our research project: developing a conceptual model of an EAP curriculum suitable for the Japanese context, based on an examination of current situations of EAP education already practiced at various universities. A comparison of Japanese cases with those overseas is also included in the examination.

The purposes of this paper are to report our preliminary survey of EAP curricula both in EFL (Japan) and ESL (Hong Kong) contexts, and based on the survey results, to offer suggestions for the development of EAP curriculum frameworks in Japan.

Overview of the Research Project

Our research project named "A Survey Study of Current EAP Curricula: Towards Quality Assurance of University English Education in Japan" started in 2014. The aim of this project is to understand the current situations of EAP curricula in Japan and other countries, and to identify issues and needs towards quality assurance of university English education. Our study first involved interviews and document research in two programs in the ESL context (Hong Kong Polytechnic University and University of Hong Kong), where EAP curricula have been well established at the undergraduate level (e.g., Chen, 2016).

Incorporating findings from the research in Hong Kong, we devised and conducted a survey of EAP curricula of universities in Japan. As the first samples of the survey research, four universities (Kyoto University, Dokkyo University, International Christian University, and Waseda University Faculty of Science and Engineering) were selected, as their EAP education practices had been already well documented (e.g., Tajino, 2009; Tomiyama, 2006; Okada & Iijima, 2010). Through published document research, questionnaire, and interviews, we investigated various aspects of curriculum design and management, such as educational mission statements, objectives of the EAP courses, and program evaluation. From the analysis of the results of our research, some implications and issues pertinent to EAP curricula in both ESL and EFL contexts were identified. They include: (1) different needs in universities in terms of the positioning of EAP, that is, as English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) or English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) (Jordan, 1997), (2) needs for enhanced coordination between EGAP courses and specialized subjects in discipline study (e.g., Tajino, 2009), and (3) incorporation of internal and external program assessments for quality assurance (cf. Chen, 2016; Murray, 2016).

Curriculum survey in the ESL context

As mentioned above, to explore EAP curricula in the ESL context (i.e., Hong Kong), we employed the following two research methods: reviewing published documents about EAP programs (e.g., website, official papers, and official reports), and interviewing program administrators.

Four main findings were drawn from the collected data. Firstly, the education principles of the two programs clearly acknowledge a connection between EGAP and ESAP courses. This connection is materialized in the curricula: for example, EGAP and ESAP courses are run by common syllabi developed at the initiative of language education centres (i.e., Centre for Applied English Studies at Hong Kong Polytechnic University; English Language Centre at the University of Hong Kong). Secondly, while covering a variety of academic language skills, both curricula particularly place emphasis on academic writing to prepare students for various writing assignments required in their disciplines of study. Thirdly, the two programs develop in-house materials based on genre analysis of target texts in collaboration with academics in various fields of study. Lastly, systematic approaches to quality assurance are carried out at the two institutions. For example, both internal and external program assessments are regularly conducted. The program directors organize several committees and invite external examiners from academic and industrial arenas. Another example is that there are numerous opportunities for professional development for the teaching staff, such as seminars, workshops, class observations between colleagues, and regular meetings.

Curriculum survey in the EFL context

To investigate EAP curricula in the EFL context (i.e., Japan), we adopted three different methods for collecting data: a review of published documents, an online questionnaire, and e-mail/face-to-face follow-up interviews. We conducted a questionnaire as the main data collection method, which consists of 15 question categories (e.g. education principles of EAP curricula, syllabus, quality assurance) with a total of 53 questions. The survey generated five main findings for the EFL context.

The first finding concerns the educational principles (Table 1). In three of the four universities, EAP refers to EGAP in their curricula. In those universities, EAP education is practiced in a university-wide curriculum. The curriculum of Waseda University we investigated in this study is the only faculty-based which implements an ESAP curriculum. Due to the large number of students at Waseda, which exceeds more than 50,000 students, it can be assumed that it is difficult to provide a university-wide curriculum.

Table 1. Education principles and curriculum types of sample universities in EFL context

	Kyoto	**Dokkyo**	**ICU**	**Waseda**
Target English Skills & Educational Principles	EGAP			ESAP
	Foster International Researchers	Foster Autonomous Learners	English for Liberal Arts & Improving Study Skills	Foster Engineers & Science Researchers
Curriculum Types	University-wide			Faculty-based

The second finding is about course objectives that serve as a guideline for syllabus design, materials selection, and evaluation (Table 2). One common finding among the four universities was that for academic writing, the universities set a goal of the number of words in essay writing; for example, from 400-800 at the end of the first year and 1,000-1,500 words at the end of the second year.

Table 2. Course objectives in EFL context

	Kyoto	**Dokkyo**	**ICU**	**Waseda**
Purpose of course objectives	To serve as a guideline for syllabus design, materials selection, and evaluation			
Who designs objectives	Teachers' discretion	English programs establish common objectives per course Can-do List		

In terms of designing course objectives, individual teachers have traditionally had the authority and responsibility of defining them in the past; however, it is a recent trend for an English curriculum to provide common objectives for a course that is taught by multiple teachers. The three universities in this study articulate common course objectives in the form of a can-do list (Table 3). This preference for more unified course objectives may be attributed to a high number of part-time teachers with various backgrounds and experience employed in English programs at Japanese universities. Sharing a clear set of can-do statements as common course objectives can be ineffective way to build a common understanding of what students need to learn and what teachers need to teach in the curriculum, and to help assure the quality of English education in a large curriculum (Iijima, 2012; Okada & Iijima, 2013).

The third finding concerns teaching practice (Table 3). In all four universities, the four language skills (i.e., reading, writing, speaking, and listening) are commonly taught, but only ICU places emphasis on academic writing more than the other skills. This is because some subject courses at the university require students to write papers in English (Tomiyama, 2006).

Table 3. Teaching practice in EFL context

	Kyoto	Dokkyo	ICU	Waseda
Target Skills	Four language skills as academic language skills (e.g., academic reading, presentation)			
Prioritized Skills	N/A		Academic Writing	N/A
Materials	– Some in-house materials but limited to selected courses – Commercial textbooks – to accommodate students' wide range of language proficiency – lack of staff specialized in making in-house materials			

With regard to materials, all four universities use commercial English textbooks to some or a large extent, and the use of in-house material is limited, compared to the two universities in Hong Kong. Some respondents expressed in the interview that developing and using the in-house materials would be desirable but practically difficult, mainly due to a lack of staff specialized in materials development.

The fourth finding is regarding limited collaboration between English teachers and faculty of various disciplines on course design and materials development (Table 4). Although the necessity of such collaboration is well acknowledged among EAP research and teaching practitioners (e.g., Hyland, 2006; Tajino, 2009; Chen, 2016; Murray, 2016), it seems to be still in a preliminary phase at some Japanese universities. Kyoto University and Dokkyo University offer ESAP courses within each academic department. The ESAP courses are usually designed and taught by academic faculty often after students' completion of EGAP training. The survey results showed that an organic, effective sequence from EGAP to ESAP courses is not yet prevalent in their curricula. At Waseda University, the faculty-based curriculum links EGAP-ESAP courses for science and engineering majors. One unique case is that ICU does not offer ESAP courses, but students can receive discipline specific academic writing support outside the English program (Moriya, Edwards, Fukao, Kano, & Sanderson, 2016).

Table 4. EGAP-ESAP continuity between English teachers and discipline teachers in EFL context

	Kyoto	Dokkyo	ICU	Waseda
EGAP-ESAP Continuity in Curricula	△	✔ Limited to some courses	N/A	✔

The last finding is about efforts for quality assurance. As is the case with the ESL context, several methods for systematic quality assurance are being used at all four universities (Table 5). However, concerning the program assessment, awareness of the necessity to develop and conduct such assessment may not be widely shared.

Table 5. Quality assurance methods in EFL context

		Kyoto	Dokkyo	ICU	Waseda
Policy Dissemination		✔	✔	✔	✔
Syllabus Assessment		✔	✔	✔	✔
Professional Development (e.g., seminars, regular meetings)		✔	✔	✔	✔
Program Assessment	Internal	--	--	✔	--
	External	--	--	✔	✔

A comparison of EAP education between EFL and ESL contexts

As a summary of our survey, we would like to point out commonalities and differences between the EFL and ESL contexts in terms of three domains of EAP education: principles, curricula, and quality assurance. First, EGAP and ESAP continuity is promoted in the education principles in both contexts, although it is not yet fully realized in the EFL context. With respect to curricula, common syllabi have been set in place in both contexts. On the other hand, some differences in target skills are observed. In the ESL context, cultivation of academic writing skills is prioritized for the preparation of discipline studies. Except for ICU, such emphasis was not observed in Japanese universities' curricula. Finally, regarding quality assurance, a variety of professional development activities are conducted in both contexts. However, a significant difference was observed in program assessment. In Hong Kong, rigorous program assessment, both internal and external, is a standard practice, as it is considered vital for quality assurance and enhancement of EAP curricula. In contrast, such a systematic approach to curriculum management has not yet fully developed in Japan.

Conclusion

This study has identified two key issues for the development of EAP curriculum frameworks in the EFL context. The first is the connection between EGAP and ESAP; that is, the collaboration between English language teachers and subject teachers in developing course design and materials. The second issue concerns quality assurance. To ensure objective quality assurance, it would be important for Japanese EAP curricula to incorporate external perspectives to program assessment (Chen, 2016; Murray, 2016).

The present study is preliminary and small in scale. However, the findings are suggestive of trends of EAP education in the ESL and EFL contexts in Asia. The research will be further extended to investigate a larger number of institutions in Japan and other Asian countries in a future study.

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Recipient Design for Teacher-talk for Shared Understanding

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Abstract: This paper aims to explore a way how teachers embody the psychological term in EFL classroom. Using conversational analysis, this study clarifies what resources and how they are used. The 50-minute long data were video-recorded with two video cameras during an English lesson in a Japanese junior high school. They were transcribed according to the convention of CA and analyzed. The study reveals a particular recipient design to create a gap for students to fill in and promote student's thought. It adds some insights to the curriculum of novice language teachers training for sensitizing them to such a practice.

Keywords: *classroom interaction*, *conversation analysis*, *resource*, *recipient design*

Introduction

In L2 classrooms, it is important for students to use their own and empathetic voice so that meaning of L2 words become their personal meaning. Students tend to show passive attitude due to traditional grammar translation method still popular in language classrooms, where students just read passages and write answers for comprehension questions, verbally answer questions teachers asks. In order to let students use their own voice, it is highly important to cultivate atmosphere of the classroom where they feel free to say what they think or what they feel to some extent.

A number of EFL classroom studies have documented characteristics of teacher-talk but few have found the way to elicit self-initiated empathetic responses from students. van Lier introduced the term prolepsis, which is, leaving things out with minimal clues designed so that the hearer is invited to step into an enlarged common pragmatic space. The argument of van Lier gives some insight but it is not empirically evidenced. Therefore it is worth finding out how teachers talk to make learners understand such terms.

Literature Review

What phenomena have been focused on in the field of classroom interaction researches and what approaches have been taken for these researches? There are numbers of classroom interaction researches with various constructs. According to Seedhouse and Jenks (2015), they are, for example, interactional competence (Hall et al., 2011), classroom interactional competence (Walsh, 2011), task openings (Hellermann, 2007), yes/no questions (Lee, 2008), explicit positive assessment (Wong and Waring, 2008), off-task talk (Markee, 2005), Implementation of learning tasks (Hellermann & Pekarek Doehler, 2010), floor management in task-based interaction (Jenks, 2007) and others.

In traditional approaches of applied linguistics (AL) and second language acquisition (SLA) researches, quantitative researches have been the main stream and this trend is changing globally as there are more qualitative researches than ever. But the major trend in Japan is still quantitative researches as far as Al and SLA researches. The first contribution of qualitative research is well-known IRF or IRE sequence discovered in discourse analysis (Sinclair and Courthard, 1975). (I, initiation, R, response and F, feedback or E, evaluation). They separate discourse from its context, separate words and phrases and code them. Next, in ethnography, observers attend to classrooms where classroom interaction is actually conducted, observe and record interactions, conduct interviews with participants, record videos (e.g., Mehan, 1979). In ethnography researchers often become members of the community. Conversation analysis put importance in the emic approach which means analysis is done from participants' perspectives, not from researches'. CA researchers regard how participants interpret each other's utterance is shown in their next turn of conversation sequence and that is what they try to analyze from the emic stance, not from researcher's stance (e.g., Seedhouse, 2004). Lastly, multimodal interactional analysis pays attention not only to verbal behavior but also to nonverbal behavior such as eye gaze, gesture, posture (Mondada, 2007). In this study, the approach taken is mixture of ethnography, conversation analysis and multimodal interactional analysis.

The aims of this study are to explore what kind of recipient design language teachers create in classroom interactions to withdraw a self-initiated empathetic response from students and to find ways how teachers and students co-construct understanding of psychological terms needed for learning in EFL classroom.

The contribution of this research is to have novice teachers sensitize a particular recipient design to create a gap for students to fill in and promote their thought when the novice teachers cannot get enough information about practices of experienced teachers or, mentors. Also in the study, taking on one particular psychological term "effort", I try to find out how a teacher uses resources including her own to embody this psychological term to share the understanding with students. Using methodology in between ethnography, conversational analysis and multimodal interactional analysis, this study clarifies what resources and how they are used by the teacher.

Methodology

The data are from an English lesson in Japanese junior high school classroom. The lesson is conducted both in English and Japanese where we can see code-switching. There is also code-switching between local dialectic Japanese and standard Japanese, casual form and polite form.

The class consists of 28 Japanese 2nd graders and a Japanese homeroom teacher. In Japan, one homeroom teacher is appointed to every class who is in charge of only one class and responsible for his/her students. Homeroom teachers have a short meeting at the beginning and the end of the day and even visit to meet their parents to know their family situation.

The duration of the data is 52-minute long with two cameras in November, 2015. One camera was set at the back of the classroom to record the teacher's action and the other was set on the tall locker of the classroom to have a bird-eye view to see students' action. The recording was transcribed according to the conversation analysis convention. Also non-verbal behaviors such as eye gaze, gesture and posture of the participants were transcribed if they are relevant for the analysis.

Lesson context

The teacher picks up one section of the official text book, has students repeat sentence by sentence after the TV located in the corner of the classroom, then repeat after the teacher to practice intonation and pronunciation. After this she has them practice reading in pairs, taking turns to read sentence by sentence. Some pairs were called to stand up and demonstrate pair reading in front of the class.

This video clip starts right after one pair of a girl and a boy (Yuma) finished demonstration of pair reading. The teacher and students clapped and the teacher praised the girl who read very smoothly and accurately, and encouraged the boy who could not read very well. The length of the video clip analyzed is one minute and 30 seconds.

Analysis

Right after the teacher praised the girl and clapped, she looked down at the desk when she said "Yuma never give up". She encouraged him but, interestingly, her gaze is **not** toward him. Immediately with her gaze shift to the whole class, she says "*Yomi no nigatena hito*" which means those who are poor at reading. The shift of the discussion focus from an individual Yuma to a category including him is shown with her gaze shift.

Two examples of poor reader are shown. The teacher says she wants to show one student, Yamamoto's textbook who is a student in another class known as being poor at English. Students demonstrate bewilderment saying "*eh*", which means why she mentions his textbook. Their action shows the interpretation of students as the teacher's new topic being irrelevant.

One student ventures to guess the reason by saying *"kaite hanneya"* (=I know he writes everything down). Another student says "he is making *doryoku* (=effort)". The gap created between topics is being filled by students' guesses. These guesses of students were stimulated by the image of Yamamoto and his textbook the teacher displays to them. It is important that at this time, the psychological term "*doryoku* (=effort) comes from students, not from the teacher. While explaining, the teacher imitates Yamamoto's action, writing everything down in Japanese so that he can pronounce English well. She uses her fingers like holding a pen, staring at the point where the pen is writing. Her facial expression is really painstaking. Looking back at the students, she says "*Sorega doryoku* (=this is the effort) twice, recycling the term a student first produced. Here she has made the norm about the effort that is Yamamoto's action is the model of the concept effort in this particular occasion. We can see one student align to the norm from her utterance "*(eh itsumo) kaiteta de chanto*" (=I used to write everything down), claims the entitlement to the experience (Kupetz, 2014).

She goes back to Yuma, who did not read well, this time with her gaze straight toward him. She suggests that he compare his textbook with Yamamoto's, saying, "Look at your textbook. Nothing is written there, isn't it?" After 1st example of Yamamoto, the 2nd example she draws out is her own event of learning German at graduate school. She explains that she was in a similar situation, putting up her palm like a textbook and using her right fingers as holding a pen. She had to write down very hard so that she can pronounce German. This is the second story in the teacher's embodied utterance displaying her own experience empathetically. Second story is the way to display understanding and confinement to the point which first story created and the way to end the first story (Kupetz, 2014).

After these two stories, the teacher aligned to the utterance of one student, "everything starts there", which shows his interpretation of "*doryoku*", by repeating it. Finally she turns back to Yuma, saying, "Yuma, you can do that."

The structure of this particular event is different from normative, usual event of interaction between teachers and students. In normative event teacher requests student for some performances, and the teacher closes the sequence with assessment or evaluation if the student does the good performance. In this particular event, teacher requests the pair for performance, pair reading. The performance of S1, Yuma was poor. The teacher did not evaluate his performance but displayed two examples, Yamamoto's textbook and her own. And the teacher and other students co-constructed the shared understanding of concept of effort, *doryoku*. And then she closes this sequence.

What the teacher is doing here is to first build up the category of performance good/poor at reading, and then in the category of poor performance, build up the category of process with/without effort. After the pair reading, Maki, the girl was praised by the teacher and got a big hand from teacher and students. Obviously her reading was assessed as "very good". On the other hand Yuma was encouraged by the teacher and received less amount of clapping, indicating his reading as unsatisfactory one. But after that the teacher generalized the problem of Yuma by switching the topic to those who are not good at reading and the image of the textbook with the painstaking image of Yamamoto's writing down kana characters was immediately recognized by students. Without evaluating poor reading, she implied the norm that learner should make effort and she differentiated Yuma and Yamamoto by categorizing Yamamoto as someone making effort and Yuma as someone not making effort. She added her own example of German. By emphasizing effort she opened the possibility for Yuma to get inside this "doryoku-effort" category. The teacher embodied the psychological term effort with resources such as eye gaze shift, facial expression, gesture, coincident utterance of term effort, first story of Yamamoto, repetition and categorization, second story of her own effort, ex-colleague, uptake of students' interpretation.

Lastly the student's response shows that his deeper understanding of effort. The student said everything "starts" there, which shows he understands effort as something taking time, established embodied effort. This understanding is shown in his self-initiated empathetic responses from students to teachers.

Conclusion

The aims of this paper were to explore a way how teachers embody the psychological term in EFL classroom and to find out what kind of recipient design teachers create to get self-initiated empathetic response from students. The resources to embody the psychological term, I clarified, are: 1. verbal resources, first story of Yamamoto and second story of her own effort, students' self-initiated responses, 2. kinetic resources like eye gaze shift, facial expression and gestures.

The recipient sequence design was creating gap by the implication of concept effort – doryoku – by Yamamoto's story, repeating and recycling the term effort, opening the possibility by categorizing, and recycling and aligning the student's interpretation.

Further implication of this study is that similar cases of other psychological term, such as goal, motivation, patience and culture would be needed.

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Teacher-Student Conflict and Teacher-Teacher Conflict

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Abstract: Although introductory courses are critical for beginner students, some junior high schools have difficulty providing an adequate learning environment where students cannot focus on classes or exhibit obstructive behaviors. A part-time English teacher at such a problematic school was invited to attend interview sessions. The narrative data was analyzed with SCAT (Steps for Coding and Theorization) to examine the reality of a junior high school and teaching English. The results showed that the students and the teachers had developed a feeling of distrust for each other. “Trust” is the key concept throughout the story.

Keywords: *teacher, narrative, trust, junior high school*

Introduction

Corresponding to globalization, the Japanese government has put more focus on English education throughout all the stages of education from elementary to higher education, in recent years (MEXT, 2013). They are planning the earlier introduction of English education and promoting additional posting of English teachers to schools. Schools of certain areas have small classes for English lessons or adopt team-teaching for effective English learning. However, they are not necessarily successful. Some schools have students with problematic behavior and lower motivation to study. They have difficulty providing an adequate learning environment, and the students are not ready to study, where all the "good" teaching methods and systems do not seem to work.

This study will describe the reality of one of those problematic schools through an interview with a Japanese part-time teacher of English at a junior high school and identify its issue and resolution. It will especially focus on the relationship among teachers and also the relationship between teachers and students since one of the key factors that influence learning is a "teacher" (Lightbown & Spada, 2007; Shirai, 2012).

Previous studies of teachers in Japan show the difficulty of being an energetic teacher these days. According to Tanoi et al. (2012), teachers in Japan are very busy, and they reduce their free time, sleep time, or time for housework to perform their job. The Ministry of Education (MEXT, 2013) also shows that Japanese teachers work 48 hours a month overtime. Their strong stress could cause depression or sickness, and it may influence their teaching as well. On the other hand, since non-tenured and part-time teachers are not included in these data, we do not have enough knowledge of them.

Temporary teachers and part-time teachers mostly substitute for the teachers on childcare leave or sick leave, or teach as additional teaching staff. Although their working condition is not sufficient and they are supposed to accept the school's convention in order not to cause any trouble (Inoue & Muramatsu, 2007), they play crucial roles at schools. Especially in English classes, they may be teachers of a team-teaching class or teachers of a "small" class. Without them, the communication-oriented classes cannot be achieved. We need to examine their thoughts and belief of teaching and school.

The purpose of this research is to describe the actual situation of a junior high school from a perspective of a part-time teacher. She is situated at the very bottom of "the school hierarchy" because of her part-time position. Her story as a non-mainstreamer would give us a new perspective of junior high schools and English teaching. The research questions are: 1) What is the actual situation of a public junior high school in Japan? 2) What is the real situation of English teaching at a public junior high school in Japan?

Method

The participant in our research is a female part-time teacher of English. Her pseudonym is May. She was working at a public junior high school in a suburb of Tokyo, where the socio-economic status is relatively low. One notable point is that there are many problematic students in this school. She was teaching eighth graders.

We conducted two two-hour sessions of semi-structured interviews with the participant. Three of us talked about her work casually in a relaxed manner. The interviews were voice-recorded and transcribed.

The transcription was analyzed qualitatively using SCAT, Steps for Coding and Theorization (Otani, 2008), with which data is analyzed in four steps of coding. Researchers first pay attention to noteworthy words or phrases, paraphrase them, account for these words, and then find themes in the context. Next, researchers write a storyline using the themes. This method is suitable for a small-scale qualitative data such as a single case study.

Analysis

In the narrative of our participant, May, we could see the actual situation of this junior high school from the viewpoint of a part-time teacher. It showed two kinds of conflict. One is teacher-teacher conflict, and the other is teacher-student conflict. In this section, these conflicts will be described by referring to the narrative data and our themes.

Teacher-teacher conflict

> (1) "When <u>that woman</u> looks irritated, the whole class goes quiet."

May called her colleague, a full-time teacher, "that woman." In Japanese, pronouns such as he or she are not used so often as in English. If a teacher talks about their colleague, they will use his or her name or say "this teacher" or "my colleague." They would not say "that woman" unless they have some negative feeling toward her. Here we can see the psychological distance between May and the other teachers. Moreover, our participant is feeling some displeasure toward her. In this narrative, she was talking about her colleague, another English teacher. This teacher was about to go on maternity leave. On a personal level, she was congratulating the teacher for the pregnancy, but in work matters, the other teachers including herself were having troubles. For example, the students obeyed what this teacher said, but they would not listen to what May said.

> (2) "Other teachers did not give me any information about the monthly song, so I did not know about it. Only my students knew."

Here, we can see the lack of cooperation among teachers. In their English classes, they had one English song a month, but May did not know which song they were covering that month. It must be awkward that the students knew the song but the teacher did not. In this case, the full-time teacher should have told May about the song. Also, May should have asked other teachers about the next song because she knew she had to cover a song. This shows they were not efficiently cooperating with each other, although cooperation is necessary to have effective teaching for their students.

> (3) "I was not informed of which assignments would be included in the final grade."

This also shows the lack of cooperation among teachers. Since this school has adopted team-teaching and the small-class system, the teachers had to share detailed information about how to teach each class and how to grade the students, but the full-time teacher with whom May was working did not share such information with her.

Teacher-student conflict

> (4) "Few students will go to universities. Maybe some won't even go to high schools. Nothing can change them. They do not have the motivation. They are not even willing to face their own life."

May thought her teaching would not make any change. She believed her students were not willing to do anything at all. In statistics, about 97% of graduates of junior high schools go to high schools in Japan, but she thought some would not even go to high schools. It shows she had little trust in students. This is not a belief unique to her. May said that the main full-time teacher said, “No matter who teaches them, they will not improve.” It seems the feeling of distrust in students is prevalent among the teachers.

It appeared May was only talking about a negative aspect of her work, so we asked if there were any students with whom she had a good relationship, and the following was her answer:

> (5) “When we finish grading for their high school entrance exams, the students suddenly change. They go back to bad kids again.”

To enter better high schools, they need to have better grades in the second year of junior high school. Thus, she thought some students were nice to her only to have a better grade (as mentioned above, she was teaching the eighth graders). She did not trust even those students who would come close to her and were nice to her.

The narrative data above showed our participant’s distrust in her students. We also found a distrust of students in their teachers.

> (6) “The students determine the hierarchy of teachers, and they put me at the bottom.”

May says the students see some sort of difference between her and the other teachers. For example, she comes to school late and leaves early. Then, students construct a hierarchy of teachers: the principal at the top, full-time teachers next, and then part-time teachers at the bottom. May said part-time teachers might be even lower than the students. Based on this observation, the students do not pay respect to part-time teachers and look down on them.

May also talked about the parents of her students.

> (7) “Many parents criticize us. Some terrible ones summon the teachers to their house and <u>detain</u> them for a few hours.”

We analyze that the use of the word “detain” as a metaphor of war. She sees the school as a battlefield in which teachers and parents are against each other.

We can also see that May has some feelings of disgust toward the parents.

> (8) “They summon the teacher to lecture her. She is a “<u>fighting</u> woman”, so she goes (to the student’s house) during recess.”

She called the main full-time teacher “a fighting woman,” which shows a metaphor of war again. It means that visiting a student’s house to talk with the parents is “fighting.”

Discussion

Storyline

After the coding process, we built up a storyline that emerged from this narrative data.

> There seems to be a psychological distance between May and her colleagues. She also

feels distrust in her colleagues. Her colleagues also seem to feel distrust in May. Although there is little trust in each other among teachers, they share the same value about the students that nothing can help them improve. Especially because they have difficult students to deal with, they unite against the same enemy.

May also feels distrust in her students, saying that they are not eager to do anything and teachers cannot do anything about it. The students do not respect May. They view the relationship among teachers as a hierarchy, and they disregard May because she is a part-time teacher. There is a psychological distance between May and her students.

May views a hostile relationship between teachers and parents. Some words she used, such as “detain” or “fighting,” show that she sees the school as a “battlefield.” May has psychological distance from parents, and she does not pay respect to them.

Overall, it looks as if students and teachers were against each other in this school. It seems that they do not accept but reject each other. Such exclusive attitudes make this school look like a “battlefield.”

The participant and other teachers do not trust each other. The participant thinks the full-time teachers should do a better job. On the other hand, full-time teachers think part-timers are doing an easy job, not doing paperwork. Our analysis also revealed that our participant does not have trust in her students. She does not believe in future possibilities or potential of students, while students do not trust in her, either. Also, parents and teachers do not trust each other. To sum up, we observed “distrust” in the school.

Here, we posit questions: *What is “trust” in education? Is “trust” important in education?* Many previous studies argue that there is a close relationship between teachers’ trust and students’ high achievement. Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999) and Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1998) define trust as follows: “Trust is one party’s willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the confidence that the latter party is benevolent, reliable, competent, honest, and open” (as cited in Hoy, 2002). Hoy said, “faculty trust is a necessary condition for collective efficacy” (2002: 100). Forsyth et al. define “faculty trust” as “a collective form of trust in which the faculty has an expectancy that the word, promise, and actions of another group or individual can be relied on and that the trusted party will act in the best interests of the faculty” (2011: 4). Particularly, they explained “faculty trust in colleagues” meaning that “the faculty believes teachers can depend on each other in difficult situations and rely on the integrity of their colleagues” (ibid.). They said that high levels of collective trust are crucial for schools. Moreover, Goddard et al. examined the association between levels of trust and levels of students’ socioeconomic status. Their findings suggest that “Teacher trust is <...> associated with student socioeconomic status--the larger the proportion of poor students in the school, the lower teachers’ perceptions of trust” (2001: 13). All in all, education is meaningless without trust. We believe that teachers should have trust in other teachers and students to make our teaching and their learning more effective. In addition, teachers should trust in not only students’ behaviors but also their future potentials so that our instruction makes more sense.

Conclusion

The keyword of our finding is “trust.” Hoy says, “Trust is a little like water. We all pay little attention to it until we need it but don’t have it” (2002: 88). In Japan, the Ministry of Education promotes active learning and communicative teaching/learning of English. However, if teachers and students do not have mutual trust, it will be reduced to empty rhetoric. We do not generalize the findings of this research to the entire Japanese junior high school system. We need further research to examine the perspectives of full-time teachers, the situation in other levels of schools, or schools in other socio-economic areas. In particular, the focus on “trust” may give us some implications or suggestions for better education.

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Challenges of Designing IT Course for English Majors

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Abstract: Today Web 2.0 tools are ubiquitous both in and outside the classroom. Benefits of Web 2.0 tools are believed to be numerous. They can enhance interaction, communication and collaboration of students and teachers, contribute to the development of different skills, and are flexible and easy to use. This paper focuses on the challenges of designing an IT course for students majoring in English as a Foreign Language. It describes the experience the authors have had in selecting Web 2.0 tools for the course and designing assignments to introduce the students to the Information technologies and encourage them to use Web 2.0 tools in learning English.

Keywords: *Web 2.0, Web 2.0 tools, information technologies, course design*

Web 2.0 definition

What is Web 2.0 anyway? As Paul Anderson (2012) put it, “Web 2.0 is a slippery character to pin down”. Authors (Solomon, Schrum: 2007) refer to it as a group of services such as blogs, wikis, podcasts, photo and video sharing, and social networking, etc. Web 2.0 is also called “a ‘read/write Web’ or a ‘database-backed Web’ because Web-based applications read from or write to a database when they access or update content” (Shelly, Frydenberg, 2010: 12).

Scholars (Shelly, Frydenberg, 2010) agree that Web 2.0 is a name given to many new uses of the World Wide Web that have emerged since the beginning of its second decade. Paul Anderson (2012: xxix) calls Web 2.0 “an umbrella term” for a group of user-oriented Web-based services. However, he points out that this definition is not very precise. It is not sufficient to encapsulate the full implications of Web 2.0. The reason he gives is that this kind of definition “tends to privilege the users’ perspective of Web 2.0 as a set of services that facilitate online social interaction” (ibid.). The answer to the question *What Web 2.0 is?* is more complicated and it pulls in economics, technology and new ideas about the connected society. So Anderson has suggested an iceberg model of Web 2.0, which consists of three major layers. The bottom one – invisible to most of web users – is an evolving technical infrastructure (the technologies, standards and protocols), on top of it there is another layer that comprises ideas, user-generated content, the network effect, to mention just a few, and the visible part are services or tools per se.

However, Anderson points out that when the term Web 2.0 was coined in 2004, it referred to reborn, renovated World Wide Web. When adopting this term, Tim O’Reilly meant new Web-based *business models*. This was a catch term introduced to describe a group of companies with ideas and business models for deploying a new breed of Web services that harness the huge numbers of people participating online through them (Anderson, 2012: xxix).

Web 2.0 in education

The role of technology in education is not questioned nowadays. In a report published by the US Department of Education in 2009, researchers found that post-secondary students who took all or part of their classes online outperformed their counterparts in traditional face-to-face classroom. Furthermore, students learning in blended/hybrid environments performed better than those in fully online courses (Wu, 2012: 118-139).

Future studies call for a better definition and characterization of new technologies for classrooms. We should examine the specific features of each category of tools and their impact on language teaching and learning. As argued by some researchers such as Egbert, Akasha, Huff, and Lee (2011), the essential question now is not whether Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) is effective in general, but what specific tools are effective for what purposes and under what circumstances.

Course description

"Information Technologies in Linguistics/Philology" course is intended for second-year students who learn languages as future teachers and interpreters, with English being either their major subject or second foreign language they specialize in. The course is taught through Blackboard Learning Management System (LMS), provided by Blackboard at CourseSites[1] for free. We started the course four years ago, and are still in the process of developing the materials for it.

The course is one semester long and comprises 36 contact hours, i.e. two hours of face-to-face teacher-students communication per week. Students are also expected to have two hours of independent learning outside the classroom each week, doing home assignments.

The course consists of six modules: *Introduction, Searching Information on the Internet, Understanding the Language of Instructions, Collecting, Storing and Sharing Information on the Internet, Corpora* and *Final Project*. The final score the students receive is based on the scores they get for completing assignments during the course, and their attendance.

Course contents

The first module, *Introduction*, familiarizes the students with the tools available at the course site, the course requirements, and introduces the idea of Web 2.0. The students then are given a list of most popular tools to browse through. After that they complete a quiz and write an overview blog with short descriptions of the tools that they have chosen to describe.

Searching Information on the Internet module aims to teach students to make their search queries more efficient. The reading part introduces them to what "Google operators" are, and how their use can yield better search results. In the blogs students compare and describe searches with and without search operators, as in the following example of a blog, written by one of the students: *titanic -resort -hotel -movie* vs *titanic*:

[1] https://www.coursesites.com

> "The "-"operator makes your search much more efficient and your search yields mostly the results on the Titanic as a British passenger liner. The second search is less efficient as it shows links to other pages, where one of the most popular results is the film called *Titanic* (1997) and everything which is related to it. The word "Titanic" is almost a common noun now, which is why there are also some incidental results like the Titanic resort and SPA, Titanic Hotel, etc. So, the "-"operator indicates that I want to exclude pages that contain some specific terms. It helps me to avoid links which contain some random information which is not connected with that famous Titanic liner"[1].

The second part of this module is devoted to *Google Books*[2], one of the most comprehensive indexes of full-text books. The students get familiarized with this valuable resource that is easy to use and practically always at hand. Here they complete three different quizzes, practicing the skills of searching for particular information, quoting and providing proper references for the quotations. These skills are indispensable for the second year students since this is their first year when they are required to write a course paper in linguistics. The example assignments are to find definitions for a particular linguistic term (discourse, morpheme, ablaut, etc.) in different books on linguistics or quotations from David Chrystal's books on today's role of the English language. To complete these assignments, the students have to do a lot of reading to find relevant information. The feedback on this activity is usually very positive.

The next module, *Understanding the Language of Instructions*, aims to practice the skill our students often lack. Following instructions can be rather easy or rather difficult. In this module they work with different sites to learn the ways in which instructions on how to create content may come.

In this module we suggest that the students create their own animated cartoons with the help of a simple tool *Dvolver Moviemaker*[3].The students are instructed to create animated stories to practice the topic vocabulary they are currently studying. They have to select from a range of characters, backgrounds and scenarios provided by the site and add their own dialogue text bubbles. As a rule, they enjoy this assignment but have to be reminded of the requirements and the language used (spelling, grammar and discourse type).

The other assignment in this module aims to improve students' presentation skills. Following the instructions they create different presentation materials (posters, presentations, infographics, cartoons, etc.) on the topics they choose. We give them a free hand in browsing a list of different tools (*Prezi*[4], *PowToon*[5], *moovly*[6], *NewHive*[1], *Biteslide*[2], *Animaps*[3], *infogr.am*[4], *Piktochart*[5], *Canva*[6]) and

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[1] From https://www.coursesites.com/webapps/portal/frameset.jsp?url=%2Fwebapps%2Fblackboard%2Fexecute%2Flauncher%3Ftype%3DCourse%26id%3D_297312_1%26url%3D

[2] https://books.google.com/

[3] http://www.dvolver.com/moviemaker/index.html

[4] https://prezi.com/

[5] https://www.powtoon.com/

[6] https://www.moovly.com/

choosing one to their liking. They are instructed to put a link to the content they have created in their blogs and explain how the tool they have used suits their purposes.

It is necessary to stress that the role of the teacher in class during these activities cannot be overestimated. Those students, who read the instructions carefully and then discuss them with the teacher, are likely to meet all the requirements and get better grades. Those, who do the assignment elsewhere (at home), tend not to pay due attention to the requirements, which often results in lower grades.

In Module 4, the students examine the ways of *Collecting, Storing and Sharing Information on the Internet*. They discuss what cloud computing is, complete Learning Styles survey and describe its results in discussion forum on the course site. After familiarizing themselves with the *Google Drive* service they create and conduct their own surveys through *Google Forms*, and then analyze the results of their surveys in class. The next project that the students are required to do in this module is collaborative writing with *Google Docs*, when the students are divided into groups of three or four and are asked to work on the same text by editing and adding information to the existing document. Below is a part of the assignment the students are required to complete:

> "The text below is taken from http://www.foodnetwork.com/recipes/alton-brown/guacamole-recipe.html, but contains some mistakes. Try to find them and correct, using 'Suggesting mode of Editing' and 'Accept/Reject' buttons. Also, with the help of 'Research' option, provide definitions for the highlighted words (see the example). At this stage your objective is to demonstrate that you understand how 'Editing' and 'Research' work."

Another skill that this module develops is social networking which the students build up through group projects. The first one is collecting bookmarks on a topic given. The service *Diigo*[7] enables students to create bookmarks (mark their favorite web pages) online and use tags to describe and group them into different categories. To enjoy this simple tool, users need only to have an account and be logged in. The bookmarks collected can be accessed from any browser on any computer connected to the Internet. Once the bookmarks are stored online, they can be shared with other users. It is easy to find related Web sites bookmarked by other users with similar interests as they have the same tags. We ask the students to navigate the Web to find pages they would like to share with *Our Diigo Group*. The pages should describe the cuisine of the country(ies) which language(s) the students are currently studying.

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[1] http://newhive.com/newhive/about

[2] https://www.biteslide.com/

[3] http://www.animaps.com/#!home

[4] https://infogr.am/

[5] https://magic.piktochart.com/

[6] https://www.canva.com/

[7] https://www.diigo.com

The other group project is creating a semantic map "My FEFU". Here the students practice the skills of collaborative working and find new ways to organize information through the mind mapping and brainstorming tool *SpiderScribe*[1]. A mind map is created around a single idea, placed in the center, to which associated ideas, words and concepts are added. One of the most important advantages of *SpiderScribe* is that it can be used collaboratively in real time which is impossible to do with *wikis*. The stencils/templates include Texts, Images, Maps, and Calendar as well as audio and video files.

Module 5 deals with *Corpora*. The students are exposed to the knowledge of the largest freely available corpus so far – Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA)[2]. A number of video tutorials from BYU Corpora YouTube[3] help the students understand how a corpus is organized and how it can be used in learning a foreign language. They are asked to formulate several linguistic problems that can be solved with the help of COCA, and find answers to them. The students find this module most helpful and enlightening, and believe that they will use it in the future.

Course outcomes

At the end of the course, the students were asked to complete an online questionnaire to evaluate the course. Their feedback was highly positive. Students appreciate that the language of instruction is English: reading, listening and writing assignments help them improve the overall performance in English. Such skills as social networking, making presentations, surveys and organizing the information were listed as most useful.

Students agree that having an instructor present during the class increases learning potential of the students. This perception corresponds to conclusions by other researchers that the teacher's role is significant in technology-mediated instruction. Wu (2012: 125) summarizes that according to the studies conducted from the 1990s up to 2012, students in general are positive toward technology and CALL regardless of the type of technology concerned: emails, authentic videos, or Web 2.0 activities, etc. Students' perception of CALL is often affected by non-technology factors, such as the role of the teacher and the content of the materials.

Challenges and caveats

One of the main challenges the authors faced was to find free resources. Many Web 2.0 companies do not charge people to access their online services. But some of them make use of a freemium business model. Freemium is a business model in which a service provider offers basic features to its users at no cost and charges a premium for additional features or services. The term "freemium" implies a combination of both free and premium services. Still, they can be used and they *are* used in the course described. For example, *Prezi* and *Canvas* are available for students to develop their presentation skills though in the basic form only. Some of the free resources selected for the course and incorporated into it gained popularity among Internet users and are charged for now. Thus,

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[1] https://www.spiderscribe.net/

[2] http://corpus.byu.edu/coca/

[3] https://www.youtube.com/channel/UCy84tTzeJ0s8JLjf_wEiWUQ

the authors had to give up *Ning* as the course home/host web site and move the contents to a different platform.

Another important thing to keep in mind while designing an IT course is to select tools that are easy to use. Some resources may be too sophisticated to master in one or two classes, so the ability to use them depends on how tech savvy the students already are. Besides, it is vital that no additional software be installed to use a particular resource. For example, the authors chose not to use the service *Jing* despite a fairly positive feedback they got from the students for two years in a row. This tool allows creating video instructions and may become a handy educational instrument. However, it is necessary to download a special program on the computer to get it started. This may not be a problem for a home PC but, in the university classrooms, the safety issue becomes a major complicating factor.

It should be mentioned that an IT course can benefit from video tutorials for the tools selected. Intelligible tutorials provide clear instructions on how to use a particular tool and save the classroom time. Various types of listening exercises can be designed on the basis of a tutorial, which will not only check the comprehension of the subject matter but also contribute to the students' proficiency in English. However, to find a clear tutorial of a proper length with a proper language may be a challenge. Thus, the abundance of COCA tutorials, for example, made finding the one which would meet all our requirements a time consuming process.

The most important thing about selecting Web 2.0 tools for an IT course is that the tools should reflect students' real-life experience. Students should be able to use them for different purposes; such as to learn a language, to teach a language, to conduct research as well as to satisfy their intellectual curiosity. Clearly, what really matters here is not technology itself but the content we use technology with. Technology itself is not the issue here, but the way we use it is.

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A Study on the College Oral English Teaching Model

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Abstract: This paper aims to describe a case study designed to understand classroom interactional processes in a Chinese university. The case study focuses on scaffolding in teacher-student interaction as well as the process of shifting the responsibility from the teacher to the student. The data were collected through videotaping and interviewing. The results show that distribution patterns of teacher-student interactions were mainly different in the two oral English classes, and the role perception differences of the two teachers were partially reflected in the teacher-student interaction.

Keywords: *teacher-student interaction, scaffold, teacher's role, oral English class*

Introduction

Oral English for non-English major students is often underdeveloped in their university study in China (Gao, 2011: 33). A large number of students are found to be spoon-fed; they hardly speak correct and fluent English upon graduation (Wu & Cai, 2008). A combination of potent inhibitors is responsible for this situation: large class size, inappropriate teaching method and time constraints (Zheng & Davison, 2008). On the basis of analyzing the *College English Curriculum Requirements* (2007), this study intends to argue the importance of taking these factors into consideration and tries to resolve it in terms of the negotiated interaction. The learners' oral English proficiency is a subject that attracted attention to itself in as early as the 19th century (Wu & Cai, 2008). Then some researchers found that learners' motivation and learning strategies had a direct impact on learners' acquisition of speech (Ellis, 2000; Brown, 2001). As time went on, a succession of new perspective as to oral English proficiency through group work (Bassano, 2003) and drama (Miccoli, 2003) had been presented. These studies indicate that language researchers have come to attach greater importance to oral English by means of various measures in language teaching than before.

Compared to the studies in the western countries, the researchers in China have come to realize the importance of these factors (Li & Wang, 2000; Liu & Jiang, 2004). The newly published *College English Curriculum Requirements* (2007) issued by the Ministry of Education has stated that classroom teaching should be changed from the previous teacher-centered teaching model to the learner-centered one and teacher should try to provide learners with more opportunities to practice and to solve problems on their own. The cultivation of communicative competence (especially listening and speaking) of the non-English major college students is recognized as a clear goal of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching in China (Ministry of Education, 2007: 1). Moreover, a review of previous studies (Gao, 2011) shows that there are fewer empirical studies on the relationship between teacher-student negotiated interaction and students' oral English proficiency development. Therefore, this study attempts to fill in this research gap by exploring the nature of teacher-student negotiated interaction in the oral English classroom in China and how the teacher provides scaffolding during the process of negotiated interaction in order to facilitate students' oral English proficiency. Besides, this study also tries to investigate the strategies adopted by the teacher when providing scaffolding and the role the teacher plays in the process of negotiated interaction in the oral English classroom and its implications for teachers or education reformers from both theoretical and pedagogical perspectives.

The Theoretical Foundation

Vygotskian theory and especially his notion of Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) have received considerable attention from researchers. As Alanen (2004) notes, this interest in Vygotskian thinking may be due to Vygotsky's optimistic ideas about the individual's learning potential and the close-knit relationship between an individual and society. The purpose of this study is to investigate the nature of the teacher-student negotiated interaction process and its effectiveness on improving students' oral English proficiency within the Vygotskian theory. Therefore, it is of great importance to introduce the key notion of Vygotsky's Socio-Cultural Theory, i.e. ZPD.

It was in the course of applying his theoretical concepts to practical psychological and educational problems that Vygotsky introduced the idea of the ZPD. According to Vygotsky (1978: 84) "learning and development are interrelated from the child's very first day of life" and thus he asserts that to discover the relations between learning and development two levels must be determined. The former characterizes a novice's ability to perform different tasks independently and fundamentally refers to a novice's level of mental development "that has been established as a result of certain already completed development cycles" (Vygotsky, 1978: 85). The latter level of development characterizes those functions that a novice can perform with the help of, or in collaboration with, a more experienced member of society. Consequently, Vygotsky (1978) asserts that it is important to take the level of potential development into account, as it varies independently from actual development. Furthermore, the potential level of development indicates a novice's mental development more accurately than the actual development level. The distance between these two levels, namely, a novice's individual capacity and the capacity to perform with assistance, makes the boundaries of the ZPD. Vygotsky (1978: 86) defines the ZPD as "the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers".

Besides the notion of the ZPD in Vygotsky's theory, the other important concept is scaffolding. Scaffolding refers to any temporary support provided for the completion of a task that learners otherwise might not complete. It originated from Vygotsky's (1978) conception of the ZPD.

Research Methodology

Research Questions

1. What are the distribution patterns of teacher-student interaction in two oral English classes at a Chinese university? Does the distribution differ in the two classes?
2. How do the English teachers understand their roles in teacher-student interaction?

Research Methods

Participants

Participants were two college English teachers and 53 college English students. Both of them are female and have rich experience in English teaching. 23 students are in Class A and 30 students are in Class B.

Data Collection

The research was designed to follow the teaching-learning processes of the two teachers, together with their respective students, in authentic classroom settings. No additional pedagogical arrangements were made for the sake of the study. One oral English session with 45 minutes in length was videotaped respectively for Classes A and B and transcribed focusing on teacher-student interaction. The English session transcribed for Class A involved an extended group discussion on "How to keep clean" in which students were encouraged to discuss feasible ways to keep themselves away from drugs and a group task in which they were asked to design and present slogans for anti-drug campaign. The English session transcribed for Class B had to do with a teacher-led oral task on world conflicts, followed by a group discussion on the "Importance of World Peace." It also included a group discussion on the international conflicts in the Korean Peninsula and a group work in which students were first asked to draw a picture representing their ideas on world peace and then present their pictures to the class.

Afterwards, an interview with the two teacher participants was conducted. It was designed to find out how the two teachers perceive their roles in teacher-student interaction and how they scaffold teacher-student interaction in the oral session. With reference to the perception of the roles, they were asked three open-ended questions: (a) express their views on the significance of constructing a learning community with their students, (b) explain whether they encountered any difficulties in the construction of such a community and (c) indicate whether they were inclined to see themselves as a guide or controller in teacher-student interactions.

Findings of the Study

The first aim was to determine how teacher-student interactions in the two oral English classes were distributed. We performed two Chi-square tests to determine whether distribution similarities or differences exist between the two classes. The frequencies and percentage of total discourse functions in each discourse category is shown in Table 1. As shown in Table 1, the teachers made a higher proportion of functional segments than their students (62.97% vs. 37.03% in Class A; 57.14% vs. 42.86% in Class B), and such distribution remained similar between the two classes (x2 = 0.388; df = 1; p = 0.533).

Table 1. The frequencies and percentage of total discourse functions in each discourse category in Classes A and B

		Class A		Class B
Discourse category	**f**	**%**	**f**	**%**
Teacher problem-solving	11	20.37	11	19.64
Teacher direct regulation	20	37.04	12	21.43
Teacher indirect regulation	3	5.56	9	16.07
Student problem-solving	17	31.48	11	19.64

Student self-regulation	2	3.70	5	8.93
Student other-regulation	1	1.85	8	14.29
Total	54	100.00	56	100.00

Of the teacher regulations observed in Classes A and B, the highest proportion involved direct regulation, the percentage being higher for Class A than for Class B (37.04% vs. 21.43%). However, utterances by teachers concerning indirect regulation were less frequent in Class A than in Class B. A close look at the classroom video showed that the teacher in Class A used more direct regulation to negotiate the meaning of the task and indicate language errors more frequently than the teacher in Class B. On the other hand, the proportion of student utterances for problem-solving was higher in Class A than in Class B (31.48% vs. 19.64%). This result indicates that the students in Class A produced many more utterances in response to the teacher's request to provide information, and the type of teacher-student interactions were more frequent in Class A than in Class B. With regard to the student self-regulation, the percentage in Class A was lower than that in Class B (3.7% vs. 8.39%), and this indicates that the students in Class A did not take the initiative to provide explanations as often as the students in Class B did. Similarly, in reference to the student self-regulation and other-regulation, the percentage in Class A was much lower than that in Class B, and this means that the students in Class A did not take the initiative to request help or elaborate their ideas as frequently as those in Class B. A comparison of the teacher-student discussions demonstrated a significant difference in distributions of the six functional categories between the two classes.

In order to answer the second research question, we analyzed the responses collected from the interview. Teacher interview analysis showed that both teachers highly valued the process of building a learning community with their students and they perceived the learning community as a positive one in which they could learn and develop together with their students. However, both teachers reported that they encountered practical obstacles constructing such a learning process with their students.

Conclusion

The present study is contextualized within the research of sociocultural approach to learning that has shown that the role assumed by the teacher in scaffolding teacher-student interaction is assumed to be significantly important (Wood & Wood, 1996). We hope to deepen our understanding of the interactional processes and the transfer of responsibility from the teacher to the student in two college English oral classes.

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Development of Language Competence Through Extracurricular Activities

in accordance with Federal Government Education Standards

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Abstract: This paper shows a way to organize extracurricular activities for teaching English as a foreign language. It emphasizes basic techniques that contribute to the development of students' communicative competence. It defines the course of action for extracurricular activities in a foreign language, and the advantages of forming a unified system out of school and extracurricular activities.

Keywords: *extracurricular activities, out-of-class learning, communicative competence, technique, communicative principles, team-work skills, pedagogy based on cooperation*

The growth in the use of English as the most important language for international communication has considerably influenced people's attitude to the English language in general and its teaching and learning in particular. It is understood that English teachers are facing a new challenge today: they have to help their students to reach the highest level of proficiency. To reach this target, teachers need appropriate language-learning materials and resources that can ensure such a level. From this perspective, the importance of a good textbook, which often determines the main part of classroom teaching and the students' out-of-class learning cannot be overestimated. The process of teaching a foreign language carries one main objective: to build communicative competence, which has become a cornerstone of language teaching methodology. In addition to the classroom environment, activities that lie outside of the curriculum allow students to deepen and broaden their knowledge of the foreign language, and develop skills necessary to achieve communicative competence.

Communicative language teaching was introduced at the beginning of the 1970s by British and American scholars to promote the teaching of communicative skills in modern language education, and especially in the teaching of English as a global language. The basis of communicative competence is the ability to interact effectively with others through verbal and non-verbal (e.g. mimicry and gestures) means. One methodology that stands out among the most effective pedagogical tools for achieving communicative competence is the technique of communicative education in the foreign language and culture. Here are some ways we conceive and then put into practice communicative principles. We consider the most important ones to be:

– the verbal-based principle: teaching a foreign language through speaking exercises;
– language-based functionality: correlation of lexical, grammatical and phonetic language attributes;
– self-driven communication;
– the situation-based principle: organizing study material through role-play exercises;
– collective engagement;
– consideration of students' ages and individual potential.

The principles named above correspond to the learning-by-doing systematic approach that is becoming a methodological framework for the new generation's standard.

Extracurricular activities allow students to fully form their language competence. We have created in the Lyceum a club for English language fans called "Success" that can more effectively help the students develop their abilities to communicate in the target language. Club activities constantly check students' abilities to communicate in a foreign language. The objective of our club is to create the appropriate conditions allowing any student to engage in self-improvement, to think independently and unconventionally, and, what is more important, "*to learn how to learn*", engaging in life-long learning. Club activities differ from the classroom setting as the students choose them according to their own interests and abilities. For our gatherings, we try to design creative language tasks with as many authentic elements as possible. For this reason, the traditional processing of scripted course book dialogues was replaced by games, problem-solving tasks, discussions and unscripted situational role-play activities. The club's relevance and its social importance derive from the fact that extracurricular activities create unique communicative settings that stimulate students' motivation to learn. We offer a wide range of practical club activities that embody the six principles mentioned above.

Types of activities used in the club's curriculum:

- learning through playing games;
- educational activities;
- entertainment;
- communication about ethics and social issues;
- art;
- social artistry.

Forms of activities used in the club's curriculum:

- role-play tasks;
- watching and discussing cartoons in a foreign language;
- field-trips, excursions;
- contests, quizzes;
- acting / drama reading;
- parties.

Places where the activities were held:

- the Lyceum;
- city libraries;
- city cafes;
- theaters and the Philharmonic Hall;
- exhibitions;
- city language schools.

When possible, we organize roundtable discussions and invite guests and native-speakers, as well as presenting various projects and research papers related to the foreign language in question. Activities like these are particularly appealing for students in the middle years of the school, and they are also relevant for younger students. Having the teacher deliver the material in a constructive way and knowing how to reach the main objective play an essential role in the development of students' creative thinking and language competence.

"Pedagogy based on cooperation" can be emphasised as one of the approach's strategies; it is based on mutual development of both adults and children, joined in mutual understanding, and joint analysis of the activity's progress and development. A "gaming approach" broadens the perspective and cognitive activity, shapes certain skills and abilities necessary for practical applications, and develops learning skills. The modern project-based learning approach helps students to:

- base their thinking process on known facts that lead them to reasonable conclusions;
- take independent, reasoned decisions;
- work in teams, taking on different roles.

The critical thinking approach teaches students to ask new questions and analyze information so that they can apply their conclusions to both standard and typical situations.

What is the best teaching method for learning English?

According to academic research, linguists have demonstrated that there is no one single best method for everyone in all contexts, and none of them is inherently superior to the others. In addition, it is not always possible, or appropriate, to apply the same methodology to all learners, as they have different objectives, environments and learning needs. We sometimes use visual thinking strategies that have a very positive impact on students' vocabulary, writing and speaking skills. This teaches thinking skills that students need, teaches language development, and teaches strategies for children working together collaboratively learning through and with one another. Students who struggle with confidence in other academic areas find the confidence in themselves to raise their hand and share. It is no longer acceptable for them to sit back and not talk about what is going on in the classroom.

In conclusion, it is worth pointing out that the main task of foreign language education is to shape language competence. Furthermore, the creation of a single academic and extracurricular system for studying English helps to achieve important and positive results for its participants.

The combination of academic and extracurricular activities helps to achieve personal goals that include development of such qualities as purposefulness, independence, critical thinking, creativity, empathy, tolerance and teamwork skills, and socialization of individuals in society.

A friendly psychological climate of extracurricular activities creates the right conditions for building the path to success that contributes to positive personal development and motivation for learning a foreign language and prepares students for future communication in real-life contexts.

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Scaffolding Excellence: A Four-year Content-Language Integrated Undergraduate Economics Curriculum

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Abstract: How does one develop advanced foreign language proficiency, specialized content knowledge, and a global intercultural perspective in only four years of undergraduate study? This paper describes a content-language integrated curriculum at a Japanese university, focusing on how English language development is scaffolded through a progression from Content-based Instruction (CBI) and Content and Language Integrated Instruction (CLIL) in the early years to English-medium Instruction (EMI) at advanced levels. Classroom instruction is further interwoven with multiple opportunities to apply theoretical knowledge and benchmark English proficiency through short-term

field study tours abroad and subsequent full-year overseas exchange experiences.

Keywords: *content-language integration, content-based instruction (CBI), content and language integrated learning (CLIL), English-medium instruction (EMI), global human resource development, undergraduate economics curriculum*

Introduction

In April, 2013, Hitotsubashi University, the only Japanese national university specializing in the social sciences, introduced a new Global Leaders Program (GLP) in the two faculties of Economics and Commerce. Designed to develop future leaders able to work on the forefront of global business, government and academia both at home and abroad, the program became available immediately to more than half of the university's 4400 undergraduate students on an opt-in basis. This paper describes the integrated content-language approach to instruction in the GLP undergraduate economics curriculum.

Global Leaders Program

The GLP curriculum is a four-year sequence with a possibility of obtaining an additional fifth year masters degree. Partially funded by the government of Japan through a competitive grant under its Global Human Resources Development initiative (Cabinet Office, 2012), GLP aims to develop internationally-experienced and articulate graduates with deep theoretical knowledge, fluid English communication skills and practical overseas experience (JSPS, 2012). It thus aims to develop global human resources by enhancing student mobility within and beyond academic disciplines, between theory and practice, across international borders, and from undergraduate to graduate study and careers (HQ, 2015).

Achieving this in an undergraduate program largely populated with domestic Japanese students entails a new set of challenges for a university with international activity focused at the graduate level. Undergraduate students are less experienced with academic English, so more scaffolding is needed, but the best pedagogy for accomplishing this shifts with student population. In Japan, for example, English-medium instruction (EMI) is typically offered as support to international graduate students with limited Japanese proficiency (see, e.g. Wallitsch, 2014), but EMI within GLP instead represents the culmination of an EFL program allowing graduating domestic Japanese students to embark on international graduate studies or careers. It represents the end state, not the beginning.

Integrated content and English language development

Advanced English proficiency is a key GLP goal, and language development has been integrated throughout the four years of study. Table 1 shows the GLP English language courses and economics content courses provided in English by academic year, providing unit, and pedagogical approach or language of instruction. The pedagogy for each course was determined by analyzing the official course syllabi and coding according to the framework described in Ohmori (2014), with CLIL courses explicitly referencing a *dual focus* on both content and language goals (c.f. Marsh, 2012). We can see that English courses are taught through content-based instruction (CBI) and content and language integrated learning (CLIL) in the first two years and then moving to English-medium instruction (EMI) in years two through four, before cycling back to CBI to provide advanced skill support in academic writing and presentations for students accepted into the fifth-year masters program.

Table 1: GLP Language-Content Sequence in Economics

Year	Courses	Providing Unit	Approach/ Language
1	English I, II, III	General Education	CBI
1	Introductory Economics	Economics	Japanese
1-2	Presentation Skills, Academic Writing	CGE (HGP)	CBI
2	Economic English	Economics	CBI
2	Basic Seminar	Economics	CLIL
2	Basic Economics	Economics	EMI and Japanese
2	International Field Studies	Alumni, Industry, Government	Short-term intensive study abroad
3	Intermediate Economics	Economics	EMI or Japanese
3-4	Interdisciplinary Electives	Commerce, Law, Social Sciences	EMI or Japanese
3-4	Long-term study abroad	Partner universities	Long-term exchange
4	Advanced Economics	Economics	EMI or Japanese
5	1 yr Masters degree	Economics	English Thesis
5	Academic Presentations, Research-based Writing	Economics	CBI

Year 1: Transitioning to university

First year students begin their exploration of economics with introductory courses taught in Japanese while they develop their English skills through compulsory university-wide General Education (GE) courses. According to their levels of proficiency and interest, students may take one or more of English I, II and III, offered through a CBI approach using standard textbooks and media, with topics drawn from a range of contemporary social issues. Economics students may also take academic English writing and presentation courses through the Hitotsubashi Global Education Program (HGP), a collection of English courses offered by units throughout the university that is coordinated by the Center for Global Education (CGE), a hub for international activities on campus.

Year 2: Foundations for study and international experience

Economics students opting to take GLP continue in years two through four a progression from CBI to CLIL to EMI courses. In the Faculty of Economics, second year courses are offered in both English and Japanese, and GLP students are encouraged to take these foundational courses in both languages to solidify their theoretical understanding and develop bilingual academic literacy. Students who do not opt into GLP may take their required courses entirely in Japanese.

Students have various avenues for developing their English abilities both within and outside the department. They may continue to take higher-level GE English courses or the in-house *Economic English*, a CBI sequence for beginning-level language learners, targeting listening and speaking skills through authentic sources of economics-related content. More fluent and confident students may take *Basic Seminars*, small-group CLIL offerings that apply economic theory through a communicative four-skills approach that includes discussion, debate, presentations, and themes such as research methods.

Finally, study abroad is a key feature of GLP, in keeping with the university's aim for research to be drawn from real-world experience. International Field Studies, ten-day faculty-led group study tours to either Europe or Asia, aim to increase student first-hand awareness of global economic and cultural differences through visits to local governments, universities, NGOs and businesses. In a required full-year seminar, students in spring term study socio-economic concerns of the countries they will visit in the summer and prepare English speaking notes for discussions with students there. Upon return, students in the fall term reflect on what they have learned and prepare individual English reports, which are compiled and published.

Year 3: Exploring new academic worlds

In the third and fourth years, students take intermediate and advanced economics courses, many of them EMI offerings, and, in a distinguishing feature of the university's educational philosophy, many of these EMI courses are graduate courses open also to high-achieving senior undergraduates. Students are also encouraged to take courses in other faculties to gain an interdisciplinary perspective, including those offered as EMI.

GLP is flexible in the timing of the requirements of the third and fourth years, but because of the time-intensive Japanese job search process in fourth year, many students choose their third year to participate in a full-year international academic exchange. Hitotsubashi currently has reciprocal student exchange agreements with 98 universities in more than 33 countries through which students study for up to a year abroad. In the fall of 2015, the first Global Leaders Class cohort was in its third year and studying at universities throughout Europe, North America, and Asia.

Year 4: Bringing it all together

Fourth year students are confronted with both an end and a new beginning: preparing a senior honors thesis in English and planning for the next step in their career or educational plans. Students who have taken a minimum of sixty percent of their required economics courses in English, have achieved a TOEFL iBT score of 85, and who have had a long-term student exchange experience abroad are eligible to receive a Global Leaders Certificate upon graduation.

Year 5: Exploring further

Students accepted into the one-year master’s program complete the degree with a master’s thesis written in English. Graduate-level EMI courses taken during the senior undergraduate year thus help to facilitate the transition to graduate studies. In addition, graduate-level academic English skills courses in presentation and research-based writing support students in their next level of English language development, and so the CBI-CLIL-EMI development cycle comes full circle.

Conclusion

English language proficiency, specialized content knowledge, and a global intercultural perspective are not easily achieved in any undergraduate program. The Global Leaders Program demands not only a high level of proficiency with both theoretical content and language, but also an active mindset through which English becomes a tool through which serious communication can occur, knowledge can be gained, ideas can be debated and minds can be changed. Also necessary is an understanding of the world from the perspectives of local people so that theory can be applied to solving practical real-world problems. Although this is an ambitious goal to achieve in the four short years of undergraduate study, the integrated content and language curriculum described above, together with experiences abroad, provides a framework for implementing such a program.

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Teacher Professional Development Opportunities in the Jewish Autonomous Region

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Abstract: The article describes a regional model of teacher professional development. The ways school teachers master their skills are described. Attention is drawn to the role of motivation in learning new things.

Keywords: *professional development, school teachers, motivation*

Introduction

I worked at a Teacher Training Institute from 2000 to 2014 and I dare to say university programs cannot provide the extensive range of learning experiences necessary for graduates to become effective public school educators. I am happy to see my former university students as school teachers and I still feel that I have been able to help them in their professional development as I have been working as a teacher trainer at the In-Service Training Institute for two years.

I know from my former university students that support for beginning teachers is often uneven and inadequate. New teachers often are assigned to the most challenging schools and classes, with little supervision or support. Nearly half of all beginning teachers leave the profession in their first five years. So I am sure more attention must be paid to providing beginning teachers with early support. Our Institute offers a professional development program for beginning teachers (72 hours). The program contains different modules that emphasize subject-matter mastery and provide opportunities for beginning teachers to spend time in real classrooms under the supervision of experienced teachers and teacher trainers. Our beginning teachers have opportunities to learn through examining case studies and learning best practices in a real classroom. They learn by analyzing videos of exemplary classroom teaching from internet site Uchitel' Goda Rossii (https://teacher-of-russia.ru), view short video lectures from the site Prosvescheniye (http://www.prosv.ru/), and engage in lively discussions of course topics with peers. To highlight young teachers' achievements and to build their confidence, teacher-trainers at our Institute help them to make professional portfolios and present the portfolios at local conferences.

The aims of our regional model of teacher professional development can be described as follows:

1. to give beginning teachers early and adequate support in order to provide schools in our region with young and promising teachers;
2. to motivate experienced teachers to develop their skills.

The regional In-Service Training Institute offers different professional development programs for teachers to expand their skills. A professional development program means facilitation of teaching and learning experiences that are transactional and designed to support the acquisition of professional knowledge, skills and disposition, as well as the application of this knowledge in practice (Maxwell, 2005).

According to the State Education Act 2012 in Russia it is enough for school teachers to get a certificate of professional development once in three years. Teacher trainers from our Institute do their best to encourage school teachers to come to our Institute more than once in three years. Our institute offers a variety of professional development programs, with a minimum of 16 hours which takes teachers two days to study.

When people use the term "professional development," they usually mean a formal process, a course at an institute. Teachers may study in a team or individually. Besides professional development programs, our Institute provides other means of professional development, such as a participating in conferences, seminars, and workshops. Professional development can also occur in informal contexts, such as discussions among work colleagues, independent reading and research. The latter is especially important, according to the idea of continuing professional development as a lifelong learning experience. This idea was first discussed in 1965 at a UNESCO forum.

To motivate experienced teachers we quite often ask them to organize a workshop for other teachers. If experienced teachers are involved in the process, if they feel their knowledge is required, then they feel motivated. On-line training is also a good motivator. Besides the programs, we suggest our school teachers take MOOC courses.

To make sure our programs are effective and our school teachers are satisfied with the knowledge they get, we ask them to answer a questionnaire as feedback to ensure the program responds to their learning needs. It is worth mentioning that before planning the academic year our teacher trainers analyze teachers' needs; they also take into account whether the school system in Russia is implementing a new idea, such as a new mathematics concept or a linguistic concept. To engage in professional development, teachers believe it is necessary for them to acquire additional qualifications to prepare for another position such as teacher leader.

Conclusion

In conclusion, I would like to ask: Why is teacher development important? The answer is as follows: Great teachers help create great students. In fact, research shows that an inspiring and informed teacher is the most important school-related factor influencing student achievement (Mizell, 2010). So, it is important to pay close attention to how we train and support both new and experienced educators.

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What Do Non-English Majors Think of English Language Self-Access Classes?

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Abstract: English language university teachers in Japan are becoming more aware of student-centered activities and fostering autonomous learning. There is abundant research on learner autonomy, student-centered approaches, and self-access centers, but little is known about English language self-access classes in Japan. This article examines student opinions, using class surveys done with first and second year non-English majors at two private universities. It assesses their attitudes toward a self-access curriculum that incorporates student-centered learning that provides students with the responsibility of selecting their classroom activities from predetermined and teacher-created materials.

Keywords: *self-access, learner autonomy, student-centered*

Introduction

In December 2015, the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) published *Creating a Future for the Realization of the Dreams and Goals of all Young People*. This report "proposes sweeping reform policies for high school and university education" by developing students' "sufficient knowledge and skills <…> decision making, and self-expression…" (MEXT, 2015). MEXT also created a list of "General Graduate Competencies" (gakushiryoku) that states "university graduates should have core competencies including basic foreign language abilities, lifelong learning skills, problem solving skills and sufficient autonomous learning capabilities to be able to make decisions about future learning based on evaluation of past learning experiences" (Thompson & Atkinson, 2010: 49). While the Ministry is clearly trying to address some of the issues the Japanese education system faces within its traditional teacher centered approach (Kimura, Nakata & Okumura, 2001; King, 2013), it is unknown how students feel about the push to make them more independent learners.

King (2013) has suggested that silence in classrooms, teacher-centered lessons, and passive students are still the norm in university English classes in Japan. A more student-centered approach to teaching is not being employed effectively and some academics have blamed the teacher-centered education approach and test-taking pressure for Japanese learners' lack of confidence and poor English communication skills (Hato, 2005).

This is not to say that changes are not being made within the education system. One can see from the number of conference presentations and journal articles about learner autonomy that many language teachers have a strong interest in fostering and enabling students to take control of their own learning (Fabela-Cardenas, 2012; Reinders & Balcikanli, 2011). Many Self-Access Centers (SACs) have been created in Japanese universities and they are trying to foster more personal development, learner autonomy, and language learning inside and outside classrooms (Hughes, Krug & Vye, 2012).

How self-access classes are different from self-access centers

There is a plethora of Japan-based research about SACs in Japanese universities (see Ashurova & Ssali, 2007; Hughes, Krug & Vye, 2012; Lammons, 2013; Thompson & Atkinson, 2010). However, there is very little Japan-based information about self-access classes. Thompson and Atkinson's (2010) investigation about integrating and linking self-access SACs to curriculum in classes appears to be the only other research besides the author's (see McCandie, 2014) that discusses self-access in a classroom setting.

While both SACs and self-access classes aim to facilitate autonomous language learning, they are very different in how they attempt to do so. SACs are primarily utilized on a voluntary basis, often employ students to staff facilities, incorporate various learner resources and materials, are university funded, and are housed in a designated area on campus. The author's self-access classes, however, were not voluntary and were facilitated during the standard compulsory first year English Oral Communication class that many universities require of all first year students. Not only were the classes not voluntary, they were not university-funded, were facilitated solely by the teacher, and held in regular classrooms with limited materials. Courses had learner outcomes, assessment, and a curriculum that guided students throughout the term.

Self-access class overview

Over the span of three years, the author developed a self-access curriculum that focused primarily on vocabulary development, while addressing learner autonomy and students' time management. Each class offered a choice of different activities or tasks for vocabulary development through speaking, reading and writing, and students were able to decide which of these areas they would like to concentrate on. Students' marks were based on in-class activities, weekly vocabulary tests, and a final exam. For a complete explanation of the self-access classes facilitated by the author, please refer to McCandie (2014).

Purpose

It appears that little is known about self-access classes and student opinions of self-directed studies in a classroom environment. While the literature on SACs may give an indication of some students' opinions with regard to self-access and self-directed study, the writer suggests that the literature does not necessarily reflect the opinions of students who are involved in self-access classes.

The purpose of this research is to:

1. Determine whether first and second year non-English majors have a positive or negative view about the self-access class they were enrolled in.
2. Determine whether students prefer a traditional, teacher-centered method of studying or a student-centered, autonomous method of studying.
3. Determine whether self-access classes create language awareness and encourage students to have more motivation to study English.
4. Expand on research about self-access classrooms and learner autonomy in Japan.

Participants

The self-access classes were conducted over a two-year period at two private universities in central Japan. The participants were as follows:

- 35 first year Economic Majors – The survey was completed in October, 2013.
- 23 first year Business Majors – The survey was completed in January, 2013.
- 13 second year Agriculture Majors – The survey was completed in January, 2013.

Data collection and procedure

Students were given a voluntary, anonymous questionnaire that was completed at the end of the last class of the second semester. All necessary assignments had been handed in and corrected. Survey questions were written in both English and Japanese to ensure student understanding. The survey did not focus on student attributes such as age, gender, nationality, or English ability, as all students were Japanese, approximately the same age, and due to English level placement tests, around the same level.

- Questions 1-22 were closed-response questions, using a rating scale (strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, strongly disagree).
- Question 23 was a band-scale (never, 1-2 times, 3-4 times) and due to the nature of the question, only three options were needed.
- Questions 24-27 were open-response, short-answer questions. Students were able to use Japanese and/or English for their written responses.
- Question 28 was a combination of a "Yes/No/No Preference" question and an open, short answer response. Students were able to use Japanese and/or English for their written response.

Results of the survey

Six questions from the survey were focused on because they were the most important in ascertaining how students felt about studying in a self-access classroom environment. This was decided by the researcher before the results were tallied, based on the scope of this paper. Results are broken down for the collective group.

SA = Strongly agree, SD = Strongly disagree, TNR = Total number of respondents)

	SA	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	SD	TNR
#6 I studied English out of class on a regular basis	6	17	25	15	8	71
#7 I studied for my vocabulary test on a regular basis	6	26	28	7	4	71
#8 I tried my best in this course	6	26	28	7	4	71
#18 I enjoyed this style of learning	46	20	4	1	0	71
#19 I enjoyed being able to choose what assignments to do each week	32	24	12	2	0	70

	Student +-centered approach	Traditional teacher centered approach	No preference	TNR
#28 Preference for classroom style	41	12	7	60

Implications of the findings

Question eight, "I tried my best", suggests that while many students think they have "done their best", questions six and seven indicate that very few students are spending time studying outside of class for the sake of learning English. Passing the weekly vocabulary tests was the main drive for studying outside of class. Fabela-Cardenas (2012) and Thompson and Atkinson (2010) all suggest that where traditional teacher-centered approaches to education are most commonly used, it may be difficult to encourage students to move towards a more learner autonomous approach. Not only do students need encouragement towards self-access, they also need learning training to help them analyze their needs, how to make use of materials, and to establish goals and monitor their own progress (Ellis & Sinclair, 1989). Clearly, more learning training needs to be given to students in order to make them more successful in becoming aware of autonomous learning and their English language studies.

Based on the results of questions 18 and 19, it is clear that most students enjoy having more control over their English language learning. Nearly all participants feel positive toward a self-access curriculum and classroom style. This feedback suggests that students enjoy the freedom of being able to choose which available activities they do and also indicates that Japanese students are indeed able to and want to take more control in their language classroom.

Question 28 clearly divides learners. While more respondents prefer the student-centered approach compared to the teacher-centered approach, there is a significant number of students who still prefer a teacher-centered approach or are undecided. The writer suggests that academic focus and students' personal learning style (Davies & Pearse, 2000) could be part of the reason for the differences between students.

Study limitations and future research

Due to the limited number of participants, it is difficult to state that future research would yield the same results, and therefore the author is unable to make any generalized predictions. Related to reliability and validity, it is impossible to state that another teacher would yield the same results with their self-access class due to differences in activity selection, teacher training, student interest, and language ability. More research needs to be done in the area of how teachers foster autonomous learning in their class and how their "learner training", if any is provided, affects students in self-directed studies and utilizes these skills both in and outside of the language classroom.

Conclusion

Based on the survey, it is clear that these particular non-English major university students enjoy learning English with a self-access classroom approach. They enjoy the freedom of being able to decide their activities and, enjoy a student-centered approach. However, more needs to be done with regards to supporting learner training so that students are more likely to utilize skills outside of the classroom to aid their language study.

If MEXT's "General Graduate Competencies" are going to be met, teachers in Japan also need more training with regards to fostering student-directed studies and learner autonomy. Without support for more teacher-training related to fostering learner autonomy, English classes in Japan will remain teacher-centered and Japanese students will remain teacher-dependent and passive language learners.

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The Semi-Collaborative Research Paper: Development of a Writing Assignment for a Graduate EAP Course

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Abstract: There has been an increasing need for English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses designed to teach graduate-level research writing, yet development of effective courses has often been challenging due to students' heterogeneous backgrounds (e.g., diverse disciplines, L1s, and prior educational experience). Conventional courses typically provide some instruction, after which students work individually on their own papers. Unfortunately, international students often experience difficulty in conducting and writing about original research within the time frame of a typical university course. The current paper describes a one-semester assignment called the "semi-collaborative research paper" in which students work together on locating and evaluating sources, creating a literature review, and adopting or developing a research methodology and theoretical framework. Other tasks related to creating a specific and original research question, employing the methodology, reporting results, and creating a discussion section are completed individually. The eight phases of the assignment result in six products that are read, discussed, and (in some cases) assessed by the instructor, an outside reader, or students' peers. Experiences piloting this assignment over a roughly ten-year period are briefly discussed along with some of the assignment's potential benefits and challenges.

Keywords: *EAP, research, writing, writing pedagogy, graduate writing*

Introduction

This paper describes an assignment called the "semi-collaborative research paper," which was piloted and developed for over ten years in a graduate EAP (English for Academic Purposes) program at a large private university in the U.S. This assignment was developed in an attempt to overcome some of the inherent obstacles to teaching graduate writing within an ESL context in which students study in a diverse range of fields. Many of the students who were given the assignment were pursuing degrees in statistics, engineering, and finance. All were graduate students. In the required EAP class in which this assignment was carried out, the students had nearly all been required to take the course because their TOEFL score was under 100 (Internet-based test). Except in rare cases, all students were enrolled full-time and were taking other classes in their field of study. The class size was capped at 18.

The assignment was based on the premise that many of the key writing processes associated with research pose difficulty for beginning graduate students, particularly those writing in a second language. To help alleviate these difficulties, the assignment allowed students to work as a class, and in some cases with a partner, to produce the literature review and conceptualize other content destined for the introduction and method sections of their papers. Remaining sections of their papers were completed by the students individually as they further narrowed their research focus.

The assignment guidelines stipulated that students were to conduct research on the rhetorical moves in academic introductions. Students' final papers were required to present original empirical research and were to be segmented into a typical IMRD (introduction, methods, results, and discussion) structure, as required by many academic journals.

The Eight Phases of the Semi-Collaborative Research Paper

During the initial phase of instruction, students, working in groups, compared two articles: one well-written but highly informal blog article dealing with success in graduate school and a recent research article (hereafter, referred to as the "model RA") reporting an empirical study on rhetorical moves in introductions. The latter article was used repeatedly during the class to provide examples of various features of academic writing. Working in pairs, students were asked to compare the two articles in terms of audience, tone, authorial authority, rhetorical structure, argument, scope, style, vocabulary, and reference to others' ideas.

The second phase of the assignment involved locating and summarizing sources in order to write a literature review, which would form part of the introduction in students' final papers. The class discussed the purpose and function of sources as well as criteria for their evaluation. Students then attended a library workshop on locating sources using electronic databases. After this session, they were required to find at least two empirical studies focusing on introductions, write down the citations, and send them to the instructor.

The instructor then assigned each student the task of creating a brief summary of one article. If possible, students were given one of the articles they had found; however, to ensure that no two students reported on the same article, some students were given articles that other students or the instructor had located. Students were asked to describe (1) the research question, (2) the method, (3) key findings, and (4) the significance of the findings. To ensure that comparisons across studies were possible, students were instructed to state their paper's findings in very general terms.

Students then gave a five-minute presentation on their assigned article while the instructor summarized each student's points on an Excel sheet that was projected onto a large screen. Individual studies were input as row headings, whereas categories relevant for comparison were input as Excel column headings. Students were told that they were allowed to use information about each article as presented in class without reading each of the articles. In other words, since the first part of the paper was collaborative, they were allowed to trust their classmates' summaries that had also been confirmed as accurate by the instructor. To further prepare students for writing a literature review, students analyzed sample literature reviews. To ensure that students had sufficient background in the assignment's topic area, they were also introduced to Swale's CARS model (1990, 2004), a model of rhetorical moves in introductions, as it is used widely in this area of research.

During the third phase of the assignment, students, working in pairs, spent one entire class period (two hours) looking for strands within the literature that had been formerly summarized in class. They did this using a cleaned up and augmented version of the Excel file that had been provided by the instructor. They were told to look for thematic strands that could be used to group literature into meaningful categories. The instructor went through chronological development as an example, pointing out that the research in this area nearly all appeared after Swales introduced the 1990 version of his CARS model. After some brainstorming, the instructor elicited other ideas for meaningful categories and, if no student had mentioned them yet, suggested other headings such as methodology and research questions as other possible ways to develop generalizations about the literature. The instructor pointed out that quantitative research often involves comparisons between groups of people or groups of data and that the basis of the grouping (i.e., the independent variable) often provides a useful criterion for generating a meaningful breakdown of the literature. The research on introductions works well in this task as the various research questions can be divided quite naturally into cross-linguistic comparisons, cross-disciplinary comparisons, sub-disciplinary comparisons, and so on.

As students worked together, they were asked to create several paragraphs generally describing the literature on the topic. For this task, which would culminate in the students' literature review (which, in turn, would be inserted into their papers' introduction), the students were allowed to write collaboratively with their partner. Toward the end of this class, the instructor had groups present the various trends and patterns they found in the literature.

During the fourth phase of the assignment, students were asked to generate (individually) a research question for a study that broke new ground. If the research had been done before, they were told to narrow their research question further or change the focus. This was important to discourage plagiarism and to get students to move beyond a knowledge-reporting approach. While doing this, students were also asked to consider exigency, specifically, which theoretical or practical problem would be addressed by a study based on their research question. It was also pointed out that exigency was dynamic: some new pressing needs for knowledge and insights had appeared as a result of recent research findings and changes in the world.

In forming a research question, students were encouraged to take advantage of their own personal strengths. This was easy for them to do since the research on introductions often involves cross-linguistic or cross-disciplinary comparisons. Because many of the students had solid backgrounds in statistics and software applications, it was also pointed out that they had the ability to contribute to research in this area through the application of novel methodological approaches. It was felt that this emphasis on students' existing strengths would give them greater confidence in their ability to engage as members of an academic community. Their status as nonnative speakers or as writers from outside the field of applied linguistics could thus be transformed into an asset instead of a liability. In class, students discussed their research questions and the related exigency. Students then handed in an initial draft of the introduction of their paper, which was to include: (1) references to the exigency motivating the research, (2) a literature review, (3) an explicit reference to a gap in existing research, and (4) their research question. The drafts were later returned with instructor feedback.

During the fifth phase of the research, methods were discussed, focusing on the need for statements regarding *what* was done and *why* it was done. The instructor discussed the need for meticulous reporting of steps taken (so as to ensure replicability) and carefully considered justifications that would win the confidence of the ever-cautious reader. Students read the methods section in the sample paper. They also read a methods section of a paper on introductions in which there was a methodological error. This exercise was therefore useful as it promoted a critical stance toward research and demonstrated that the conclusions of research can only be accepted after a careful vetting process.

After the students selected their method, the class was divided into groups who were using similar research designs or methodologies. Each group discussed details of how to select, adapt, or design a method that would answer their research questions. It was felt that this sort of group work would be useful as it highlighted the fact that methods are often identified within the existing research of an academic community and then adopted, often with little change, to address a problem. Students were allowed to cooperate in devising a methodological approach since many of their papers involved similar approaches and research steps. In the ensuing class discussion, each group discussed their method with the class and explained why they felt it was the most suitable among those available. Students were encouraged to discuss potential pitfalls and improvements to each method being proposed. During the presentation, the instructor also asked about certain relevant details regarding the theoretical framework they would use and, if the research involved coding of linguistic or rhetorical features, how they would ensure that their coding scheme was both valid and reliable. Potential problems in sampling were also discussed, focusing especially on issues regarding nuisance and confounded variables. The class discussion was designed to model the rhetorical situation within empirical research. A writer will often compose a method section based on an unconscious dialogue with a critical reader, and ideally, will respond to the imagined reader's potential questions and objections.

In the sixth phase of research, the class discussed data commentaries and the importance of guiding the reader as the data. This is important, as beginning researchers often mistakenly assume that the readers will, on their own initiative, understand the data (or the representative examples, in qualitative research) and reach the same conclusions as the writer. The class also reviewed language related to graphs, and best practices associated with the presentation of information in figures. Students then completed their data analysis. The students subsequently handed in their results sections and received brief feedback from the instructor.

The class then went over moves used in discussion sections, based on the analysis in Swales (1990) and examined the discussion section in the model RA. Emphasis was placed on (1) reporting major findings in general terms, (2) evaluating findings in light of the research formerly discussed in the literature review, (3) providing tentative explanations for the results, (4) noting limitations of the study, and (5) recommending further courses of action or areas for further research. Following Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995), the instructor pointed out that discussion sections often reflect the moves in the introduction but in reverse order.

In the seventh phase of the research, students gave a 15-minute talk on their research using a PowerPoint or Prezi presentation. In their talks, they were asked to cover all of the main sections (the IMRD structure) of their research. Immediately after their presentation, they received instructor feedback (given orally in front of the class), and then after the class, they received anonymous peer feedback in written form. To ensure that the peer feedback was encouraging, students were asked to mention two or more aspects of the presentation and research with which they were impressed, along with one area that could use some improvement.

In the final phase of the research, students revised their papers based on the feedback to their oral presentations. They were required to schedule and attend at least one session with a graduate tutor in the university's writing center for international students to go over their complete draft, which they then had to revise before handing in.

The sequence of tasks in the semi-collaborative research paper assignment has been depicted in Figure 1. As can be seen, the creation of written products that will be incorporated into the final paper began almost immediately with the second phase of instruction. The initial three phases of class work, as well as some work on the method section, were completed collaboratively, while the remaining writing was performed individually.

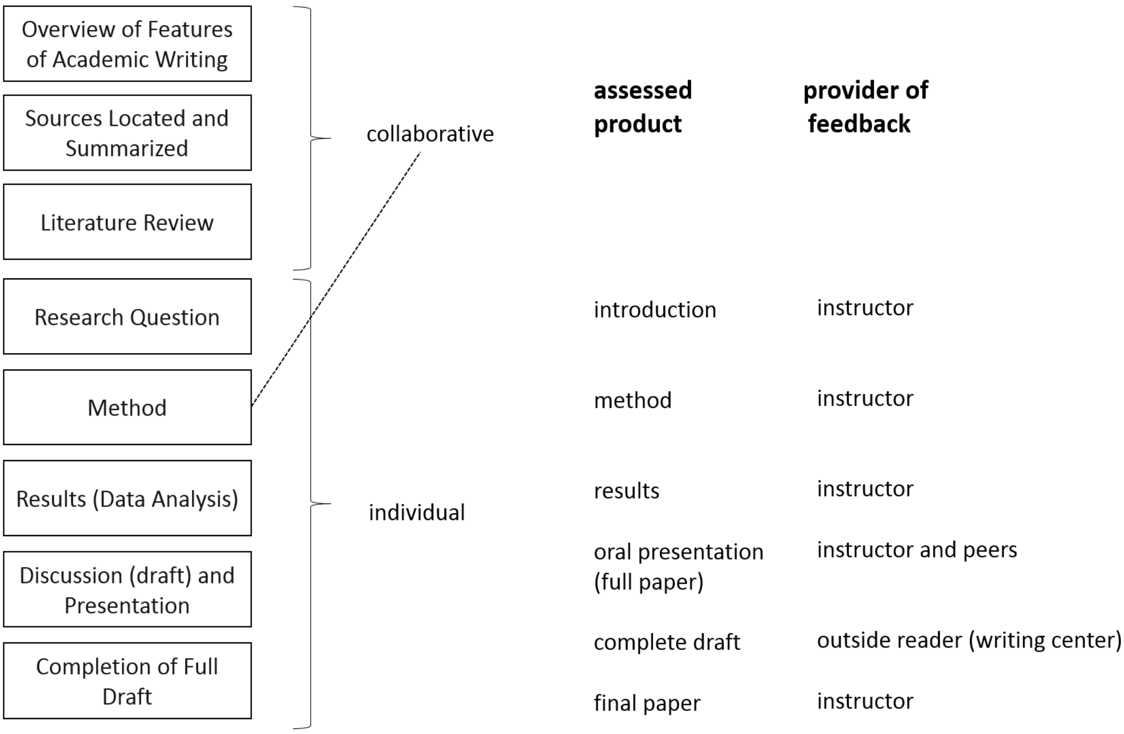

Figure 1. Sequence of tasks in the semi-collaborative research paper assignment

Conclusion

In course feedback, students had very positive reactions to the assignment. They had collaborated closely in the development of their literature reviews, so they were better able to provide an exhaustive overview and identify gaps in current knowledge. Moreover, the assignment was highly effective in discouraging plagiarism, for several reasons: (1) the students had to make choices early during the course regarding key elements of their paper, (2) their research was required to break new ground, (3) and the narrow scope of the assignment allowed instructors to conduct an exhaustive survey of research in this area, making it extremely difficult for students to find related papers of which the instructors were unaware. In sum, this type of assignment can successfully use collaborative work as a scaffold, introducing students to key practices in conducting and describing research.

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Testing and Assessment: Core Principles and Misconceptions

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Abstract: The importance of testing and assessment (T&A) cannot be overrated as sound language assessment practices ensure quality language learning and teaching. To implement sound language assessment practices one should be literate in the field. The problems arise from different interpretations of what “testing and assessment” mean, and how basic principles of T&A are understood (if known at all) by EFL teachers in Russia. This paper makes an attempt to analyze comprehensive data which the authors have collected through interviews, talks and discussions with EFL teachers and students, to overview their T&A beliefs, and to measure these beliefs against conventional principles of testing and assessment.

Keywords: *testing, assessment, assessment literacy, EFL, test*

Introduction

Nobody doubts the importance of testing at present time in Russia. Testing has taken its place in the Russian educational context and is expanding its influence on people’s lives.

There are several factors that have contributed to this phenomenon: growing interest to language testing and assessment worldwide, introduction of National standards and learning outcomes, introduction of Public Examination Systems at the national level (Russian standardized tests EGE (Russian Unified Exam for school leavers) and GIA (State Final Attestation)), use of tests to measure accountability, increasing use of computer technology in language instruction, on-line learning and teaching, and other socio-economic drivers.

This growing interest of teachers in testing and assessment in reflected in professional publications. An overview of articles in the professional journal *Inostrannye Yazyki v Shkole* (*Foreign Languages at School)* over the last decade justifies the point that teachers are becoming more concerned about testing. Almost every other journal issue has an article dedicated to testing and assessment. Still, these articles mostly concern proficiency tests, and teachers, when they talk about language testing, have TOEFL, or IELTS, or EGE in mind. They present an overview and/or analysis of different parts of tests, skills assessed, assessment criteria, description of tasks and most importantly tips for successful test completion. There have been a number of articles dedicated to the results of EGE providing feedback on common mistakes and suggesting test-wise strategies. From this overview it is clear that the focus of the articles is to provide tips for test taking in high-stake tests.

As for the industry of testing, it is thriving. The textbook market is full of TOEFL, IELTS and EGE preparation materials; different English Language clubs and private schools offer preparation courses which are in great demand.

After briefly looking through the previous FEELTA conference proceedings and programs, we found out that there was not even a separate section on testing and assessment in 2004 and 2006, and there were only three articles on testing and assessment in those years. In 2008 and in 2012 the FEELTA conference featured whole sections devoted to testing and assessment, including ten presentations each year. This year, the conference also features a section on Testing and Assessment which confirms growing interest and importance of this field in ELT.

Testing and Assessment vs Control

Although teachers talk and read about tests, their understanding of what T&A are remains rather vague due to the fact that major concepts of T&A may differ from the traditional for Russian Methodology and teaching practice concept of Control. As M. Gvozdeva (2014) notes, “Based on different philosophies of education, reflecting different paradigms and formalized in different National Curricula, assessment and control coexist in our teaching practice, borrowing tools and fundamental principles from conceptually different approaches, consequently ruining the logic of reporting scores and their interpretation, and contributing to more confusion in everyday teaching practice.”

While “control” is defined as “the process of determining the level of knowledge, skills, abilities of a trainee as a result of their oral and written assignments and formulating on this basis a grade/score for the taken section of a program or a course” (Azimov, Schukin, 2009: 112), assessment “involves obtaining evidence to inform inferences about a person’s language-related knowledge, skills or abilities” (Green, 2014: 5). The definitions indicate that control and assessment are understood differently. Control is “vertical”, with assigning a student their grade or score being its major objective. Assessment is often described as a cycle, it “is not an isolated event that comes at the end of a sequence of instruction. Rather, it is an ongoing process for teachers to find out what and how well students are learning. Assessment results may be used as the basis for making a variety of decisions about students, instruction, curriculum, or the overall language program” (Teaching World Englishes, 2014: 4).

We, Russians, are not an exception in our views on testing and assessment. A. Green in his newly published book *Exploring Language Assessment and Testing* writes: “The traditional view that separates assessment from teaching may result from the identification of the word assessment with the narrower activity of testing” (Green, 2014: 6). And further he goes on to distinguishing assessment from testing, pointing out that “assessment involves a whole cycle of inter-related activities” (Green, 2014: 7). Results of assessment may be used to make a variety of decisions, not only about students, but also about instruction, or course, or the overall program. Information, gathered through assessment, may be used in making decisions about what assessment practices are most appropriate for different situations. Assessment may include a wide range of different activities, such as observation, informal questioning or interviewing in class by teachers, different informal or semi-formal exercises and quizzes conducted in class, self-assessment when learners reflect on their own use of language or on progress they have made, peer-assessment when learners judge each other's performance, some forms of portfolio assessment.

Misconceptions about Tests

There is even more confusion when we try to compare the term "control work", traditional for Russian Methodology, with the term "test", which is believed to describe a different format, because it is not clear how these two terms relate to each other. The definition of "control work" is rather vague: "a form of verification and assessment of knowledge, language skills and abilities, as well as the effectiveness of the forms and methods of educational activity" (Azimov, Schukin, 2009: 113). The definitions of "test", given by Russian educators, are much more specific – test is defined as "an assignment of a standard form, the fulfillment of which allows you to set the level and the presence of certain skills and subskills, abilities, mental development, and other characteristics of a person using the special scale of results" (Azimov, Schukin, 2009: 309) or as "a system of tasks of specific form, certain content, with uniformly increasing difficulty – a system created with the aim to objectively evaluate the structure and to measure the level of preparedness of students" (Avanesov, 2002). At the same time the definition of what a test is within the field of testing and assessment is much broader: "a test is a certain procedure whose purpose is to gather evidence on language abilities, based on test takers' performance which will allow test users to make predictions about how test takers will use these abilities in real world contexts" (McNamara, 2000: 11), or "a test is an event that is especially set to elicit performance for the purpose of making judgments about a person's knowledge, skills or abilities" (Green, 2014: 6); test is not limited to standardized testing only.

Such discrepancy in defining a test indicates that there is a problem with understanding what a test is. In many Russian articles, dedicated to testing, the focus is on a number of advantages of a test over other forms of assessment, mostly "control work". For example, one of the articles on testing presents a whole list of the advantages of tests over control works which illustrate common beliefs reflecting opinions of many authors:

– The higher degree of standardization;
– Objective grading – regardless of the likes and dislikes of the teacher;
– Positive stimulating effect on learners' cognitive activities;
– Potential to significantly reduce tension between the teacher and their students, and also to relieve emotional stress of the teacher and their students;
– Quick control of knowledge – simultaneous testing of the entire group of test-takers;
– Broader coverage of the content – the test contains tasks on all the topics;
– More security – fewer or no opportunities for cheating;
– Focus on use of IT for assessment;

– Necessity for a learner to remember not only general information but also details which learners tend to forget when being assessed by traditional methods;
– Can cover all stages of educational process and serve different purposes (Sukhorukova et al., 2011: 152).

Although all of these might be true to some extent, they are also somewhat controversial. It is possible to contradict almost any of them. If we look at the first two, we can see that these statements describe only some particular type of tests, but it is not possible to apply them to a speaking or writing test. “Reducing tension and emotional stress” is also doubtful, as more and more evidence from taking the EGE is presented to prove otherwise. As for “broader coverage of the content”, it is even more doubtful. According to test-takers’ opinions, it is much easier to prepare for a test than for an oral exam, which sets more challenging requirements, such as providing argumentation for an opinion or explaining something. “Higher degree of security” might also be subject to criticism as test takers find new ways to overcome security measures owing to IT development.

There are some more common beliefs, such as:

– testing is mostly about using multiple choice questions format,
– teaching to the test is good,
– big international tests are good for all purposes,
– tests are about testing knowledge,
– mistakes are the most important things that students produce,

which contribute to overall picture of misconceptions.

Overall, the impression is that the teaching community in Russia is more concerned with the benefits of tests than with more important issues such as major principles of sound assessment – validity, reliability, authenticity, interactiveness, impact and practicality. To be honest, one cannot deny that teachers have become more aware of such test characteristics as validity, reliability, and practicality, and that their attention is drawn to these issues in publications dedicated to tests analyses. Still, they seem to underestimate the most important things in assessment and focus on more technical details like designing test items (which is definitely important) and teaching students test-wise strategies.

According to L. Bachman and A. Palmer, “the most important consideration in designing a language test is its usefulness, and this can be defined in terms of six test qualities… These six qualities all contribute to test usefulness, so they cannot be evaluated independently of each other. Furthermore, the relative importance of these different qualities will vary from one testing situation to another, so that test usefulness can only be evaluated for specific testing situations. Similarly, the appropriate balance of these qualities cannot be prescribed in the abstract, but can only be determined for a given test. The most important consideration to keep in mind is not to ignore any one quality at the expense of others. Rather, we need to strive to achieve an appropriate balance, given the purpose of the test, the characteristics of the TLU domain and the test takers, and the way we have defined the construct to be measured (Bachman, Palmer, 1996: 38). Unfortunately, in Russia we have problems with understanding or interpreting what usefulness and its most important characteristics are, as the analysis of journals on EFL indicates, or neglect usefulness altogether. For example, some authors recommend to define reliability of a test before administering it (Sukhorukova et al., 2011), which is simply not possible – reliability is calculated after students take a test.

Conclusion

So, in our view, the solution to this problem is professional development and raising assessment literacy awareness where assessment literacy of a person is understood as "the assessment-related knowledge and skills needed for the competent performance of that person's responsibilities" (Popham, 2009). Not only teachers and testers should be assessment literate, but all stakeholders including administrators, parents, students and policymakers.

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Portfolio Assessment for an Undergraduate Intermediate Level Writing Class

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Abstract: This paper reports on an action research study in a third semester writing class in the English department of Sam Ratulangi University, Indonesia. The objective is to determine how and to

what extent portfolio assessment is useful for improving students' writing. Each student kept a portfolio of his or her written work, which was used by the teachers to analyze students' progress, i.e. to determine changes in paragraph development, organization, and selected grammatical features during the semester. In general, the development and organization of students' writing showed significant improvement, while results for grammar were less consistent, depending on individual factors and error type.

Keywords: *portfolio assessment*, *student writing*, *self and peer editing*, *teacher editing*

Introduction

Recently there has been a significant interest in using portfolios in teaching writing. Numerous studies show that using portfolios as instructional tools in a writing class can promote fluency in writing and provide many benefits to be used in a writing class (Elbow & Belanoff, 1994; Weiser, 1994; Coombe & Barlow, 2004). Murphy (1994) defines writing portfolios as "selections of students' work, produced as a normal part of the course work or outside class for the purposes of construction and evaluation" (p. 143). In other words, any collections of students' work, such as logs or journal-logs (Braine, 1988), journal entries (Penaflodia, 1998), diaries, letters, drafts, notes, poems, reviews, reports, narratives, etc., when collected in file(s) over a period of time, are called portfolios. Portfolios show a collection of students' work, both good and the best work (notes, brainstorming ideas, drafting, revision, and final draft) from the beginning of the term to the end giving both the teacher and the student a chance to assess the progress of the student's writing. Despite having the advantages of using portfolio assessment mentioned above, portfolio assessment can be time consuming for teachers especially if portfolios are done in addition to traditional grading (David, 2005; Pierce & O'Malley, 1992).

Reasons

One of the reasons why this topic has been chosen is that portfolios along with peer-feedback and self-correction in academic writing classes are seldom used, particularly in Indonesia. The academic writing seems the most needed and demanding skill for students to master, since students are required to publish their senior thesis in a university electronic journal. On top of that, students generally have significant problems communicating effectively when writing in English.

Objectives

The objective of this study is to determine how and to what extent portfolio assessment is useful for improving students' writing. The main task for students was to write short but well-developed academic paragraphs about personal and general topics.

Portfolio Assessment: Theoretical Framework

There are several pedagogical reasons why portfolio assessment has been used widely in ESL context. First, Yancey (1992: 102) and Elbow (1994) note that the portfolio system focuses on the writing process: the way the writer approaches the task and how the writer develops his ideas cognitively. Second, the process of selection is very essential in portfolio system where students can choose the topic and the target audience (a teacher, writers themselves), and select from their work the pieces they want to include in their portfolios (Yancey, 1992: 102; Penaflorida, 1998: 72-88). In this case, there is a sense of authenticity of the tasks, and they are similar to what normally a good writer does.

Methodology

Since much of the research has shown that peer feedback is ineffective, this study attempted through action research to make it more beneficial. First, students in small groups were to give feedback on grammar, then teachers specified the types of errors that students gave feedback on. Example: only mark S-V errors.

Subjects

The undergraduate students of the English department enrolled in Writing Class III as a required course were in the third semester of the academic year 2015. The students' age range was from 19 to 21. They all had passed Oral English 1-2, Writing 1-2, and they had different levels of general English proficiency (high, moderate, and low). The subjects of the sample data collection were taken from one of the classes consisting of 20 students. They were not placed according to the level of English ability, so their general English proficiency varied.

Class description

The writing class III was conducted for two semesters, two hours per week or 16 meetings and was integrated into the reading and writing class. Students wrote a series of academic paragraphs using a process of editing and revision. Drafts were kept together in each student's portfolio. The first draft was peer edited, the second draft was edited by the teacher. Then students did self-correction of the final draft before retyping it and putting it in the portfolios to be evaluated.

Students did group peer editing. Each group of three was given other students' paragraphs to edit. They were asked to mark one type of error. After the 2^{nd} draft was edited by the teachers, instruction was given to the whole class specifically on the common problems. Major topics of instruction were complex sentences, transition signals, adjective clauses, sentence fragments, run-on sentences, subject-verb agreement, singular/plural nouns, developing paragraphs with reasons and examples, opinion, compare/contrast, and definition paragraphs, and content organization such as topic sentence, supporting sentences, signal words, and concluding sentences.

Data Collection

There were three drafts of paragraphs in this study: narrative (1st paragraph of the semester), opinion (mid-semester), comparison/contrast (final exam). The three paragraphs were compared according to their content and organization (using a standard rubric), number of clauses, number and types of errors: subject-verb agreement, sentence fragments, and run-on sentences, absence of subject or verb, and singular/plural nouns.

The peer editing markings were analyzed for three different paragraphs. The teachers counted the type and number of errors edited correctly, incorrectly marked, or overlooked. Then the teachers counted the type of errors such as: subject-verb agreement, sentence fragments and run-on sentences, absence of subject or verb, and singular/plural nouns.

At the final exam, students did an error correction task. The teachers counted the number of students who successfully corrected each error, who identified but were unable to correct each error, and the students who did not detect each error. Finally, the teachers compared results of the students who had completed all writing assignments with those who had not.

Results

<u>Content and Organization</u>

Students' writing was graded in terms of content and organization using a rubric (see appendix)

	Narrative Paragraph			Opinion Paragraph			Comparison Paragraph		
	Topic Sentence	Supporting Detail	Concluding Sentence	Topic Sentence	Supporting Detail	Concluding Sentence	Topic Sentence	Supporting detail	Concluding Sentence
If	3	3	2	4	4	3	4	4	4
Ma	1	2	1	3	3	3	4	3	3
Gl	3	3	1	4	3	3	4	4	4
Ni	2	2	2	3	4	4	4	4	4
So	2	2	2	3	3	3	2	3	2
Wi	1	2	2	4	4	4	4	3	4
Ak	2	2	2	4	3	4	4	3	4
Sa	2	2	2	3	3	2	3	3	2
Ch	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	2
Total	**18**	**20**	**16**	**31**	**30**	**29**	**32**	**31**	**29**

Notes: 4 (excellent), 3 (very good), 2 (acceptable) and 1 (needs improvement)

Table 1: Students' scores on topic, supporting, and concluding sentences

As seen from the table, the content and organization of students' writing improved significantly, and the most significant improvement occurred in the first half of the semester. At this point, all students were able to write well-organized and well-developed academic paragraphs.

Table 2 (below) shows the number of clauses students wrote in each of the three paragraphs. Overall, the number of clauses in the final paragraph doubled compared to the first paragraph. While this does not necessarily indicate an improvement in the quality of students' writing, it does provide some evidence that the development of students' writing improved, and that they used a greater variety of sentence types as the semester progressed.

Student	Narrative paragraph	Opinion paragraph	Comparison paragraph
I.	21	17	34
M.	16	16	16
G.	6	17	22
N.	13	21	45
S.	16	24	17
W.	10	15	22
A.	24	20	40
Sn.	14	17	25
C.	14	27	46
Total	134	174	267

Table 2: Number of clauses in each paragraph

Grammatical Accuracy

A selected sample of the research data reveals a complicated picture of the grammatical accuracy of students' writing:

1) Clauses with missing subjects

The most common missing subject errors involved using a prepositional phrase as a subject, a failure to use "it" or "there" as a subject, and leaving out a subject in a noun clause after an academic listing signal. For example, one student wrote, "The first reason is make the air polluted." However, after further instruction on this type of error, this student used the same academic listing signal correctly in subsequent paragraphs. In fact, by the end of the semester, all but one student had eliminated missing subjects from their writing, despite the fact that the number of clauses in their writing had doubled. It seems that in the case of missing subjects, class instruction contributed to students' writing skills improvement.

2) Clauses with missing verbs

Nearly every occurrence of missing verbs was because students failed to use a form of "be," the verb which does not exist in their native language. Almost all students used the verb "be" correctly most of the time but still made occasional mistakes. On the other hand, most students were unable to identify this kind of error when doing peer editing and when coping with the task at the final exam, with no difference in performance of diligent and less diligent students. This appears to show that class instruction was insufficient for correcting this type of error.

3) Subject-verb agreement errors

At the beginning of the semester, students did not make many subject-verb agreement errors (1% of total clauses), perhaps because the first paragraph mainly required the use of the past tense, which limited the number of subject-verb agreement structures. In subsequent paragraphs, students made quite a few errors: in 5% of clauses in the midterm paragraph and in 3% of clauses in the final paragraph. This is likely to indicate a lack of progress. However, when editing, students peer showed significant improvement in their ability to identify this type of error. In the first paragraph for which students did group peer editing, they made 11 incorrect markings. That is, they indicated 11 subject-verb errors where they did not occur. When they did peer editing at the end of the semester, in contrast, they made no incorrect markings, which indicated that they had gained a better understanding of the concept of subject-verb agreement.

A close analysis of students' individual writing, too, seems to indicate some progress. For instance, in the final paragraph, all the students were using basic subject-verb agreement correctly when the verb immediately followed the subject. On the other hand, the students often made errors in adjective clauses and in the cases where there were intervening words between the subject and the verb. These errors, however, also indicate some progress in students' grammatical competence, since they tended to make the verb agree with the noun immediately preceding the verb, showing that they understood the basic concept of subject-verb agreement. One student, for example, wrote, "Using cell phones in public places make people antisocial.", as if in this sentence the verb "make" agrees with the preceding noun "places". It seems, then, that students understood the concept of subject-verb agreement but were not always able to identify the specific subject the verb should agree with.

4) Sentence fragment errors (not including missing subjects and verbs)

There were relatively few sentence fragments in the students' writing. In the first paragraph of the semester, only one student made a sentence fragment. In the following paragraphs, students wrote a few sentence fragments consisting of a single dependent clause. Four out of five of these began with the word "whereas" and one began with the word "moreover." Since academic transition signals were a major focus of instruction, it seems likely that these errors are evidence of the learning process. Students had learned the meaning and function of the words "whereas" and "moreover" and were trying to use them in their writing. Further evidence of improvement comes from the fact that most of the diligent students were able to identify sentence fragments in the final exam editing task, while none of the less diligent students were able to do it. Therefore, it appears that class instruction was effective in helping students reduce the occurrence of sentence fragments in their writing.

Conclusions

The study results show that the portfolios were useful for comparing students' writing over the course of the semester. There was a significant improvement in the content and organization of students' writing, while results of grammar were less consistent depending on the individual factors and error types. It seems difficult to determine how much the use of portfolios contributed to this improvement. The compiling of student's work through self-editing, peer editing and the teacher's response in the portfolios from the beginning of the semester to the end proved to contribute significantly to this improvement. Portfolios were just one of several teaching techniques that helped to improve students' writing.

Most of the literature includes reflection as an important component of portfolios, but we did not include it in ours. To make portfolios even more effective, it would be helpful to have students write a brief reflection after each assignment with the following elements: What did you do well in this paragraph? Did you understand all of the teacher's comments/markings? What errors did you make most often? What would you like to improve in your next paragraph? In this way, students will become aware of their areas of strength and weakness and hopefully become more autonomous as they consider how to improve their own writing. This would also provide valuable information for teachers, as they would be able to see how well the students are able to assess their own writing.

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Appendix: Writing Checklist

Writer's name:______________________ Editor's name:________________________

I. Format	Yes	No
1. Are the author's name and the date in the upper-right hand corner of the page?		
2. Is the title centered?		
3. Is the first line of the paragraph indented?		
4. Is the paragraph double-spaced?		
5. Does the paragraph appear to use a 12-point font?		
II. Organization and Content	Yes	No
1. Is there a title?		
2. Is there a topic sentence?		
3. Does the topic sentence have a controlling idea that either states an opinion or divides the topic into parts?		
4. Are there at least three supporting ideas?		
5. Do the supporting ideas clearly relate to the controlling idea?		
6. Is there a concluding sentence?		
7. Does the concluding sentence either restate the topic sentence or summarize the examples? Put a checkmark by the type of concluding sentence _____ restatement _____ summary		
III. Cohesion	Yes	No
1. Does each supporting idea begin with a transition?		
2. Is there a transition at the beginning of the concluding sentence?		
3. Is there a subject and verb in every clause?		
4. Are there any compound sentences (using *and, or, so, but*)? Number of compound sentences: _____		
5. Are there any complex sentences (using time clauses or other dependent clauses)? Number of complex sentences: _____		
IV. Mechanics	Yes	No
1. Are the first and last words, as well as nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs in the title capitalized?		
2. Is the first word of every sentence capitalized?		
3. Are all proper nouns capitalized?		
4. Is there a period at the end of every sentence?		
5. Are commas used correctly? Circle any place where a comma is missing or incorrectly used.		
6. Are there any spelling errors? Mark all spelling errors with "sp". (If you are not sure, do not mark them.)		

Dictionary of Common Errors as a Tool for Error Treatment in the Russian EFL Classroom

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Abstract: This paper focuses on learner error research. The author reviews typologies of language learner errors and explores the didactic value of monolingual and bilingual Dictionaries of Common Errors as tools for "offline Corrective Feedback". Also, she gives some ideas to teachers on how to employ this method of error correction in the EFL classroom.

Keywords: *corrective feedback, dictionary entry, dictionary of common errors, errors, error treatment, error correction, pedagogical dictionary*

Introduction

Research into learners' errors has great applied significance in developing effective methods of teaching both foreign and native languages. In most cases, errors are caused by lack of knowledge of the target-language norms that affect communication and they can lead to misunderstanding. Nevertheless, errors are an integral part of the language learning process. They are clear evidence that learning is taking place, as a lesson in which students do not make errors is a lesson in which students are not learning. However, up to the second half of the 20th century, errors were regarded as deviations from standard language usage, reflecting the learner's lack of language competence. Within the framework of the Audio Lingual Method of Teaching and Behaviourist Learning Theory, non-standard forms were to be prevented and eradicated since they were the main criterion for language competence assessment. L. V. Shcherba was the first who advocated the research of erroneous language in Russia; he highlighted the importance of analyzing negative linguistic material. He also stated that errors were typical not only of foreign language learners: "native speakers' speech was in fact guilty of numerous deviations from the norm" (Shcherba, 2008: 36).

With the development of linguistics, applied linguistics, psychology and other relevant fields, scholars' attitude towards errors has changed greatly. Instead of being a problem to overcome, errors are now believed to be evidence of the current stage in a learner's target language development. Such scholars as S. Pit Corder, J. Richards, L. Selinker, and R. Ellis argue that errors are part of the natural language learning process. In this connection, we may state that they are inevitable and teachers must be tolerant of them as a negative attitude towards errors makes learners more inhibited about making errors and thus, does not help to overcome their language barrier and fear of speaking in class. Realizing the importance of errors, many teachers collect samples of learners' erroneous language to reveal common errors and the most problematic areas.

In this connection, it is critically important to focus once again on the problem of error typology. According to the *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*, an error is "the use of a linguistic item (e.g. a word, a grammatical item, a speech act, etc.) in a way which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as showing faulty or incomplete learning" (2010: 184).

Traditional error typology is based on the speech culture and the literary norms of the language in question. In this view, errors are regarded as corrupted forms of standard language usage and are classified according to language aspects (phonological, lexical and syntactic errors).

The innovative error classification of Stephen Pit Corder is worth mentioning as he was the first who distinguished between “errors” and “mistakes”. Pit Corder argues that errors are the result of mother tongue interference and reflect foreign language acquisition. In addition, they are caused by gaps in learners’ knowledge and occur because learners do not know what is correct. Such errors are unavoidable as contemporary teaching methods encourage learner independence at the expense of grammar exercises. In their turn, mistakes reflect occasional performance slips caused by fatigue, excitement, etc. and therefore can be easily self-corrected (Pit Corder, 1993).

Jack Richards, trying to explain why errors occur in the acquisition of English as a second language, classified them as follows: interlingual errors – errors due to transferring rules from the mother tongue and intralingual errors - errors similar to those produced by the child in the mother tongue (Richards, 1971: 204-219).

Some errors are considered to be more serious than others as it is difficult to understand what learners mean to say. Rod Ellis (2012) distinguishes “global” from “local” errors. “Global errors break the overall sentence structure, causing processing difficulties. Local errors influence only a single element in the sentence and they are unlikely to cause comprehension problems (Ellis, 2012: 20). In fact, global errors are more remarkable because they can lead to communication gaps, so it is critically important to focus teachers’ attention on them. In their turn, local errors are less likely to impede effective communication; nevertheless, they are quite common for learners and deserve teachers’ attention as a reasonable correctness is important.

In our opinion, the typologies listed above are not unique, though, they are the most significant. Of course, they cannot explain or predict which errors will occur and do not even propose any teaching strategies to solve language problems, but we should not underestimate them as instruments for finding out more about language teaching and learning processes. Also, teachers may use error typologies as a tool to analyze students’ errors and create independent pedagogical solutions to the students’ language problems.

It is quite important to define and analyze errors; however, it is still an open question how to treat common errors more effectively. We suppose that traditional error correction is not effective, as mechanical (explicit) correction does not make a student reflect on the nature of the error and this, of course, limits the student’s progress. In this connection, it is worth mentioning that nowadays one of the key concepts in English Language Teaching (ELT) is Corrective Feedback (CF), in which a student receives either formal or informal feedback on his or her performance on various tasks from a teacher (Li, 2014). Oral Corrective Feedback can be immediate, in which case the teacher informs the student that he or she has produced an incorrect form just after the utterance that contains an error (“online CF”), or delayed (“offline CF”) when correction is given after the student has finished speaking, or postponed until the next lesson (Pawlak, 2014: 98). Personally, we are in favor of “offline CF”. On the one hand, teachers can postpone CF until the next lesson and on the other, it allows them to analyze the most problematic areas and discover common errors made by foreign language learners.

The question of what strategy a teacher should adopt to support students' speech accuracy arises. We propose to use pedagogical dictionaries as tools for "offline CF" as dictionaries play an important part in language development, particularly in the learning of foreign languages. R. R. K. Hartmann points out that "lessons are most appropriate where dictionary use constitutes an integral part of (language) learning, and where a teacher can check the learner-user's progress" (2001: 93). With the development of pedagogical lexicography and the advent of pedagogical dictionaries of different types, teachers have an opportunity to use them for their practical didactic needs in class. Now pedagogical dictionaries are "more user-friendly, error-conscious and skill-oriented" (Hartman, 1988: 230).

In spite of the potential value of all pedagogical dictionaries, a dictionary of learners' errors has skipped the attention of ELT scholars and practitioners. In our opinion, it is a dictionary of learner errors that might facilitate effective corrective feedback. With these ideas in mind, we decided to bring two dictionaries of learner errors into the EFL classroom. One is an international dictionary, the *Longman Dictionary of Common Errors* (*LDCE*), and the other a dictionary aimed at Russian students who study English, namely, the *Dictionary of Typical Errors of the English Language* – DTEEL (*Slovar Typichnih Oshibok Angliyskogo Yazika*).

The *LDCE* is a monolingual dictionary which deals with common errors; moreover, it presents words and phrases that cause difficulty for foreign learners at the intermediate proficiency level and above. Each error in the dictionary is accompanied by a correction and sometimes a simple explanation that enables teachers to develop effective methods of CF in class and also encourages students' independent learning.

Despite the fact that the *LDCE* is intended for foreign learners regardless of nationality and language background, it is not quite clear whether it will be a great asset for teachers and students whose mother tongue is Russian. In the Russian Federation, the English language is learnt in the absence of a natural language environment and is taught as a foreign language by non-native English speaking teachers. Perhaps the bilingual dictionary of learner errors would be more effective for Russian students as it provides definitions and illustrations in their mother tongue. Experience shows that bilingual dictionaries are more popular with Russian learners. However, some scholars consider that teachers should employ bilingual dictionaries only in the initial stages of the learning process. As proficiency progresses, monolingual dictionaries are said to be more helpful; in fact, prolonged dependency on bilingual dictionaries probably prevents the development of second-language proficiency (Baxter, 1980: 325-26).

The *DTEEL*, compiled by A. Vibornov, is the first bilingual (English-Russian) dictionary of typical errors. It differs from the *LDCE* in its microstructure, as each dictionary entry gives the Russian equivalent of the source word and samples of a word usage; also, it has an explanation in Russian.

To explore the pedagogical value of the *LDCE* and *DTEEL* as tools for non-judgmental error treatment we conducted a case study.

Method

Participants

Two groups of 50 Russian non-English major students (S = 100) at the Far Eastern Federal University in Vladivostok, Russian Federation, with an intermediate level of English.

Procedure

Stage 1

Of all the errors, we chose lexical usage errors, namely two confusable nouns “payment” and “fee”. The students were given sentences from the *LDCE* entry for these nouns. The students’ task was to identify the error. (see Appendix 1).

Stage 2

We put forward the hypothesis that a bilingual dictionary is more effective in error treatment for Russian students. The first group of students were given an entry from the *LDCE* (see Appendix 2). The second group of students were given an entry from *DTEEL* (see Appendix 3). They were to study the definitions and explanations of the words.

Stage 3

After studying the entries the students were given a task of filling in the words “payment” or “fee” in the exercises given in Appendix 4. The goal of these exercises is to check students’ understanding of the words, based on the dictionary explanations. The students wrote down the answers and handed them in to the teacher for further analysis.

Stage 4

To gauge the students’ reaction to the use of dictionaries of common errors, we gave them the following questionnaire, consisting of two items:

1. It was beneficial to treat errors using the dictionaries of common errors.
   a. I agree. b. I somewhat agree. c. I disagree.
2. Please give your reasons for your response to Question 1.

Results

The hypothesis we put forward was justified. The bilingual dictionary with explanations in Russian proved to be more effective. As can be seen from Table 1, 91% of the students agreed that the activity was beneficial, while 6% were “somewhat” in agreement. Only 3% did not consider it to be helpful. Hence, 97% of the students got some benefit from the activity. See Table 1 and Figure 1.

Table1. Benefits of the Activity

Agree	Somewhat agree	Disagree
91	6	3
91.0%	6.0%	3.0%

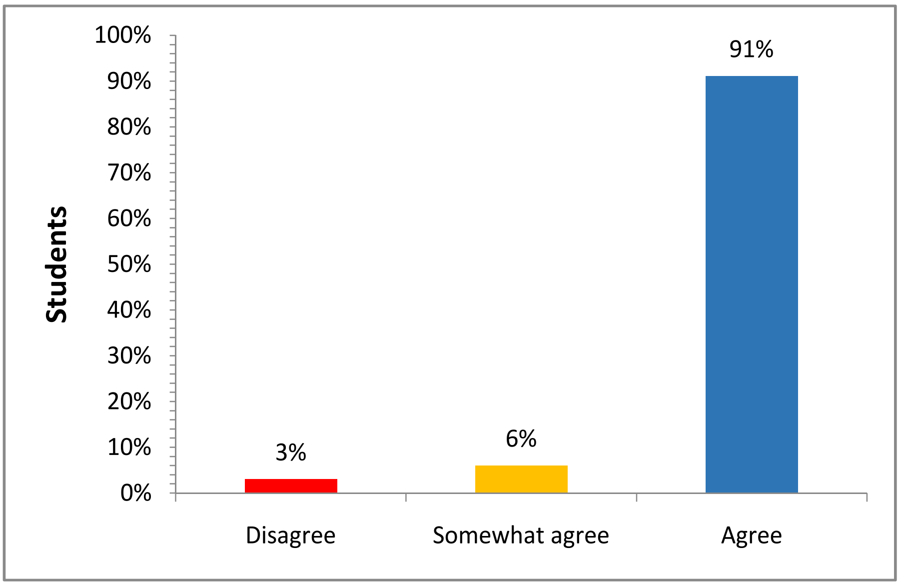

Fig.1. Benefits of the Activity

Analysis of the responses revealed that the students agreed or disagreed with the statement for the following main reasons (the number of the students is indicated in brackets):

1. they had never corrected errors with the help of the dictionaries of common errors before (75)
2. they understood the distinction between "payment" and "fee" (12)
3. the dictionaries of common errors could help them cope with language difficulties independently (10)

Students disagreed with the statement because …

1. they did not understand the error explanations in the *LDCE* (2)
2. it was too difficult for their level of English proficiency to use the dictionaries of common errors (1)

The study also reveals that the students still make errors even when using the dictionaries.

Students' answers after studying the *LDCE* entry (the number and percentage of students' answers are indicated in brackets):

With no errors – 32 (64%)

With errors – 18 (36%)

Students' answers after studying the *DTEEL* entry (the number and percentage of students' answers are indicated in brackets):

No errors – 34 (68%)

With errors – 16 (32%)

Analysis of the students' incorrect answers to the exercise based on the *LDCE* and on the *DTEEL* are presented in Table 2, Figure 2 and Table 3, Figure 2 respectively.

Table 2. Students' Incorrect Answers to the Exercise Based on the *LDCE* Entry (group I)

4 errors	3 errors	2 errors	1 error
5	3	3	7
27.8%	16.7%	16.7%	38.8%

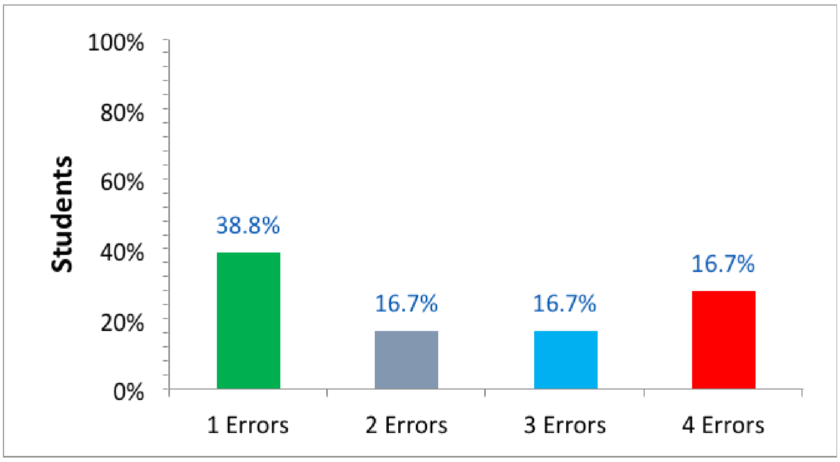

Fig.2. Students' Incorrect Answers to the Exercise Based on the *LDCE* Entry (group I)

Table 3. Students' Incorrect Answers to the Exercise Based on the *DTEEL* Entry (group II)

4 errors	3 errors	2 errors	1 error
5	3	5	3
31.25%	18.74%	31.25%	18.75%

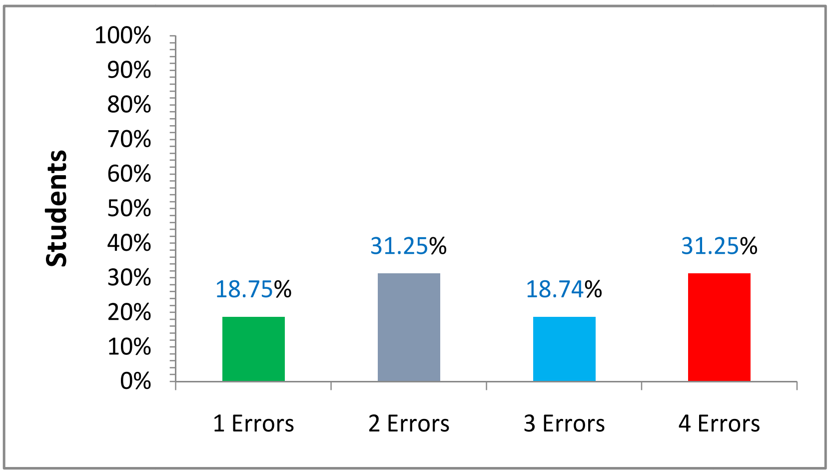

Fig.3. Students' Incorrect Answers to the Exercise Based on the *DTEEL* Entry (group II)

Discussion

We chose the pair of words "payment" and "fee" purposefully because of the possibility of Russian language interference. Students tend to mix up the two words as one word in the Russian language corresponds to two different words in English. This phenomenon is called language asymmetry (see Fig. 4).

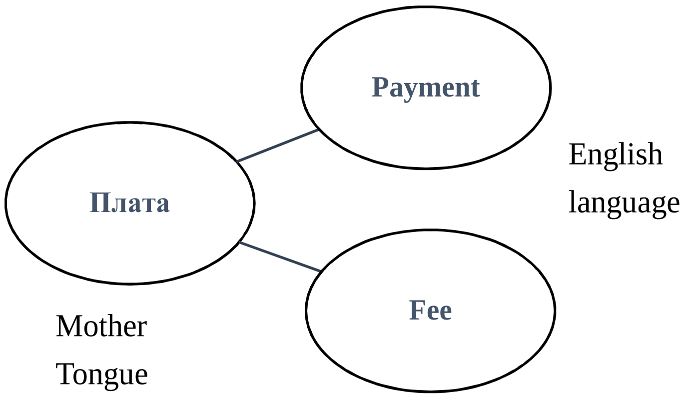

Fig. 4. Language Asymmetry

This study showed that the use of dictionaries of common errors as tools for error correction and explanation can be of some value. Taking into account the fact that students have never corrected errors with the help of a dictionary of common errors before, teachers will have an opportunity to employ this non-judgmental corrective strategy and adjust it to the teaching process. Furthermore, using the "offline CF" technique teachers could refrain from direct interference in the learning process and give students a chance to detect language difficulties independently and correct them with a dictionary of common errors. This technique would encourage students to learn autonomously.

Nevertheless, some students found it difficult to use the monolingual dictionary, as they did not understand the error explanations in the *LDCE*. It is quite obvious that translations into the students' mother tongue are to be provided to aid their understanding, especially if a FL is acquired in the absence of a natural language environment and is taught by non-native speaking teachers. Butzkamm and Caldwell, followers of Bilingual Teaching, argue that "whatever can be said, can be translated" (2009: 90) and in this connection, the mother tongue can be seen as an aid in FL learning and teaching.

However, despite the use of the dictionaries the students still made errors. The analysis of the actual number of errors revealed that dictionary use for error correction did not eliminate errors completely, as 18 students (36%) made errors after consulting the *LDCE* entry and 16 students (32%) made errors after consulting the *DTEEL* entry. This case study makes it clear that the bilingual dictionary is more effective but at the same time, students' errors and the way they treat them speak in favor of the further development of bilingual dictionary entries. We imagine that learner dictionary entries should meet the user's needs, namely, clear grammatical explanation and comprehensive usage data. Therefore, we uphold the idea of M. Corrius and D. Pujol to "promote the creation of more effective ELT dictionaries" (2010: 135).

Conclusion

To sum up, our study aimed to explore the didactic value of the *Longman Dictionary of Common Errors* and the *Dictionary of Typical Errors of the English Language* as tools for non-judgmental error treatment and the practical implications for teachers to employ this method of error correction. The results show that dictionaries of learners’ errors can be integrated into the teaching process to improve students’ language skills and motivation as independent learners. Therefore, there is a need for a thorough and comprehensive development of dictionary entries. Further lexicographic research is ongoing to compile a dictionary of learner errors that will be more “user-friendly” and will take into account learners’ mother tongue.

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Appendix 1

Dr. Schneider charges a high payment but he is very good.

Dr. Schneider charges a high fee but he is very good. (*LDCE*, 1996: 257)

Appendix 2

payment

X Dr. Schneider charges a high payment but he is very good.

✓ Dr. Schneider charges a high fee but he is very good.

payment = an amount of money that is paid for something: "I had to get rid of the car because I couldn't keep up the payments."

fee = an amount of money paid to a doctor, lawyer, or other professional person: "The fee for one hour's private tuition is $60." (*LDCE*, 1996: 257)

Appendix 3

PAYMENT	
X You will have to pay a considerable payment for a consultation. ✓ You will have to pay a considerable fee for a consultation.	*Вам придется дорого заплатить за консультацию*

payment – *уплата, платеж, взнос,* т.е. денежная сумма, которая была уплачена или которую необходимо заплатить

Most hotels here accept payment in dollars. – Большинство местных отелей принимают плату за проживание только в долларах.

fee – вознаграждение, гонорар, денежный взнос, платеж за услуги (обучение и т.п.), которые будут оказаны профессионалом (врачом, юристом и т.д.):

tuition fee – плата за обучение

registration fee – регистрационный взнос (*DTEEL*, 2011: 180)

Appendix 4

Complete the sentences using *payment* or *fee* (based on *LDCE*):

1. The first … is due on 31 January.
2. You have to make a … of $55 every month.
3. Tuition … at Stanford have now reached $9000 a year.
4. It is reported that he will have to pay legal … of $2000.
5. He failed to meet … on his rent.
6. Many doctors have a standard scale of ….

Complete the sentences using *payment* or *fee* (based on *DTEEL*):

1. There will be a penalty for late … of bills.
2. The annual … is $5.
3. Does the bank charge a … for setting up the account.
4. They are finding it difficult to meet the … on their car.
5. The gallery charges a small entrance … .
6. He agreed to make ten monthly … of $50.

Cultural Content in School Textbooks of English

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Abstract: This paper examines the cultural content of English textbooks approved by the Russian Ministry of Education for teaching English in secondary schools. The Educational Standard of Russian Federation requires developing sociocultural competence of school children learning foreign languages. It is also clearly stated that students should study both culture of the target language and their home culture. It is, therefore, important to explore how this requirement is implemented in the materials of school textbooks. The paper presents the findings of critical analysis of four textbooks for teaching English in the 7th grade. Under thorough examination there have been text topics, culture-specific vocabulary, types of tasks and activities for developing students' sociocultural competence. The main conclusion regarding the cultural content of examined textbooks is that the Anglo culture predominates and is primarily learnt as Big-C culture, while local culture is rather marginalized and is referred to sporadically.

Keywords: *school textbooks of English, sociocultural competence, cultural component, home culture, target culture*

Introduction

Cultural component in the English language instruction is a much visited topic in specialist literature (Byram, 1997; Davis, 2007; Hall, 2007; Kramsch, 1993; McKay, 2002; Safonova, 1996). Scholars and educators have so far addressed numerous aspects of this issue, among them the cultural content of teaching materials and the concept of learners' sociocultural competence. The essential point is that these two issues are closely linked and presuppose one another.

Generally, sociocultural competence is understood as a combination of social knowledge and intercultural skills. In particular, this is the knowledge about one's own culture and country and the target culture and country and the ability to use this information with tolerance and preparedness to participate in intercultural encounters. The process of acquiring sociocultural competence in a foreign language classroom is largely determined by teaching materials, culture-loaded texts, movies, ads, etc and activities for practicing and experiencing cultures.

Following a current trend of communicative and intercultural teaching, *The Educational Standard of Russian Federation* requires developing sociocultural competence of school children who learn foreign languages. It is considered a basic constituent of communicative competence. Hence the issue of developing learners' sociocultural competence is central to this paper, in which we set a task to explore the cultural content of school textbooks of English used in Russian classrooms. More specifically, we address the following questions: What cultural topics are offered for pupils? How detailed are they? What culture-loaded vocabulary is recommended for learning? What are the types of exercises used for developing learners' sociocultural competence?

Culture representation in English textbooks for Russian schools

McKay (2002) designs six typical scenarios of culture learning. Each scenario varies due to culture of learners, culture of the teacher, and the culture represented in the course textbook. In the Russian EFL class, pupils are commonly monolingual and monocultural. They learn English as a foreign language almost without a chance of using it in real communication. Similarly, their teachers – only with a few exceptions – belong to the same culture as their students and have quite sojourn experiences of Anglo culture they are expected to teach. True, nowadays, school teachers have a chance to select a textbook from the list of English textbooks recommended by the Russian Ministry of Education.

Relatively little has been said in special literature about the cultural content of school textbooks. To our knowledge, one most substantial research has been carried out by Cortazzi and Jin who "examined some ways in which culture is reflected in textbooks used for teaching EFL and ESL" (2001: 196). They maintain that working towards the aim of developing foreign language learners' intercultural competence "one would expect EFL or ESL textbooks to reflect a range of cultural contexts and to include intercultural elements. One would expect materials that raise learners' awareness of intercultural issues and enable them to communicate effectively and appropriately in a variety of communicative contexts" (p. 198). To find out what the case is regarding the cultural content of English textbooks around the world, these scholars analyzed and evaluated textbook materials from a number of countries and identified three types of cultural information represented in English textbooks: source culture materials, target culture materials and international target cultures materials. Their analysis shows tendencies that seem similar to the current situation in ELT in many countries: that for the most part culture is construed in terms of declarative knowledge (knowing that) rather than as procedural knowledge (knowing how) and that in many textbooks questions of learners' cultural identity are not addressed at all.

Drawing on Cortazzi and Jin's (2001) research, we have aimed at the objective to examine culture representation in English textbooks recommended for Russian schools. To analyze cultural component of school textbooks, we selected four English textbooks for the 7th grade of comprehensive school. We decided to analyze materials for that grade because primary school pupils are not yet prepared to explore and interpret culture-loaded information whereas senior school students are more focused on doing special tasks in preparation for Unified State Examination. These textbooks are: *Enjoy English* by M. Biboletova and N. Trubaneva, *Spotlight* by V. Evans and J. Dooley, *English* by V. Kuzovlev and N. Lapa, and *English* by O. Afanasieva and I. Miheeva. They have been investigated regarding culture-loaded texts and follow-up exercises. Throughout the study we addressed two research questions: 1) How is culture represented thematically in school textbooks? 2) What types of exercises are used to develop learners' sociocultural competence? Under thorough examination there have been text topics, culture-specific vocabulary, types of tasks and activities for developing students' sociocultural competence.

The research procedure included a number of stages. At the first stage, we identified and analyzed the ratio of the total number of texts and exercises to the culture-loaded texts and culture-focused activities for each textbook. When defining culture-oriented texts and tasks we used useful criteria developed by Byram (1989), as cited by Cortazzi and Jin (2001: 203). According to these criteria, textbooks should feature national history and geography, social and political institutions, social identity and social groups, beliefs and behaviour, social interaction, socialization and the life cycle. The topics represented in the examined textbooks are the following: Books and writers; Outstanding people; Vacationing and Hobbies; Shopping; Way of Life; Sightseeing; Doing sports; Climate and weather; Holidays; Youths' problems; Health and medicine; and Mass media. Obviously, big-C culture topics outnumber small-c culture themes. Thus language education is rather based on declarative knowledge than on procedural knowledge.

Stage 2 involved investigation of texts according to the type of culture they reflect: students' home culture, Anglo culture or other cultures. Here are two examples. A 160–page textbook *Enjoy English* by M. Biboletova and N. Trubaneva include 36 texts (each from 40 to 100 words), eight texts have been identified as culture-loaded (six about Anglo culture and two about native culture) and only one text was about Olympics in Europe thus featuring other than C1 or C2. Thematically texts based on Anglophone cultures range from Halloween and New Year's resolutions to telephone booths and telephone invention. Students' home culture is represented by some information about academician Andrey Sakharov and Youth Olympic Games in Russia.

To compare let us look at the textbook *Spotlight* by V. Evans and J. Dooley. A 180-page textbook consists of eight units titled Great minds, Education, Cultural exchange; Hobbies, etc. Importantly, every unit includes "cultural corner". Besides, this textbook has an appendix "Spotlight on Russia". Overall, 30 out of 51 texts, (150-200 words each) contain cultural component; ten texts among them are about home culture. Thus the preliminary results indicate that all textbooks include culture-specific texts. However, the best ratio has been shown by two textbooks: *Spotlight* by V. Evans and J. Dooley and *English* by V. Kuzovlev and N. Lapa (22 out of 33 texts featured cultural component). Additionally, culture-specific texts differ in length and thematically. The results for each textbook are shown in the table below:

textbooks	**total number of texts**	**culture-bound texts**	**target culture texts**	**home culture texts**
Enjoy English 7	36	9	6	2
Spotlight 7	51	30	20	10
English 7 (Kuzovlev)	33	22	16	6
English 7 (Afanasyeva)	26	14	13	1

Stage 3 involved detailed analysis of exercises from the point of view of task type and effectiveness for developing sociocultural competence. The activities to develop and enhance sociocultural competence were selected and analyzed according to the classification suggested by D. Volodina. She identifies the following types of exercises as sociocultural:

a) Exercises that compare local culture with target culture;
b) Tasks aimed at finding out patterns of behavior and traditions of culture;

c) A variety of activities based on authentic materials like menus, tickets, ads, etc.;
d) Activities based on texts containing culture-specific information;
e) Role plays, problem-solving culture-related tasks (2011: 49).

First of all, activities were classified according to four main skills. For example, students are assigned to read a text about English etiquette, as a follow-up activity they answer a question about rules of behavior in their own culture (a speaking activity). Here is an example of a writing task. After reading about a famous UK university, schoolchildren get a task: *Think of one of your country's best universities. Collect information, then write a short article about it.* Apart from that, all exercises were identified as receptive or productive and the percentage has been determined for each textbook, for example for *Enjoy English* 7 receptive exercises make up 40% against 60% of productive exercises, whereas in *Spotlight* 7 it is 49% against 51%. Having analyzed culture-oriented exercises, we may conclude that exercises based on reading outnumber all other exercise types. Then quite common are the tasks targeted at speaking on cultural topics. As for writing and listening tasks they are a minority in all textbooks.

At stage 4, we selected two topics present in all four textbooks – Going Sightseeing (The Tower of London) and Holidays (Halloween) – and analyzed them in more detail. The following aspects have been under special consideration: text length, culture-specific vocabulary in the text and types of exercises. Considering the lexical units in the texts, it should be noted that the cultural component is predominantly represented by non-equivalent lexical units, while the words with different connotative meaning tend to be ignored although they may cause miscommunication. Additionally, very few exercises following the texts aim at training of culturally charged lexical units.

Summarizing our analysis, we can say that about ninety percent of the cultural information offered in the examined textbooks remains on the receptive level. In our view, the most balanced textbook is *Spotlight*, as it is based both on source culture and target culture which are directly compared and interpreted. In terms of content, big-C Anglophone culture predominates in all textbooks featuring such themes as landmarks, famous people, books and authors, and holidays. In our opinion, this is due to the fact that such culture based on factual knowledge is easier to teach. But it is axiomatic that it is the knowledge and experience of small-c culture which facilitates interaction in cross-cultural encounters.

Conclusion

The purpose of this paper has been to look into the issue of culture representation in the textbooks of English used in Russian schools. The obvious conclusion we arrived at confirms that we need to re-think and re-consider current approaches to materials design regarding the balance of cultures represented. The majority of analyzed textbooks have unnecessary bias towards Anglophone cultures, particularly British culture.

Obviously, the textbook is unlikely to cover everything. Kernerman pondering the future of ELT textbooks pointed out that "emphasis will be more and more on localization. Global markets for British- and American-produced textbooks will shrink, as more textbooks are created locally. They will feature content of local interest and culture. Instead of Chapter One starting with changing of the guard at Buckingham Palace, or the story of the Big Ben, textbooks written locally will deal with life and problems in that particular country" (Kernerman, 1999: 19). This was said more than 15 years ago, yet growing tendencies in developing English as a global language cannot be ignored. In practice it means that our students need a different type of knowledge and different skills to be effective intercultural communicators.

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EFL Teachers' Reconciliation with Moral Forces Brought into Curriculum

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Abstract: This paper presents EFL teachers' strategies when reconciling with moral forces underpinning Indonesian curricula: School-based curriculum and character education policy. While School-based curriculum allows teachers to develop more flexible EFL classes, the character education policy promotes such controlled EFL classes that the teachers are required to focus on students' moral behaviour. The moral forces of the school-based curriculum resonate with communicative language teaching regarding the teachers' opportunity for developing teaching materials to meet learners' needs. This paper suggests that the EFL teachers have particular dilemmas as they attempt to embrace the moral forces of two curricula.

Keywords: *EFL teachers, character education, curriculum reform, moral forces, pedagogic*

practice

Introduction

School curriculum has been quite regularly reformed in Indonesia. At least three curricula were introduced in one decade (2004-2014): competency-based curriculum, school-based curriculum, and character education policy. In 2015, two curricula were operating: school-based curriculum and character education policy. The reform in curriculum requires teachers to work out strategies to implement in classes, English language teachers are not an exception. This paper presents teachers' experiences when they reconciled the values embedded in the two curricula.

Curriculum reforms and EFL teachers' reconciliation with moral forces embedded in the curricula

In 2015 the Indonesian government introduced the character education policy when the school-based curriculum was underway. These two curriculum reforms, school-based curriculum and character education have quite different foci and concerns. Under the school-based curriculum, generic competencies and minimum content outlines are determined by the central education authority, in this case, Badan Nasional Standar Pendidikan (BNSP) or the National Board of Educational Standards (Amirrachman, Syafi'I & Welch, 2009). While BNSP develops the basic framework and curriculum structure, school teachers are supposed to develop subject curricula, including formulating learning objectives, selecting content and teaching strategies, and designing learning evaluations. Hence, while the central authority sets the curriculum content standards, schools are given more freedom to develop their educational plans (Parker & Raihani, 2011; UNESCO, 2011). Meanwhile, character education is an effort to instil important ethical values such as honesty, fairness, responsibility, caring, and respect for self and others (Berkowitz and Bier, 2005). The Indonesian MOEC declared that the character education policy is a crucial part of national curricula because it could serve as national character building. With the character education policy, it was intended that values such as peace and harmony could be taught through school activities so that the imbalance in the nation's development evident in inter-ethnic/religious conflict and corruption could be eliminated (Nuh, 2011). More importantly, within character education policy, the government requires teachers to place and prioritize two/three values out of the stipulated eighteen values in their lesson plans. These values include religiosity, patriotism, nationalism, democracy, hard work, honesty, care, cooperativeness, responsibility, respect, politeness, and friendliness.

In terms of English as a subject taught at schools, English Language Teaching in Indonesia has also changed following the national curricular reforms before the reform of character education policy (Bire, 2011). Since Indonesian independence, along with the reforms in the national curriculum, ELT has been reformed four times, particularly regarding its teaching objectives, teaching content, teaching methods, and evaluation. The most striking feature of the reforms has been the change from grammar translation pedagogy to Communicative Approach and Competency-based approach (Bire, 2011: 17). In other words, the reform of EFL teaching and learning in Indonesia has sought to implement contemporary English language teaching pedagogies developed in western language education. In this way, Indonesian EFL teachers have undergone a broad shift in language pedagogy from grammar-translation to the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach. Communicative language teaching is an approach that embraces a "learner-centred and experience-based view" of second language teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 2001: 158).

The communicative language teaching that applies a learner-centred approach has its philosophy whereby the learning is open-ended, flexible and individualized to meet the needs of the student (Green, 2007). The philosophy of the approach leads to teachers' adaptation regarding their roles, their perception of students and their teaching methodology. In terms of teachers' role, communicative language teaching requires EFL teachers to change from a teacher to a facilitator. In the English classroom, the teacher is no longer the subject of learning, but the students. Likewise, teachers have to change their perceptions on what makes a good student. With a learner-centred approach, teachers should give credit to students who are active, creative and communicative, rather than to those who are attentive but passive.

Besides the theory of language teaching, English teachers in Indonesian schools also faced with dilemmas of teaching other people's language (Qoyyimah, 2015). Similarly, Akbari and Tajik (2012) suggest that non-English speaking teachers experienced more difficulties regarding a moral aspect base. On the one hand, they want to model their nation's values; on the other hand, they need to appreciate the values rooted in the language taught. Additionally, teaching a language is inevitably teaching how to speak this language properly and meaningfully. The word "proper" implies that the language taught must be understandable and appropriate following how the language is spoken in the culture from which the language is taken.

In response to the development of the language teaching approach such as from the grammar-translation method to the communicative approach and the reforms in the educational curriculum (school-based curriculum and character education), it is important to see how English teachers in Indonesia implement these policies. This paper reports on my previous study that conducted semi-structured interviews with four English teachers working in state schools. Each teacher was interviewed twice – before and after a set of three classroom observations. Classroom observations provided the reference points for the semi-structured interviews. The participants reported in this study were English teachers who had nine- to ten-year experience working with students and curriculum. More specifically, there are four such teachers as participants in this study.

There are four points to report from the study. First, moral forces embedded in Indonesian curriculum derived from the nation's and religious values. Second, with the school-based curriculum, local community's values were also taken into account. Third, teachers reported having their personal values and beliefs to intrude into EFL pedagogy. Forth, teachers found they needed to introduce the values derived from English speaking culture.

Learning from the list of values stipulated by educational authority, it can be concluded that moral forces embedded in Indonesian curriculum reflect the nation's and religious values. The national values regarded as shared values that mostly derived from the Indonesian five principles or Pancasila. These include belief in the Only one God, humanity, unity, democracy, and social justice (Kemendiknas, 2011). There are also values that aim to foster people's awareness of their national identities such as nationalism and patriotism. Besides national values, the values stipulated by the educational authority are also influenced by religious values. Not only is religiosity the most important issue for Indonesian society, but this value is reflected in the first principle of Pancasila. In other words, religiosity can be regarded as a way of life of the Indonesians. Likewise, in the *Handbook of Character Education* (2011) issued by the Ministry of Education and Culture (MOEC), the value of religiosity is always mentioned at the top of the list and it seems to be the most significant value on the list (see Kemendiknas, 2011). People's perspective on religiosity in Indonesia has particular consequences for its schools. In many cases, it is not a coincidence that this value of religiosity is always prioritized by Indonesian schools and is selected as an important value to introduce in schools.

In addition to the values established by the nation and religions, the school-based curriculum has allowed local community's values to be taken into account in school curriculum development. For example, a school can also add more values recognized in their local community to add to their curriculum. Hence, the influence of the community on school curriculum becomes obvious. As the consequence, when a school is located in the area in which the community is religious, the school curriculum – both extra or intra curriculum – is coloured by religiosity values. Based on my previous study, schools and their curriculum in Indonesia are coloured by religious values. This happens not only in Islamic schools but also in state schools (Qoyyimah, 2016). As a result, teachers have more values to select from and prioritize in their lesson plans: national values, religious values, and local community values.

Besides national, religious and local community values, EFL teachers suggested they also had their personal values and beliefs to introduce in their classroom (Qoyyimah, 2015). However, in spite of having their personal values, the teachers did not want to write them in their lesson plans. Although they did not write the values in their lesson plans, it is found that teachers deliberately introduced their personal values into the classroom. The differences between what they planned and what they taught resulted in teachers' dilemmas. They found a particular value was important to teach but at the same time they felt it was not really appropriate with English as a subject.

The values introduced intruded in EFL classes can be illustrated by this figure below:

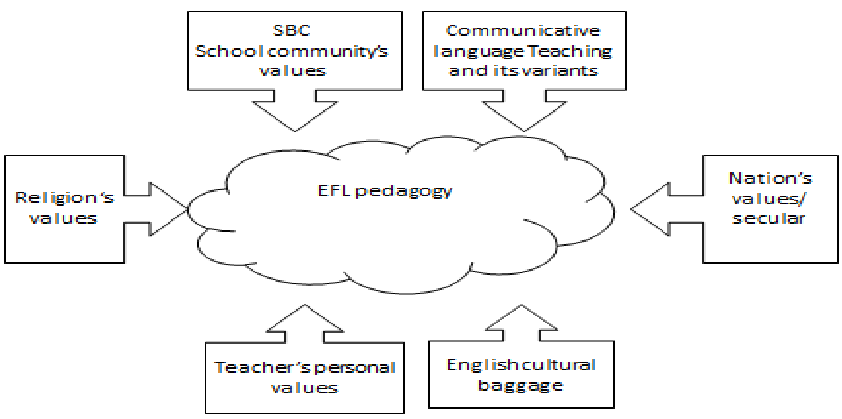

Figure 1. *Moral forces in Indonesia EFL pedagogy*

Figure 1 shows that the different moral forces intruded into Indonesian EFL classes. These values could be derived from many different moral grounds or sources such as the nation's values, religious values, local context and values derived from the English speaking culture. In addition to those moral forces, there is the philosophy of communicative language teaching approach. This required teachers to modify their EFL classes in accordance with current communicative language teaching approaches while incorporating aspects of the character education reforms and instilling local community values as well as teachers' professional priority of "religiosity".

Hence, a wide opportunity to select values promoted by both school-based curriculum and communicative language teaching enabled teachers to teach and model different values including "religiosity" in their EFL classes. Therefore, regarding the values and moral forces in classes, the atmosphere of EFL classes in Indonesian schools can be associated with the battle of values since EFL teachers attempt to prioritise their own values. At the same time, they have to introduce those values that are more appropriate with English as a subject.

Conclusion

To summarise, the moral forces of each curriculum reshaped English language teaching in Indonesia. School-based curriculum and communicative language teaching that allow teachers to develop curriculum content and design teaching materials to meet students' needs have contributed to the "individualized" pedagogic practice of EFL classes. With the individualised EFL classes, teachers take into account the specific behaviour of learners and school context. In addition to these curricula, teachers prioritised and selected values as intended by the character education policy. As a result, EFL classes were coloured by different moral forces since teachers wanted to embrace all values. Interestingly, the teachers introduced religious values into EFL classes.

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Getting Students' Home Culture into the English Classroom

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Abstract: This paper stresses that since native culture of EFL learners permeates their interaction in English, it should find its place in the ELT curriculum. Viewed in this light, English is conceptualized as an instrument of EFL learners' self-expression and a means of translating their cultural identity. While there is no denying that we need to teach students' home culture, there is quite serious argument about cultural content and teaching methods of L1 culture in the classroom. Textbooks, too, present a challenge providing a very occasional and inadequate cultural material, if it is dealt with at all. Hence this paper puts forth the argument that we need to rethink the role of native culture in the English classroom and try to find ways for the EFL curriculum to address this issue. A special emphasis in the paper is placed on the first-hand experience of designing a special course aimed at teaching home culture to students of interpreting and translation enrolled at the Master's Degree Program at the Far Eastern Federal University.

Keywords: *intercultural education, cultural identity, sociocultural competence, home culture, course design*

Introduction

The issues of culture appropriation through English and the development of students' communicative intercultural skills have become topical in many special publications and conference talks. Basically, there is little argument about the need to teach home culture along with a target culture and language. However, a continuing debate about the goals, cultural content of teaching materials, methods, and learning outcomes is still open. Among many questions currently addressed in intercultural teaching the central question seems to be about the specifics of learning about local culture: where to get materials on students' home culture as the international textbooks do not include them, what topics to select, how to adapt English to speak on C1 and many others.

This paper focuses on several major themes. First, it examines the concept of ownership of English and EFL learners' cultural identity. Second, it reflects on the issues of culture appropriation and touches briefly on Byram's model of language learners' sociocultural competence. Finally, the paper identifies the need for a special course within which EFL students will get practice and develop skills how to talk in English about their home culture. More specifically, a recently developed course titled *The World of Russian Culture in English* is discussed. The paper provides the course outline and offer suggestions on syllabus design and materials selection. It also looks at the types of activities that cater for precise students' needs to be fluent in English while talking about their culture.

English and EFL learners' cultural identity

In his plenary talk at the TESOL convention in New York, David Crystal stated that "increasingly we are being forced to recognize that nobody 'owns' English anymore" (1999: 5). Since then this has become quite common rhetoric in ELT publications. This perspective on ownership of English – that English belongs to anyone who uses it – has stimulated rethinking of the native speaker model and moved the focus of attention in English language teaching on the language and cultural identity of EFL learners. Moreover, this perspective has also advanced our understanding of the centrality of cultural issues in foreign language learning and has brought to the fore a question: How to teach English in such a way that students can benefit from foreign language education while retaining their own cultural identity?

Along with issues of ownership of English the questions of culture appropriation through English are actively considered from different perspectives. Addressing culture appropriation from intercultural teaching perspective implies the idea of teaching with a special emphasis on the cultural use of English. McKay, among many, states that "one of the primary functions of English, as is the case with any international language, is to enable speakers to share their ideas and cultures" (2002: 81). In this light, as the teaching of English is becoming more as a matter of teaching it as a means of global intercultural communication, so the "context of learning, contrived within the classroom setting, has to be informed in some degree by the attitudes, beliefs, values and so on of the students' cultural world" (Widdowson, 1994: 387).

Few would disagree that in today's global context, English is increasingly used in communication between non-native speakers. Graddol emphasizes that "more and more of the world's populations wish to express their identities through English" (1999: 6). Basically, English seems to be learned primarily for two main functions: for transactional purposes (these are some standard culture-neutral forms of English that are quite effective in business, technology, research, all kinds of services, etc.) and as a means for the expression of cultural identity. Thus in educational settings, issues of cultural identity have to be dealt with and catered for, first of all, by acknowledging who learners are and how they interpret their identities, cultural and language identities being the top priority.

Erickson points out that identity is placed at the "core" of the individual and in the core of his or her culture (Erickson, 1968). Hence the role of culture in identity construction and then in its translation is critical. Recognizing the fact that identities are narratively constructed, teachers need to provide learners with the opportunities to practice and express their cultural identities in oral and written English. Learners have to be given a chance in a foreign language classroom to create narratives about themselves and their culture. This conceptualization of English as a means of EFL learners' self-expression leads to rethinking intercultural teaching approach and particularly the place of home culture in the English classroom as well as its role in developing and enhancing learners' sociocultural competence.

There are several models of EFL learners' sociocultural competence development within a number of teaching approaches. Byram's approach appears very useful and fairly balanced. He contends that an intercultural speaker demonstrates the ability to understand and interpret the identities involved in the interaction and the relationships between them. According to Byram, the competence of the proficient intercultural speaker can be defined in terms of a number of skills, partial competences and knowledge, all of which are interrelated: communicative competence consisting of linguistic, sociolinguistic and discourse competence and aspects of intercultural competence (Byram, 2000: 97). To gain intercultural competence the learner should form attitudes (curiosity and openness), knowledge of societal groups and their products and practices including their own, skills of interpreting and relating, skills of discovery and interaction and critical cultural awareness (ability to evaluate critically <...> practices and products in one's own and other cultures and countries) (Byram, 2000). Thus it is clearly stated that learners need to be aware and have knowledge of their home culture in order to develop as intercultural speakers.

The essential point is: What range of cultures should be brought into the EFL classroom to become the source of social knowledge, to practice interpretative and interactive skills, and to enhance critical cultural awareness? I would agree with Kirkpatrick that learners need an ELT curriculum that "teaches them about the cultures they are most likely to be using English with, and how to compare, relate and present their own culture to others" (2007: 188). So, there is reason to argue that we need a special and separate course on learners' home culture – Russian in the case of my students. It should be taught in English and it will allow students to acquire intercultural competence by achieving a number of course goals. Within the course on Russian culture students will:

- acquire relevant social knowledge about Russian culture;
- gain the skills of discovery and interpretation as well as interactive skills for expressing themselves on topics of their native culture;
- develop critical cultural awareness of cultural differences between their culture and other cultures thus forming attitudes and sharpening awareness of their identity.

In my view, such course will help to realize the goal of foreign language teaching, that is, a student who needs a foreign language not only for a professional career but for self-expression and for negotiation his or her cultural identity in cross-cultural encounters.

Home culture in the EFL classroom: *World of Russian Culture in English* course

The World of Russian Culture in English course is taught to students of interpreting and translation in the Master's Degree Program *Translation as a dialogue of languages and cultures* (45.04.01 Philology). It is taught in English in semester 3 to be completed with an examination. The total number of course credits is three (108 hours). Importantly, they include 53 hours of students' self-study.

This course is intended to introduce students of English to the basic topics of Russian culture so that they could talk and discuss them in English. Apart from stimulating students' general interest in C1, this course cultivates and encourages creativity and prepares students to function productively in diverse communicative situations as interpreters and translators. Thus social knowledge and interpretative skills developed on the material of home culture shape specific aspects of students' sociocultural competence. Most importantly, students acquire special English so that they could become effective *mediators of cultures* who are able to provide comprehensive knowledge of Russian culture.

To realize the primary objectives of the course the following major content areas are covered: Russian Folk Tales and Literature; Art and Religion; Russia's History and Politics; Everyday Life Culture and Holidays and Vladivostok: modern city culture. The last topic was introduced into the course to give students the opportunity to explore the city they live in and discuss in English a variety of topics about modern city life in Russia. Basically, these topics are related to the key culture areas where the social knowledge is constructed. Students as inhabitants of culture apparently have already gained some of this specialized social knowledge unconsciously just because they belong to Russian cultural community. Now through this course they not only rediscover their home culture – this time in English – but they study it in more detail and this largely goes on through a conscious learning process. Thus, the course content addresses cultural issues with the aim to educate students within a more systematic approach and it may serve as a springboard for further study and cultural orientation in general. It is also important that "your country" topics tend to build on personal experience <…> and lend themselves quite naturally to comparing and contrasting" (Harklau, 2001: 115-116), a crucial skill to acquire for a learner of language and culture.

Designing the course of this kind, one is sure to face the challenge of the lack of teaching materials on students' home culture in English. Hence the course *The World of Russian Culture in English* has been developed using a variety of resources which offer description and interpretation of Russian culture in English. A few examples include:

- textbooks (e.g., J. E. Zdanoski. Crossing Cultural Borders – Russia, 2003.)
- academic publications (e.g., R. A. Bartlett. History of Russia, 2005.)
- literary books/fiction (e.g., B. Ingemanson. The Sunny Neighborhood. A Vladivostok Tale, 2011)
- online and media resources (Englishrussia.com; *Russia beyond the Headlines*: http://rbth.com/; Radio: *The voice of Russia*. http://sputniknews.com/voiceofrussia/news/2014; *Russia Today*: rt.com/; *Russia*:

http://simple.wikipedia.org/wiki/Russia; diverserussia.ru).

Fortunately, there is one particularly useful resource which deserves a special mention. It is Kabakchi's (2002) *The Dictionary of Russia.* This 576-page dictionary features 2 500 cultural terms from a variety of special domains: history, geography, politics, religion, economy, art and sports, along with numerous terms describing everyday life of Russians. It also includes a supplement with more detailed information on Russian culture. There are sections on Educational institutions in Russia, Russian names, Russian cuisine, section on Periodicals, Films, Books, Paintings, etc. Apart from that, *The Dictionary of Russia* provides a rich array of examples which can be used in a variety of classroom activities. Most importantly, all the materials selected for the course provide learners with texts written both by Russians and non-Russians, as according to Kramsch, people become cross-cultural communicators, when they are able to have both an insider's and an outsider's view on the culture they study (Kramsch, 1993).

The same unifying principle has been implemented in instruction and activities for developing and cultivating students' sociocultural and cross-cultural skills. Within the course students are offered content-based tasks to reflect on their own culture in a real and meaningful way. Students also have an opportunity to personalize English and linguistically frame their cultural identity and become more fluent on cultural topics. For reason of space I will give examples of only some activities students do when they study different topics of the course:

- Brainstorming: *Russian Folk Tales. What makes them Russian?*
- Reading texts, for example, *Establishing Russian Orthodox Church. Religion and Spiritual world of the Russians.*
- Lost in translation: Comparing Russian original and English translation of a poem.
- Essay writing on topics (500-700 words), for example, *My Vladivostok.*
- Debating: *Giving up old holidays and creating new ones.*
- Presentations. Students do further research on the topics and prepare individual mini-presentations, e.g. *Celebrating Victory Day in Russia. The story of Russia in songs.*
- small-group projects, for e.g., for the topic *Russian Contemporary Art* students prepare *Russian Landscape Paintings: What do they tell us about our climate? Russian Portrait Art: Looks of the Russians.*

In addition, as the course emphasizes self-study, it is equally important that students develop skills of monitoring their own learning. Self-study includes the following: reading texts in English about Russian culture providing their critical analysis; work on individual talks based on internet and other resources and work with glossary to the course. In this case, students act as agents of learning and are responsible for their own progress in the subject. Moreover, the focus of the course on students' own study allows them to develop their own interests in their culture thus enhancing their cultural identities. While interpreting and explaining culture-specific worldview of the Russians, students make use of their own experience and construct their own narratives.

Finally, one of the course goals is to acquire lexical competence that is the knowledge of words and phrases appropriate to describe in English the aspects of Russian culture. McKay states that users of English need to acquire the localized lexical items of their own country (McKay, 2002: 85). To talk about Russian culture we may need the following culture-specific expressions: *hero city; Duma; bublik; krai; hammer and sickle; New Russians, New Abroad countries* and many others. Despite the fact that these lexical items are unknown in other varieties of English, they are helpful to render the historical, political and cultural development of students' natal country and as interpreters they will definitely use them in their future profession. To make learning more motivating students are encouraged to compile their glossary lists while working on each topic. After comparing and discussing them one final list of "Russianisms" is completed and recommended for learning. Thus during the course students cover several hundreds of the localized lexical items.

Concluding remarks

Nowadays addressing the questions of culture appropriation through English, we cannot but turn to cultural identity of our students. As an open and fluid entity, identity is being shaped and conveyed discursively; obviously the content of discourses will affect identity construction. The point then is that the process of cultural and language identity formation should be monitored in the EFL classroom preferably by providing special home culture-oriented courses for our students.

A more demanding issue is teaching materials. Back in 1999, Kernerman pointed out that locally created materials designed to teach about home culture will play an increasingly important role in the future of ELT. Textbooks "will feature content of local interest and culture" (1999: 19). Thus, there is reason to argue that we need different course books and other teaching materials that will allow students to conceptualize English as an instrument of cultural self-expression.

Courses on students' local culture in ELT curricula around the world are far from universal. *The World of Russian Culture in English* course has been designed for future translators and interpreters in mind. It focuses both on content and language development and equips students with a variety of intellectual skills. With its emphasis on understanding "Russianness" and on improving English for interaction about Russian culture, it enables learners to develop a sense of belonging and become communicatively competent. Few would disagree that interpreters first and foremost need a special course on the local culture, yet as language teaching has a broader educational aim, such a course seems equally important and useful for other EFL learners who can only capitalize on the knowledge of their home cultures.

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Text Complexity Levels and Second Language Reading Performance in Indonesia

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Abstract: This study examined the effect of text complexity on L2 reading performance of Indonesian students with different language proficiency levels. Four passages consisting of two low complexities and two high complexities were given to participants. Text complexity levels were analysed using Flesch's reading ease index or grade level formula (Flesch, 1948, 1951, 1979), Text-Evaluator designed by Education Testing Service (2013), and Coh-Metrix version 3.0 indexes (McNamara, Louwerse, Cai & Graesser, 2013). Additionally, Pearson's correlation, regression and one-way ANOVA were employed. There were 1054 university EFL students participating in this study. The findings revealed that text complexity had a moderate correlation and significantly contributed to L2 reading.

Keywords: *text complexity, reading comprehension*, *readability*

Introduction

Text variable, particularly text complexity, has been argued to be one of the influential factors in reading performance (Anderson, 2000). Text complexity itself is a construct referring to linguistic elements in a text which affect how easily one can comprehend it (Skehan, 2009). To assess the complexity of texts, some scholars had designed quantitative formulas or readability which assess complexity on a lexical level, syntactic levels or even content level from cohesiveness shown in the texts, such as the Flesch reading Ease Index (Flesch, 1948), Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level (GL) Score (Flesch, 1951), the Dale-Chall Readability Formula (Chall & Dale, 1995), and the Fry Index (Fry, 1968, 1977), as well as Text-Evaluator designed by Education Testing Service (Sheehan et al., 2010), and Coh-Metrix version 3.0 indexes (McNamara et al., 2013).

Within text complexity perspective and its role in reading development, it has been argued that learners tend to show lower reading performance when reading texts with high (difficult) complexity level, and they show high reading performance when reading texts with low (easy) complexity levels. As a result, the role of text complexity in reading officially became one of the requirements in material selection in American education system from grade 4 to 12 as documented through Common Core State Standards for Reading in English Language Arts and Literacy (Initiative, 2010). Many L1 studies supported and confirmed the role of text complexity levels in reading development. However, L2 studies on text complexity and reading performance demonstrated mixed results indicating that the effect of text complexity has not been consistently contributing to L2 reading (Brown, 1998; Crossley et al., 2008; Greenfield, 1999; Greenfield, 2004; Hamsik, 1984; Sunggingwati, 2009; Taguchi, 1997). At the same time, few studies of readability have investigated the effect of text complexity on the comprehension of L2 learners (Arya, Hiebert, & Pearson, 2011: 112). Hence in L2 setting, the predictability of text complexity still needs further attention from L2 scholars as the problem of establishing performance criteria for readability in the EFL context is still very much unresolved and needs further studies (Greenfield, 2004: 21).

This study examined to what degree text complexity as measured by three readability formulas, such as Flesch-Kinchaid readability formulas (Reading ease & Grade Level) (Flesch, 1948, 1951), Text-Evaluator (Sheehan et al., 2010) and Coh-Metrix (McNamara et al., 2013) predicts second language reading performance in Indonesia.

Specifically, the study attempts to answer the following questions:

1. To what extent does text complexity affect L2 reading comprehension?
2. To what extent does text complexity influence L2 performance of the groups with different proficiency levels?

It is hypothesised that the greater the complexity of a given text, the lower the reading performance will be. In addition, albeit the effect of text complexity will be evident across group proficiency, the better reading performance is expected for more proficient or skilled readers. Questions about the manner in which text complexity influences students' comprehension provided an additional insight into factors affecting L2 reading performance.

Text complexity and L2 reading performance

Participants were Indonesian university students enrolled at the English Department in one of Indonesian universities. There were 1054 university EFL students participating in this study. Most participants were from first year to third year university level by which their proficiency was about L2 intermediate group level referring to their Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) scores (*M*=459, *SD*=42), where the maximum score was 613. The intermediate levelling was based on language level equivalence by http://www.nato.int/structur/recruit/info-doc/Language-test-equivalence-table_FINAL2013.pdf. According to their responses to the second question of the study about the impact of text complexity on L2 reading within different group proficiency levels, the participants were also divided into two groups based on their TOEFL scores, that is into the L2 High proficient group whose proficiency score was above 460 (N=531) and the Intermediate L2 group whose proficiency score was below 460

(N=523). The Independent t-test showed that the two groups were significantly different in their TOEFL scores at t (1052) =-40.77, p<.001.

Experimental texts used in this study were two low complexity texts and two high complexity texts. Four passages of approximately 333-371 words in length were selected from published Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). Text complexity levels were analysed using Flesch's reading ease or grade level formula (Flesch, 1948, 1951, 1979), Text Evaluator designed by Education Testing Service (Sheehan et al., 2010), and Coh-Metrix version 3.0 indexes (McNamara et al., 2013) available at http://cohmetrix.memphis.edu/cohmetrixpr/index.html).

In Flesch-Kincaid formula, the focus was on both reading ease scores and grade level, while for Text-Evaluator the focus was on the total complexity scores. On the other hand, for Coh-Metrix, we only focus on referential cohesion, that is how much each word and reference in a text support within sentences to help readers easily get the main message of the text. In Flesch-Reading ease and Coh-Metrix scores, the closer the score to a hundred, the easier the content is; the closer the score to zero, the more difficult. In contrast to Flesch-grade levels and Text-Evaluator scores, the higher the score, the more difficult or more complex the text is (see Table 1).

Flesch readability formula has been used in some L2 studies and shown to have high correlation with other new readability formulas (Brown, 1998; Greenfield, 1999; Greenfield, 2004; Kasule, 2011; Sunggingwati, 2009; Taguchi, 1997; Taguchi & Gorsuch, 2002; Taguchi, Takayasu-Maass, & Gorsuch, 2004). In addition, Flesch readability formula was also found to have a high correlation with new readability formulas in terms of predicting L2 text complexity such as Miyazaki Index of .84, Coh-Metrix with .92 (Crossley et al., 2008). For each topic, 10 multiple-choice questions were provided targeting the content of the texts and containing both explicit (direct recall) and implicit information (inferential questions).

Table 1. Indexed features of complexity levels within various readability formulas

Texts	Topics	Flesch's reading ease	Coh-Metrix	Flesch's grade level	Text-Evaluator	Overall text complexity
A	Animation	43	43	12	62	0
B	Rock age	53	58	11	62	0
C	Farming	38	21	14	75	1
D	Hunting	34	17	14	75	1

Overall text complexity; 0, easy or low complex text; 1, difficult, high complex text

The above table obviously demonstrated that the three readability formulas had the same results that Text A and Text B were considered easy or low complexity texts, while text C and D were classified as difficult or high complexity texts.

Reading comprehension tests containing four texts followed by multiple choice questions were given to participants who were required to finish doing the reading test within approximately 75 minutes. An independent t-test, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), Pearson product moment correlation, and linear regression were computed using SPSS 0.21 to address two problems of the study.

Descriptive statistics for reading accuracy results for the whole group are presented in Table 2. The normal distribution of the data was assessed through the value of skewness (S=.29) and kurtosis (K=-.01) demonstrating that the data was normally distributed since the values were not greater than 1.96 or 2.58 (Field, 2009: 139). The reliability of reading test was at Cronbach's α=.79.

Table 2. Means and standard deviations of reading comprehension with various complexities

Complexity level	Texts	M	SD
Low	A	49	20
	B	30	17
High	C	58	17
	D	51	20
Overall		48	13

This result of mean accuracy differences in reading illustrated that low complexity texts (A, B) showed a lower reading performance (M=40, SD=15) than reading performance for high complexity texts (C, D) with M=55, SD=15. This result obviously countered the expected results that lower complexity texts should have higher reading scores than higher complexity texts showed. The independent t-test was computed to examine the differences of reading performance at the low complexity and high complexity. A homoscedasticity test was conducted before running analysis using Levene's test which revealed that the two variables did show significant differences (p>.05). The result indicated that the two mean differences were significantly different at t (2106) = -21.95, p<.001, d =-0.95. This evidence of mean accuracy provided empirical evidence that there was no significant effect of text complexity on L2 reading performance. However, it is necessary to note that the findings did not automatically suggest that there was no correlation at all between text complexity and L2 reading performance as the first research question of the study, because large samples in this study seemed to be affected by complexity levels since the overall reading scores were only around 48%. In addition, the effect size of difference was also small based on Cohen principles (Cohen, 1988). It seemed that the reading texts were too challenging for participants within two complexity text levels. Further studies should use texts with large interval differences (low, high) so that it might be easier to examine the impact of complexity levels on reading performance.

To further explore how well the text complexity levels correlated and contributed to reading performance, correlation and regression analyses were carried out on the level of text complexity (low, high) and overall reading performance. The coefficient correlation of text complexity and reading comprehension was at r=.43, and text complexity itself accounted for 19% of reading comprehension, F (1, 2106)=481.58, p<.001. The above standardized regression weight (β=.43) gives insight into the relative contribution of the text complexity component (19%) to the explanation of L2 reading comprehension. Therefore, as one of the main focuses of this study (question one) text complexity was found still moderately correlated and further contributed a unique variance in L2 reading performance although mean differences between high complexity and low complexity produced mixed results. This then reveals that other factors accounted for L2 reading comprehension performance.

In order to answer the second research question and to determine the role of text complexity in different group proficiency levels, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was carried out based on two groups to see the mean differences between the two groups and what role text complexity plays in reading comprehension across group proficiency as in Table 3. One-way ANOVA by group was carried out for each text with different complexities. The analysis of low complexity texts illustrated that there was significant difference between reading performance by the High proficient L2 group and the Low proficient L2 group, F (1, 1052)=447, p<.001, Partial η^2=.298, while for high complexity texts, F (1, 1052)=535, p<.001, Partial η^2=.337. Overall, group proficiency level did significantly affect reading performance across text complexity levels.

Table 3. Mean differences of ANOVA by groups

Complexity levels	Reading accuracy		Sig.	Partial η^2
	High group	Low group		
Low complexity	48	31	.000	.298
High complexity	64	45	.000	.337

Key: Difference significant at the .05 level, Bonferroni adjusted for multiple comparison

The above information illustrated only the significant differences of mean reading accuracy between two proficiency groups. To get further insight on how the text complexity correlated and contributed to L2 reading performance across different group proficiency levels, regression analysis was carried out focusing on the two group proficiency levels. The regression of analysis for two different groups revealed that for L2 high proficient group the correlation between text complexity and L2 reading was r=.51 with R^2=.26, p<.001. In other words, text complexity plays a significant role in L2 high group's L2 reading performance. Meanwhile, the correlation between text complexity and L2 reading comprehension for low L2 group was slightly lower at r=.49, with determination of coefficient (R^2)=.24, p<.001. Above slight differences in reading performance, text complexity did significantly contribute to L2 reading performance across different proficiency groups.

Basically, the first finding revealed that overall text complexity moderately relate to L2 reading performance across any reading texts with various complexity levels at r=.43 for the whole group. This value was slightly lower than the one reported in Brown's (1998) study illustrating correlational value at r=.48 - .55 for EFL Japanese learners, and it was largely lower than in other L2 studies: .72-82 (Hamsik, 1984), .85 (Greenfield, 1999), and .84 (Crossley et al., 2008). In addition, this value was lower than predictive value in L1 setting with .80 and above (Chall & Dale, 1995) and .90 above (Carrell, 1987). However, the regression value for text complexity in L2 reading only accounted for 19% of reading comprehension which is lower than in Brown's (1998) study producing 51% and Greenfield's (1999, 2004) work ranging from 71% to 79%. Low predictive capacity value of text complexity in this study may be due to the overall low reading performance at 48%. Brown (1998) also used this argument to provide plausible explanation for low predictive value suggesting that his participants' overall closed tests score was about 13%. In addition, Greenfield (2004) demonstrated that mean cloze accuracy of about 27% on a text showed a Miyazaki readability formula of .50 to indicate to some degree the value of prediction was also affected by students' mean accuracy (p. 20). In other words, the value of correlation between text complexity and reading performance was influenced by the overall mean accuracy in the reading comprehension. This might be a reason for low correlation of text complexity role existing in this study.

In context of exploring the role of text complexity in L2 reading by different group proficiency levels, the result of the study was against Koda's (2005) claim that text complexity diminished as the level of proficiency increases. In other words, the predictive value of text complexity was found even higher for L2 high proficient group than L2 low group. More proficient groups were assumed to have more mastery of lexical, grammatical, and cohesive devices knowledge as measured by three readability formulas in this study so that they showed better reading performance. On the other hand, intermediate groups demonstrated lower reading accuracy, illustrating that they found difficulty in understanding words and sentences in the text.

Again, one of the limitations of the study was that the level of complexity was not really high so that the mean reading accuracy between two levels of complexity was not really big and this surely affects the interpretation of the result of the findings particularly in terms of to what degree text complexity could significantly affect L2 reading comprehension.

Conclusion

From theoretical point of view, this study provides support that text complexity construct does exist in L2 context and contribute to L2 reading performance across group proficiency levels. Although much criticism has been placed on readability formulas used in this study since they did not involve teachers or experts' judgements in assessing the degree of complexity of the text being used. Text complexity levels of texts were still in debate in L2 context, and further studies are needed to examine to what degree text complexity contributes to L2 reading in different contexts and using different instruments.

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Syntactic Errors in Extrovert and Introvert EFL Learners' Essay Writings

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Abstract: The purpose of this study is to investigate syntactic errors in extrovert and introvert EFL learners' essay writings. The data were collected by administering an essay writing test to 20 English learners (10 extroverts and 10 introverts) in *Universitas Negeri Medan*, Indonesia. The quantitative data were analyzed by using SPSS and the qualitative data were classified and analyzed according to X-Bar Theory. The findings of this study indicated that the extrovert students made 116 syntactic errors of 12 different types while the introvert students only made 58 errors of 9 different kinds.

Keywords: *writing, syntax, personality traits*

Introduction

Essay writing is a language skill which enables a student to produce a set of sentences formed in logical syntactic structure or combination (Chomsky, 1957). Furthermore, Finch (2000) argued that the English language deals with word order, however some other languages do form the words per se. Moreover, "syntax is a term used for the study of rules governing the way words combine to form sentences" (Finch, 2000: 77). Similarly, Bell (1991) states "syntax is the knowledge of manipulating sentence elements in the chain and choice of the system within the proposition semantic aspect" (p. 207). Literally, writing is a brain activity that needs memory, accuracy, and the skill to combine the words in proper language rule (Deporter and Heracki, 2002). On doing these activities, it is possible that extrovert and introvert EFL learners have different outcomes because extroverts act more quickly but less correctly in compound cognitive tasks such as writing, while introverts are slower but more precise (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1985). Accordingly, this study focused on the correlation between personality traits (*extrovert* and *introvert*) and writing skills of EFL learners. Therefore, the main objective of this study was to investigate differences in making syntactic errors in essay writings of introvert and extrovert EFL learners.

Personality Traits (Extrovert & Introvert)

Personality can be defined in two different ways, as characterization and individuality, or as the subjacent structure brought on the position of characteristics (Boyle, Mathews and Saklofske, 2008). According to Eysenck and Eysenck (1975), "the typical extrovert is friendly, has many friends, needs to get a friend to speak to, likes parties, and avoids reading or studying by himself" (p. 6). In addition, the extrovert is unworried, broad-minded, hopeful, and confident and respects to "laugh and be merry" (p. 6). In contrast, according to Naik (2010), introverts are more fascinated in activities like writing, reading, and drawing than in activities, which require them to act in outgoing way like speaking, gossiping and so on. Apart from that, according to Eysenck and Eysenck (1975), "the introvert person is typically a silent, outgoing and self-analyzing person, likes books rather than people; he is uncommunicative and faraway excluding to close friends” (p. 6).

X-Bar Theory

Chomsky (1995) states that X-Bar Theory is “used to describe the structure of phrases, clauses and sentences whatever the order the language may have adopted SVO, VSO, or OVS”. Furthermore, X-Bar Theory is the arrangement of principles that explain how any particular constituent phrase can be structured (Koopman, Sportiche, & Stabler, 2013). Hence, the general tree for X-Bar Theory called Cross-Categorial Generalization is as follows:

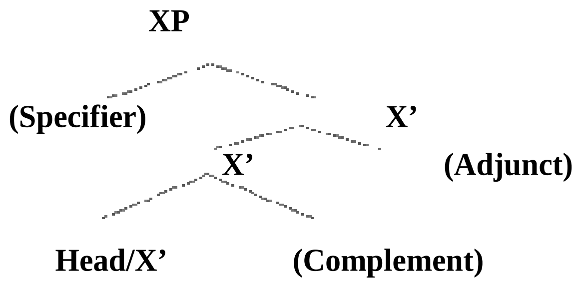

Figure 1. Cross-Categorial Generalization

Figure 1 depicts general rules of English X-Bar theory which is part of X-bar syntax. Notice that the labels Specifier, Adjunct, Head and Complement are functional notions, and that of these four only the Head is always obligatory. Specifier is a determiner of the phrase, which appears only if the meaning of the phrase requires it. Complement appears only if the head of the phrase requires its presence. Adjunct is usually a modifier for verb. According to this X-Bar theory, a sentence contains five (5) phrases namely Noun Phrase (NP), Verb Phrase (VP), Adjective Phrase (Adj P), Adverb Phrase (Adv P), and Prep Phrase (Pre P).

Research Methodology

The method applied in this study was a descriptive analysis. The quantitative and qualitative data were collected from 10 extrovert and 10 introvert EFL learners’ essay writings. The material used to identify the personalities of the learners was the Myers Briggs Types Indicator (MBTI) questionnaire (Myers & Briggs, 1998) and an essay writing test entitled *“My Best Friend”* with the task to describe a person. Furthermore, SPSS was used to analyze the quantitative data and X-Bar theory was used to analyze the qualitative data.

Findings

Syntax errors by extrovert EFL learners

The findings are provided in Table 1. These findings were the result of the analysis of 10 essay writings by the extrovert EFL learners.

Table 1: *The kinds of syntactic errors made by the extrovert EFL learners*

No	Name of Phrase	Kinds of Errors	Quantity
1	Noun Phrase (NP)	NP Adjective Word Class	1

		NP id	9
		NP id+singular	1
		NP Plural	4
		NP prep	3
		NP quant+singular	4
		NP word order	7
2	Verb Phrase (VP)	VP aux "be"	36
		VP aux "do"	1
		VP passive	1
		VP V form	46
3	Adjective Phrase (Adj P)	Adj P id	3
	Total Number of Errors	12	116

Based on Table 1, VP form errors prevail (46 errors). For example, the extrovert EFL learners wrote "she *have", "to *says", "want *go", "her father always *to accompany", "she *wearing glasses", "her eyes *shows" for "she has, to say, want to go, she is studying, she can make, her father always accompanies, she wears glasses, her eyes show". The subject "she" is singular and should be followed by singular form of VP. The singular form of "have" is "has". And then, "to" is followed by the infinitive. The infinitive verb of "says" is "say". If the word "want" is followed by verb, the verb should be "to infinitive". So after word "want" there is "to" before the verb "go". "To accompany" is not a "predicate" and that clause needs a predicate. Since the subject is "her father" (singular), the predicate should be in the singular form and the singular form of "accompany" is "accompanies". Furthermore, the word "wearing" is a participle I from verb+ing and it cannot be a predicate. This clause needs a VP as a predicate. Then, the subject of this clause is "she" (singular), so, the VP should be in singular form. The singular VP form of "wearing" is "wears". The word "eyes" is in plural, so, the VP form of this should be in the plural form, too. The plural VP of "shows" is without "s" that is only the word "show".

The second syntactic error made in essay writing by the extrovert group is VP auxiliary "be" which got 36 errors. For example, the extrovert group wrote "we are best friend is the…", and "her boyfriend name Jo" for "she cries, we are best friends who are the…, and her boyfriend's name is Jo". There are two auxiliaries and this is an error form in the English sentence. Therefore, the auxiliary "is" should be dropped out or should be changed into "are" and together with "who" before it should form an attributive clause. In the third example there is no auxiliary. So, the suitable VP auxiliary "be" for this clause is "is" since the subject of this clause is singular that is "her boyfriend's name (is) Jo".

The next common syntactic error in the extrovert group's essay writings was NP identifier, which occurred nine times. This number is very small compared to the two kinds of errors explained previously. The examples of this NP identifier were "very kind person" and "last and first daughter" for "a very kind person" and "the last and the first daughter". In the first example there is no identifier of the article "a" but this phrase needs it. Similarly, in the second example the extrovert EFL learners forgot or probably did not care about the article "the" as an identifier but this article is very important in this clause.

Other syntactic errors that the extrovert group made in essay writing was NP word order, which reached seven errors. For example, the learners wrote “long hair and black” and “his color skin” for “long and black hair” and “his skin color”. These examples are the representatives of the syntactic errors made by the extrovert group. The first example has “hair” as a head of NP and “black” and “long” are the adjectives to describe this noun so they serve as modifiers for the noun. Hence, the position of the words “black” and “long” should be before the head that is “hair”. In the second example, the head of the NP is “color”, therefore, it should be after the word “skin”.

The fewer syntactic errors that the extrovert group made in their essays are four errors in NP plural and similarly in NP quantifier+singular and three errors in both NP preposition and Adj P identifier. For example, for NP plural, the extrovert learners wrote “many experience” for “many experiences”. The word “many” should be followed by a plural noun. The plural form of “experience” is “experiences”. An example for an error in NP quantifier+singular is “one of the train”. The word “one” is a quantifier and there is a preposition “of”. So, after the preposition “of” the noun should be plural. The plural form of “train” is “trains”. “Influence in me” for “influence on me” is an example for NP preposition. And “a very lazy” for “very lazy” illustrates an error in Adj P identifier. The head is “lazy” and it is an Adjective which does not need “a” as a modifier. So, the article “a” should be dropped out from this phrase.

The above table also contains the fewest syntactic errors that the extrovert EFL learners made in their essays. They are NP Adj word class, NP identifier+singular, VP auxiliary “do” and VP passive. Each type is represented by only one error.

Syntax errors by introvert EFL learners

The syntactic errors in the introvert EFL learners’ essay writing have been grouped as is shown in the table below.

Table 2*: The kinds of syntactic errors made by the introvert EFL learners*

No	Name of phrase	Kinds of Errors		Quantity
1	Noun Phrase (NP)	NP Adjective Word Class		1
		NP id		2
		NP Plural		2
		NP quant+singular		7
		NP word order		4
2	Verb Phrase (VP)	VP aux “be”		19
		VP aux “do”		1
		VP V form		19
3	Prep Phrase	Prep P S/C function		3
	Total Number of Errors		9	58

Based on Table 2, there are nine kinds of these errors. Based on the kinds of errors, VP form and VP aux “be” are most common because both reached 19 errors. For example, in VP form, the introvert EFL learners wrote “she show” and “had to really explained” for “she shows” and “had to really explain”. The subject “she” is singular and should be followed by a singular verb form. The singular form of “show” is “shows”. Then, the modal construction “had to” should be followed by the infinitive. The infinitive form of “explained” is “explain”.

The examples for VP auxiliary “be” in the introvert group are the following: “her style like me”, “Lia and I was”, and “she is always give” for “her style is like mine”, “Lia and I were” and “she always gives”. These examples represent common and typical errors for VP auxiliary “be”. Actually, the first example needs auxiliary “is” as the predicate but the introvert group did not put it. The second example, the NP as subject is plural and should be followed by the plural form of auxiliary “be” that is “were”.

The next syntactic error made by the introvert group is NP quantifier+singular, which occurred seven times. For example, the introvert learners wrote “one of the student” for “each my best friend, many kinds of hobbies and one of the students”. The phrase “one of” should be followed by the plural noun. The plural form of “student” is “students”.

Another syntactic error that the introvert group made in essay writing was NP word order which reached four errors. For example, the learners wrote “an easy going personality and friendly”, “State Medan University” and “black long hair” for “an easy going and friendly personality”, “Medan State University” and “long black hair”. These three examples demonstrate typical syntactic errors made by the introvert group. The first example has “personality” as a head of NP, both adjectives “easy going and friendly” function as specifiers of the noun “personality”. In the second example, the head of the NP is “University”, therefore, the position of the words “Medan” and “State” should be before the word “University”. And then, “State” is the head of “Medan”, thus, the position of “Medan” should be before “State”. Finally, in the third example the head is “hair” while “long” and “black” are its specifiers. So, the position of the “hair” should be after the words “long” and “black” as the rule of English syntax of NP states that the quality-gradable adjective should be before the adjective of color. The word “long” is quality-gradable adjective and “black” is the name of color.

The fewer syntactic errors that the introvert students made in their essay writing are Prep P subject/complement function (three errors), NP plural and NP identifier (two errors each). For example, the introvert students wrote in Prep P subject/complement function “were senior high school” for “were in senior high school”. The learners did not put the preposition “in” where it should be put. The example on NP plural is “two person” for “two persons”. The word “two” is a quantifier for plural and should be followed by the plural form of the noun. The plural form of “person” is “persons”. Another example on NP identifier is “a long hair” for “long hair”. The word “hair” is an uncountable noun and is considered as singular. An uncountable noun does not need the article “a”.

The above table also contains the fewest syntactic errors that the introvert EFL learners made in essay writing. The errors were in NP adjective word class which only reached one error and in VP auxiliary “do” which also got only one error. For example, the learners wrote “they really too” for “they really do too”. This example needs an auxiliary “do” because it needs predicate in a clause and the suitable auxiliary is “do” since the subject is plural, that is “they”. The next example on NP adjective word class is “Happy, sad, discuss and hang out”. These words are not in the same class. “Happy” and “sad” are adjectives but “discuss” and “hang out” are verbs. So, this phrase is not correct.

Discussion

The findings of this study actually are not extremely different regarding the syntactic errors made by the extroverts. The extrovert EFL learners made errors in Noun Phrase, Verb Phrase and Adjective Phrase, whereas the introvert EFL learners made errors in Noun Phrase, Verb Phrase and Prepositional Phrase. Therefore, there were two similar kinds of errors made by the extrovert and introvert EFL learners.

However, in terms of Noun Phrase, the extrovert EFL learners made more variance errors than the introvert EFL learners because the extroverts made errors in Noun Phrase Prepositional and Noun Phrase id+singular while the introvert EFL learners did not make them. Furthermore, in terms of the Verb Phrase, the extrovert EFL learners made one more variance similar to that of the introverts. The extrovert EFL learners made errors in Verb Phrase Passive while they did not appear in the introvert EFL learners' essay writing. Therefore, the findings of this research exactly support the findings of the previous researchers such as Callahan (2000) and Ellis (2008) who reported that there was a positive affect on the relation of personality with the composition task in which introvert EFL learners were more accurate than extrovert EFL learners in terms of linguistics features.

The variance of the errors made by the introvert EFL learners was only slightly different from the findings of previous researchers such as Mardijono (2003) and Basri D, Muhammad & Ampa (2013). However, each study still has its differences because the way of analyzing the data was different. This recent study had one difference from Mardijono's findings: the Prepositional Phrase was found as one of the errors but it did not appear in Mardijono's analysis. At the same time, Mardijono found Transformation Categories in his research but it did not appear in the introvert EFL learners' errors. Moreover, there were seven kinds of syntactic errors, which were not found in the introvert EFL learners' syntactic errors but were registered in the findings of Basri D, Muhammad & Ampa (2013), namely Adj P id, Adv P Prep, Adv P word form and NP id+singular, NP prep, VP N word class and VP passive. In linear, the variance of the syntactic errors' examples in the findings of the introvert EFL learners' syntactic errors is less than the variance of syntactic errors' examples in Basri D, Muhammad & Ampa's research findings.

Conclusion

The findings show that the extrovert EFL learners made more errors than the introvert EFL learners since the number of syntactic errors of the extrovert EFL learners was twice the number of mistakes made by the introvert EFL learners. Hence, the extrovert EFL learners must give more attention to syntax as they have a tendency to be more careless and less correct in constructing the phrases. At the same time, students of either group still have an equal chance to enhance their ability to learn a foreign language and in particular to develop their writing skills.

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Teaching English Spoken Academic Professional Discourse to Students of Pedagogical Universities

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Abstract: This paper addresses the issue of teaching English discourse in the framework of intercultural approach to ESP. The author of the paper analyses oral academic professional discourse of EFL teachers and describes one of its genres – a conference presentation. The ability to produce this discourse is seen as essential for master's degree students in order to participate effectively in intercultural professional communication. On the basis of linguistic findings a methodology and technology for teaching the discourse of conference presentation genre in the Master degree programme "Pedagogical Education" (Language Education) are presented.

Keywords: *academic professional discourse, competence, communication, conference presentation*

Introduction

With the development of intercultural contacts all over the world EFL teachers have more possibilities for professional interaction. Russian prospective teachers need to be able to communicate effectively with their foreign counterparts in English in order to exchange experience and learn new ideas about methods of teaching English. Federal State Educational Standard of Higher Education for Master degree program “Pedagogical Education” (2013) requires that Masters of Pedagogical Education can do research and have the competence to systematize, sum up, and disseminate national and international methodological experience in professional sphere and communicate in a foreign language in the professional environment in oral form for addressing professional issues (p. 8; 10).

However, students and EFL teachers still experience difficulties in intercultural professional communication. Novice presenters have little experience in public speaking and they are just becoming “legitimate peripheral participants” (Lave and Wenger, 1991 as cited in Yang, 2014). Moreover, as globalization is spreading, some discursive genres have become more universal, yet, representatives of different cultures can understand, use and produce these genres differently in accordance with shared in their cultures knowledge and evaluations (Dijk, 2009). Meanwhile, novice researchers are left on their own to infer the knowledge about these genres and just copy them. This makes professional academic communication stressful.

The concept of discursive competence and the problem of teaching students international professional discourse have been recently addressed in research works (Bhatia, 1993; Minakova, 2013; Nikulshina & Gunina, 2013). One of professional discourse types is academic discourse (Jurado, 2015; Luzina, 1999). It has been studied by Aman, Awalb and Jaafarc (2014), Karasik and Slyshkin (2010), Swales (1990), and others. Academic professional discourse of EFL teachers has received attention both in linguistic research and in works on language teaching methodology (Filonenko, 2005; Lovtsevich, 2009).

A conference presentation has a key role in dissemination of academic knowledge (Rowley-Jolivet, 1999 as cited in Jurado, 2015). According to Swales (1990), for novel researchers presenting their work at academic conferences is a “rite of passage” into the professional world. Thus this genre of spoken academic professional discourse should be taught to students, future EFL teachers. Conference presentations have been studied by Jurado (2015), Ventola (2002), and Yang (2014). However, we failed to find research works aimed at teaching students oral academic professional discourse (the genre of conference presentations). Therefore, the present study aims, first, to describe the features of oral English academic professional discourse of EFL teachers and, second, to work out methodology and technology that would train students in the Master degree programme “Pedagogical Education” (Language Education) to produce this type of discourse.

Academic professional discourse of EFL teachers

Academic professional discourse of EFL teachers is a form of intercultural communication between EFL teachers in academic settings. As the research showed, this discourse has the following characteristics of an academic discourse: specialized and rational language, consistence, universal character of its results, generality, delivery abstractness, accuracy, persuasiveness, objectivity, use of facts, unambiguity, neutrality, pragmatic orientation, coherence, and cohesion (Filonenko, 2005; Karasik, 2010). At the same time, it is distinguished by specific characteristics: evaluativity, expressiveness, emotivity, author's individual character and subjectivity, and sociocultural focus (Filonenko, 2005).

Spoken academic professional discourse has multimodal nature, i.e. linguistic expressions co-occur with kinesics (gestures, head movement, facial expressions, and gaze) and paralanguage (intonation) (Querol-Julian & Fortanet-Gomez, 2014). These semiotic modes are important for persuasion, as much of persuasion is nonverbal (Jurado, 2015). Moreover, this discourse involves images (e.g. PPT presentation) that can serve for evidencing the claims made.

Typical participants of the discourse are EFL teachers – experts in the field of teaching English to non-native speakers. They have equal rights, produce discourse in English addressing it to an English interlocutor and belong to different sociocultural communities, therefore, their professional culture has certain differences (Lovtsevich, 2009: 101-107). Oral professional discourse of EFL teachers is employed in conference halls and classrooms in universities. The purposes of this discourse are the following: delivering novel research to the academic community, persuading the community in the important value of the research, stimulating colleagues' interest, and influencing their behavior, opinions and preferences (Filonenko, 2005; Jurado, 2015).

For communicative purposes it is important for learners to know the peculiarities of professional interaction in other cultures. For example, Anglo-American academic discourse involves humour and self-irony which seldom occur in Russian academic communicative events.

In addition, teaching academic professional discourse of EFL teachers needs to include the values of academic field, as well as the values of English discourse on the whole. The values of the analyzed discourse are linked to its key concepts, i.e. truth, accuracy, knowledge, and research (Karasik, 2010). The basic values of English culture reflected in the features of oral English discourse are respect for privacy, tolerance for other people's behavior, predominance of constructions with prominent active agent, use of various euphemisms, preference for facts rather than arguments, separation knowledge from reasoning, accuracy, laconism, understatement rather than overstatement, politeness, etc. Communicative values of English culture can be seen in nonverbal behavior and paralanguage. For example, a speaker is expected to smile cordially, make eye contact, use gestures and face expressions to a limited extent, make pauses, talk in a soft voice without interrupting the interlocutor (Larina, 2009).

The subject of academic pedagogical discourse represents the set of problems common for pedagogical education representatives: methods, techniques, resources, and IT aimed at increasing the effectiveness of teaching foreign languages. Discursive formulas of the oral English academic discourse are used for apologizing and admitting mistakes, frequent hedging and signposting the discourse. Intensifiers (*very, so, more, too, really, etc*.) are used to convey judgements and to give the researcher's stance (Ruiz-Gorrido, 2015). The overuse of if-conditional, self-mentions (*I*, *our, the presenter*), 2nd personal pronouns, imperatives (*Take a look at…*), transitional words (*similarly,* *however, etc.*) are typical of this discourse as well (Yang, 2014).

The strategies of the analysed discourse are realized in its genres such as international conference presentations, plenary addresses, workshops, panel discussions, and seminars.

A conference presentation takes an intermediate position between written and oral genres as well as between formal and informal speech because it is first written and then delivered orally. As other oral genres, it is produced in a situated dynamic context, which meaning-making is made in real time and is co-constructed by the speaker and audience (Jurado, 2015). Although this genre is informative and persuasive, it is important for a speaker to set up a feeling of connivance with the audience. Using semiotic modes in a conference presentation is essential, as it helps the audience to follow the oral and visual information (Ruiz-Gorrido, 2015). A conference presentation normally lasts 30 minutes and it can be structured into Introduction of oneself, Introduction of the research topic, Review of the relevant literature, the Methods, Findings, Discussion, Implications and Suggestions, Closing the presentation and Discussion. The speaker uses language and non-verbal means of communication while realizing such presentation strategies as maintaining the audience's interest, delivering the content with a flow, drawing attention to the projected semiotic images, stimulating interaction with the audience, displaying stance, claiming sole ownership, etc.

Methodology

Using the results of the discourse analysis we have worked out a methodology for teaching oral academic professional discourse of EFL teachers. The aim of teaching this discourse within master's degree courses can be formulated as forming and developing in future EFL teachers foreign language professional communicative competence and its components: linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, strategic, intercultural, subject, research, and information-technological. For example, developing *discourse competence* consists in improving students' ability to produce coherent and cohesive genres of this discourse with due account for situations of professional communication. As for *intercultural competence*, it is concerned with developing learners' ability for intercultural communication in English with foreign counterparts based on the knowledge of structural and content differences in oral genres of Russian and English academic professional discourse and skills of comparing the features of Russian and English discourses. Forming *research competence* implies training students' readiness and ability to deliver in English the results of their own research in TEFL field in the intercultural professional communication settings in accordance with the features of English academic discourse.

The suggested content of teaching oral English academic professional discourse in Master's of Pedagogical Education courses includes such components as knowledge, skills, and attitude to professional and research activities. As an example, see Table 1 for content components of teaching the discourse to master's degree students related to the intercultural competence.

Table 1.Content components of teaching oral English academic professional discourse to master's degree students "Pedagogical Education" (Language Education)

	Knowledge of	Skills	Attitude to Professional and Research Activities
Intercultural competence	– values and frames of English and Russian cultures; – verbal and non-verbal behavior typical of English and Russian cultures; – the rules of etiquette accepted in English-speaking countries and in Russia; – professional communication culture of EFL teachers in Russia and in English-speaking countries.	– comparing the features of Russian and English professional discourse of EFL teachers; – producing oral professional discourse of EFL teachers with due account to the audience's cultural background; – overcoming difficulties of intercultural communication arising due to cultural differences; – using kinesics and intonation appropriately while producing oral professional discourse of EFL teachers.	– readiness for integration into international professional community of EFL teachers; – tolerance; – seeking for establishing intercultural contacts and cooperation with foreign counterparts; – readiness to take into account the rules and norms of oral intercultural professional communication; – readiness to review professional views and stereotypes typical of professional culture of EFL teachers.

The aim and the content of teaching Master's degree students oral academic professional discourse of EFL teachers allow us to define the principles of education as follows: professional orientation, communication orientation, socio-cultural orientation, and autonomy.

We distinguish four stages of teaching oral academic professional discourse of EFL teachers: 1) presentation stage, 2) algorithmic stage, 3) creation stage, 4) evaluation and self-evaluation stage. The suggested technology is based on the complex of exercises that includes guiding exercises, performing exercises comprising preparatory exercises and communication exercises, and controlling exercises.

The stage of presentation consists in learners' acquaintance with scholars' oral presentations in English preceded by an introductory talk where students learn about the features of intercultural professional communication of EFL teachers, revise the notions of "discourse" and "genre", get to know about oral English professional discourse of EFL teachers and its genres, formal and neutral registers, etc. After watching video recordings of the conference presentations students do orienting exercises and tasks enhancing their knowledge and skills of producing oral genres of the discourse, as well as motivating them in performing this activity. For example:

Watch the conference presentation. Answer the questions that follow.

a) How does the speaker start his/her presentation? b) What are the connectors or transitional words the presenter uses to connect the talk? c) How does the presenter end the speech? d) What does the presenter say to clarify the points?

Algorithmic stage is aimed at enhancing the knowledge acquired at the previous stage and at forming with the students the skills necessary for producing the discourse. The students watch a number of videos with conference presentations enough for them to be able to produce confidently, clearly and persuasively oral academic texts with the appropriate structure, language, and strategies. At the algorithmic stage the students do performing exercises which include preparatory exercises and communication exercises. For instance:

Watch the two conference presentations in Russian and in English. Compare the features of the Russian and English academic professional discourse of EFL teachers. Discuss the differences and the similarities of the two discourses in small groups.

At the algorithmic stage the students practise producing the discourse using memo-instructions and algorithms. Role-plays can be widely used to stimulate learners' research and communication activities. For instance:

Work in small groups. You are members of the organizing committee of a TEFL conference. You need to choose three best paper presentations of the conference. Identify and discuss the criteria of effective presentations.

The *creation stage* consists in students' self-directed practice in producing the genres of oral academic professional discourse of EFL teachers. The students perform creative activity that implies independent work on preparing and delivering in English conference papers at students' conferences or international TEFL conferences.

The *evaluation and self-evaluation stage* implies that the teacher and the students analyze the knowledge and skills the students acquired in this course. It can be done in the form of discussion and completing questionnaires. The following criteria for evaluation/self-evaluation of the discourse produced can be suggested: language accuracy, structure and content adequacy, persuasiveness, extralinguistic appropriateness, effectiveness of using visuals, and interaction with the audience.

Conclusion

To sum up, it is important to teach master's degree students (programme "Pedagogical Education") oral professional discourse of EFL teachers as it enables them to integrate into international professional community. Novice researchers in the TEFL field need to be taught conference presentation genre with a focus on its structure, language, strategies, non-verbal communication and use of visuals. Students should also be taught that conferences are multilingual and multicultural events where participants use English as an international language (Yang, 2014). The suggested methodology of teaching students oral academic professional discourse of EFL teachers is aimed at developing in future EFL teachers professional communicative competence as well as its components. The identified content components of teaching oral English academic professional discourse to master's degree students are specific knowledge, skills and attitude to professional and research activities. The suggested technology that includes four stages with their clearly identified objectives, content, principles, and a series of exercises is expected to provide effective teaching of the discourse. Finally, since the present research only suggested theoretical educational framework, a number of studies can be done to complement it. For instance, it is necessary for educational purposes to develop the criteria for selecting models of academic professional discourse. Next, the analysis of other genres of the discourse could serve the basis for developing the methodological system for teaching the professional discourse of EFL teachers as a whole. In addition, a closer look might be taken at the differences between Russian and English verbal and non-verbal behavior in various professional settings.

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Ten Ways to Retell the Text

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Abstract: Retelling a text is an integral part of many English language courses. It requires the students to organize the text information in order to provide personal rendition of it. As a comprehension strategy, retelling encourages students to attend to the meaning of the text; to understand elements of a story structure (characters, setting, plot); to distinguish between key ideas and supporting details. As a communicative strategy, retelling develops EFL students' ability to render the required information in English. There are different ways to perform this kind of task in an EFL class, some of them being described in the article.

Keywords: *retelling, classroom activity, communicative strategy, motivation*

Introduction

Among the main objectives of learning a foreign language the educators list forming the communicative competence; the ability to use communicative skills in the situations of communication and to choose the most effective language means for the communicative interaction; the ability to use English as a means of intercultural communication and to choose the language means and speech strategies depending on communication situations (Lazaretnaya, 2014).

To generalize these objectives we can say that the emphasis in foreign language teaching is made on the development of students' oral skills. The emphasis on speaking proficiency is attributed to the fact that many foreign language students list speaking abilities among their primary goals of study, either because they would derive some personal satisfaction from being able to speak a foreign language or because they feel it would be useful in pursuing other goals, e.g. seeking employment in business, especially abroad (Gorodetskaya, Rogovaya, 2012).

One of the instruments to teach and to learn speaking a foreign language is retelling a text, which is in one or another form an integral part of many English language courses.

Retelling is not only an exercise for practicing speaking skills, but it is also a means of evaluating the depth and breadth of students' text understanding based on their attempts to recall the information they have read (or heard) and convey it to the listeners. That is why retelling is regarded as a tool of assessment of students' comprehension as well. The basic assumption is: retelling indicates the reader's assimilation and reconstruction of text information, and therefore reflects comprehension (Cohen, Krustedt, May, 2009).

As a comprehension strategy, retelling:

– encourages readers to attend to the meaning of the text;
– reinforces elements of story structure, such as characters, setting, plot;
– requires readers to distinguish between key ideas and supporting ideas;
– encourages communication and oral language development.

As an assessment strategy, retelling:

– demonstrates what the student understands and remembers about the story;
– reveals what the student considers important about the story;
– indicates what students know about story structure and literary language;
– demonstrates the students' vocabulary and oral language development (Rog, 2003).

The students' interest in this kind of a task (retelling) is ensured by motivation. Motivation presupposes students' purposefulness, persistence and enthusiasm in learning. The following motivating factors are at work when a student prepares a retelling task:

– Communicative (understanding that the practice of retelling will enable a student to render any information in English and to talk to a foreigner coherently);
– Linguistic (wishing and learning to use the English language correctly);
– Cognitive educational (a desire to know more, to get more information about the surrounding world, to learn about the life and culture of other countries);
– Instrumental (a feeling of satisfaction after doing a certain task successfully);
– Brain-developing (it is a way to develop one's memory, thinking abilities, etc.);
– Emotional;
– Ambitious (to know a foreign language and to use it freely is prestigious);
– Pragmatic (using English freely enables a person to perceive and to render information, as well as to travel abroad or to get a good job requiring knowledge of English) (Suslova, 2014).

These motivating factors promote the development of communicative competence and provide willingness of students to fulfill various tasks (including retelling a text).

The ways of retelling the text

The term "text" is used in the article in its broad meaning – it can be a written, audio or video piece which is presented to the learners. Retelling may be prepared when it is given as a home task and done at home; or it may be spontaneous (instant), when the students look through the text quickly and perform the task which the teacher sets before reading a text. Most teachers and learners prefer the first type, but advanced students may enjoy an occasional unprepared variant of retelling.

The forms of retelling may also vary. As a rule, it is presented orally, but for a change retelling can be done in a written form or be recorded as audio (e.g. mp3) or video files at home, which are later presented in the classroom. Students have a chance to evaluate each other's work and discuss the assets and drawbacks of the presentations. Written or recorded retelling is a perfect option for shy students who are afraid to speak in front of the audience.

1. Traditional Retelling

The most basic of reader response is the literal retelling which asks students to recall as many details from the story as they can. This is an important strategy at an early reading level as it builds foundation of comprehension and story structure (Rog, 2003). The task in this case is just “Read the text and reproduce it”. It is usually performed in front of the class and develops the students’ ability to speak to the audience.

The drawback of this form of retelling is that it requires too much time (especially in a big group or when the students pause, hesitate and stumble). It can also become boring and tiresome for the students to attend to the same story many times.

2. Retelling to Each Other

Retelling to each other is a variation of the previous task: the students form pairs and retell the text to each other in detail, correct each other and finally assess each other’s retelling. The teacher monitors the process, moving around.

Great advantage of this kind of retelling is that it saves a lot of class time to be used for other kinds of practice. Another positive feature of it is that those who do not feel confident enough to speak in front of the whole class may do it freely with a fellow student as a partner.

The drawback of this form of activity is that lazy bones who have not prepared the task can be lost in a large group. The suggestion is to determine beforehand the lazy ones so that they could not hide behind the relative autonomy of this activity. To do so, we can first invite a couple of the least diligent students to speak to the class.

3. Chain Retelling

Another variation of this activity is chain retelling, when one student starts, the others proceed one by one. This kind of task makes students listen attentively to the talker as they should be ready to continue retelling at any point of the story by the sign of the teacher. Besides, this task is time saving as each student retells only a part of the original piece; and monotony breaking (with fewer repetitions of the whole text and the agile pace of the activity).

4. One Minute Retelling

One minute retelling is another variation of retelling when each speaker has only 60 seconds to talk (the teacher monitors the time with a watch or a sand-clock). The talker is to say as many complete sentences during the allotted time as possible. It does not mean that the rest of the group can relax: the other students become active listeners: their task is to count the sentences (which sometimes can be really tricky).

One minute version makes students to be concise, to speak without pauses and pause fillers (e.g., “mmm”) as they have to pronounce as many sentences as they can in a limited time. Another advantage of this kind of retelling is that it is time-saving.

5. Role Retelling

The students read or listen to a story and then are asked to create a new story from the point of view of one of the characters. This kind of retelling is usually enjoyed by the students because they like creative tasks. It allows them to try on a new mask while taking on somebody else's personality. The teacher has only to think over the roles some of which should be conventional and others unconventional (for the students with good imagination).

This task is psychologically comfortable, as students hide their shyness and their mistakes behind their new roles.

6. Estimation Retelling

It implies retelling a story adding the speaker's opinion of the facts described in the story, that is, giving the personal response to the content of the text.

The synthesis of information of the text with the reader's own ideas is considered the highest level of response. It encourages students to draw on their personal experiences, opinions and feelings in their interpretation of the text (Rog, 2003).

If the teacher is pressed for time s/he can limit the retelling to mentioning only the facts the speaker would like to estimate and to discuss them with the fellow-students who should have the opportunity to react to the speaker's comments. In this case the activity also develops the learners' ability to speak spontaneously, to respond to the received information.

7. Retelling an Unfinished Story

In this case the students read or listen to an unfinished story. Then they have to retell it and add their own ends to the story using their imagination and creative abilities. The variety of the endings makes retelling interesting. Being engaged in this kind of activity everyone listens attentively to the other students' stories and reacts vividly.

Unexpectedness and an element of surprise make doing this kind of task fun.

8. Dialogue retelling

As the name of this activity presupposes, students are to discuss the content of the story in the form of a dialogue. The text is the same but the dialogues will be all different, depending on the students' imagination and their idea of how to make their conversation sound natural and interesting. The students turn into actors and they strive to impress the audience with their short performance.

9. Drama Retelling

Creative dramatics may be used as another form of retelling. Students should dramatize the story taking their roles from the story and reproducing some parts of the story. The higher level students can invent their own roles, create their utterances according to the content of the story and then act it out.

With younger learners puppets and other props can be used to make the retelling fun.

10. Summary Retelling

Summarizing means a short retelling containing only the main facts rendered in the text. It is considered a sophisticated level of retelling as it involves analyzing the information in the story to extract only the key ideas. In order to summarize the reader needs a comprehensive understanding of the story (Rog, 2003).

Summary retelling is handful when the teacher is pressed for time.

Conclusion

Retelling is a great comprehension and assessment strategy for all times. It is crucially important for students not just to memorize and retell word for word what they read; they should also understand, monitor what is happening in a story, and know what information is important to reflect on and remember. Thus, retelling develops the communicative skills of the learners, as well as the ability to express the information in English. It also helps to memorize English words and word combinations in a context and learn how to use the vocabulary.

Using different forms of retelling helps to make this classroom activity motivating and enjoyable for EFL learners.

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Appendix 1. *A handout to demonstrate the* ***"Estimation Retelling".***

Read the following text. Tell what the article is about and express your opinion on the information presented in the text.

Japan's new material girls refuse to be rushed into marriage

(K. Tolbert)

Miki Takasu is 26 years old, beautiful, drives BMW and carries a $2,800 Chanel handbag. She vacations in Switzerland, Thailand, Los Angeles, New York and Hawaii.

Happily unmarried, living with her parents while working as a bank teller, she is what people here call a “parasite single.”

There are so many women like Takasu that they have become the focus of heated controversy. Depending on whom you ask, they are good for economy because they spend their salaries on clothes, cars and dining out, or they are destroying society by refusing to get married and have children. They are the first significant group of women in Japan to stay single beyond their early twenties – the number of women in their late twenties who have not married has risen from 30% to about 50% in the last fifteen years.

But single women don’t frown on married life. Rather, they are content with their status quo and feel the possibilities open to them will be closed later on.

They study. English conversation schools are filled with women, and the boom in special skills courses, from computing to accounting, is fueled more by women than by men.

They shop. Rings and watches by Cartier, Bulgari and Hermes costing $2,000 to $3,000 are particularly popular among working women, who buy themselves presents for special occasions.

They travel. Takasu, who earns about $28,000 a year, frequently makes quick shop trips to South Korea and has been to Hawaii three times and Malaysia and Egypt as well.

They can afford this lifestyle because they have jobs, live with their parents and treat most of their income as spending money. Fewer women than men are out of work. Visitors to Tokyo looking for visible signs of recession are struck by the crowded department stores and the bustle in the streets lined with luxury boutiques – a phenomenon due in large part to spending by single women.

More than 70% of the single women in Tokyo live at home, and about half pay some kind of rent to their parents. M. Yamada, a sociology professor says the main reason women are delaying marriage is that life at home is too comfortable. They don’t cook or do housework or laundry.

Appendix 2. *A handout to demonstrate the* ***“Role Retelling”.***

Read (or listen to) the following text and then retell it as if you were George / Martha/ a neighbor / a cat/ a vase.

George and Martha

Stanford Smith

A weary salesman’s weekly homecoming.
“Welcome, George,” says Martha.
Dinner and cozy fire. Then to bed and sleep.
Downstairs, the cat knocks over a vase.
Half awake, Martha shouts, “Oh, God! My husband!”
The bedroom window banging open brings her full awake.
The bed is empty.
“George! Why are you out on the roof?”

Appendix 3. *A handout to demonstrate* **“Retelling an Unfinished Story”.**

Read the story without an end and think of your way to finish it. Tell it to the class.

The WAXWORK

(*after* A. Burrage)

The dim light fell on the rows of figures which were so like human beings that the silence seemed unnatural. “It must be like that at the bottom of the sea,” he thought and decided to use this phrase in his story on the next morning. He faced the figures boldly enough. They were only waxworks. He promised himself that everything would be well. It did not save him, however, from the waxen stare of Dr. Bourdette which was directed upon him from behind. Without turning back and looking he felt it. At last Hewson turned his chair round a little and looked behind him.

“He’s only a waxwork like the rest of you,” he said loudly. “You are all only waxworks.”

They were only waxworks, yes, but waxworks don’t move. Not that he had seen any movement anywhere, but it seemed to him there had been a slight change in the group of figures in front. Crippen, for instance, seemed to have turned a little to the left.

He took a notebook from his pocket and started writing: “Deathly silence. Like being at the bottom of the sea. Figures begin moving when they are not watched.”

He stopped writing suddenly and looked round quickly over the right shoulder. He had neither seen nor heard a movement, but it was as if some sixth sense made him aware of one. He looked at the figure of Lefroy which smiled as if to say, “It wasn’t I!”

The wax murderers not only moved but they breathed, too. Because somebody was breathing…

Competency-based Approach to FL Teacher Education in Russia

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Abstract: The paper discusses competency-based approach to FL teacher education in Russia, which is a base-line for University teacher training Federal Curriculum. The paper defines the methodological competence as an integrative property of FL teacher’s personality and argues its status as a system-forming component of FL teacher professional competency. In line with the phases of classroom teaching (goal setting, goal achieving, goal attainment analysis), the paper presents a model of methodological competence and substantiates an innovative format of the final state exam shaped as a school lesson design review that makes it possible to assess the diversity of the components embraced by the methodological competence.

Keywords: *competency-based teacher training and development*, *model of methodological competence*, *interactive teacher development techniques*, *innovative format of competency final assessment*

The subject matter of the paper is FL teacher development in university. No one in our profession has ever doubted, I am sure, that the ultimate success of our daily work and our students’ progress in language proficiency depends on teachers’ professional competency which implies solid knowledge of both the subject we teach and the way we teach. The latter involves the knowledge of teaching methodology (cognitive component), practical teaching skills (operational component), values and attitudes to our profession, learners and our teacher colleagues we collaborate with (axiological component).

The cornerstone of the Federal FLT Education Curriculum is competency-based approach to teacher development which is realized in universities that are geared to build and develop students' professional competency. Professional competency is a complex phenomenon. According to Machmuryan (2009) the model of FLT professional competency comprises psychological, communicative, methodological, social, cultural, information-technological and management competencies.

Which of the aforementioned components is the core, the system-forming competence of a FL teacher? It is debatable. Some scholars argue that the most important of all is communicative competence determined by the specific peculiarities of foreign language learning and teaching. In other words, the better the teacher's mastery of English is, the better his students' learning outcomes are. Well, it seems so. But convincing as it seems, it is still not the final truth. In my opinion, the system forming component of the professional competency is the methodological competence. We define it as an *integrative property of FL teacher's personality, which determines his/her ability to effectively address teaching problems in the process of implementing the goals of FL teaching in school, related to building school students' FL communicative competence, processing general and socio-cultural education and meaningful values.* In the classroom setting teacher's methodological competence makes it possible to transform other professional competences into an instrument of solving teaching problems and use the foreign language as a means of communication.

Methodological competence as well as professional competency is an integrative unity consisting of sub-competences. Based on the results of the long term research (Yazykova, Makeeva, 2015), the following sub-competences were identified and defined: gnostic, design, design/technological, information-technological, communicative/organizational, communicative/educational, corrective/gnostic, and reflexive/gnostic (pp. 32-40).

Gnostic competence is an ability to analyze a certain classroom setting: the students' learning and the instructors' own teaching activities, instruments of teaching, teaching material, difficulties of language/culture units to be learnt.

Design competence – ability to set clear objectives of a lesson plan/ series of lessons, structure students' learning activities in line with the aims of FL teaching in secondary school taking into consideration the classroom learning and teaching factors involved.

Design/technological – ability to construct activities, speech tasks, prompts, visual aids, adapt teaching materials for implementing lesson objectives, etc.

Information/technological – ability to use information technologies for achieving lesson objectives and design computer software.

Communicative/organizational – ability to organize and structure students' classroom activities and meaningful teacher-student interaction for effective implementation of lesson objectives.

Communicative/educational – ability to form and develop students' speaking, listening, reading and writing skills in the process of classroom interaction using different types of communicative tasks (informative, regulatory, evaluative and etiquette).

Corrective/Gnostic – ability to solve immediate teaching problems basing on operational analysis of the classroom setting and make lesson plan changes, if needed.

Reflexive/gnostic – ability to critically analyze, reflect and assess his/her teaching experience with the aim of further improvement of its effectiveness.

In line with the stages of teaching process – goal setting, goal achieving, goal attainment analysis – we worked out a theoretical model of competence-based FL classroom teaching.

Model of competency-based FL classroom teaching

Stages of classroom teaching	FL teacher roles	Prevailing types of teaching problems addressed	Sub-competences at work
Goal setting	Teacher-Researcher Teacher-design developer	Gnostic Projective	Gnostic Design Design/technological Information/technological
Goal achievement process	Teacher-Practitioner Manager Communicant	Organizational Classroom activities management Assessment and grading Gnostic Projective	Communicative/ organizational Communicative/educational Corrective/Gnostic
Goal attainment analysis	Teacher-Researcher	Gnostic Projective	Reflexive/Gnostic

The development of these competences in the Institute of Foreign Languages, Moscow City University, is implemented in two modes: direct and indirect. By the direct mode we mean building and developing methodological competences in the framework of a 10 credit course "Methodology of FLT" in the junior and senior years that includes interactive lectures, seminars, tutorials, laboratory work, student teaching at elementary and middle schools (10 weeks), elective courses, course paper and final paper on methodology of TEFL. Indirect training implies the use of teacher training techniques in the framework of English classes. S. Makeeva's latest publication (2015) entitled *Learn to Read by Teaching* gives an insight into professionally oriented English class procedures and techniques which were experimentally verified and proved effective.

Direct mode procedures include the use of the following techniques and activities: interactive lectures, brainstorming, problem solving, lab projects based on video lessons, lesson fragment planning, micro-teaching, simulations, role-play with subsequent analysis in small groups, student teaching, classroom research, students' teaching portfolios, lesson plan project and its methodological substantiation at the state exam and final Bachelor's paper.

Most of these techniques and activities are widely recognized in the professional community worldwide and used in FL teacher training and professional development courses. I would like to comment only on one of them – students' teaching portfolios that I consider one of the most important teaching technologies. Their purpose is to build all the aforementioned competences, develop students' pedagogical self-reflection and self-evaluation. The portfolio is also intended to facilitate formation of a self-organized personality in the process of professional development; help towards motivating learning by success when practicing self-assessment; foster personal responsibility for professional growth of a future teacher; develop analytical, generalization and appropriate presentation skills. Thus, the portfolio realizes the following functions: pedagogical, psychological, organizational and documentary.

The student teaching portfolio includes four distinctive parts: 1) student research; 2) technological section: bank of effective classroom activities and techniques to be used during student teaching; 3) teaching materials designed during student internship at school, and 4) self-assessment survey.

Student research section of the portfolio may include essays on research methods in TEFL, history of FLT methodology in Russia and worldwide, theoretically grounded approaches to TEFL of prominent scholars in the field, students' papers at annual conferences in the Institute of Foreign languages of the Moscow City University and other educational institutions of different levels, course papers on psychology, pedagogy and ELT methodology.

The technological section includes teaching orientation cards, samples of lesson plans made and discussed at seminars and tutorials, bank of teaching materials collected from the Internet, teaching manuals, textbooks and other teaching resources. This section of the portfolio is compiled before student teaching at school.

The third section is compiled during their work at school as student teachers. It may include real lesson plans, teaching materials used, school students' essays, compositions, projects prepared by groups of school children under the student teacher guidance, photos and video clips presenting the unforgettable activities and events at school during their teaching experience.

The fourth section is self assessment including three survey sheets which students fill in after the exam in ELT methodology (6^{th} semester), after the first student teaching (7^{th} semester) and after the internship in the final semester. The portfolios are graded each semester and finally assessed at the State Exam.

The use of the teaching portfolio technology in the recent decade in the Institute of foreign languages of MCU has proved highly effective as it develops all the methodological sub-competences.

In the context of competency-based approach to FL teacher training discussed in the paper, it has became necessary to revisit the content of the final State Exam in order to harmonize it with the aims and objectives of FL teacher training and development. There are some forcible arguments to support the changes in the format of the final exam as the traditional format in FLT methodology is geared to evaluating mostly the cognitive component of methodological competence, i.e. knowledge.

Operational and axiological components remain outside the scope of final assessment. It is particularly important to stress that the final state exam in its traditional format does not facilitate meaningful evaluation of whether or not a future teacher's values system has been duly oriented, as well as needs, motives and attitudes to the teaching profession and school children as well as certain personal qualities that are of special relevance for the would-be educator.

In our view, the problem may be resolved based on implementing an innovative format of the final state exam shaped as a lesson plan project review making it possible to evaluate the diversity of components embraced by methodological competence.

The project structure includes a number of the following mandatory components:

1. Lesson Plan tailored to the learning setting (type of school, stage of instruction, level of student's language proficiency, the teaching materials being used, etc.) The lesson plan design which is submitted for review is assessed be the Examining Board from the perspective of all sub-competences mentioned above.
2. Lesson substantiation based on competence, communicative, and socio-cultural approaches to FL teaching in secondary school. In the process of drafting and formalizing the lesson plan as a manuscript of six to eight pages, students fully display their *research*, *design*, *communicative-educational and reflexive/gnostic competences*.
3. Presenting and defending the lesson plan design before the State Examination Board. At this stage the future FL teacher's methodological competence is fully unveiled through such indicators as the ability to sustain, in a logical and convincing fashion, the salient points of the lesson, give argumentative answers to the questions from the Board members, formalize instructional materials and visual aids, and use Information technologies in the course of lesson plan project substantiation.

Implementing the suggested format of the state exam in ELT Methodology may encounter certain organizational difficulties due to a lack of appropriate understanding or even refusal to accept the idea itself. However, the potential of the suggested format is so promising from the point of view of its effectiveness, that such difficulties are quite surmountable. The author's personal involvement in drafting, providing a scientific substantiation and implementing the referenced final exam format testifies to its high effectiveness. The format is particularly remarkable for enhancing motivation and creativity offering situations for potential success while working on the project.

In conclusion it should be noted that enhancement of FL teacher methodological competence may be accomplished subject to consistent implementation of a competency-based approach across all levels of university teacher training and in-service professional development.

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A Corpus-based Developmental Study of Syntactic Complexity in Chinese English Majors' Argumentative Writings

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Abstract: This longitudinal corpus-based study tracks the syntactic complexity in the writings of Chinese EFL learners. Interpreting the data from Dynamic Systems Theory (DST), using analytical tools to describe the developmental patterns, it finds that subcomponents of syntactic performance interact with each other in a competitive or supportive manner and thus take nonlinear and complex trajectories. The phrasal orientation and the stage characteristics serve as empirical evidence for the dynamics in second language development.

Keywords: *syntactic complexity, corpus-based, Dynamic Systems Theory, developmental study*

Introduction

Among the measures of development, complexity, accuracy, and fluency (known together as CAF) are most commonly used to assess learners' written and oral proficiency and to probe more deeply into the cognitive process of language learning (Ellis and Barkhuizen, 2005: 30).

As one of important dimensions of CAF, syntactic complexity, revealing syntactic variation and sophistication, describes "the range of syntactic structures that are produced and the degree of sophistication of such structures" (Lu, 2011: 36). This measure gains attention in L2 writing research in that "language development entails, among other processes, the growth of an L2 learner's syntactic repertoire and her or his ability to use that repertoire appropriately in a variety of situations" (Ortega, 2003: 492).

Among the development-tracking studies, limited by corpus availability and working load, the previous studies at home and abroad are either cross-sectional studies, i.e. comparing subject groups with different language proficiency(e.g., Lu, 2011; Bao Gui, 2009), or longitudinal research using fairly limited measures (e.g., Loban, 1976). More comprehensive and large-scale longitudinal research is badly needed to further examine the developmental pattern of syntactic complexity and theories focusing on dynamics are involved in explanation. Thus, this study conducts a longitudinal investigation of the syntactic complexity in the timed argumentative writings of the same group of subjects across 6 semesters (3 school years), from the perspective of Dynamic Systems Theory (DST for short), in the hope of offering empirical verification of related theory and pedagogical implications.

Literature Review

Syntactic Complexity: Definitions and Measurements

Until now, researchers have not reached consensus on definitions of syntactic complexity (e.g., Foster & Skehan, 1996; Wolfe-Quintero *et al,* 1998; Ortega, 2003, Lu, 2011). This concept has evolved from the early general syntactic maturity (Gaies, 1980) to specific variation and sophistication of the production units or grammatical structures in learners' output (Ortega, 2003, Lu, 2011). As a result of this divergence, the measures selected to gauge syntactic complexity vary from study to study. Ortega (2003) proposes that "length of production unit, amount of embedding, range of structural types, and sophistication of the particular structures deployed in production have all been the target of quantifications when characterizing syntactic complexity, resulting in a variety of global measures" (p. 492). She focuses on the six most frequently used syntactic complexity measures: mean length of sentence (MLS), mean length of T-unit (MLTU), mean length of clause (MLC), mean number of T-units per sentence (TU/S), mean number of clauses per T-unit (C/TU), and mean number of dependent clauses per clause (DC/C) (p. 496).

Lu (2010, 2011) expands this territory and uses as many as 14 measures to gauge syntactic complexity in the Syntactic Complexity Analyzer that he designed. They can be categorized into four subcategories: length, ratio of subordination, the amount of coordination and particular syntactic structure, some of them being used in this research.

Dynamic Systems Theory and Second Language Development

In spite of the flourishing of the second language acquisition theories since 1960s, none of them could offer a satisfactory explanation for the variability in second language development (van Dijk *et al*. 2011: 55-57). Recently, researchers begin to switch to Dynamic Systems Theory, in hope of finding some breakthrough in explaining second language development (van Geert 2008; de Bot, Lowie & Verspoor, 2007). DST offers a new way to investigate first and second language development and apply a new set of tools to analyze empirical data in linguistic research. Larsen-Freeman (2006) is a pioneer to explain CAF through a DST approach.

DST is centered on time and variability, so Ortega and Byrnes (2008) claim that "this theoretical approach is very well-suited to the longitudinal study of advanced language capacities" (p. 11). Recently, quite a few of researches have confirmed the dynamic nature of second language development (Larsen-Freeman, 2006; Verspoor *et al*., 2008; Zheng Yongyan, 2011; Han Dawei and Deng Qi, 2013, etc). However, there are only a few studies that have connected DST with syntactic complexity, leaving behind a potential gap to fill. Therefore, this study seeks to interpret the developmental pattern of syntactic complexity from a DST perspective.

Research Questions and Design

Research Questions

The data for study are derived from the self-compiled corpus – English Majors' Longitudinal Written Corpus. The criterion for development in this study is the passage of time – semesters. Both qualitative and qualitative analyses are employed, in the hope of revealing the developmental patterns of syntactic complexity of the English learners in the span of six semesters (three school years), and the research questions are as follows:

Question 1: What is the developmental pattern of syntactic complexity during the observed period?

Question 2: Are there any sequential features during the observed period?

The Self-compiled Corpus

The longitudinal corpus (107,907 tokens in total) consists of the timed argumentations written by the students in their terminal examination, from semester 1 to semester 6. The 79 subjects, enrolled in a key university in China, came from 12 different provinces from mainland China. The corpus contains six sub-corpora, consisting of the argumentations in six semesters respectively, with the mean length of them ranging from 183.0 words in the first semester to 310.9 words in the 6th semester.

Syntactic Complexity Measures Used in This Research

In measuring syntactic complexity, 6 indexes are selected, which are shown the Table 1**.**

Table 1 Syntactic Complexity Indexes in This Study

Indexes	Code	Calculation Method
mean length of T-unit	MLT	number of words divided by number of T-units
mean length of clause	MLC	number of words divided by number of clauses
T-unit complexity ratio	C/T	number of clauses divided by number of T-units
dependent clause ratio	DC/C	number of dependent clauses divided by number of clauses
complex nominal per T-unit	CN/T	number of complex nominals divided by number of T-units
verb phrases per T-unit	VP/T	number of verb phrases divided by number of T-units

The reason for choosing these indexes is that they are most widely adopted in the previous researches, as Ortega (2003) claims that "length of production unit, amount of embedding, range of structural types, and sophistication of the particular structures deployed in production have all been the target of quantifications when characterizing syntactic complexity" (p. 492), and "[they] were the most satisfactory measures, because they were associated linearly and consistently with programme, school, and holistic rating levels across the thirty-nine primary study reports" (p. 493). Indexes of CN/T and VP/T, as supplements can represent the particular structures of syntactic complexity (Lu, 2010; 2011).

Data Retrieving Tool

The retrieving tool employed in this study is the online L2 Syntactic Complexity Analyzer (www.personal.psu.edu/xxl13/downloads/l2sca.html), which was designed by Lu at the Center of Advanced Language Proficiency Education and Research (CALPER). This software can measure 14 variables of syntactic complexity that cover all the variables used in former syntactic complexity researches, and "the system achieves a high degree of reliability in terms of the syntactic complexity" (Lu, 2011: 489).

Findings and Discussion

In this study, the developmental pattern of syntactic complexity is gauged in three dimensions: length of production, embeddedness, and particular structures.

The Developmental Pattern of Length of Production

The measures of length of production are mean length of T-unit (MLT) and mean length of clause (MLC). Figure 1 shows the changing pattern of MLT and MLC in 6 semesters/terms.

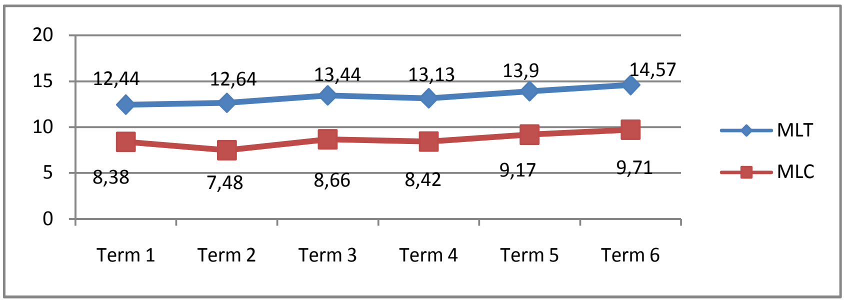

Figure 1. The Development of MLC and MLC over Six Terms

Figure 1 reveals the generally linear, yet moderately fluctuating changing patterns of MLT and MLC. MLT develops linearly during the first three terms, followed by a drop in the fourth term, then it develops linearly again across the last two terms. MLC fluctuates more in the first four terms, with a decline at the second term and the fourth term, then it develops linearly in the last two terms.

Table 2 presents One-way ANOVA of MLT and MLC across the six terms.

Table 2. One-way ANOVA of MLT and MLC in Six Terms

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
MLT	249.590	5	49.918	7.552	.000
MLC	227.750	5	45.550	22.888	.000

In this table, the F value of variance test of MLT and MLC is 7.552 and 22.888 respectively, and both of the significances are .000, which indicates there are significant differences in MLT and MLC. This finding is similar with those in other research (Lu, 2011).

The Developmental Pattern of Embeddedness

The indexes of embeddedness in this study are T-unit complexity ratio (C/T) and dependent clause ratio (DC/C). Figure 2 shows the changing pattern of DC/C and MLC in 6 terms.

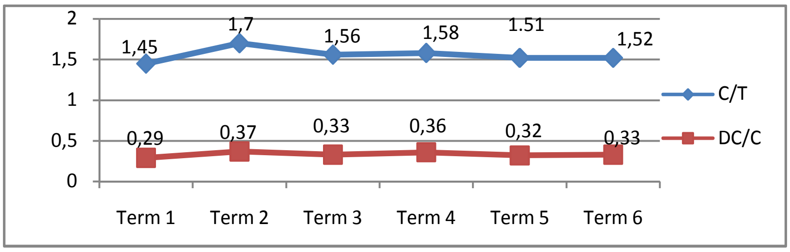

Figure 2. The Development of C/T and DC/C in Six Terms

Figure 2 shows that C/T fluctuates during the first four terms, then it maintains nearly the same level in the last two terms. The developmental tendency of DC/C fluctuates all the time across the six terms. Table 3 reveals the results of one-way ANOVA of C/T and DC/C during six terms.

Table 3. One-way ANOVA of C/T and DC/C in Six Terms

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
C/T	2.889	5	.578	7.284	.000
DC/C	.346	5	.069	7.957	.000

Table 3 exhibits the results of one-way ANOVA of C/T and DC/C during six terms, from which the F value of variance test can be seen as 7.284 and 7.957 respectively, and both of the significances are .000, smaller than .05. There exists significant difference in C/T and DC/C.

The Developmental Pattern of Particular Structures

The significance of studying particular structures (CN/T and VP/T) lies in the fact that they can be the supplement and verification in the explanation of the descending pattern of embeddedness. Figure 3 shows the changing pattern of CN/T and VP/T in students' argumentative writings.

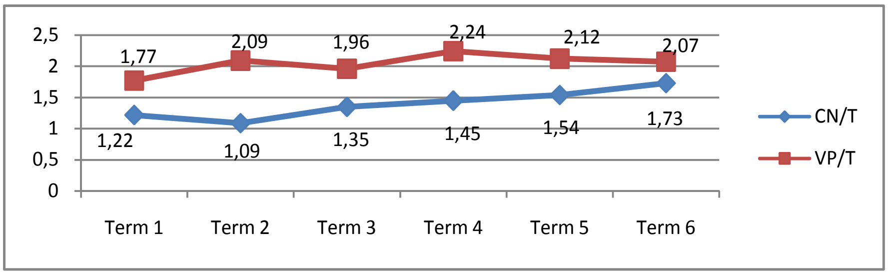

Figure 3. The Development of CN/T and VP/T in Six Terms

As can be seen in Figure 3, VP /T develops linearly on the whole except for a decline in Term 2. In terms of CN/T, it increases with fluctuations. Table 4 shows the one-way ANOVA of CN/T and VP/T across six terms.

Table 4. One-way ANOVA of CN/T and VP/T in Six Terms

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
CN/T	20.491	5	4.098	21.889	.000
VP/T	9.976	5	1.995	14.411	.000

Table 4 shows that the F value of variance test of CN/T and VP/T is 21.889 and 14.411 respectively, and both of the significances are .000, indicating there exists significant differences in CN/T and VP/T. This finding of particular structures is also almost in line with Lu's finding.

To sum up, compared with the moderately increasing tendency found in length (MLT and MLC) and embeddedness (C/T and DC/C), CN/T and VP/T show rather conceivable and apparent climbs. Therefore it can be inferred that the progress in syntactic complexity is not reflected on the clausal level, but on the phrasal level. This finding supports the previous hypothesis of Biber et al. (2011: 30) concerning the syntactic development stage.

From the perspective of DST, it can be tentatively inferred that there also exists attractor state and repellor state. Generally speaking, the first three terms represent the repellor state in that they have obvious and drastic improvement within the system. Similarly, the final three terms represent the attractor state due to their less-fluctuating state.

Conclusion

The learner longitudinal corpus-based exploration of syntactic growth from 6 indexes confirms the dynamicity of the growth of interlanguage as a complex system, which may have not yet been fully revealed and to some extent dependent on the technologies employed to uncover this complexity. There are certain limitations in this study in the aspects of the relatively limited amount of the corpus data, the single task of argumentation in writing. In view of the above imperfections, it is hoped that this research will trigger further explorations in this area. Universally applicable findings will shed more light on the development of learners' interlanguage.

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An Investigation of Code-mixing in Expanding Circles: Indonesians' Tweets

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Abstract: This study aims to find evidence that Indonesians code-mix English and Bahasa[1]. This research analysed tweets collected from Twitter API, using the Twitter Archiver Program on 29 November 2015. There were approximately 576 tweets used for data analysis. From the findings, Indonesian only tweets were the most dominant (57%). Nonetheless, it was evident that Indonesians used English in their tweets. They used English only (22%), and code-mixing of English and Indonesian (18%) and of English and local languages (3%).

Keywords: *code-mixing, expanding circles, Twitter, Twitter API, Bahasa Indonesia*

Introduction

The role of multilingualism in social media has received intense attention in the last few decades. Multilingualism has been inevitable because people from different countries make contact with each other (Lin & Li, 2012). To be able to communicate well, a universal language, *lingua franca,* spoken by both parties is important. Warschauer *et al.* (2010) noted that most interactions in the virtual world are in English. Nevertheless, not every person has the same ability in English, such a gap is noted by Kachru in his circle model (1985).

In addition, Eleta and Goldbeck (2014: 431) note that multilingual person's language choice in social media, especially Twitter, may be influenced by their networks. In other words, having multilingual connections means having greater possibility to code-switch their language in social media. Furthermore, McLellan (2010: 425) found three choices that can be made by an individual. The research question to lead this project is: "Does code-mixing of Bahasa and English occur in tweets created by Indonesians?"

Twitter as a Global Communication Platform

In Twitter, users can write about almost anything they like as long as it is under or exactly 140 characters. A posting in Twitter is often called a *tweet* which is also used to reply other users' tweets. Another function is called a *retweet* (sometimes written as "RT"), a way to repost others' tweets, which makes Twitter a great news-sharing platform (Rudat & Buder, 2015). Moreover, ability to link posts from other social media such as Facebook, Instagram, and Path gives users freedom to post not only written information, but also pictures.

Other unique distinction of Twitter is that it can be either an asynchronous form of online

[1] For the purpose of this study, *Bahasa* is Indonesian's official language: *Bahasa Indonesia*.

communication through its direct message feature or a synchronous one through its mentioning feature using a username. In addition, Twitter now also provides the ability to show replies chronologically, which is quite similar to online chatting. Moreover, the use of emoticons, abbreviations and acronyms is also similar to that in instant messaging (IM). All of these functions contribute to Twitter's position as a platform for global communication.

English in the expanding circle

As a *lingua franca*, English is probably the most commonly used language in the world. McArthur (2002: 13, cited in Zhichang, 2010: 282) claims English as "the world's default mode for communication." Nevertheless, not all parts of the world use English equally. To distinguish this, Kachru (1985) divides the use of English into three circles: (1) inner, (2) outer, and (3) expanding. While English is used greatly in circles (1) and (2), most countries in the expanding circle treat it as a foreign language. There have been numerous studies of how the use of English is influenced by a speaker's language repertoire or vice versa.

Expanding circle countries do not use English in their daily communication; therefore; Kachru (1985) claimed they are norm-dependent, dependent on the other two circles for their use of English. Nevertheless, Lam's study of English-Chinese bilingual chatrooms rejects this claim by showing that two different languages in contact create a "process of language socialization" that produces a variant of English with a specific "ethnic identification" (2004: 59). In addition, Zhang's study showed a "nativization" process of English through innovative usage of English, such as code-mixing of English and Chinese (Zhang, 2012: 42-51). It is interesting to note, however, that innovative usage of English by expanding circle countries occurrs not only in China. Code-mixing and code-switching of English and Russian are commonly used in lyrics sung by Russian rock-groups (Proshina, 2012: 305).

To date, however, published studies regarding code-mixing in expanding circle countries are limited to popular culture such as songs, advertisements and chatrooms. There are only a few studies of code-mixing in social media, particularly Twitter, in expanding circle countries. For this reason, it is interesting to find evidence that code-mixing also occurs in an expanding circle country, Indonesia. Indonesia is prominent because it has 29 million Twitter users, the fifth largest population of Twitter users worldwide (Lukman, 2013).

Code-mixing on Twitter

As a global platform, computer-mediated discourse (CMD) applications, such as Twitter, are mainly in English (Warschauer *et al.*, 2010: 490). Nevertheless, English is not the sole language used. When users make contact with multilingual users all over the world, the language used in their tweets may vary. As a result, code-switching may occur (Lin & Li, 2012). McLellan (2010: 425) argues there are three possible variations: (1) a local language, (2) an exonormative English, and (3) a mixed-code variety. These three language variations are the foci of this paper. Furthermore, I would like to see whether code-mixing of English and Indonesian occurs in tweets posted by Indonesians.

According to Lin and Li (2012: 470), code-switching can be divided into two classes: (1) inter-sentential code-switching and (2) intra-sentential code-switching. In addition, Muysken (2000) adds further classification of these two types. He calls inter-sentential code-switching "code-switching" and intra-sentential code-switching "code-mixing" (Muysken, 2000: 1). Muysken prefers "code-mixing" because he argues that code-switching isolates the mixing that occurs due to borrowing and interference (2000: 4). In addition, he claims that alternation code-mixing, which occurs either within a clause or between clauses, has the closest resemblance to code-switching.

Method

This paper analysed tweets posted near Jakarta, Indonesia, using Twitter API on 29 November 2015. Twitter API only allows 150 random tweets per collection in each 60-minute period; as a result, there were 3072 tweets collected by the program. 25% of these were chosen randomly. After 25% (768 tweets) of the random samples were selected, irrelevant data were eliminated. In other words, tweets containing only a link, username, a location, a retweet, an emoticon, a song title, and/or a picture were deleted. After this, 576 tweets were left, approximately 18.8% of the total postings.

To answer the research questions, the data were used as a snapshot of English-Bahasa code-mixing on Twitter. The tweets were classified into four groups: (1) English only, (2) Bahasa only, (3) a code-mix of Bahasa and English, and (4) a code-mix of English and a local language. It is important to note, however, that monolingual tweets in this context are "Bahasa- or English-only" tweets and informal variation on this.

Findings and discussion

As mentioned earlier, the corpus for the analysis consists of 576 randomly chosen tweets (18.75%) from a total of 3072 tweets. The classification of these tweets can be seen in Table 1. Appendix 1, under table heading C, provides the whole extracted analysis according to the classifications of Table 1.

Table 1 contains four classifications. Groups (1) and (4) cover code-mixing occurring in the discourse. They show that 18% of the 576 tweets are code-mixed tweets. From this percentage, it is evident that code-mixing exists among Indonesian Twitter users. Moreover, the code-mixed discourses contain not only Indonesian and English, but also other local languages (4). On the other hand, 79% (see (2) and (3)) of the corpus consists of either Indonesian or English only.

Table 1. Classification of the tweets

	Classification	Number of tweets	% of the total
1	Code-mix of Bahasa and English	103	18%
2	Indonesian only	328	57%
3	English only	126	22%
4	Code-mix of local language and English	19	3%
	Total	576	100%

Despite the existence of code-mixing, monolingual tweets dominate the whole corpus. This dominance of monolingual text compared to code-mixed texts also occurred in McLellan's study (50.2% as compared to 49.8%) (2010: 429). In addition, the big percentage of English-only tweets (22%) may be caused by the varied "language groups" of the users (Eleta & Golbeck, 2014).

Monolingual tweets

Tweet (1) is a monolingual tweet in Bahasa; Tweet (2) is in English.

(1) Pergiseneng ketemu raisa pulangnya sedih diomelin mama – 344,2,D
Leave happy meet NAME got home sad angry mom
feeling) happy when I leave to meet raisa, but sad when got home because my mom got angry

(2) Yesss... nice 3 points at home... Liverpool 1 - 0 Swansea. Well done REDS... – 449,3,D

Bilingual tweets

From this point in the discussion, code-mixed lexis will be signaled by a slash (/). Tweet (3) is in Bahasa although English lexical words are inserted. In tweet (3), an English phrase (/[d]) is inserted into an Indonesian clause (/[a-c]). It is common for Indonesian to use a borrowed noun. such as in (10), to replace an Indonesian noun (see appendix 1). One of the reasons why this borrowing happens might be the status of the English word which is seen as "cooler" than its Indonesian synonym.

Tweet (3) shows an example of an Indonesian-English variation. "otw" (/[f]) is an abbreviation for "on the way", a variation of "on my way" in common English. The word "otw" is commonly used by Indonesians not only in the virtual world, but also in real life. This case is an example of "localized vocabularies of English usage" (Bolton & Butler, 2008 cited in Martin, 2010: 253).

(3) Parkir motor,/[a] ganti mobil /[b]Lanjutttt/[c]otww/[d]
park bike change car continue 'on the way'
Parking (the) bike, change to the car, let's continue on the way…

(4) Kereeen./[e] Love this expressionism!/[f]
cool
Cool. Love this expressionism!

(5) Q.time.. Sushi time./[g] Its/[h] paporit bgt/[i]. Kurang/[j] mainstream/[k] klo gg difoto/[l]
Favorite very, less if NEG PASSIVE- photographed
Quality time, Sushi time. It's very favorite, (it will be) less mainstream if it didn't get photographed

In (4), an Indonesian clause (/[e]) was used before the user switched to English (/[f]) to express his/her feeling, using the word *love*. The user switched between Bahasa and English multiple times in (5): (/[g]), (/[h]) and (/[i]) are English-based clauses, although (/[i]) is Indonesian words. However, (/[i]) is not a suitable part of speech if translated literally into English; it is better to use an adjective (e.g. favourable or famous) instead of the noun (*favorit* is an Indonesian noun). On the other hand, (/[j]), (/[k]), and (/[l]) are Indonesian-based with (/[k]) being a borrowed English noun.

Conclusion

From the findings and discussion, it can be said that there are some limitations to the answers to the research questions. Firstly, not all the contexts of single tweets are understandable, such as in example (8) from the previous section. Secondly, as this corpus is a snapshot, the socio-historical context of certain words such as "otw" cannot be presented clearly. Nevetheless, it is evident from this corpus that Indonesians code-mix not only Indonesian with English, but also with local languages, such as Javanese and Sundanese, in their tweets. In addition, being a Muslim-dominated country, mixing with Arabic also occurs, although the majority of the samples are in Indonesian and its variants. Although there are a lot of borrowed words inserted in the tweets, Indonesian-English variants of English lexis (such as "otw" and "centernya") are also used. Finally, as McLellan (2010) suggests, a variety of choices were made in tweets posted by Indonesians.

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The Impact of Global English on the Russian System of Values

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Abstract: This paper explores the effects of global English on the perception of values in the Russian society. The power of the English language surrounds us. English is the language of globalization. The system of values is unique in every culture but the phenomenon of globalization the world faces today leads to the processes that can change it. Global English is one of the ways to introduce new concepts into the Russian society. The paper covers some Russian values and the ways they change affected by the penetration of global English into the Russian language and culture.

Key-words*: culture*, *globalization*, *global English*, *language*, *mentality*, *values*

Introduction

Nowadays we live in the era of globalization. The phenomenon of globalization and the need for an efficient way of communication around the globe are the reasons to adopt English as a *lingua franca*. Today English is the most widely used foreign language in the world. The power of the English language surrounds us. English is the language of globalization (and the language for global communication). English dominates all the aspects of our life and we can see it everywhere.

There are certain concerns in the world about the impact the English language has not only on the local languages but on the local cultures as well.

Cultures and languages are not separated from each other and they are constantly changing. Sometimes the reasons for these changes are contacts with other cultures and languages (Foley, 1997). Globalization makes these contacts closer and it leads to the changes of the system of values in the world. Old values and lifestyles are swept away under the influence of globalization and Englishization (Graddol, 2007). David Graddol in his book *English Next* tells about the surveys in the USA showing that people with little or no mastery of English (Spanish-dominant Latinos) have amazingly different opinions on many controversial social issues (Graddol, 2007).

So English has become the predominant language of the globe and Russia is no exception to this predominance. The presence of English is felt everywhere in Russia: advertising, mass media, brands, labels, etc. Moreover the influence of the English language is constantly growing. The spread of English words in the Russian language brings different changes concerning not only the Russian language itself but the Russian culture and consciousness.

Global English is one of the ways to introduce new concepts into the Russian society today. Language and consciousness are interdependent and the appearance of new words brings the appearance of new concepts and ideas in the Russian mentality.

Values are one of the most important things in any culture. They make up the core of the culture and they lie at the core of life and human action (Lebedko, 1999). Values are unique in every culture and every culture has its own system of values. Russian values differ greatly from English and American values as we belong to different cultures and speak different languages but currently the processes of globalization and Englishization make us change the values we used to have. The dominance of the English language as a global language has its powerful effect on the Russian system of values.

To illustrate this idea numerous examples were selected from mass media sources. The examples given show changes in the perception of values in the Russian society under the influence of global English.

Icon

This is a sacred concept for every Russian Christian. The meaning of the word in the Russian language is: *икона* – живописное изображение Бога или святого (святых), являющееся предметом религиозного поклонения; образ / *icon* – a colourful picture of God or a holy person (persons), used in religious worship; a sacred image (Kuznetsov, 2000).

The English word "icon" has the meaning of "someone who is very famous and who people think represents a particular idea" (*Macmillan Dictionary*). This meaning of the word is not registered in Russian dictionaries. But we can see the use of the word in the Russian language with the meaning borrowed from English. Examples:

> Среди российских имён настоящими **иконами** стиля, достойными подражания, я бы назвал актрису Ренату Литвинову, Надежду Бабкину и Эвелину Хромченко. / I would say that among Russian names Renata Litvinova, Nadezhda Babkina and Evelina Chromchenko are really exemplary **icons** of style (*Argumenty i Facty*).

> Дэвид Бэкхем является совершенным образцом современного мужчины, чья слава выходит далеко заграницы спортсмена. Он узнаваем во всем мире, **икона** современной мужественности и магнит для фотографов. / David Beckham is a perfect example of a modern man whose fame is far beyond the limits of a sportsman. He is recognized around the world, **an icon** of modern masculinity and a magnet for photographers (*Posta magazine*).

As we can see the sacred word is used in the glamorous meaning that was quite strange for a Russian speaker some years ago but now it is quite common in Russia to say so.

Materialism

The value is more common for the American society while in Russia people were always considered to be more spiritually-oriented than materialistic. Russians have such a concept as “духовность”. *Духовность* – свойство души, состоящее в преобладании духовных, нравственных и интеллектуальных интересов над материальными. / *Dukhovnost* – the quality of one’s soul involving the dominance of spiritual, moral and intellectual interests over material ones (Ozhegov, 1997). The concept was always valuable in the culture, but nowadays Russian people are becoming more and more pragmatic and materialistic. Such words as *лакшери, тренд, бренд, шопинг, консьюмеризм, гламур, фашионистa, фашионизм / luxury, trend, brand, consumerism, glamour, fashionist, fashionism* appeared in the language bringing new concepts and changing the values and the attitude towards them. It seems to have become a trend to be fashionable and to consume much luxury. Many years ago in the times of the Soviet Union, when people had no opportunity to buy all these brands and to follow the trends, the values were somewhat different but nowadays the situation has changed dramatically. More examples:

> В **«лакшери»** стоимость вечеринок и подавно осталась на прежнем уровне. / In a **“luxury”** segment the price for parties is all the more on the previous level (*Moskovsky Komsomolets*).

> Вообще слово **«гламур»** у нас стало вторым по популярности. Сразу после «привет». Глянцевую жизнь возвели в культ. / Generally we made the word **“glamour”** the second popular word coming right after “hello”. Glamorous life has become a cult (*Moskovsky Komsomolets*).

> Со-основателем и вдохновителем Villoid стала одна из самых узнаваемых мировых **fashionistas**, признанная икона стиля Алекса Чанг. / One of the famous world **fashionistas**, a recognized icon of style Alexa Chang became the co-founder and the inspirer of Villoid (*Posta Magazine*).

> Этот **тренд** мы не оставим в уходящем году, а возьмем с собой в новый: пайетки и металлик будут одной из ведущих тенденций сезона весна-лето 2016. / We won’t leave this **trend** in this year but we’ll bring it into the new one: sequins and metallic will be one of the popular trends of the 2016 Spring/Summer season (*Posta Magazine*).

Time

In Russia people did not use to value time and especially deadlines, there was not even such a word in the language but now the English word “deadline” has been borrowed and in many situations Russians can use it. There even appeared a saying in Russia “Есть ли дедлайн у дедлайна?” / Is there a deadline for a deadline?. Example:

> Собственно, по одному из этих займов **дедлайн** погашения и наступил в среду, 23 сентября. / The **deadline** to pay one of those loans was on Wednesday, September 23 (*Argumenty i Facty*).

Individualism

There was not such a value in the Russian values systems before as the Russian society was considered to be collectivist and people thought about themselves as a part of a collective (or a group). The situation has greatly changed and the English language has brought such words as “privacy” and “private”. So Russians started to value *приватность* and *приваси* / *privacy*.

> В раздевалке можно занять место на открытых диванчиках, а для любителей **приватности** есть места за занавесками. / You can sit on the sofas in the locker room and there are also places behind the curtains for those who like **privacy** (*Argumenty i Facty*).

In Russia people used to say *наша страна, наш город* / *our country, our city* etc. Nowadays it is more common to say *моя страна, мой город* / *my country, my city* etc.

> На протяжении последних 20 лет я пытаюсь показать то, что происходит **в моей стране,** дать людям чуть больше понятия о том, чем мы знамениты и как много у нас недостатков. / I have been trying to show what is happening in **my country** for the last 20 years, to give people more ideas of what we are famous for and how many shortcomings we have (*RBK Daily*).

Conclusion

The examples demonstrate that English has become a global language in Russia today. Russia has to deal with the effects of English that are felt in all the aspects of life. The Russian language absorbs new words as the Russian mentality absorbs new concepts and ideas. The Russian society is rapidly changing influenced by global English and the processes of globalization but there is a hope that it will preserve its cultural and national identity in the era of nationalization and globalization.

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Relevance of Social Factors in Borrowed Words Assimilation

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Abstract: This paper is devoted to the issue of borrowed words adaptation in the recipient language and the role of such social factors as age, gender and knowledge of the English language in this process. Special attention is paid to calques as a specific type of borrowings. The results of the conducted experiment are presented in order to establish the importance of the above-mentioned factors in assimilation of structural calques and half-calques.

Keywords: *borrowings*, *calque*, *assimilation of borrowed words*, *social factors*, spread of English

Introduction

Interaction with people is a key factor of everyday life, development and progress in any society. Due to modern technical advances and globalization of the world in general human interaction crosses the borders of monolingual communication and becomes multilingual. English commandeers this type of communication between interlocutors of whatever linguistic origin, that is why its influence on the world languages has become unprecedented. Such influence is reflected worldwide in increasing the number of people who study the English language, success of English-speaking culture in the form of music, books and cinema, and, of course, its impact on national languages.

Language Borrowing and Its Characteristics

One inevitable result of language contact is a transfer of words and word partnerships from one language to another. This phenomenon is known in linguistics as “borrowing”, “borrowed word” or “loan word”, and, if defined broadly, refers to “words that at some point in the history of language entered its lexicon as a result of borrowing (transfer or copying)” (Haspelmath, 2009: 36). Technically, all of the suggested terms are based on the metaphoric idea of something being taken from one person (or language, in this case) for temporary use in order to be given back after some time. But in the sphere of language this metaphor is not exactly correct since a borrowed word is not removed from the source language if borrowed into another, and it does not come back to it after a certain time period of functioning in the target language. Unlike other borrowed objects, words exist in both original and receiving cultures and have their own life and development patterns in the target language.

Due to their variety, borrowed words can be classified based on different criteria, e.g. the original language they came from, the level of assimilation in the target language, the frequency of their usage in the new medium, whether they have synonymous items in the target language and, naturally, the mechanisms that were used for transferring a borrowing from one language into another. This latter criterion is especially relevant for contacting languages having different alphabetic and phonetic structure, like English and Russian, which means that borrowed words have to go through a set of transformations in order to achieve a form acceptable in a certain target language.

The mechanisms of transferring new words from one language into another include adaptation of phonetic image of the original word using alphabetic means of the target language (transcription), replication of the written form without copying the original pronunciation patterns (transliteration) and translation of the whole word/word partnership into the target language thus creating a new item (calque). Since this paper is based on the studying of the latter ones, it is deemed necessary to reflect on them in more details. According to Vinay and Darbelnet (1995), calques are “a special kind of borrowing when the TL borrows an expression form of the SL but then translates its elements literally” (p. 32). This form of borrowing is mostly used for transferring complex words or set expressions where transcription and transliteration prove to be less effective. Also calques may alter the original meaning due to collocation patterns and relationship with other words (Fisiak, 1995: 255).

Usually a borrowed word has to undergo certain phases of adaptation in the new medium. Herrera Soler suggests three stages:

- crude borrowing – with no alterations of the original item;
- acclimatization – developing grammar patterns in the structure of the target language;
- naturalization – involves development of semantic structure, word formation, metaphoric usage in various contexts (1993: 99-100).

Some linguists also point out that the ultimate stage of adaptation process is inclusion into dictionaries of the target language. But modern dictionaries do not always keep up with the pace of the borrowing processes, so if a word does not feature in a dictionary this is not a reason to exclude them from the target language vocabulary. As for calques, usually they can be easily adapted or they do not need adaptation due to their being composed out of the target language means that makes them look like a part of the receiving culture already. They can be identified as borrowed ones, though, based on non-characteristic composition of a word partnership or its etymology.

Since every society is not a homogeneous structure and includes people of different backgrounds, status and life experience, we shall take into consideration the social factors involved into assimilation of borrowed words. The variety of all social factors includes age, gender, knowledge of the foreign language, education level, occupation, subcultural identity, etc. For the purposes of this study we focused on the first three and their influence on borrowings in the target language. In terms of age relevance, Eckert notes that, younger generation is more receptive to borrowed words while older generation tends to stay more conservative in their speech and mostly resists foreign words. The group of 30-40 years remains neutral to borrowings neither promoting nor resisting them (1997: 157). Speaking about gender factor, there are no certain views upon its role in the process of borrowing. That is why we predict three possible routes of gender involvement: a) women adopt borrowed words easier because they are more adaptive to changes, b) men use borrowings more frequently since men are more proficient in the areas of technology where many foreign words come from, c) gender does not have significant influence on adaptation of borrowed words.

Experiment

In order to establish the relevance of social factors in assimilation of borrowed words, namely calqued ones, we conducted an experiment that took place in 2013 from July to August. A list of 64 lexical units borrowed from English into Russian by means of literal translation was placed online via Google Disk application. The list contained 56 structural calques and eight half-calques. Respondents were asked to read the suggested lexical units and evaluate them from the following standpoints:

- awareness of the unit in Russian,

– knowing their meaning.

Also the respondents were asked to state their age, gender and how well they know English. The study is based on information from 273 respondents. Having collected the data we counted the result and determined whether the factors of age, gender and English knowledge played any significant part in assimilation of calqued borrowings.

In terms of the age factor we established that word partnerships that had been transferred to Russian via translating the whole English item (structural calques) show very high percentage in all age groups with a very slight decrease of awareness for the 41-60-aged respondents. The bigger difference in recognizing the borrowed words was denoted in case of half-calques or those words that have retained their original English root, and their Russian equivalent has a transcribed/transliterated root and a Russian inflexion facilitating the functioning of a new word in the Russian language (e.g., to Google – гуглить, clickable – кликабельный). Meaning of these borrowings was more familiar to younger generation, and the awareness level decreased as the age grew (Table 1). That means that age factor is more relevant for adaptation of those borrowings that still has an element of their original language while in case of structural calques this factor appears to be insignificant. We can assume that younger generation is more active in delivering new words from English and using them, while older generations feel more comfortable with words having familiar appearance.

Table 1. Age

	18-25	**26-40**	**41-60**
Number of respondents	151	153	18
Frequently seen, meaning clear	59,5%	58%	55%
Unknown	14,5%	14%	16%
Structural calques	58% vs. 15%	58% vs. 14%	56%-15%
Half-calques	70% vs. 9%	64% vs. 12%	43%-22%

Another social factor under consideration was gender. Earlier we suggested three possible types of gender influence on assimilation of borrowed words. Having evaluated the result of our questionnaire, we now can state that gender does not play any significant role in this process, because both female and male groups showed similar results of being familiar with the given borrowings. As it is reflected in Table 2, there is a slightly higher level of recognition of structural calques among females that is countered by a higher level of knowing half-calques among men, but we believe this difference in numbers to be insufficient for recognizing gender as an important factor in adaptation of calqued borrowings.

Table 2. Gender

	FEMALE	**MALE**

Number of respondents	203	69
Frequently seen, meaning clear	59%	57%
Unknown	15%	14%
Structural calques	59% vs. 15%	55% vs. 14%
Half-calques	65% vs. 12%	69% vs. 7%

As we move to the factor of knowledge of English, it is worth saying that this is probably the most relevant factor of all since we deal with translated borrowings, and, obviously, translation relies heavily on knowing the language it operates with. That is why the results for this factor appear to be quite predictable, and Table 3 clearly shows us the dependence of fluency in the foreign language on the success of borrowings' adaptation. It also shows that half-calques are more dependent on how well the Russian-speaking respondents know the borrowed items, since the difference in this percentage is more pronounced. Also we can state that among our respondents the general level of English was very high, that resonates with the above-mentioned notion of the fact that contacts with English-speaking cultures promote foreign language learning.

Table 3. Knowledge of English

	Fluent	**Reading and speaking skills**	**Reading with dictionary**	**No English skills**
Number of respondents	104	102	59	7
Frequently seen, meaning clear	61%	60%	53%	56%
Unknown	14%	13%	16%	26%
Structural calques	60% vs. 15%	59% vs. 14%	52% vs. 16%	58% vs. 24%
Half-calques	67% vs. 10%	70% vs. 8.5%	60% vs. 14%	46% vs. 39%

Conclusion

Based on the results of the conducted research we can draw a number of conclusions. Out of three social factors (age, gender, knowledge of the English language) the most important one for successful adaptation of calqued borrowings proved to be the knowledge of the foreign language. This outcome is not only predictable due to the fact that these borrowings result from literal translation from English that requires a good knowledge of this foreign language, but it also shows that the English language is popular with Russian people. This allows us to predict that as the knowledge of English continues to grow, so will the amount of borrowings, including the calqued ones. Age and gender did not appear to have any pronounced role in calques adaptation. The only notable effect on this process can be stated for half-calques that were more familiar to younger generation. That is why we can assume that younger generation plays a major role in assimilation of foreign words still containing a part of original language. Since our research was conducted via Internet that has become one of the biggest communication platforms and the largest source of information, we can also provide a brief social portrait of the most socially active person based on the composition of our respondent group. The results of the study show that the most socially active person proved to be a young woman with good knowledge of English that will probably be the most active promoter of foreign words in the Russian language.

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Intersemiotic Approach: Comparative Analysis of Original and Translated Dramatic Texts

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Abstract: The donor culture (Western culture) and the culture-recipient (Russian culture) are viewed as two different semiotic systems. Original and translated texts are analyzed as products of these different semiotic systems. Since the Russian culture of the 20th century lacked developed traditions of theatre of absurd, it seems logical to suggest that the culture-recipient lacked a certain part of the cultural code, present in the donor culture. As a result, full and successful decoding of dramatic texts, composed by absurdist playwrights, was impeded. Moreover, certain distortions of the authors' individual styles can be found in the existing translation of plays into the Russian language.

Keywords: *intersemiotic approach, cultural code, translation, absurdist playwrights*

Introduction

While studying original texts of various playwrights that represent the theatre of absurd, namely, Harold Pinter (*Betrayal*), Edward Albee (*The Zoo Story*) and Tom Stoppard (*The Real Thing*), and their existing translations into the Russian language, it becomes clear that those texts are actually very different. Of course, the story is the same, but in terms of emotional impact that is produced and feelings that are evoked, the differences are quite significant. As it turned out after a more thorough analysis had been carried out, these texts are also dissimilar in terms of the way language works in them and in terms of those expressive means that the playwrights and the translators of the texts used. This will later be illustrated using the example of Harold Pinter's play *Betrayal* and its translation into the Russian language.

Harold Pinter, being one of the most prominent absurdist playwrights, uses lots of repetitions in his plays. This creates the impression that characters in his play lack the desire to communicate. It also gives the impression that they see no point to communicate with each other whatsoever. On the contrary, the translated text does not evoke the same feelings. Trying to find a logical explanation to that, we followed such researchers, as Y. Lotman (2002), P. Pavi (1991), J. Alter (1990), E. Aston and G. Savona (1991), F. de Toro and C. Hubbard (1995), who suggest approaching theatre as a semiotic system. Theatre is viewed as a system that includes a number of components, first part being, of course, the written text of the play, but also the set, the costumes, the intonations, and the ways people interact with each other. All of those parts and elements stem from the text. Everything, including the gestures and the movements that characters would make on the stage comes from the text. Therefore, it is very important to bear in mind when we approach dramatic texts. Eventually the story is going to appear on the stage, and for the production to be effective and convey whatever the playwright wanted to say, it is essential to understand how the language helped him to put his ideas into words, to take notice of what particular language means the author used and how these means allow to produce the intended impact on recipients. These texts are also very different from other texts that are intended to be read, because, as E. Bentley (1964) and L. G. Kirszner and S. R. Mandell (1991) point out, dramatic texts are more intended to be acted out than read, which also affect the way the language works in theatre plays.

The act of translation is regarded as the act of interpretation by various researchers, including I. Arnold (1974), L. Batkin (1994), Y. Lotman (2001) and others. Interpretation, in turn is closely connected with perception. It cannot be denied that external factors have huge influence on forming so-called "tools" of perception, which are different in every culture. Culture has a tremendous impact on our perception (Popovic, 1980). If an author belongs to a particular culture, in our particular case, the culture of absurd, he would use particular tools to convey the meaning that he deemed necessary to convey. These tools would only be possible to choose for someone who is familiar with this culture. The translators of those texts lived in a completely different cultural environment. There was none of the theatre-of-absurd-philosophy in the Soviet Union, where all of the translators came from. So their choice of expressive means was determined by a very different cultural context. This would be a logical explanation of why original and translated texts produce such a tremendously different impact.

Different features of two different semiotic systems (theatre of absurd in the West and theatre of social realism in the Soviet Union) are presented in the table below:

Theatre of absurd and theatre of social realism: two different semiotic systems

Theatre of social realism	Theatre of absurd
Strong influence of Soviet ideology	Formed after WWII; strong feelings of loss, no sense of security, no confidence in the future
Theatre as a tool for promoting ideas of the Revolution; Theatre takes a major part in forming the image of a Soviet citizen, loyal to the existing ideology	Absurdity of human existence
Plots worship the victory of the Revolution, the predominance of communal over personal	Denial of realistic, narrative plot; Plays reflect not reality, but rather personal, spiritual experience
Storyline is in focus of attention	A person's inner world and his attempts to find himself in this absurd world are in focus of attention
Dramatization of prose works; Language of prose; characters talk and make sure the action unfolds	The language demonstrates lack of communication and/or lack of desire to communicate

As can be seen from the table, the two systems really had nothing in common. Absurdity of human existence, the cornerstone of the absurdist philosophy, was something truly unspeakable in the Soviet Union, where theatre was considered to be one of the main tools for controlling the society. Plots of plays in the USSR worshiped the victory of the revolution, while absurdists in their plays dwelled on and tried to express personal and spiritual experiences. People had nothing to believe in, nothing to hold on to in the world that seemed so absurd. This was what characters try to cope with and deal with. In the USSR it was the storyline that was the focus of attention: what happens, when it happens, how it happens. Not necessarily why it happens. People were talking to each other to make sure the action developed. They also wanted to achieve some goal as they were communicating. On the other hand, in works by absurdist playwrights people did not want to communicate with each other, they were talking to themselves in order to figure out what was happening with them, why it was happening with them and where they stood in this absurd world.

Two different semiotic systems used two very different codes – expressive means that the playwrights and the translators of those plays used. Their cultural backgrounds were utterly dissimilar; of course, the systems of codes that they used for coding and decoding information were not similar either. Hence, the texts that were created in these two systems were not and could not be similar. It was not possible to create the translated text that would have the same impact on the reader and then on the viewer or on the listener.

This will now be illustrated with an abstract from Harold Pinter's play *Betrayal*. The plot integrates different permutations of betrayal relating to a seven-year affair involving a married couple, Emma and Robert, and Robert's "close friend" Jerry, who is also married, to a woman named Judith. For five years Jerry and Emma carry on their affair without Robert's knowledge, until Emma, without telling Jerry she has done so, admits her infidelity to Robert (in effect, betraying Jerry), although she continues their affair. In 1977, four years after exposing the affair (in 1973) and two years after their subsequent break up (in 1975), Emma meets Jerry to tell him that her marriage to Robert is over. She then lies to Jerry in telling him that, "last night", she had to reveal the truth to Robert and that he now knows of the affair. The truth however, is that Robert has known about the affair for the past four years.

The following abstract is a part of the dialogue between Robert and Jerry that takes place after Emma tells Jerry she and Robert are not together anymore. Jerry is quite taken aback by the fact that Robert has long known about the affair, which means that Emma has just lied to him:

Original	**Translation**
Robert: […] So she didn't have to tell me again last night. Because I knew. And she knew I knew because she told me herself four years ago.	Роберт: Так что ей незачем было мне снова рассказывать вчера. Потому что я **уже** знал **все это**. И она знала, что я знаю, потому что она сама же и рассказала мне все четыре года назад.
Jerry: What?	Джерри: Как **же так**?
Robert: […] I thought you knew.	Роберт: А я думал, ты знаешь **об этом**.
Jerry: Knew what?	Джерри: О чем – **об этом**?
Robert: That I knew. That I've known for years. I thought you knew that.	Роберт: **О том**, что я знаю. **О том**, что я уже давным-давно все знаю. Я думал, ты об этом знаешь.
Jerry: You thought I knew?	Джерри: Ты думал, что я знаю?
Robert: She said you didn't. But I didn't believe that. Anyway, I think I thought you knew. But you say you didn't? (Pinter, 1981: 182)	Роберт: Она мне сказала, что ты не знаешь. Но я не поверил. Так или иначе, я, **насколько мне помнится**, думал **все же**, что ты знаешь. (Pinter, 2006: 467)

In Pinter's text one man, Jerry, is shocked and cannot believe the woman he loved lied to him, and the second man, Robert, does not really care about this conversation. Jerry tries to wrap his mind around the fact that now he is the one that has been betrayed; Robert, apparently, has long put up with the thought that his marriage is a mess. None of the two is really interested in bringing this conversation to a logical end. This is the effect, created by numerously repeated words and phrases that are not really joined to one another whatsoever. The characters are going in circles, saying something just for the sake of saying something.

In the translated text, on the contrary, there is an attempt to make the whole situation more logical and easier to follow. Words highlighted in bold do not exist in the original text. These are the words that translators added. They are mostly particles and conjunctions, which serve a very particular purpose in the Russian language. They help build logical liaisons, logical connections in the conversation. People use them when they want to connect their idea to whatever was said previously and when they want to make sure whoever they are talking to is following them. This means that translators tried to make the text more logical. Perhaps, this happened because according to the Soviet traditions of social realism whatever happened on the stage had to be logical and come to some point. That is why the text was filled with these connecting devices, and, therefore, the mood of the scene was altered. This is not a meaningless conversation between the two men, one of whom is shocked and the other one does not care. It is the conversation between the two people who are trying very hard to find out what has actually happened.

Conclusion

To sum up everything mentioned above, it is the cultural context that shapes individuals' perception and determines which tools will be used to interpret various cultural phenomenon. Therefore, it seems only logical that dramatic texts, created in two different cultural environments, differ so drastically.

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Nativization of Eastern-Asiatic English Language Journalism

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Abstract: This article covers the outcomes of the research devoted to the analysis of modern Eastern-Asiatic journalism in the English language from the position of its nativization in the oriental socio-cultural environment.

Keywords: *Eastern-Asiatic English language journalism, centrifugal journalism, centripetal journalism, aggressive-centrifugal journalism, moderate-centripetal journalism*

Introduction

This article is devoted to the specifics of Eastern-Asiatic journalism in the English language. In spite of the fact that publications in foreign languages do not cover an essential part of China's, Japan's and Korea's mass media they represent a very interesting object for the World Englishes paradigm investigations.

First of all, media discourse is based upon socio-political and socio-cultural factors. The English language media discourse created in non-English socio-cultural environment vividly demonstrates the process of hybridization of World Englishes in the field of intensive and important intercultural contacts.

Secondly, any periodicals are characterized by repeatability and institutionalization allowing to fixate the most regular tendencies in the interaction of two language variants.

Thirdly, the socio-cultural nature of media discourse stipulates its study from the positions of specific world view of Eastern-Asiatic nations reflected in it.

The English language journalism in Eastern-Asiatic countries

The empiric material for the research was selected from modern China's, Japan's and Korea's mass media in the English language. It includes 2125 printed and 406 on-line issues of such popular periodicals as *China Daily*, *Business Weekly*, *21st Century*, *Global Times*, *China Informed*, *The Japan Times*, *The Daily Yomiuri*, *International Herald Tribune*/*The Asahi Shimbun*, The *Korea Times*, *The Korea Herald*, *Beijing Review*, *The Japan Times*, *Tokyo Journal International Magazine*, *The Korea Post* and *Rodong Sinmun*. All selected materials were published in the period from 2010 up to 2016. Their analyses focused upon the following issues:

1. What is the content of Eastern-Asiatic periodicals in the English language?
2. Who are the authors of the English language Eastern-Asiatic publications?
3. Who are the readers of Eastern-Asiatic periodicals in the English language?

The comparative analysis of China's, Japan's and Korea's press in English shows that the answers are closely connected with every nation's mentality which is reflected in such indicators as the role of English in the life of a country and the attitude of the country's population to foreigners.

The development of English in China is characterized by two controversial tendencies. On the one hand, China's population demonstrates evident interest for its learning. On the other hand, English still takes the position in the periphery of life remaining the language of minority, complicated and useless for most of China's residents. Among the main factors of such situation are primary employment of China's population in agriculture and traditional approach to education as to the process of teaching mother tongue. Most of modern scholars also emphasize the fact that China people negatively perceive "America-centered" character of modern mass media and Internet (Tsaendzhavyn, 2016). China's press became one of the efficient instruments for "Asiatic content" expansion all over the world. With the help of the English language China's newspapers and magazines tell about the life of their state and popularize national culture. 80% of the English language publications are devoted to inner problems of China and only 20% of them cover foreign issues. 75% of the published materials are created by Chinese journalists who know the language and are treated as the most experienced media men. They usually put down their names or affiliations and sometimes e-mail addresses before the materials. 15% of the publications belong to English native speakers who live and work in China, 7% are represented by the reprints taken from international mass media (*Reuters*, *Associated Press*, *Agency France-Press*, etc.) and 3% of the materials do not have any references to their authors.

In Japan the knowledge of English is considered to be an essential factor of future successful career. It became the obligatory part of all schools curricula. All universities' applicants must pass a very difficult entrance exam on this subject. More and more Japanese children go abroad to improve their language competence. At the same time most of observers consider that in general Japan's residents do not know English well and usually are not able to communicate easily with foreigners. According to J. D'Angelo (2014), for 50 years Japan has been practicing undesirable model of native speakers in teaching English. Y. Yano (2011) stated, "This model is related to the political tradition of Japan's ruling circles demonstrating the complex of deep inferiority to the representatives of Western civilization" (p. 132). It is oriented only upon native speakers' norms and ignores local culture and educational traditions. Most of Japanese consider the norms of British and American language variants to be the untouchable standard. These specifics are mirrored in the English language journalism of Japan. Most of its publications (75%) cover the problems outside Japan or the opinions of foreign experts about inner problems of Japan. Japan's press became one of the instruments for "non-Asiatic content" spread in the countries of Eastern Asia. 67% percent of all published materials are represented by the reprints taken from foreign newspapers and magazines, 25% of the publications are created by Japanese journalists and 8% of the materials do not have any references to their authors. Most of newspapers and magazines give more space for the reprints from English-speaking countries mass media than for the materials of native journalists. For example, *The Daily Yomiuri* or *International Herald Tribune/The Asahi Shimbun* leave only three or four last pages for native journalists who very often prefer not to put their names before publications hiding them behind affiliations or omitting them at all. It is explained by the tradition of collective responsibility formed in Japan's mass media when the whole stuff, not a single newsman, incurs a liability for published information.

Any discussion of the English language journalism in Korea should take into account the Korea peninsula division into two states: South and North Korea. In South Korea the English language is becoming more and more popular. It also became the obligatory part of educational system as in Japan. This country sends annually to the USA more students than any other country on the planet. But the results of all these activities are rather modest. Korea takes the 111th place from 147 countries in TOEFL scores; almost all residents of this state know some English words and phrases, any professional is able to read the text on specialty, but the person with fluent English is still a rarity. The methods of teaching English in the country are almost the same as in Japan. They are primarily focused upon formation of reading, writing and grammar skills. Besides, the mentality of South Koreans is characterized by cautious attitude to foreigners who are usually treated as something alien. In traditionally closed Korean society the stimulus for foreign culture perception is not leading one and stipulated only by practical needs. 57% of all selected publications are devoted to South Korea domestic problems (Parliamentary debates, Cabinet reshuffles, etc.), 23% of them cover the problems of the Pacific Rim countries, the rest of the publications (20%) are devoted to foreign affairs (predominantly to economic issues which could affect South Korea). 53% of the published materials belong to Korean journalists who put their names before and e-mail addresses after their materials in order to provide the feedback links for their readers. 27% of the publications belong to foreign journalists, 18% represent the reprints from international mass media and 2% do not have any references to their authors.

According to Lee Sun-Hwa, “The use of English in education on the territory of North Korea is essentially restricted and evidently affected by ideology” (1996: 179). In this situation the fact of the English language newspapers existence in this country itself could be treated as the form of ideology aiming to cast back North Korea’s isolation. The main goal of North Korean journalism in English is to disseminate the particular “ideological content” over the world. 87% of all materials from *Rodong Sinmun* describe the achievements of the country; praise its Government and ideas of Juche. 13% of the publications cover foreign affairs (predominantly Pacific Rim politics) in the ideologically-motivated contexts. 100% of the materials belong to North Korean journalists who either state their names or affiliations after publications or omit them.

Eastern-Asiatic newspapers and magazines in English have much common in their readers. Most of them are published for foreign users and home highly-qualified specialists who work in the fields of international cooperation. This can be supported by numerous facts. For instance, *Top Headlines Today* is subscribed mainly by 65 000 embassies’ employees, representatives of big international and transnational corporations; the biggest amount of interactive contacts of *The Korea Post Online* is with its users from abroad; *The Korea Post* is predominantly popular among English native speakers; only foreign residents could be the readers of *Rodong Sinmun* as the Internet is legally prohibited on the territory of North Korea.

Conclusion

The notion of Eastern-Asiatic journalism covers the periodicals of China, Japan, South Korea and North Korea. In spite of the facts that all of them belong to the same discourse and most of their readers are foreigners or representatives of national elites they essentially differ from each other. The primary goal of China's journalism in the English language is in sharing the information about the country outside its boundaries and promotion of "Asiatic content" in the world by hands of Chinese media men. This kind of journalism could be conventionally called "centrifugal". The aim of the English language Japan's journalism is to present the information about foreign affairs or opinions of outside observers on inner problems of the country which is done mainly by non-native newsmen. The journalism of this type could be named "centripetal". The press of South Korea is concentrated upon regional problems and created by both native and foreign journalists. It is called "moderate-centripetal". The journalism of North Korea in the English language is the product of propaganda aiming to spread globally the particular ideological views and assessments. This kind of journalism could be called "aggressive-centrifugal". The role and place of English mass media in every Eastern-Asiatic country are essentially influenced by its population's mentality which includes the perception of outer world, attitude to foreigners and foreign languages.

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A Comparison of Shell Nouns Used by Chinese and Swedish

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Abstract: Based on the cohesion theory and lexico-grammatical patterns put forward by Schmid, this study compares five shell nouns used in the compositions of Chinese and Swedish university students. The results are as follows. (1) Compared with Swedish students, Chinese students use less shell nouns. (2) The lexico-grammatical patterns used by Chinese are not as diverse as those used by Swedish students. While Chinese students use the pattern *the+N* and *this/that+N* mostly, Swedish students prefer the pattern *the+N+that*. (3) There is a difference in the use of cataphoric reference. When using shell nouns, Swedish students are more likely to establish this kind of cohesion.

Keywords: *shell nouns*, lexico-grammatical pattern, cohesion, comparison

Introduction

A text is different from several independent sentences because a text has texture, and cohesion is one of the important methods to achieve texture. After the book *Cohesion in English* (Halliday & Hasan, 1976) was published, many scholars began to pay their attention to cohesion. According to this book, cohesion can be mainly divided into grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion and shell noun is at the border line of these two. There are many ways to call a shell noun, such as general noun (Halliday & Hasan, 1976), carrier noun (Ivanic, 1991) and shell noun (Schmid, 2000). However, no matter what the names are, these nouns (such as fact, problem, type, method and issue) have one characteristic in common: they both have a fixed meaning and a changeable meaning. And the changeable meaning of a shell noun needs to be inferred from the context it appears in (Ivanic, 1991).

Nowadays, researchers mainly pay their attention to academic discourse, using a corpus-based method to analyze the use of shell nouns. Charles (2003, 2007) and Flowerdew (2003) wrote papers from the aspect of shell nouns used by native speakers; Lou (2013) and Zhou & Liu (2015) did studies in terms of the comparison of shell nouns used by native speakers and English learners. Also, Aktas & Cortes (2008) tried to find the difference of English learners and publishers when using shell nouns.

From previous studies, it can be found that no matter in China or abroad, there is almost no paper comparing shell nouns used by second language learners from two or more different countries. For this reason, this study aims to employ a corpus-based method to compare the frequency, lexico-grammatical patterns and cohesive functions of five shell nouns used in the compositions of Chinese and Swedish university students. The following three research questions are intended to be answered:

1. Is there a difference in the frequency of shell nouns used by Chinese university students and Swedish university students?
2. What lexico-grammatical patterns of shell nouns do Chinese university students and Swedish university students use? Is there a difference?
3. In terms of cohesive function, is there a difference between Chinese university students and Swedish university students in the use of shell nouns?

Theoretical framework

Definition of shell nouns

In the book *English abstract nouns as conceptual shells: From corpus to cognition*, German linguist Schmid (2000) makes a detailed analysis of shell nouns, including the definition, classification, pattern and function of shell nouns. To his point of view, the definition of shell nouns depends on the function of a noun, not on any internal characteristics (Zhang & Yang, 2004). In other words, a noun becomes a shell noun once it appears in the shell-content complex and functions as a conceptual shell. In English, there is not a class of words which are used as conceptual shells specially, but some abstract nouns have the potential (Zhang & Yang, 2004). From a grammatical point of view, the most striking feature of shell nouns is that they can be inserted in one or both of the following two grammatical patterns. Any abstract nouns which can be used in at least one pattern with a high frequency can be used as shell nouns.

1. Determiner + (Premodifier) + Noun + post nominal that-clause/wh-clause/to-infinitive

2. Determiner + (Premodifier) + Noun + be + complementing that-clause/wh-clause/to infintive

Lexico-grammatical patterns of shell nouns

In his book, Schmid (2000) wrote that shell nouns are mainly used to perform three basic functions: characterization, temporary concept-formation, and linking functions. Among these three functions, the textual linking function links the conceptual shell and the specific content together to make the text cohesive. Schmid (2000) pointed out that when a shell noun performs the linking function, it is used in four basic lexico-grammatical patterns. When interpreting a shell noun, it needs to be interpreted together with the lexico-grammatical patterns in the specific context. In their study, Aktas & Cortes (2008) adapted the table in the book of Schmid (2000: 22) and this table shows Schmid's lexico-grammatical patterns for shell nouns with their textual anaphoric and cataphoric cohesive functions. Specific examples are provided in Table 1. This study uses this table as one of the theoretical framework to analyze the lexico-grammatical patterns and cohesive functions of shell nouns.

Research methodology

Corpora

This paper uses two corpora, made up of the compositions of English majors from China and Sweden. Since people from these two countries are not native speakers, so they are comparable. Table 2 shows the detailed information about the two corpora. The Chinese corpus is a part of the *Written English Corpus of Chinese Learners* (WECCL) (Wen, 2008) and this study uses the 2.0 version. The Swedish corpus is a part of the *Uppsala Student English Corpus* (USE). In order to make the research results objective and scientific, variants must be controlled to keep the Chinese corpus and Swedish corpus consistent. Thus, the corpora this present study uses are the shared kind of compositions of the two corpora: untimed argumentations written by first-year English majors. What is more, all the texts used are raw texts which are not tagged, because for researchers, raw texts are easier to read and when doing qualitative analysis, it is easier to study the English learners' language as it really is.

Data collection

In previous studies, the number of shell nouns being selected to discuss is not the same. After reading previous studies and combining the physical truth of the present study, finally five abstract nouns which have the potential to be used as shell nouns are selected – *fact*, *problem*, *reason*, *effect* and *result*. Only singular forms of these words are discussed.

The data collection work of this study is mainly achieved by the concord function of WordSmith Tools 6.0, a corpus software. Firstly, the author searched the five selected nouns in the two corpora one by one and read the results piece by piece, then deleting the sentences without a shell noun. The reason why the author did this is because that some words, like *result*, can be used both as a noun and a verb, and not all the nouns are used in a shell-content pattern. After making sure all the remaining sentences contain a shell noun, the author calculated the appearing times of each shell noun and the total times in the two corpora, getting the frequency of shell nouns used by Chinese and Swedish students. Due to the different sizes of the two corpora, the comparison of the two corpora could not be carried on. Thus the final frequencies of the shell nouns were normalized to 100,000 words to conduct a more reliable comparison. Finally, the author read the searching results for the second time and wrote down the lexico-grammatical patterns of each shell noun and the type of reference.

Table 1. The four lexico-grammatical patterns and their functions

Function	Pattern	Abbreviation	Example
Cataphoric	Shell noun (N) + postnominal clause (cl) –*that*-clause, *to* infinitive clause, *wh*-clause	*N + cl*	Mr. Bush said Iraq's leaders had to face **the fact** that the rest of the world was against them.
	Shell noun phrase (NP) +be + complementing clause (cl) –*that*-clause, *to* infinitive clause, *wh*-clause	*N + be+ cl*	**The advantage** is that there is a huge audience that can hear other things you may have to say.
Anaphoric	Demonstrative adjective (this, that) + (premodifier) +shell noun (N)	*th + N*	(Mr. Ash was in the clearest possible terms labeling my clients as anti-semitic.) I hope it is unnecessary to say that **this accusation** is also completely unjustified.
	Demonstrative pronoun as subject (this, that) + be+ shell noun (N)	*th + be + N*	(I won the freshmen's cross-country.) That was **a great achievement** wasn't it?

Table 2. Description of the two corpora

Corpus	Number of text	Number of token	Type of composition	Timed or untimed
Chinese	711	178,269	argumentation	untimed
Swedish	344	256,598	argumentation	untimed

Research results

Difference in frequency

The research results (Table 3) show that in WECCL, shell nouns appear 149 times, with a frequency of 83.58 every 100,000 words. In USE, shell nouns appear 466 times, with a frequency of 181.61 every 100,000 words. After the test of Log-likelihood Ratio, it can be found that there is a significant difference between Chinese and Swedish – Swedish use more shell nouns than Chinese (LL =76.36, p=.000<.001).

Difference in lexico-grammatical patterns

By classifying the patterns appearing in the searching results, the author gets Table 4. This table shows in detail the frequency of every lexico-grammatical pattern of the five shell nouns in the two corpora. To conduct a more reliable result, all the numbers are being normalized to 100,000 words. It is worthwhile to mention that due to the need of drawing this table, no matter what kind of clause is used after a shell noun (*to infinitive clause* or *wh-clause*), they are all represented by a that-clause. It can be seen from this table that not only all of the four patterns Schmid (2000) put forward in his book appear in the two corpora, but also three new patterns are used by Chinese and Swedish students – *a(an)+N*, *the+N* and *the+N+of*.

The following examples all come from the two corpora. In order to keep the examples original, these sentences are not corrected even if there are grammar mistakes in the sentences. For example:

1. Moreover, by using extended opening hours at Systembolaget as a weapon against black trade, it will take a long time before the regained control over the alcohol trade is a fact.
2. The problem of not having the possibility to keep elderly people at home today is more of a financial problem than a question of responsibility.

In terms of the diversity of patterns of shell nouns, except for the word *result*, Swedish students use more kinds of patterns than Chinese students. The most obvious word is *effect*. Except for the pattern *the+N+of*, Chinese students use no more patterns. However, Swedish students use four. This is also true when talking about the other three words: *problem*, *reason* and *fact*. When employing these three words, Swedish students usually use two to three more patterns as compared to Chinese students.

When Chinese and Swedish students use the same shell noun, they tend to choose different patterns. Table 4 shows that when students from the two countries use the word *problem*, the pattern *this/that+N* is the favorite one. The same choice happens to the word *fact*. However, when using *reason*, *result* and *effect*, students from the two countries prefer totally different patterns. In order to analyze which pattern is used mostly by Chinese and Swedish students, the author makes use of the data in Table 4 to draw Figure 1. From this figure it can be seen that Chinese students use the pattern *the+N* and *this/that+N* mostly but students from Sweden like the pattern *the+N+that* the best.

Table 3. Difference in frequency of shell nouns

Corpus	**Times**	**Frequency in100,000 words**	**LL value**	**p value**
Chinese	149	83.58	76.36	.000
Swedish	466	181.61		

Table 4. The distribution of lexico-grammatical patterns of five shell nouns in the two corpora (every 100,000 words)

Patterns	**problem**		**reason**		**fact**		**result**		**effect**	
	C	**S**	**C**	**S**	**C**	**S**	**C**	**S**	**C**	**S**
a(an)+N	1.68	3.12	0	0.78	0	3.51	0	0	0	0
a(an)+N+that-clause	0.56	0.78	0	0.39	2.24	5.85	0.56	0	0	0.39
a(an)+N+be+that-clause	0	4.68	2.81	8.57	0	0.39	0.56	1.16	0	0.39
the+N	15.71	7.40	0.56	3.90	2.24	0.39	0.56	0.39	0	0
the+N+that-clause	0	0.78	8.42	7.40	6.74	63.51	1.69	0.39	0	0
the+N+be+that-clause	0.56	8.96	7.29	9.35	1.68	3.51	1.12	4.29	0	1.17

the+N+of	1.12	4.29	0	0.39	0	0.39	2.24	0	2.24	0
this/that+N	16.27	10.52	1.68	4.29	0.56	5.85	0.56	0	0	0.39
this/that+ be+N	2.81	8.96	1.12	4.29	0	0	0	0.78	0	0
Total	38.71	49.49	21.88	39.36	13.46	83.40	7.29	7.01	2.24	2.34

Note：C stands for China and S stands for Sweden.

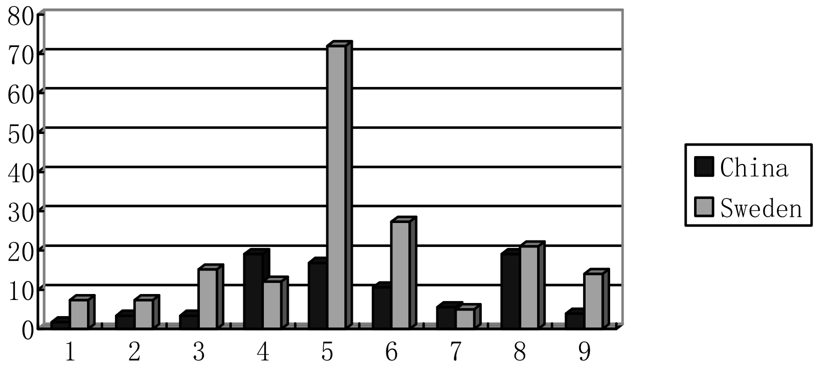

Figure 1. The distribution of lexico-grammatical patterns in the two corpora

Note: The number 1 to 9 stands for the nine patterns in Table 5.

Difference in cohesive functions

When shell nouns are used in the above patterns, they are mainly employed to perform cohesive functions in two manners: anaphoric reference and cataphoric reference. In the Chinese and Swedish corpora, anaphoric reference is concerned with patterns like *a (an) +N*, *this/that+N* and *this/that+ be+N*. Cataphoric reference is concerned with more kinds of patterns, including *a(an)+N+that-clause*, *a(an)+N+be+that-clause*, *the+N+that-clause*, *the+N+of* and *the+N+be+that-clause*. The pattern *the+N* is a special pattern. This pattern can be used both as anaphoric reference and cataphoric reference.

Table 5. The distribution of cohesive functions in the two corpora

Cohesive functions	**Chinese corpus**		**Swedish corpus**		**LL value**	**p value**
	Times	**Frequency in 100,000 words**	**times**	**Frequency in 100,000 words**		
anaphoric	74	41.51	109	42.48	0.02	.878
cataphoric	75	42.07	357	139.13	111.62	.000

The comparison of cohesive functions is shown in Table 5. In Chinese corpus, shell nouns are used as anaphoric reference 74 times in total, with a frequency of 41.51 every 100,000 words; as cataphoric reference, shell nouns are used 75 times, with a frequency of 42.07 every 100,000 words. In Swedish corpus, shell nouns are used as anaphoric reference 109 times, with a frequency of 42.48 every 100,000 words; as cataphoric reference, shell nouns are used for 357 times, with a frequency of 139.13 every 100,000 words. After the test of Log-likelihood Ratio, it can be found that there is a significant difference in the use of cataphoric reference between Chinese and Swedish – Swedish prefer cataphoric reference when using shell nouns unlike Chinese (LL =111.62, p=.000<.001). That is to say, readers have to find what a shell noun represents for in the text to follow.

Conclusion

To sum up, the acquisition of shell nouns by Chinese students is not as good as that by Swedish students. This is mainly shown in the low frequency and lack of diversity of using shell nouns. Due to the length of this paper, the reason why this kind of difference exists is not discussed in this study. In the future, the research focus should be put on the explanation of the difference, so that the research results can offer a new approach to teaching shell nouns.

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Key and Dominant Metaphors in the Economic World Picture

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Abstract: The paper demonstrates metaphors and their representation in the economic world.

The aim of this research is to reveal the main characteristics of the naive and scientific world pictures, define key and dominant metaphors and their representation in the world picture. The present study is based on the articles from the newspapers: *The Guardian*, *International New Your Times*, *The Financial Times* and magazines: *The Economist* and *Oxford Economic Papers* which cover the period of 2015-2016. Our findings show that the world picture of Economics is a heterogeneous mixture, metaphors being an integral and powerful part of it.

Keywords: *metaphor*, *conceptual metaphor*, *world picture*, *scientific picture of the world*, *naïve picture of the world*

Introduction

The ability to identify metaphors and understand their meanings is one of the steps to recognize the intentions of the author as well as to facilitate comprehension of the professional economic literature. Understanding the connection of metaphors with extra-linguistic factors enables to establish a true display of the situation and make the right decision for economic problems these metaphors refer. Nowadays the concept "world picture" is one of the fundamental notions reflecting the special nature of the human being and its relationships with the world and the main conditions of its existence. There is no world picture without a person (subject) who contemplates, interprets and reflects it and as a result gets the image (model) of the world. According to B. A. Serebryannikov, the most important characteristic of the world picture is its absolute credibility for the subject of this picture. "The picture of the world bears the traits of its creator and above all, the dynamism of his/her worldview. While maintaining the integrity of the world picture, some of its elements or overall coloristics, imprinting the attitude of an individual (the subject) of this picture may change." (1988: 56) From the historical prospective the formation of the world picture has gone from the starting point of knowledge (mythological, naive) to scientific one (e.g.: science in the beginning of the 21st century) establishing a rather adequate conceptualization of the world by an individual.

Y. Lotman says the spatial picture of the world is multi-layered and includes the mythological universe, scientific modeling and everyday common sense. All these layers form a heterogeneous mixture functioning as one unit and creating a complex semiotic mechanism which is in a constant motion (1980: 14). There are so many pictures of the world as there are individuals who interpret and reflect the world. The results of this understanding are fixed in the matrixes of the language and metaphors are the tools that help reveal and investigate the picture of the world.

We should note here that the scientific picture of the world can only be considered as a component of the overall picture, formed on the basis of fundamental images with the participation of the ordinary, mythological and artistic consciousness through assimilation of knowledge gained in all areas of human activity. The flow of knowledge has two directions (from scientific picture of the world to a naïve one and vice versa). During the movement of a special scientific view of the world into the overall world picture part of this knowledge is distorted, mythologized and acquires prejudices of ordinary consciousness. The accumulated experience and knowledge are fixed in the linguistic system and mastering this information allows an individual to perceive all human experience generalized in the language.

Economics is often called the "worldly philosophy" as it addresses the main problems of everyday life. Economics is a part of scientific world picture and is called an economic picture of the world. Thanks to the scientific picture of the world special scientific achievements acquire general cultural and ideological meaning and significance. Currently, the economy is an integral part of our life; people live in the economic environment, use economic terms (market, inflation, income, price). The word "economy" is familiar to everyone, although the content of this concept is differently understood by individuals due to the polysemy of this term.

According to our research, the economic literature, which is represented by the articles from *The Guardian*, *The International New York Times*, *The Financial Times*, *The Economist* and *Oxford Economic Papers*, contains an abundance of different metaphors. In our research we compare metaphors used in the above mentioned newspapers whose target audience is ordinary people, not economists. Thus, this literature represents the naïve picture of the world. The articles from *The Economist* and some articles from *Oxford Economic Papers* are aimed at professionals, economists, and scholars. Thus, the scientific picture of the world is reflected in them.

In the cognitive aspect metaphor facilitates the vision of the world, makes it accessible to the perception of another observer, it is the shortest way of the representation of the concept. Modern cognitive science considers metaphors as a basic mental operation and a way of cognition, structuring and explaining the world; all linguists recognize the importance of metaphors in the scientific discourse.

The Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT) claims that the metaphor is a central and indispensible structure of both language and thought. The fundamental tenet of it is that metaphor operates at the level of thinking. Thought has primacy over language. Metaphors link two conceptual domains: the "source" domain and the "target" domain.

In the research for the metaphor identification and conceptual modeling based on linguistic data we used Metaphor Identification Procedure developed by G. Steen and Metaphor Lab VU Amsterdam. This procedure consists of the following steps:

1. Read the entire text to understand the general context.

2. Decide about lexical units.

3a. Establish the contextual meaning of the examined lexical unit, i.e. its application in the situation evoked by the text, taking into account the words surrounding the examined lexical unit.

3b. Determine the basic meaning of the word on the basis of the dictionary. The basic meaning is usually the most concrete, human oriented, specific (as opposed to vague) and has historically older meaning.

3c. Decide whether the basic meaning of the word is sufficiently distinct from the contextual meaning.

3d. Decide whether the contextual meaning of the word can be related to the more basic meaning by some form of similarity.

4. If the answers to 3c and 3d are positive, the lexical unit should be marked as metaphorical.

An image-bearing model is one of the main cognitive models used for the scientific understanding of the realty. In the cognitive process new reality is conceptualized by adjusting the characteristic of the new objects with the similar ones of already known object. Our analysis of the economic texts proves the existence of such conceptualization.

Having analyzed about 90 economic articles covering the period 2010-2016 we have distinguished metaphorical units which can be referred to the following metaphorical models: *Economy is Mechanism, Economy is Living Organism, Economy is Object, Economy is War, Economy is Game/Sport, Economy is Natural Phenomenon*, and *Economy is Plant*.

The change of a scientific paradigm is always accompanied by the shift of a key metaphor. A metaphor is some kind of a soul, a character of the scientific paradigm which indirectly forms not only scientific concepts but the scientific methods as well. Key metaphors determine the way of thinking about the world (world view) or its fundamental parts. According to N. Arutunova, the key metaphors are the metaphors "which attach the image of one fragment of reality to another one, providing its conceptualization similar to the existing system of concepts" (1990: 15). A metaphor, she continues, not only gives an idea about the object, but also determines the method and style of thinking about it. Every change in the development and understanding of the world and society leads to the language change and creating a special set of lexical and cognitive tools as well as new conceptual metaphors and symbols. "Key metaphors help create new analogy associations between different concept systems and generate more particular metaphors" (Arutyunova, 1990: 14).

"The dominant metaphorical model" prevailing in the language at a particular period of time and the "basic/key metaphorical model" provide a conceptualization of a fragment of reality similar to the existing system of concepts.

In our research we investigate the following key metaphors in the economic picture of the world: *Economy is Mechanism*, *Economy is Living Object*, and *Economy is Network*.

Within classical economics the dominant or key metaphors derived from the mechanical world view of Newtonian Physics: *Economy is Mechanism*. Economy as a whole was understood as a mechanism. In accordance with this key metaphor economy needs *adjustment* or *repair*; the financial mechanisms can be *fixed* and *regulated*.

Metaphorical vision of the economy as a machine with a permanently operating mechanism indicates that it is controllable and resistant to various adverse effects and, therefore, is stable in its prosperity. Metaphorical model "mechanism" implies the predictability of economic processes and possible changes. Definitely, the condition of our current economy with all its unexpected crises cannot be described as predictable. Economy was organized mechanistically (with the direct impact on the environment to make a profit and meet material needs). Meanwhile, the social life of the second half of the 20^{th} century quite clearly set the task to coordinate different forms of economic activity, i.e. new factors of production (ethical and environmental) and the economy as a whole. It particularly applies to resources, costs and aims of production and economic activity. Our research shows that representation of economy as a mechanism mainly occurs by dead metaphors such as price mechanism, exchange rate mechanism and is used more often in specialized journals (*Oxford Economic Papers*) than in popular scientific ones.

The key metaphor of modern economic theory is *Economy is Living Object*. According to this metaphorical model individuals anthropomorphize economy and economic activities. As a result economy can *disappoint, suffer, be ill, recover, snap back, flirt, get divorced, fall from the cliff, climb* and *jump*. This model is widely represented in English economic articles. Economy as any living being has a life cycle, a soul, a face, a body, illnesses and even scars.

Finally, another key metaphor: *Economy is Network*. Currently, with the development of information technologies and globalization market economy is being displaced by network/networked economy due to the digital revolution. It is no longer considered as a structure with its hierarchy; economy is a network and is perceived as communication. Nowadays marketers, companies, service agencies, government, and civil society are migrating massively to the Internet. The idea of network invokes the image of connectedness between either individuals or organizations. We have virtual reality, clouds, cloud computing, chatbots, botlife, online commerce, global computer network, and data centers.

Conclusion

Nowadays the main factors of the global economic system cementing its integrity and unity are the scientific and technological revolution, internalization and globalization of all economic activities, market fundamentals and tools, especially the financial ones.

Our research shows that metaphors are a very productive tool in Economics. Metaphor facilitates understanding as it appeals to the background knowledge by moving into professional domain specific fragments of the image of the world on the basis of their identity or similarity. Rethinking the fragments of the world image gives more information about professional events. The purpose of the economic discourse is to bring scientific knowledge to wide audience who differ by age and level of education. In this case, information should be given in the most compact and affordable way, moreover, a certain attitude to the described facts should be formed.

Understanding and interpreting the key metaphors help a lot in interpreting the economic phenomena. The change of the key metaphors usually coincides with the revision of the existing system and the changes in culture, society and economics. Nowadays mechanistic metaphors can describe only a limited range of phenomena in economics and are not so widely used as they used to be. The current key metaphor is *Economy is Living Object* and we are witnessing the emerging new key metaphor: *Economy is Network.*

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A Study on Cultural Loss in C-E Translation of Address Terms

(A Case Study of Moss Roberts' Version of *Three Kingdoms*)

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Abstract: This thesis does a case study on cultural loss in C-E translation of the address terms through the application of qualitative method. This research finds that Roberts adopted domestication and foreignization in his translation of address terms, but could not give consideration to fluency and accuracy of the address terms. And cultural loss exists in the translation of both kinship address terms and social address terms and three reasons account for this: cultural differences; differences of features between Chinese and English address terms and differences in translation strategies adopted.

Keywords: *cultural loss*, *qualitative method*, *translation*, *address terms*, Three Kingdoms

Introduction

It has been commonly acknowledged that translation is not merely an act of communication between languages, but also an act of transference between cultures. Address term plays an important role in both Chinese and English language. In C-E translation of address terms, it is common that cultural loss happens due to the cultural differences in ecology, language, religion, material and society. As a classical novel, *Three Kingdoms* contains a large amount of address terms, which makes it worthwhile to study the cultural loss in C-E translation of address terms in this novel. Many scholars have studied translation of *Three Kingdoms* from different perspectives, yet few of them have involved the translation of address terms in their studies, let alone the cultural loss in translation of the address terms. It will discuss the use of power semantic and solidarity semantic and functional equivalence in C-E translation of address terms to analyze whether the target language follows the meaning of original language so as to discuss the difficulties in translating address terms from Chinese to English, which, would arouse people's attention to the context in C-E translation. Through C-E comparative analysis on address terms in both versions of *Three Kingdoms,* accuracy and fluency of target language will be discussed and analyzed to find out the cultural loss in translation of address terms.

Translation Strategies of Address Terms in Moss Roberts' Version of *Three Kingdoms*

In the translation of *Three Kingdoms*, the address terms are extremely important and should not be ignored. Due to a few reasons, sometimes it is difficult to translate these address terms into a totally different culture in an appropriate way. Domestication and foreignization are two strategies that can be used to handle this problem even though the debate on whether domestication or foreignization should be used in literary translation has lasted for decades.

Domestication

Domestication requires that translators should pay more attention to the target language, which means the translation should be suitable for the target language readers so that they would be able to understand the translated works under their cultural background and enjoy the fluency of the version. Domestication insists that language should conform to the target language and the rule of its culture. From the view of Nida (2001), translation was to reproduce the meaning of the original language in the target language with the most natural way. And the meaning is above the style and structure. Nida (2001) firmly believed that domestication should be the main strategy used in translation.

Foreignization

Contrary to domestication, foreignization means that the translated language should keep the style and feature of the original language, which would enrich the language and culture of the target language, and therefore, promote the interchange of culture from different backgrounds. According to Lawrence Venuti (1991), domestication was an ethnocentric reduction of the foreign text to target-language culture values and foreignization could restrain the ethnocentric violence of translation in his *The Translator's Invisibility: A History of Translation*.

The debate on domestication and foreignizaiton in translation is still not finished. However, as a matter of fact, both domestication and foreignization have been employed in literary translation and no one strategy is superior to the other. In translating *Three Kingdoms,* Roberts adopted both domestication and foreignization in his translation of address terms, which will be discussed later.

Analysis on Cultural Loss in C-E Translation of Address Terms in Moss Roberts' Version of *Three Kingdoms*

In the following part, the translation of the address terms in Roberts' version will be analyzed to see to what extent they are lost if the culture-loaded meanings contained in them are not fully preserved.

Cultural Loss Discussed in Address Terms in Moss Roberts' Version of Three Kingdoms

The address terms in *Three Kingdoms* are divided into kinship address terms and social address terms. Furthermore, kinship terms are categorized into address terms for the seniorities, for the same generation, and for the younger generation; social address terms can be divided into honorific address terms, neutral address terms, offensive address terms and terms addressing oneself. The following will be focused on the cultural loss in the translation of appellation and give some advice when necessary.

1. *Kinship address terms*

In the process of translation, Roberts used domestication and foreignization strategies to deal with kinship address terms.

Address terms for the seniorities, Chinese: 泰大哭曰 : "论者以泰比舅, 今舅实不如泰也" (罗贯中 2824). English:

> But Chen Tai said tearfully, "People always measure me against you; now I see that after all you do not measure up to me" (Tr. Roberts 2825).

Address terms for the same generation, Chinese: 却说长城镇守将军司马望，乃司马昭之族兄也(罗贯中 2786). English:

> Sima Wang, a cousin of Sima Zhao's was commander in control for Longwall (Tr. Roberts 2787).

Address terms for the younger generation, 玄德怒曰："辱子有何面目复来见吾！" (罗贯中 1940). English:

> But Xuande said angrily, "Scapegrace! Have you the face to come before me again?" (Tr. Roberts 1941).

In Roberts' version of *Three Kingdoms*, kinship address terms like "舅", "族兄"and "辱子" were sometimes translated into English terms that could not exactly indicate the real identity of the figures and the emotions of the speakers, and thus the readers could not figure out the specific relationship of them and attitudes of the speakers. Considering that Chinese people would use kinship address terms when they called their relatives, so the translation sometimes ignored this point and thus meaning of Chinese culture was not fully passed to the readers, cultural loss would arise

2. Social address terms

There are 1191 different kinds of figures in *Three Kingdoms*, which attributes to the complexity of the social address terms in *Three Kingdoms*, as well as the translation.

Honorific address terms, 众老人答曰："督邮逼勒县吏，欲害刘公"（罗贯中 40).

> They said, "The inspector is forcing the county officer to make statements that will enable him to get rid of our Lord Liu" (Tr. Roberts 41).

Neutral address terms, Chinese: 黄门侍郎王肃上书曰：(2474). English:

> Wang Su, a court officer in the Inner Bureau, presented this petition to the Emperor: (Tr. Roberts 2475).

Offensive address terms, Chinese: 三姓家奴休走！燕人张飞在此(罗贯中 126). English:

> "Stay! Bastard with three fathers! Know me for Zhang Fei of Yan" (Tr. Roberts 127).

Terms addressing oneself, Chinese: 貂蝉曰: "贱妾年方二八"(罗贯中 188). English:

> "Your servant is just sixteen" she replied (Tr. Roberts 189).

In Roberts' version of *Three Kingdoms*, social address terms like "刘公", "黄门侍郎", "三姓家奴" and "贱妾" were translated into English address terms by which the target language readers could not understand the real identity of the figures, and thus cultural loss appears.

Causes of Cultural Loss in Moss Roberts' Version of Three Kingdoms

According to Su Fangling (219), the reasons that lead to cultural loss in Roberts' version discussed are cultural differences, differences of features between Chinese and English address terms and differences in translation strategies adopted. The differences in culture and language structures cause linguistic distance and social distance, which makes that part of the original language lost in the target language. In Chinese, each address term has its special meaning, while an English address term usually has many meanings. In Roberts' version, he adopted both domestication and foreignization strategies to realize his aim of translation. The result is that a large amount of address terms are kept as their original forms in English, while many other address terms are generalized, such as "明公""公""主公""刘公" are translated into "Lord".

Influences of Cultural Loss on Moss Roberts' Version of Three Kingdoms

When cultural loss appears in *Three Kingdoms*, western people would not understand the cultural meaning of the context and language. They just read sentences one by one, and do not understand the meanings between the lines, which would result in reducing the charm of this literary masterpiece. What is more, *Three Kingdoms* contains the wisdom and diligence of ancient Chinese, which can just be expressed in a word or sentence. A little mistake would remove the cultural connotation out of the context and thus Chinese culture would fail to stay in these words or sentences. As for the foreigners, they would get confused when culture loss occurs in the translated version of *Three Kingdoms*. As a result, both *Three Kingdoms* and Chinese culture are not passed to western society.

Conclusion

The C-E translation of address terms in this novel is a difficult problem and is worthy of acknowledgement. This thesis discusses the cultural loss in C-E translation of address terms in Moss Roberts' version of *Three Kingdoms*, and finds that cultural loss appears in the translation of both kinship address terms and social address terms. Due to the over-loaded translation and under-loaded translation, the targeted readers would fail to understand the relationship among people, or know the identity, position, or profession of the characters. Furthermore, cultural loss in translation would fail to spread the Chinese culture contained in literature, resulting in reducing the charm of this literary masterpiece. *Three kingdoms* is a classical masterwork with a great reputation, and the C-E translation of address terms in this novel should be acknowledged with the aim of respecting the writer and the readers and spreading Chinese culture to western countries. Further study can focus on the comparative study on C-E translation of address terms between different versions of *Three Kingdoms*.

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Realization of Intertextual Elements in the Reading of Modernistic Texts

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Abstract: The idea of intertextuality is widely revealed in modernistic and post-modernistic literature. A post-modernistic text consists of joined together quotations, allusions, and aphorisms, taken from works related to different registers. Critics think that in *Ulysses* chapter 13 "Nausicaa" J. Joyce created a parody on women's literature of his time. Also he made an attempt to create and show the difference between the two major streams of consciousness: male and female. In this research we consider intertextual linguistic elements in narration and see what influence they have on our understanding of this text.

Keywords: *intertextuality, post-modernistic literature, quotations, allusions, aphorisms, streams of consciousness*

The concept of intertext and intertextuality

The research is devoted to the literary text the main function of which is to influence on the reader's feelings and imagination. One of the characteristic peculiarities of modern literary creativity is intertextuality.

In this work we identify intertextuality as "the use of poetics of any literary work within another text openly or in a hidden way when a special analysis is necessary to identify it. So the term intertextuality can be identified as the conversion of poetics of some literary work to fulfill artistic goals" (Abramov, 1993). In this research we study the author's peculiarities of the use of intertextual artistic means in a post-modernistic literary text. The strategy is based on semantic openness of the text and on the idea of incompleteness of each reading (Bart, 1998). The material for the research is the 13th chapter "Nausicaa" of the novel by J. Joyce *Ulysses*.

The phenomenon of intertextuality was analyzed in the works by M. M. Bachtin, J. Kristeva, R. Bart, and many others. M. M. Bachtin mentioned that a writer constantly works not only with his own text but with the whole literature in general. He turns to be in a constant dialogue with it. J. Kristeva said that a text in the process of creation is being transformed, reconsidered and reproduced itself (Kristeva, 1995).

From Bachtin's point of view, the intertext is the main type and way of creation of a literary text in modernistic and post modernistic art. The text is made of quotations and reminiscences to other texts. A quotation in this case has become an element leading to the increase of the inner sense of the text. We have the situation when a quoted text exists in a new text in a hidden way. It has to be recognized. From one side, the post modernistic text absorbs any elements from other texts using them in the most suitable way. On the other side, if the cultural experience is presented so widely that it is hard to see any individuality, any reader can understand this text according to his individual experience.

According to R. Bart any text is an intertext. Other texts exist in it on different levels in more or less recognizable forms. Every text is a new identity made of old quotations. The parts of cultural codes, clichés, rhythmical structures, parts of social idioms and so on – everything is taken by the text and mixed in it, as there is always the language around it (Bart, 1990).

The role of intertext in postmodernism

On the one hand, postmodernism is defined as a world outlook, a certain perception of the world connected with the beginning of the crisis of rationalism and humanism at the end of the 19th century. On the other hand, it is an artistic code with a number of specific methods.

In literature, postmodernism is singled out as a particular "style of writing". Vertical and horizontal type of reading are typical of multileveled modernistic writing (Kristeva, 1995). The observation of the plot of the text coincides with the horizontal type of reading, but the interconnection between the quotations in the formation of the text leads to vertical reading.

One of the crucial features of post modernistic texts is the reader's impression of uncertainty in its further development. A specific feature of postmodernism is connected with post modernistic mosaic made of the borrowed ideas. These ideas represent a kind of artistic generalization of some complete cultural systems.

Theoretically postmodernism has created a thesis that history and society can be read as a text. It has led to the perception of human culture as a single intertext on the basis of which we can create another entirely new text. *Ulysses* by J. Joyce consists of several streams of consciousness organized as an intertext. In this case, we speak about Bloom's and Dedal's streams of consciousness, and speaking about Molly we mean the stream of pure unconsciousness.

There are some theoretical problems necessary to clarify. One of them is the use of the term "discourse". On the one hand, discourse is viewed as a speech introduced in a certain communicative situation. On the other hand, it is a kind of structure of dialogical interaction. In this research the term "discourse" includes two components: a dynamic process of linguistic activity in the social context and its result as a text.

Another theoretical problem is "the death of the author", "the death of an individual text", and in the end "the death of a reader". Instead of a reader there is a scripter and the reading of the text leads to its active interpretation. It means each reader understands the text independently though the texts are mostly multileveled.

Intertextuality in *Ulysses* by J. Joyce

James Joyce wrote *Ulysses* for seven years (1914-1921). The novel has become a symbol of artistic search and a successful experiment. The novel is a classical example of post modernistic intertextuality. The novel, within which there are a great number of texts, has become a metatext by itself where the author encoded all human culture. Critics remark that Joyce has created the stream of consciousness method. It is carried out through four main types of writing: the direct inner monologue; non-direct inner monologue; the author's description of psychological state of a character and his inner processes; soliloquy where we see the words which are not pronounced in reality (Humphrey, 1962).

Nausicaa

Critics think that "Nausicaa" is one of the first examples of post modernistic prose. The text of chapter 13 is based on preceding texts which are reconsidered during the narration. A lot of critics and authors at that time regarded the text of the chapter as innovative, extremely unusual, and unacceptable. Later "Nausicaa" became a classical example of post modernistic literature.

In the basis of an episode there is an inserted short story: a girl and a stranger on the beach. The main heroin is Gerty MacDowell. She had rosy girlish dreams, showed her legs to a stranger and left the scene lame. Bloom, left alone, poured out page and pages of stream of consciousness being partially asleep. The time of the chapter is eight o'clock in the evening.

This short story related to a real event in the author's life. At the age of sixteen, thinking about his way in this life, he saw a girl on the beach standing in the water with her dress picked up. Her serene, joyful appearance became for Joyce the symbol of sensuality and acceptance of life in its fullness. It helped him to reject an ascetic church career in Catholicism.

With great difficulty we can see the connection of *Ulysses* with Homeros's *Odyssey*. Critics think that Chapter 13 corresponds to Song VI of *Odyssey*: the meeting of a homeless wanderer with a young princess on the beach.

Speaking about the chapter, it is necessary to mention that in postmodernism there are no differences between elevated or quality style and pulp or "trashy" style of writing. The chapter is a parody to women's prose of that time. Joyce took Mary Kamince's novel *The Lamplighter* as the basis of his Nausicaa.

The realization of intertextuality in the chapter

Intertextuality can be revealed in the "secondary" literary genres: parody, burlesque, and travesty (Wikipedia). A parody in fiction can take off the reality as well as the presentation of it in a literary text. In this case a parody exists together with the original text. The parody is a result of a certain text processing directed against the original text.

The form of post modernistic parody is known as pastiche. Pastiche is a secondary artistic work (literary, musical or any), presenting the style imitation of one or some authors (Wikipedia). There is a difference between parody and pastiche. In classical literature it is clear where the author is serious and where he is not. In post modernistic literature, such difference is not vivid. A reader in this case doubts where there is a parody and where the author is really serious.

In chapter 13 of *Ulysses* the pastiche is a post modernistic parody on women's pulp novel of that time. Critics say that women's style of writing has a number of bright peculiarities.

1. The theme of artistic work is romantic relations between a man and a woman.
2. The use of affectionate diminutive words with bright stylistic coloring (say out big. Big: chinchoper, chinchoper, chinchoper chin: Say papa, baby. Say pa pa pa pa…: hajajajaha).
3. The use of foreign words with bright stylistic coloring (expose, hauteur, tableau, retroussé, contretemps, petit…). French words of this kind show Gerty as a lover of pulp women's novels and fashion magazines.
4. Appealing to authorities, the reference to popular women's publications (Flora McFlimsy sort; it was Madame Vera Verity, directress of the Woman Beautiful page of the Princess novelette).
5. Jumping from one thought to another which seems to be totally unmotivated. It leads to illogical narration in the text.
6. Detailed lyrical digressions of descriptive character.
7. A certain amount of mystical and super powerful elements in the text (Why have the women such eyes of witchery: The summer evening had begun to fold the world in its mysterious embrace.)
8. The use of different conjunctions and markers of discourse.
9. Exaggeration and the use of constructions with highly emotional connotations.
10. The use of euphemistic constructions in speech. The observation of proprieties and the use of euphemisms in speech is also an element of women's prose.

Some examples include two or three of such devices and create the effect of pastiche: "O so lively!", "O, that exquisite!", "O so soft, sweet, soft!", "You would have to travel many a long mile before you found a head of heir the like of that", "seemed to her the saddest she had ever seen".

Joyce laughs not only at women's prose. He laughs at the stereotype of the women's way of thinking. In general, Gerty's stream of consciousness is a kind of mixture where all forms and trends are taken together. This heterogeneous discourse gives liveliness and naturalness to the whole narration.

Elements of other styles

One of the types of intertextuality can be the appearance of the elements of other style in the text united under the general feature that is the change of the subject of speech. It is taken as an indicator of some other discourse (Eliot, 1922).

We can divide Nausicaa into two parts: woman's inner monologue by Gerty and man's inner monologue by Bloom. Besides that, there is the scripter's voice which is included into Gerty's inner speech and started to mock and jeer at her "Gerty just took off her hat for a moment to settle her hair and a prettier, a daintier head of nutbrown tresses was never seen on a girl's shoulders a radiant little vision, in sooth, almost maddening in its sweetness".

Man's stream of consciousness started at the moment when he saw that she was lame: "Tight boots? No. She's lame! O! Mr. Bloom watched her as she limped away. Poor girl!" Then Bloom's thoughts flow chaotically in his head without finding any calmness in the end. He thought about what he had seen on the beach, about Molly and her lover, remembered his first meeting with her: 'Saw something in me. Wonder what?' Simple sentences are typical for the second part of the chapter. Here the thoughts are expressed briefly and fragmentary. There are a lot of questions with answers to them:"Where did I put the letter? Yes, all right".

Sometimes the scripter's voice appears in Bloom's inner monologue. It comes as a possible reply or an imaginary dialogue which took place only in Bloom's mind. Other discourses are not marked in this case and we can see them only because of the stylistic differences. All inclusions belong to women and to their typical, according to men, talks: "Would you mind, please, telling me the right time? I'all tell you the right time up a dark lane". The dialogue appears in Bloom's imagination. The first sentence is real, but the reply appeared in Bloom's imagination. "I leave you this to think of me when I'm far away on the pillow." This is Gerty's thought as Bloom imagined it.

Bloom's thoughts are chaotic: "they" refers to women in general then the names of his wife and some acquaintances came – Molly, Milly, Martha. In his voice we hear a personal pronoun I (my) as a marker of man's stream of consciousness. A transition to the author's speech is marked by the change of a personal pronoun into *he*, *his* and the use of address – Mr. Bloom.

"Mr. Bloom inserted his nose. Hm, into the. Hm. Opening of his waistcoat. Almonds or. No. Lemons it is. Ah, no, that's the soap." So the author's and Bloom's voices are interconnected in one passage.

The scripter's voice is gradually going down during the chapter giving way to different types of inner speech. In Gerty's stream of consciousness, this voice is very active, but it is practically suppressed by a strong man's voice.

The impression of chaotic and discursive writing in this chapter is false. The use of multi-aspected senses and forms hide a very thorough selection of the material. In Joyce's text we see equal, abruptly changing, interconnected with each other discourses.

Linguistic markers of intertextuality

The main markers of intertextuality in the text are quotations, allusions, and aphorisms.

Biblical allusions and quotations

Holy Scripture is one of the most frequently quoted sources. St Marty the Virgin appears in scripter's and Gerty's voices. There are direct addresses in the text (Mary, Virgin, Our Blessed Lady) and indirect (star of the sea, queen of angels, queen of patriarchs). There are also allusions on Snake the Tempter (He was eyeing her as a snake eyes its prey) and on Devil (she has raised the devil in him). Leaving the beach, he wrote on the sand "I.Am.A." which leads to the parallel with Christ (I am the Alfa and the Omega) (7). Joyce showed Bloom's rather skeptical attitude to religion. In Bloom's stream of consciousness, we see a non marked quotation about the Grand Exodus (That brought us out of the land of Egypt and into the house of bondage), where the idea of Exodus itself is distorted. The Exodus from Bloom's point of view led to slavery. On the other hand, Gerty is for sure a true catholic (she knew who came first and after Him the blessed Virgin and the Saint Joseph).

In the text there are some non-marked a bit changed quotations where the original idea is not changed: “May it be to me as you have said”, “bread cast on the waters” (The Holy Bible, 1984).

There are a lot of quotations from catholic ceremonies and prayers. Mostly they are not marked and modified by the scripter in the context of the chapter. In Gerty’s mind, we hear the quotation from the catholic wedding ceremony which shows her dreams: “for riches for poor, in sickness in health, till death us two part, from this to this day forward”. Also there are some lines in the text from the ceremony of carrying out the Sacrament which was taking place in the church on the beach: “Queen of angels, queen of patriarchs, queen of prophets, of all saints….”. We hear some words from the hymn “Tantum ergo”, which are represented as “Tantumer gosa cramen tum”.

So, we can say that there is a lot of religious, philosophic and cultural knowledge in the text and without its interpretation we won’t understand this text.

Quotations from literary and musical works

This group is the most numerous. There are some examples of non-marked quotations: “Love laughs at locksmith”, “Round the Kish in eighty days”, “My native land, good night”.

An independent topic is the use of quotation from Shakespeare. All of a sudden a quotation from *Hamlet* appears in Gerty’s stream of consciousness (…cruel only to be kind) or from *King Lear* (if he had suffered more sinned against the sinning….). In this case we speak about the scripter’s voice, as common girl Gerty did not know Shakespeare so well as to quote him.

Gerty’s stream of consciousness is full of poetic quotations (the last glimpse of Erin, the touching chime of those evening bells… – a poem by Thomas Moore) and quotations from musical compositions. Mostly they are ballads and love songs (with all his faults she loved him still, make him forget the memory of the past). In Bloom’s stream of consciousness, we mostly hear comic pop songs (the sister of the wife of the wild man of Borneo has just come to town).

Aphorisms

We see aphorisms in man’s stream of consciousness. In Bloom’s thoughts we can find the phrases by historical personalities, popular sayings and aphorisms by Bloom himself: *history repeats itself, nothing new under the sun, cat’s away the mice will play, bred in the bone* – about women – *its in their blood*. We may say that Bloom’s speech is full of brightly colored markers of intertextuality.

Omens, superstitions, and popular wisdom

Both Gerty and Bloom follow the omens in the chapter. Gerty is very sensible and takes them seriously (*She was wearing the blue for luck; She had cut it that very morning on account of the new moon*). Bloom is more rational, he connected such omens with women’s nature and we see such phrases in the text as “they say”, “say”: “Say a woman loses her charm with every pin she takes out”, “ …they say if the flower withers she wears she is a flirt”.

Also there are a lot of by-words and sayings: “What’s your name? Butter and cream?”, “A penny for your thoughts” – an ironical address of Edi to Gerty.

As compared to quotations and allusions, this group of intertextual elements is not connected with any texts. They perform only an expressive function.

Conclusion

Summing up, we may say that the importance of intertext is not only in the use of quotations and allusions. Intertextuality lies in the way of writing. It has two aspects: inner and outer. The inner aspect means the interconnection of different multi-voiced discourses within the text itself. We see outer textuality through the references to other texts as elements of culture. It has some connection with R. Bart's thought that post modernistic text has horizontal and vertical type of reading.

Ulysses is full of different artistic devices. The main type is the change of styles and ways of writing in different chapters, and the use of contrastive writing – the juxtaposition of condensed man's stream of consciousness and extended woman's one. One peculiarity of his style is a very brief presentation of very important things in the text and prolonged presentation of some trifles and very unimportant details. In the text we see Joyce's intention to give the main importance to tiny details which are combined as mosaic. It is necessary to mention that Joyce's hyperbolized idle talking produces the comic effect.

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Global English: English of South Africa

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Abstract: The process of globalization in the modern world has affected all spheres of our life: politics, economy and culture. To realize these processes, people should have a common means of communication – a *lingua franca*. The English language has become this *lingua franca*, as about 1.5

billion people speak English today. This article deals with the problem of the English language Africanization, regarding the position of English in South Africa and other languages' impact on South African English development, Dutch, Afrikaans and especially native African languages.

Keywords: *cross-cultural communication, South African English, varieties, Africanisms*

Introduction

Africa is considered today to be perhaps the most multilingual region in the world, with more languages spoken per capita than anywhere else. It is estimated that 1,000 to 1,140 languages are spoken in Africa today (Khokhlova, 2007). Except in a very few cases, African nations are multilingual; the typical country lacks both an indigenous nationwide language of communication and a language policy that proposes the development and implementation of such a language. This situation has facilitated the penetration and entrenchment of the former colonial languages (i.e. English, French, and Portuguese) as the official media of communication for administration, education, commerce, and diplomacy in African states. As is to be expected in such a multilingual situation, the interaction of the three European languages with African languages has produced very interesting sociolinguistic phenomena, e.g., code-switching and code-mixing, structural changes in the European and African languages involved, and continued debates on the Africanization of education and the language of instruction.

South Africa re-entered the world community in 1994 after several decades of apartheid and consequent international censure. According to the constitution, the South African Republic has eleven official languages – two European in origin, and nine belonging to the Bantu family of languages (South African language policy, 2010). Each of these eleven languages enjoyed some level of "official" status in South Africa under apartheid; English and Afrikaans in what was sometimes known as "white" South Africa, and each African language in its ethnic "homeland" or "national state" areas of South Africa declared independent by the National Party government with the goal of accommodating the political aspirations of black South Africans.

While three quarters of South Africa's population speak one of the Bantu languages as their first language, only15% speak Afrikaans as their first language, and just over 9% are English-speaking (Penny, 1996). In addition to the communities speaking the eleven official languages, there are smaller groups speaking Portuguese, German, and Greek, though the "Bushman" languages are not recognized as "official" languages, they are guaranteed protection as community languages in the constitution.

The Role of English in South Africa

Despite the small number of native English speakers (about 3 million), English is disproportionately influential, being used by many millions of speakers as the *lingua franca*, or as a second or third language. There is thus a wide range of levels of competence in the language, from native English speakers on the one hand to those who use the most elementary English as a communication tool on the other. The position of English as an international language, its adoption by the liberation movements, its widespread use in commerce and industry, and the almost exclusively

Afrikaans character of government, police, and civil service during the apartheid era are all factors which have led to the perception among many black South Africans that acquiring competence in English is highly desirable. The effects of apartheid such as the separation of communities into socially distinct groups, and the powerful consciousness of ethnic divergence which developed, affected all aspects of life, including language (Khokhlova, 2011). White, Black, Coloured, and Indian South Africans use English, with varying degrees of sophistication, but as a result of their isolation from one another, native English, Afrikaans English, Black English, Coloured English, and Indian English are distinguishable from one another, each containing lexical items unknown to people of other groups, and each containing lexical items unknown to people of other groups, and each exhibiting characteristic pronunciations and even grammatical structures. Despite the powerful position of English as the *lingua franca*, particularly since 1994 multilingualism is increasingly supported by government in an attempt to safeguard the rights of all language communities. The development and promotion of the African languages, ignored in the past, is an important component of multilingualism (Gough, 1996).

English and South African Dutch

English first came to South Africa at the end of the 18th century during the first British occupation of the Cape (1795-1803). In 1795 the first British administration at the Cape inherited Dutch laws, bureaucracy, currency, and weights and measures. The Cape was at first perceived by the British government as a strategic possession rather than as a colony, and the small new community of English speakers consisted mainly of administrators, soldiers, and merchants. The advent of English marked the beginning of struggle for supremacy with South African Dutch (later Afrikaans) which would last for almost two centuries. The African languages were not perceived as relevant to the issue of language stronghold and power. From the second decade of the 19th century, English gradually began to dominate as the language of official and commercial interaction at the Cape. In 1827 the Dutch legal system of *landdrost* and *heemraden* was replaced by resident magistrates and civil commissioners, and English became the medium of the courts (with interpreting available). This caused particular resentment in the rural areas, where South African Dutch was the *lingua franca*. English was afforded special protection under the Cape constitution of 1853. In the mid- 1870s an Afrikaner political and cultural revival included the promotion of the Afrikaans language. Afrikaners struggled to have Dutch accepted as a medium of instruction in the Cape schools together with English. In the 1880s in the Transvaal Republic, a similar struggle was waged on behalf of English by the *uitlander* (foreign) population. The South African War of 1899-1902 saw relations between English speakers and Afrikaners at their lowest ebb. After the Boers' defeat the Transvaal was granted responsible government, the official language was to be English. The attempt at establishing English in South Africa at the cost of Afrikaans led to bitter resentment among Afrikaners towards all things English (Walker, 1972).

The constitution of the Union of South Africa (1910) declared English and Dutch as the two official languages, Afrikaans being added in 1925. After 1948, when the National Party came to power, despite the legal position of English as the second official language, Afrikaans was afforded favorable status, and was used as the language of government and the civil service and was promoted as a medium of instruction in black schools. However, once talks had been initiated between the National Party and the resistance movements in 1992, English was the language used during the resulting negotiations. Since the election of 1994 and the advent of the African National Congress-dominated Government of National Unity, there has been a noticeable shift to English as the language of government.

19th Century English-Speaking Immigrants

English became an established South African language only after the arrival in 1820 of 4,000 British immigrants. This organized and subsidized immigration resulted in the first sizeable English-speaking community in South Africa's history to interact with neighbours from other language communities, and to be committed to remaining in their new environment. They were a diverse collection of people, separated by regional dialect, class accent, and widely differing educational and economic backgrounds. However, the hardships of the South African frontier environment – war, drought, floods, and crop diseases – united the settlers into a group with a common experience and common troubles. This resulted in the emergence of a generation which, having been raised on the frontier, had their own regional dialects and accents of a new Eastern Cape English, with its distinctive pronunciation and vocabulary. English has always changed and grown through its ability to absorb new words, and settlers English was no exception. It soon included words borrowed from the languages and cultures among which the new immigrants lived. As their life changed, so did their vocabulary.

Other organized immigrations of English-speaking settlers followed that of 1820; then came the discovery of diamonds (1867) and the opening of the Witwatersrand gold fields (1886), the rapid growth of an *uitlander* (foreign) population in the Transvaal Republic, and the development of an industrialized society. The diamond and gold-fields spawned a new technical and informal vocabulary, including *banket* (gold-bearing conglomerate), *blue ground* (diamond-bearing ground), *bossboy* (a black team-leader), *compound* (labourers' living-quarters), *fancy* (coloured diamond), *kopje-walloper* (a diamond-buyer), *melee* (small diamonds), *mine captain* (the overseer of an area of a mine), *mine-dump, onsetter* (one responsible for controlling the lift in the shaft, probably from the Afrikaans *aansitter),* and *shiftboss* (Penny, 1996).

South African Dutch and Afrikaans

Of all South Africa's languages South African Dutch (later Afrikaans) has had the greatest effect upon the vocabulary of South African English (SAE). The first contact between British and Dutch at the Cape of Good Hope in the late 18th and early 19th centuries resulted in English accounts of Cape life in which Dutch words were included to add colour. The Dutch words which appeared in English between 1795 and 1820 reflect the transfer of administrative power from one culture to another: terms such as *aum* (a unit of liquid measurement), *baaken* (a post for marking boundaries or claiming territory), *Burgher Senate*, *drostdy* (a magisterial district), *erf* (a plot of residential land), *field-* (or *veld-*) *cornet* (an administrative official), *fiscal* (the chief legal officer at the Cape), *heemraad* (a member of a court of local officials assisting the magistrate), *Jan Compagnie*or *John Company* (nicknames for the Dutch East India Company), *landdrost* (a magistrate), *morgen* (a unit of land measurement), *placaat* (an official notice), *opgaaf* (a tax-return), and *rixdollar* and *stiver* (units of currency) are common in English writing of the period. Most of these words are historical curiosities, recording the vocabulary of a former time; however, words reflecting the daily life of the Cape people, and still central to the SAE vocabulary, also began to appear in English contexts from 1795; words such as *biltong* (dried meat), *bredie* (a stew), *doek* (a head scarf), *hanepoot* (a sweet grape or wine), *mealies* (maize), and *stoep* (a verandah).

The African Languages

After the borrowings from Dutch and Afrikaans, the greatest influence upon SAE has been exercised by the Nguni languages, particularly Xhosa and Zulu, as a result of early contact by missionaries and settlers. Words of Xhosa origin such as *abakwetha* (a Xhosa initiate to manhood), *bonsella* (a small gift, something extra), *indaba* (a tribal discussion), *tagathi* (witchcraft), *tokoloshe* (a mischievous water-sprite), and *umpakati* (a tribal councillor) appeared in settler and missionary writings during the 1820s and 1830s. Most of these words entered SAE with reference specifically to Xhosa culture, but over the years many have broadened in sense. The Sotho group of languages, particularly Sesotho and Setswana, have also added to the SAE vocabulary: for example, *lapa* (the forecourt of a homestead, or an open, fenced space in the rest-camp of a game park), *morogo* (wild spinach), *ousie* (form of address for a woman), *tsessebe* (an antelope), and *tsetse.*

Many well-established vocabulary items have their roots in African languages. Some are assimilated, their prefixes either disappearing or being treated as an integral part of the word, and their Bantu origin often not recognized. Such Words include *babalaas* (suffering from a hangover), *bonsella* (a small gift, something extra), *cocopan* (a heavy ore-container on wheels, an alteration of the Zulu *ingqukumbane* "stumpy wagon"), *dagha* (plaster; to plaster, from Xhosa *ukudaka), donga* (a water-eroded gully), *fundi* (an expert or buff, probably from Rhodesian, later Zimbabwean, English, from Ndebele *umfundi* "a disciple, learner"; or from the identical Xhosa and Zulu), *impala* (an antelope), *induna* (a leader), *maas* (sour milk), *mahem* (the crowned crane), *marula* (a tree bearing edible fruit), *nunu* (any insect), *songololo* (a common centipede), *tegwaan* (the bird *Scopus umbretta), tolhe* (a young bull or ox), and *(old) toppie* (an old person). Other borrowings are at a transitional stage; one example, *abakwetha,* occurring in a range of spellings, disregarding the significance of Nguni singular and plural prefixes, and frequently employing the English plural *-s* (*umkwetha(s), amakweta(s), abakwetha(s), kweta(s)*).

Many African words have entered English in order to describe cultural or historical phenomena: the *Bunga* (the Transkei parliament), *diretlo* (ritual murder), *domba* (a Venda initiation dance), *Fanakalo* (a *lingua franca* developed by mining-companies), *imbongi* (a praise-singer), *inyanga* (a herbalist), *kgotla* (a tribal meeting-place), *bogadi*or *lobola* (bride-wealth), *Mfecane* or *Difaqane* (the large-scale dispersal of northern Nguni people during the 19th century), *pitso* (a tribal gathering), *sangoma* (a diviner).

Other Influential Languages

Several languages which have had a considerable influence upon the linguistic heritage of South Africa are no longer used in the country, or are spoken only by very small groups. The Khoikhoi languages exerted most influence on the languages of the Cape Colony, Dutch and Xhosa, as a result of contact during the 17th and 18th centuries most of the Khoikhoi borrowings now found in SAE were acquired via these two languages. Khoikhoi words in SAE include *chacma* (a type of baboon), *eina* (an exclamation of pain), *gogga* (any insect), *kaross* (a skin cloak or blanket), *kudu* and *onbi* (antelope), *quagga* (an extinct form of zebra), *Xhosa*.

Languages of the Indian subcontinent, such as Hindi, Tamil, Urdu, and Gujerati, were introduced by Indian immigrants, both indentured labourers and merchants (the latter known as *passenger Indians*) from 1860 onwards, particularly in the province now known as KwaZulu-Natal. These languages are spoken by decreasing numbers of (mainly elderly) people, a result of successive generations of education in English. Indian words in SAE include *breyani* (a curried rice dish), *bunny-chow* (a half-loaf of bread, hollowed out and filled with curry), *Deepavali* ("Diwal", the Festival of Lights), *dhal* or *dholl* (lentils), *dhunia* (coriander), *roti* (a savoury pancake), and *samoosa* (a small, triangular pastry filled with curry).

Apart from the words which were borrowed into SAE from other languages, the South African vocabulary also includes English words which have a particular meaning in SAE. English words with special senses in SAE include *advocate* (barrister), *attorney* (solicitor), *bioscope* (cinema), *bond* (mortgage), *cafe* or *tearoom* (convenience store), *cubbyhole* (glove-compartment), *drift* (ford), *geyser* (water-heater), *hostel* (either atop), *just now* (in a while), *land* (a field; a country), *motivation* (a project proposal, a supporting argument), *torecuse (oneself)* (to leave a meeting because one has an interest in the subject under discussion), *robot* (traffic-light), and *stand* (a plot of land). Subsequent SAE comings include *Afrino* (a cross between Afrikander and Merino sheep), *American kitchen* (a fitted kitchen), *banana-boy* (someone from Natal), *bio-cafe* (a cinema where films may be watched while food is served), *Christmas beetle* (a cicada), *dumpy* (a 340 ml bottle of beer), *gem squash* (a small, round pumpkin), *grey area* (an area where people of all races live or work), *to have acadenza* (to react hysterically), *Old Year's Night* (New Year's Eve).

Conclusion

Many perceive "standard English" to be the English of educated southern England, and do not recognize the existence of a standard form of SAE. There is a conviction that "British English" is the standard against which SAE is judged and found to be wanting. This conviction is a result of many factors, among which are the perception that SAE and slang are synonymous; the belief that the SAE accent is inferior to all other English accents; a lack of understanding of the realities of modern British English; the easy recognition of borrowings into SAE, and the invisible nature of specialized SAE senses of English words; and a lack of knowledge of the age, depth, assimilation, and creativity of the specialist SAE lexicon. So we may expect that despite the popular support English has among the masses, there is an attitude among the intelligentsia that the dominance of English entrenches present unequal power relations in the country. The future of English within South Africa is not so much a question of what variety of English will emerge, but rather of whether an appropriate learning context can be constructed which enables English to be a language of access and empowerment (Gough, 1996).

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Chinese ELF Pronunciation Strategies: Striving for Excellence

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Abstract: A significant proportion of real-life communication in English as a *lingua franca* accounts for breakdowns due to the ELF speakers' pronunciation differences. We define pronunciation strategies in the English speech of the Chinese such as time-gaining, compensatory and avoidance used to consciously or subconsciously minimize the pronunciation effort through using equivalent phonetic traits of both native and target languages.

Keywords: *English as a lingua franca, bilingual isomorphism, Chinese English, pronunciation strategies*

English has been spreading around the world like circles on the water: the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle, the Expanding Circle. It is no longer a language limited to countries where it is spoken as the mother tongue. As evidenced by its prevalent global spread, it has truly become a *lingua franca* (ELF), a medium of communication among groups of people who do not speak the same first language. As Kachru states, “The English language now belongs to all those who use it” (1988: 1). Functioning as a mediator of this interaction, English has experienced merging with local languages and thus acquired specific features on different language levels. As a result, it has given birth to multiform varieties restricted geographically or ethnoculturally, called “New Englishes” (Kachru, 1984). The language has, as stated by Crystal () “married with other local languages: living in new houses, wearing new clothes…” (2004: 128), and become a “GLOCAL language”, to apply Pakir's (2000) terms. English, used in environments different from its origin, adjusts and changes to suit its new conditions. It has become a tool employed in the everyday communication of human beings who accommodate it to their practical use by simplifying the language on different levels.

There are some works dedicated to the idea of exploiting a minimal set of linguistic means sufficient for cross-cultural communication. McCrum (2009) wrote a book on Globish (a term coined by a French amateur linguist and a former IBM executive Jean-Paul Nerriere), a simplified limited version of English, the major principles of which include a vocabulary of just 1,500 words, gestures, repetition, basic grammar or no grammar, like “he go tomorrow”. As McCrum (2016) says, Nerrière described Globish as “decaffeinated English”. The prospect of a decaffeinated language seems as dispiriting as that of a decaffeinated drink, which is just useless warm brown water. Globish that manifests itself in a variety of off-shoots only allows to communicate efficiently on some subjects and in some situations. Sometimes just using gestures and mimics is sufficient for effective communication. So, on the one hand, turning English into a simplified model for international communication jeopardizes its original idiomaticity and richness, endangers its cultural heritage and linguistic traditions. On the other hand, cultural and linguistic changes are unavoidable as a living language is always transforming over time and space and adapting to the needs of its users.

The development of the English language varieties is de facto a concern of all those people who use it for their communication. All speakers of English are responsible for determining the future of English. Historically, the ownership of the English language belongs to the Inner Circle speakers but nowadays non-native speakers also tend to accept its ownership. According to Kohn “if non-native speakers accept ownership, they also need to begin to feel responsible for themselves. Before being able to shape the future of English, they need to get their own English into shape” (2011: 73).

Until now, there has not been any variety of English from the Expanding Circle which is codified, acknowledged, and accepted by academic authorities. In our view, it is more pragmatic and practical to stand on a familiar ground and stick to Standard English as a target model for EFL and ELF learners. It is quite a complicated issue to give a clear, agreed-upon definition of the term “standard”. Within the framework of this paper we adhere to McArthur (2003) who describes Standard English as the most widely accepted and understood variety with the following identifying characteristics: 1) it is acknowledged worldwide in a written form; 2) it is the language of the news presenters; 3) it is related to the speaker’s status (social class and education). In the world where non-native English speakers outnumber native English speakers we deal with such a diversity of varieties that it is quite indispensable to have a common thread that guarantees safety, confidence and global understanding. When representatives of one and the same ethnocultural and linguistic community interact in English with each other, some peculiarities of their speech are not a barrier to communication. However, when conversing outside this community they encounter peculiarities of other varieties. It is here where the majority of miscomprehensions and distractions arise and English fails to fulfill its *lingua franca* function.

When it comes to pronunciation, which is the object of our interest, the situation grows even worse and more stressful. It is like a boomerang effect; the one who speaks suffers even more than the one who listens. If, according to Maxim Gorky, a word is clothing of all facts, of all thoughts, then a sound is clothing of all words. Yet clothing is an intensely personal matter. You can be dressed as scruffily and shabbily as you like, but it is much more pleasant to see and communicate with a neatly dressed person.

Recently an idea of using a certain minimum set of ELF phonetic parameters providing mutual understanding in cross-cultural communication has become widely accepted (Medvedeva, 2010). There were several attempts to elicit the phonological core to achieve international intelligibility. The most well-known and cited core was suggested by Jennifer Jenkins (2000), who drew out a circle of phonologically important phenomena in a multilingual context: vowel quantity, most consonant distinctions, appropriate consonant cluster simplification, tone-group segmentation and correct nuclear stress placement.

There is no denying the fact that the above comprise the most significant phonetic features responsible for communication breakdowns. However, it is obvious that the instances of communication breakdowns are far more complicated. Tendency of ELF speakers to exploit a minimal set of communication means accounts for their pursuit of bilingual isomorphism. The whole point of this phenomenon is that bilinguals reach out for symmetry by maximal use of all language phenomena coinciding in both languages and ignoring what is different. And in the majority of cases people speaking ELF practice English outside English-speaking countries, which results in ignoring linguistic and cultural norms, simplifying their speech on all language levels, especially phonetically. Some authors state that in fact most ELF speakers care little if their speech sounds codified, thinking that communicative efficiency is a way more valuable than phonetic and grammatical correctness (Cogo, 2008). Moreover, ELF speakers prefer preserving their accent as an indicator of their national identity, as they do not consider approximation to native speakers' pronunciation to be a necessity or a value. According to this idea, to have effective communication irrespective of whether with native or non-native speakers it is sufficient to avoid essential mistakes relevant for communication (e.g. articulatory deviancies connected with semantic changes) and to ignore the deviations not affecting the understanding. Language learners are considered to only be able to realize and master those articulation and perception norms, which native speakers notice in the first place if violated (Bernstein, 1975).

There is a distinction between the terms "error", "mistake", and "deviation". According to Proshina, "the borderline between deviations and errors is rather fragile" (2000: 72). Errors, both individual and typical for community, are made in an uneducated speech and caused by lack of language and culture knowledge. They often lead to misunderstanding and unintelligibility. A self-correctable error is labeled as a mistake (James, 1998: 78). Mistakes may be unacceptable by native speakers as, firstly, they do not belong to the linguistic norm of the English language, and secondly, they cannot be justified with references to the sociocultural context of a non-native variety. Whereas deviations mark an educated variety of language as distinct from another educated variety and do not break intercultural communication (Proshina, 2007: 71). They are the result of the new "un-English" linguistic and cultural settings in which English is used, it is systemic within a variety, and not individual (Kachru, 1983: 81).

It is undoubtedly necessary to teach students to deliberately prevent errors spoiling communication. However, we tend to stick to the point of view justifying a maximum approximation to native speakers' standard (Received Pronunciation or General American). We are determined that the observance of pronunciation rules is a speech culture trait and if a person respects the language they speak, they are bound to keep within these rules. Mistakes are inevitable, we are not too strict to a non-standard usage, but we are firmly convinced that one should strive for accuracy, for respecting the norms of a foreign language they study, for raising the level of speech culture. ELF speakers unavoidably make steady pronunciation mistakes attributable to phonetic transfer. The process of mastering a foreign language is always accompanied by conscious and subconscious comparison of native and foreign languages. As a result, there appear speech mistakes proving students' verbal and cognitive actions and their choice of certain strategies during communication. It seems essential to analyze the mistakes caused by phonetic transfer and to interpret them under the conditions of diverse multinational phonetic varieties. By analyzing intralingual mistakes (or so called development mistakes) reflecting the peculiarities of language acquisition it is crucial to identify the strategies used by students to facilitate the process of a foreign language acquisition (Bagana, 2006). This is very important because awareness of how the mechanism of these strategies is being triggered benefits further understanding of how to minimize the side-effects of a communication deviance.

The aim of this paper is to describe the pronunciation strategies used by Chinese learners of English. Such studies are quite timely as we are witnessing an impressive increase of international students' academic mobility. Some Russian universities have faced a unique situation when students from the Expanding Circle countries (China, in particular) come to get higher education in Russia choosing English as their major. University teachers and students are exposed to different manifestations of English and employ it as a *lingua franca* for in-class and out-class communication. Our pilot study comprises the results of a spontaneous ELF speech analysis. We recorded Chinese ELF speakers (30 students learning English as their major) who were supposed to talk for about two minutes on some topic describing their life-style, leisure, studies, etc. Our preliminary findings suggest that Chinese learners of English use various pronunciation strategies in communication to overcome pronunciation difficulties.

By pronunciation strategies we understand compensation of underdeveloped audio-pronouncing skills necessary for achieving the aims of communication with the help of mutually intelligible techniques. The strategies are sort of compensatory mechanisms (lying behind bilingual isomorphism) used to consciously or subconsciously minimize the pronunciation effort through using equivalent phonetic traits of both native and target languages. This phenomenon stems from an inherent individual need to save pronunciation efforts and also from psychophysiological, linguistic, sociolinguistic and cognitive peculiarities of the foreign language acquisition process in the context of cross-cultural communication.

Pronunciation strategies being, in general, a part of communicative strategies are based on the taxonomy by Z. Dörnyei (1995) and are divided into three groups: time-gaining, compensation and avoidance.

Time-gaining

This pronunciation strategy resulted in different hesitations in participants' speech. Hesitation pauses were numerous and could be filled or unfilled (vocalization, sound duration, comments (*I don't know whether you know, you know,* etc.), involuntary repetitions (partial repetition, full repetition of a word or word combination, nonverbal pauses), e.g.:

dormitory [dɔː 'dɔːmɪtɒrɪ]

Accent ['eɪsən….'eɪsənt….]… ***accent*** *is not a very good thing.*

You can…you can…you can *spend a lot of time to remember something.*

Different kinds of hesitations were used to compensate for the efforts needed when searching for the necessary word to express the meaning or when dealing with segmental or suprasegmental difficulties in English speech.

Compensation strategy

This pronunciation strategy was used to facilitate the pronunciation efforts on the sound level and the syllable and sense-group levels. Here are some examples:

A. On the sound level we found sound substitution, sound confusion, sound omission, and sound insertion:

1. [w] was changed into [ʊ], e.g.:

*The policy in China… **one*** [ʊən] *child policy…*

*But I **wish*** [ʊɪʃ] *he can be happy all the time…*

woman [ʊmən], ***wood*** [ʊd].

2. [l] was vocalized in the end of English words, e.g.:

fall [fɔʊ], ***little*** ['lɪtəʊ], ***wool*** [uːʊ].

3. [r] was turned into [ʒ], e.g.: ***run*** [ʒʌn]

4. Voiced consonants were devoiced, e.g.:

*I'd like to talk about my favorite movie…it's **starred*** [stɑːt] *by Nicole Kidman…women **sufferings*** ['sʌfərɪns]*… inner **struggles*** [strʌgls]*… I like that movie it kind of **impressive*** [ɪm'presɪf].

5. [f] was confused with [θ], [l] with [r], e.g.:

*There are **four*** [θɔː] *members in my family…as I am the **oldest*** ['ɔːrdəst]…

6. Consonants were omitted to overcome articulation difficulty in making consonant clusters, e.g.: *perfectly* ['pɜːfItəlɪ]; *twelfth* [twel].

7. [ə] was inserted as the reaction to consonant clusters, e.g.: *speak* [sə'pɪk], *definitely* ['defɪnɪtəlɪ].

B. On the syllable and sense-group levels we found incorrect sense-group chunking, weak forms accentuation, incorrect word stress placement, wrong pausation, e.g.:

But I prefer to watch some movies [bət ˏaɪ | 'priːfɜː ɪt uː| wɔtʃ səm 'muːvɪs]. Or, *I met very kind people* [aɪ 'maɪˏtəː | 'veˏriː | 'kaɪndəlɪ 'piːpəl].

Avoidance strategy

In comparison with time-gaining strategy this one was realized when the speaker was not searching for a word or thinking what to say next but simply ceased speaking with the words *I don't know how to say…that's all*. There were rare cases of speech stops.

This research presents preliminary results and needs further theoretical and empirical verification. However, even the initial analysis allows for stating the fact that Chinese ELF speakers use systematic means of facilitating pronunciation. These means are attributed to both the influence of native language transfer and the factors important in the process of the ELF acquisition.

In conclusion, we would like to point out that international communication should be an efficient exchange of information, allowing the interlocutors to perceive and express their ideas and intentions. The strategies used to minimize pronunciation efforts and neglect of phonetic models of a target language negatively influence the efficiency of both ELF acquisition and communication. ELF speech approximated to the norms of a target language is unlikely to be rejected. Conversely, it will attract listeners' attention and interest. It does not matter who the listener is by their linguistic background: a native English speaker or a non-native one. For both, to perceive heavily accented speech is rather hard on the mental level as it takes more processing time to interpret the incoming information. The listener is supposed to be highly motivated to process accented speech otherwise they may "subconsciously protest against unproductive waste of mental energy" (Bernstein, 1975: 18), or simply lose interest, get irritated, or just misunderstand.

This is the role of English phonetics teachers to stimulate students' awareness and develop foreign speech culture, pronunciation culture, which is of great social significance and accounts for fast, easy, and effective communication. The principle of approximation to the model of Standard English (RP or GA pronunciation norms) is still vital as it gives solid ground for mutual understanding, respect to the listener and to the speaker. The deviances we define here are transient and avoidable due to special phonetic training based on awareness of transfer zones of languages in contact. Revealing students' potential through awareness will help them realize that where there is a will, there is a way – a way to excellence!

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Gender Stereotypes in the American Mass Media: Feminine Aspect

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Abstract: Focusing on the problem of stereotyping reveals ways to successful intercultural communication, what is very important taking into account English as an international language. The following article aims to define and specify gender stereotypes emerging in the modern American mass media and to find out means of verbalization by which they are formed. The object is American newspaper articles on political, economical and social issues. In this article we attempt to answer the question whether American gender stereotypes changed over the last five years concerning the pay gap, male and female jobs and female politicians, especially within the 2016 presidential race.

Keywords: *intercultural communication, gender, gender role, gender stereotypes, linguistic genderology, social role*

Introduction

Today one can hardly imagine modern journalism without stereotypes. From the first newspaper to the global network of social media, sustainable notions of different groups of individuals have been not only an essential part of each message addressed to the audience but also a basic material for publications and radio and TV programs. Stereotypes tend to change temporally and to reflect a political course and ideology of the government, cultural differences between nations, gender differences between men and women and many other typical features of particular social groups. Being a tool for sorting and simplifying received information from different sources, specifically from the mass media, stereotypes are one of the most important mechanisms used for orientation in the social environment.

The movement from gender segregation towards equality in the United States is gaining further momentum; the society is witnessing new emerging opportunities and much freedom in choosing the career. This gives birth to numerous newspaper articles on the subject. Since any changes in the social stratification have an effect on the language of a particular culture, one can postulate the existence of new roles and behavioral norms constructed by the members of the society towards the representatives of male and female gender.

Gender (or sociocultural sex) is not a linguistic category, however, its content can be uncovered within the analysis of linguistic units what explains the relevance of the linguistic competence in studying the cultural gender representation. Gender is a social construct created by the society including by means of the language. This makes a strong case for studying the linguosociocultural aspect of gender relations.

In our research we first try to identify and systematize the emerging gender stereotypes in the American mass media discourse using the authentic materials over the last five years. The research aims to identify the linguosociocultural aspect of gender stereotypes and the characteristics of male and female image in the American mass media.

The object of the research is American mass media discourse. The subject is the peculiarities of gender stereotypes and means of their verbalization. In the course of the research, we set out several objectives. The first is to consider the basic terms of the linguistic genderology and stereotypology, and the existing stereotype classifications. The second is to analyze the manifestation of stereotypes in the US mass media discourse and the peculiarities of the female image. At this point it should be noted that in the process of the analysis, mostly female stereotypes were found and very few male ones. As a result, the paper deals with the feminine aspect in particular. And the third objective is to describe how the stereotypes are verbalized in the language, to classify them and to determine the status of a woman in the society and the family.

The material of the research is the articles from such periodicals as *The New York Times*, *The Washington Post*, *The Chicago Tribune* and *The Boston Globe*. From these periodicals we selected articles on social, economical and political issues.

The given research is interdisciplinary and lies on the intersection of several branches of science: gender linguistics, cognitive linguistics, psychology, intercultural communication and sociology. Therefore we find it worthwhile to consider different approaches to the definition of the stereotype in general and of the gender stereotype in particular.

To begin with, the term *stereotype* was employed by American sociologist Walter Lippman in his book *Public Opinion* in 1922. That book was not a scientific treatise, and, frankly speaking, Lippman was not first to postulate certain cognitive schemes that organize our thoughts and lead the process of recognition, but his definition was widely accepted in the social science. Lippman (1922) coined a metaphor describing what a stereotype is: “Stereotype is like the lavender window-panes on Beacon Street, like the door-keeper at a costume ball who judges whether the guest has an appropriate masquerade” (p. 66). In other words, stereotypes are well-ordered, schematic, culturally determined images in people’s mind that save their efforts in the process of perceiving complicated objects and protect their values, opinions and rights.

In cognitive linguistics the term stereotype refers to the content of the language and culture and is understood as a mental stereotype identified by the human worldview.

In social psychology the stress is put on the psychological human characteristics: “Stereotypes are our generalized notions of groups of individuals, particularly, of their basic psychological traits or features of personality” (Matsumoto, 2003: 145). The Russian scientist Y. Samarin underlines the associative nature of stereotypes. He defines them as “language units that cause a range of similar associative reactions in mind of the representatives of particular cultural identity at the psycho-verbal level” (1962: 119).

In intercultural communication, the communicative function of stereotypes is highlighted. As Collen suggests, “stereotype is a mechanism of interaction at least of two minds, the primary form of communication, the result of mutual bent for each other and cultural strain, that together and simultaneously define the extent of individual socialization” (Prokhorov, 1996: 76).

In gender linguistics, one postulates the existence of a gender stereotype. Karolina suggests that gender stereotypes are “culturally and socially determined opinions and presumptions about the features, attributes and norms of behavior of the representatives of both genders and their reflection in the language” (1999: 75).

Having studied the approaches to the definition of stereotype, we can state that at the moment in science there is no common definition of this term as well as there is no common view on its nature, because in different disciplines, different features of a stereotype are stressed. It is significant to underline that it is not only a mental image, but also its verbal cover. That means that stereotypes can exist at the level of the language as a norm.

Concerning the classifications of stereotypes, it is important to admit that most of the researchers divide them into auto stereotypes and heterostereotypes. The first ones determine opinions and judgements about one’s own group of individuals, and the latter are about the representatives of other groups of individuals. Also, there are positive and negative stereotypes. Depending on the discipline, there is a gender stereotype, cultural stereotype, geographical, political, social, ethnic and others.

One more fundamental term we operate in our work is gender. It is significant to differentiate gender and sex because sex is a biological term, it refers to the outer, physical features, whereas gender is a sociocultural sex. The thesaurus of gender research provides the following definition: gender is a complicated social construct: the differences in behavior, roles, mental and emotional characteristics between the male and the female, created by the society. In gender studies, it is postulated that there exist two social groups – men and women – related asymmetrically, unequally when these groups get involved into different kinds of activity and different social classes. The gender asymmetry takes place when it comes to an indirect act of a direct suppression of a person, belonging to a particular gender group. It is the primary source of emerging gender stereotypes. Scott divides the definition of gender into two parts: “1) gender is a constituent element of social relations, based on outer differences between men and women, and 2) it is a primary mean of power differentiation” (1999: 44). Defining gender, he emphasizes the fact that gender is not merely a social construct, but a construct based on power, segregation and hierarchy.

Having studied different approaches to the definition of gender and stereotyping, we set out the criteria according to those we selected the material. 1). Units should contain gender semantics, explicit or implicit. 2). They should contain opinion and evaluation. Bias is an essential part of stereotypes. 3). They should be schematic i.e. they should fix the essential features of the representatives of both social groups. According to these criteria we selected linguistic units and analyzed their form. Thus, we found out that there are four ways of their verbalization in the language:

- lexeme (*talented, courageous*)
- precedent name ("*I don't have any Taylor Swift tickets*")
- allusion (*aunt Tom*)
- citation ("*We just got an army of people who, um, and many women, who left their kitchens to go out and go door-to-door and to put yard signs up for me", said Ohio Gov. John Kasich*)

In our research we assume that gender stereotypes – opinions and judgments on the roles and norms of behavior of a social group – are verbalized differently and thus creating the overall image of a group representative, a female one, in particular. Having selected about a hundred articles on political, economic and social issue, we divided them into groups according to the role women play in society:

- woman as a politician
- woman as a soldier
- woman as a part of a family
- woman as a sexual object

The image of a female politician is especially relevant at the moment in the US within the 2016 presidential race. For the first time, America has several female candidates at once, consequently it caused a wide response from the society. This image is mostly a positive one. Let us consider the examples.

> "**Highly educated** and **talented**, these women are **the top choice** for the job."

The context is taken from an article on female candidates which says that women have enough good qualities to hold such a high position. The lexeme *talented* also occurred in the descriptions of a military woman. Another example:

> "People are **proud** to see a woman president."

The lexeme *proud* was found many times in the context of roles that traditionally are not feminine. We could say this is the evidence that the society welcomes new female roles. One more example:

> "Ex-President Bill Clinton and Frank Fiorina are campaigning in Iowa as potential "**first gentlemen**."

In this case we observe a new unit, created after *first lady.* In spite of the fact that this one refers to a male representative, we can use it for defining the woman's social role.

Since the officials have been disputing on whether women should be allowed in combat, even in the elite, we estimate that 65 percent of all the units on this topic are positive:

> "But will these two **sisters-in-arms**, and other women, be allowed to serve in the storied Rangers regiment?"

Again, a new unit appeared. This makes us think about a new role of woman correspondingly, about a courageous, faithful, devoted to her motherland woman. Here is a similar example:

> "This observation is no criticism of military women, who are just as **determined**, **courageous** and **committed** as their male counterparts."

In this case women seem to be equal to men. Though 15 years ago nobody could even imagine that women would be once allowed in combat. It is important to say that we deal with not simply military women but women in combat who participate actively in hostilities.

One more essential feature is talent which most of the military are supposed to have:

> "Barack Obama promised an even stronger military, as "our armed forces will draw on an even wider **pool of talent**."

The most common notion of a woman throughout many cultures is mother. It stuck to people's consciousness, as well as the image of a kitchen: "Women left their **kitchens** and went to vote". We have to admit that this one we refer to negative stereotypes. We cannot deny that it is deeply rooted both in American and Russian cultures, but we have to point out that our material shows the opposite. We mean the role of a woman seems to be absolutely different. A woman becomes a bread winner, a head of the family, an advisor of a husband:

> "Chris Christie boasts of his wife being the **family's top earner**."

> "With two women running for president and a number of **high-powered career spouses**, 2016 is shaping up as a different kind of election."

> "Jane Sanders is a **key adviser** to husband Bernie Sanders."

No doubt, men frequently pay attention to women's sexuality. Once it used to be a good female feature. Beauty usually matters, not intellect or other traits. But when it comes to combat everything changes:

> "They (women) were **distractions**, likely **to destroy** 'unit cohesion'."

> "This is certainly not to blame men for **men's weaknesses**."

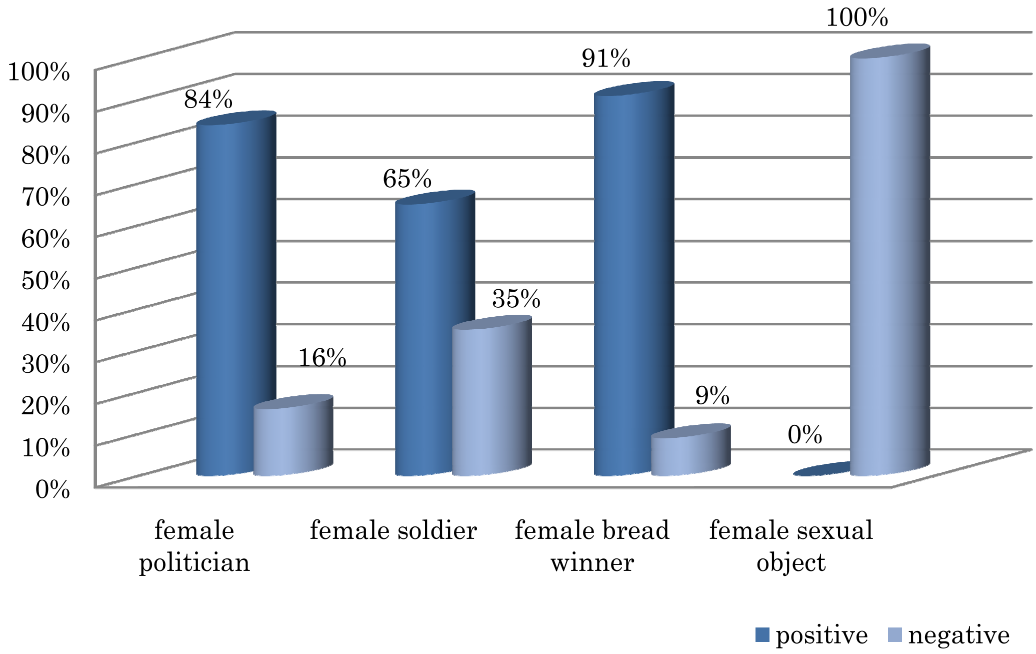
We see that a woman is a serious problem in this case, she brings chaos and disorder.

> "There is a difference between a bunch of **candy-ass officers** trying to get promoted for being politically correct and a combat battle-ready Marine unit in the field."

This one could be referred to both military and sexual roles. The crucial point is that similar citations belong to male individuals. Historically, the fund of language stereotypes is created by men mostly. This could be clearly seen in proverbs and sayings.

The next objective is to count the percentage of positive and negative stereotypes concerning each female role. Chart 1 depicts the results:

Chart 1. Correlation between positive and negative female traits



It can be clearly seen that the positive stereotypes prevail over the negative ones in all respects with the exception of women's sexuality. In our case we just deal with such social institutions that do not accept that, for example the army. This correlation allows us to make an inference that gender inequality is being reduced to a very low level. The point is that the roles are changing, with many women holding "masculine" positions.

The last step is to count the verbs occurring several or many times. It turned out that such verbs like *qualify for, compete for, contend for, struggle for,* etc. are mostly used as a predicate with female subjects. After that we arrive at an idea that in spite of new horizons extended for women by the society, they still have to struggle for their rights. Table 1 demonstrates the occurrence of these verbs in the whole range of articles:

Verb	**Frequency**
qualify for	11
compete for	7
contend for	5
struggle for	3
fight for	3

While selecting the verbs used again and again in the context of new opportunities for women, we found out another very important thing. We turned to Charles Fillmore's theory of semantic cases, and the conclusion is the following: in a sentence, men take active position and influence women, whereas women take passive position, but nevertheless gain something useful and needed. The occurrence of such verbs is illustrated in Table 2:

Verb	Frequency
allow	24
include	12
provide	11
give	9
put	8
open (an opportunity for)	5

Conclusion

The semantic role labeling we faced in our research means that, subconsciously, men still put women in passive positions, at least at the level of communication. On the one hand, in spite of the changing stereotypes, there is still a tendency to male predominance in the language. That is the evidence that some traditional stereotypes are deeply rooted in people's consciousness. On the other hand, the changing views and assumptions about the image of a woman show the new roles she plays in the modern USA.

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Semantic Features of Phrasal Verbs in Different Varieties of World Englishes

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Abstract: This paper discusses some semantic features of phrasal verbs in different varieties of World Englishes. The American and Russian varieties of the English language are compared. Two novels have been chosen to illustrate specific features of phrasal verbs in these varieties of the English language: *The Hours* by Michael Cunningham and *The Dream Life of Sukhanov* by Olga Grushin, correspondingly. The semantic analysis shows which groups of phrasal verbs tend to be predominant.

Keywords: *phrasal verbs, semantic analysis*

The aim of this research is to compare phrasal verbs functioning in two varieties of the English language (EL) – the variety from the Inner Circle and the variety from the Expanding Circle (Proshina, 2007: 29). For this purpose, the semantic analysis of phrasal verbs (PV) has been carried out.

Recently linguists have been taking growing interest in research into special features of World Englishes. The varieties of English from the Inner, Outer and Expanding Circles are often used to study different linguistic phenomena. One of such phenomena is phrasal verbs (PV), which permanently attracts linguists' and educators' attention.

Such an active interest is fully justified if we remember how complicated the phenomenon of phrasal verbs is. To alleviate difficulties PV present, different attempts to classify PV have been made (e.g., Fairclough, 1965; Golubkova, Medvedeva, 2012). One of the problems of phrasal verbs classification is connected with the fact that it is very difficult to draw the dividing line between a phrasal verb and a free combination of a verb and a particle. The famous American linguist Dwight Le Merton Bolinger wrote in his book *Phrasal Verbs*: "being or not being a phrasal verb is a matter of degree" (Bolinger, 1971: 6). The problem of understanding PV has yet to be solved. That is why we have decided to study PV in different varieties of the EL using the semantic and frequency analyses.

To study the features of PV functioning we have chosen two varieties of the EL: the American and the Russian one. Researching the American variety we used the language material of the novel *The Hours* by Michael Cunningham (Cunningham, 2006). As an example of the Russian variety we used the novel *The Dream Life of Sukhanov* by Olga Grushin (Grushin, 2007). To carry out the semantic analysis, one hundred phrasal verbs have been randomly selected from each novel. All the phrasal verbs have been classified into five groups.

Group 1

Phrasal verbs which do not have equivalent one-word verbs. The following PV can be given as an example of PV from group 1:

check into – *to arrive at a hotel, private hospital, etc. to begin your stay there;*

get up – *to rise from bed, esp. in the morning;*

take off – *to remove (smth such as an item of clothing) from the body;*

It is practically impossible to substitute any of these phrasal verbs by one word only.

Group 2

PV which have common archisemes with one-word verbs but differ from them by distinctive semes or connotative semes. This group is subdivided into 3 subgroups: **A** subgroup (distinctive semes are different), **B** subgroup (connotative semes are different), **C** subgroup (both distinctive and connotative semes are different).

A

root out – *to get rid of, destroy (smth unwanted)*

archiseme: *destroy*; distinctive seme: *destroy (smth unwanted)*

B

turn up – (not fml) *to arrive*

archiseme: *to arrive*; connotative seme: *not fml*

C

pick up (not fml) **–** *to get (something) usu. cheaply*

archiseme: *to get*; distinctive seme: *to get (something) cheaply*; connotative seme: *not fml*

Group 3

Phrasal verbs which have one-word equivalents

find out – *to discover, obtain information about smth*;

count on – *rely on.*

> Ralph <…> can barely be **counted on** to perpetuate, in his allotted span, the ordinary business of the ordinary world. (Cunningham, 2006: 74)

In this sentence, if we replace *count on* with *rely on*, the meaning of the sentence will not change.

Group 4

Phrasal verbs which have equivalent phrasal verbs or idiomatic expressions

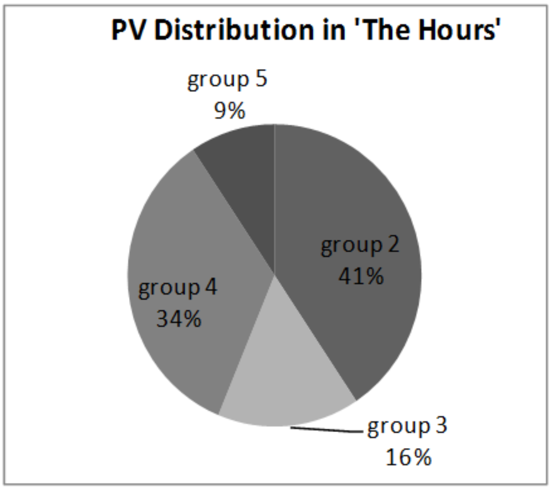
put down – *to record in writing, jot down, note down, take down, write down;*

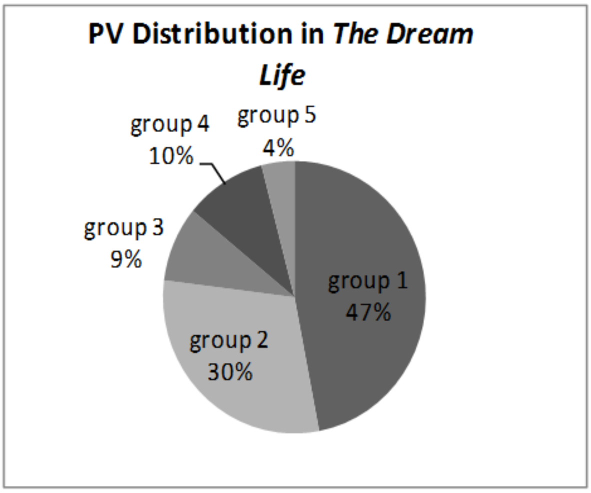
carry on – *to continue speaking or doing smth after a short pause, go on.*

Group 5

New phrasal verbs or phrasal verbs with a new meaning or combination of two meanings

The distribution of PV among these groups is shown in the following diagrams:





As can be seen from these diagrams, there is no statistically significant difference between PV in two varieties of the English language.

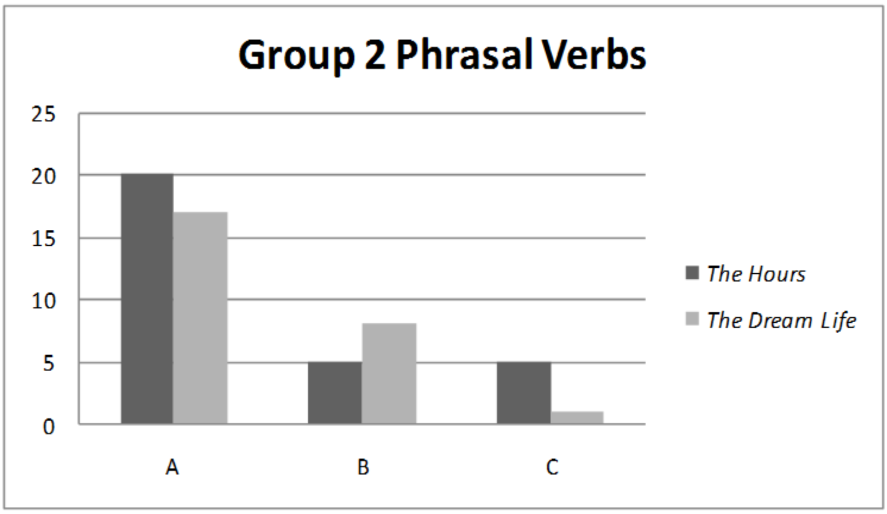
Group 1 being the largest, refutes the popular belief that it is possible to do without PV by replacing them with their single-word alternatives.

The fact that the second largest group is Group 2 can be explained in the following way. It is possible that some PV were created to describe events or situations in a more accurate and concise way, although their usage was limited to an informal register. Currently the situation has changed. PV are getting increasingly popular in all registers of the EL. The growing popularity of PV can be justified by the principle of economy (Baranov, 2007). Although PV from Group 2 have synonyms among one-word verbs, they cannot be considered closely equivalent, and writers opt for a phrasal verb to be more precise.

Group 3 being very small supports the statement that the complete synonymy is very rare and what we usually observe in the EL can be called "quasi-synonymy" instead (Kobozeva, 2012: 45).

Group 4 turned out to be quite numerous as well. This result shows that the EL contains a great variety of PV which can express different shades of meaning.

Considering the division of Group 2 into subgroups, we will have the following picture:



A subgroup – distinctive semes are different; **B** subgroup – connotative semes are different; **C** subgroup – both distinctive and connotative semes are different

In the diagram, we can see that the majority of PV differ in their distinctive semes. The second largest group being the one with different connotative semes indicates high importance of PV pragmatic component. It can be stated that writers often opt for the PV due to its register. In this research it was mainly not formal or informal register.

One of the most impressive features of phrasal verbs is their ability to have a wide variety of meanings. In addition to that, PV tend to acquire new meanings. Moreover, in the research there have been registered cases when a PV has been used in the meaning which can be considered as a combination of two meanings presented in the dictionary. New phrasal verbs or the phrasal verbs with new meanings have been classified into Group 5. The following examples can be given to illustrate this phenomenon:

1. **put in**

> You don't need to **put in** a performance. (Cunningham, 2006: 64)

Dictionaries of Phrasal Verbs do not register this meaning. The phrasal verb *put on* (a performance) has the meaning "to stage". For *put in* the closest meaning (for that context) in *Longman Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs* is No 3: *to include, add*. But this meaning does not fully reflect the author's idea.

2. **move on**

> Then the feeling moves on. (Cunningham, 2006: 92)

Oxford Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs gives the following meanings of *move on*: a) *to continue your journey after stopping for a short while; to leave the place where you are and go to a new place;* b) (about ideas, beliefs etc.) *change and develop*. The context demonstrates that the combination of two meanings has been used.

> Then the feeling moves on. It does not collapse; it is not whisked away. It simply moves on like a train that stops at a small country station, stands for a while, and then continues out of sight. (Ibid.)

This example illustrates another striking feature of PV, which can be called flexibility or adaptability. The usage of the PV allows the writer to create an image-inducing simile, a comparison of a feeling with a train.

3. **stick on**

> I just stuck on a shock ending. (Cunningham, 2006: 66)

In *Longman Dictionary of PV* it is written that this PV has the meaning *to be very fond of* in the passive form only: be stuck on **(**not fml) – *to be very fond of, keen about, unable to leave (smth or smb).*

This example can also be considered as an evidence of PV flexibility. It illustrates the change in grammatical norms concerning PV. In spite of the fact that in dictionaries it is written that the passive form of this phrasal verb is required in the meaning described above, the author uses it in the Active Voice.

4. **close off**

> The gentle light of the lamp wove a golden cocoon of tranquility <…> around them, **closing** them **off** protectively from the night. (Grushin, 2007: 32)

Longman Dictionary of PV gives only one meaning*: to block smth such as an entry or road*. The usage of PV *close off* instead of the verb *close* makes the picture more vivid creating the image of complete isolation and self-containment.

According to *Bolinger* (1971: xiii), PV are the "most prolific source" of new words in English. In this research we have been able to see another evidence of high productivity of phrasal verbs.

Conclusions

1. It has been shown that in both variants of the EL in most cases the usage of PV was practically unavoidable; PV presenting the most precise description of actions or events.
2. The pragmatic component of PV plays a very important role.
3. Phrasal verbs are constantly evolving, acquiring new meanings. Sometimes the grammatical norms of their usage are changing.

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Metaphor in Classroom: A Different Approach – a Different Result

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Abstract: What traditional linguistics took to be a dead metaphor, is no longer dead in cognitive linguistics. The latter posits that as long as we can grasp the direct meaning of a word (like *catch a flying object* in *grasp*) this word is a metaphor. A single conceptual metaphor in mind "spins off" a lot of metaphorical expressions in language, which seem easy to commit to memory if organized around several generic source domains of metaphors (a tangible thing, enemy, obstacle, support, etc.). This paper aims to show how, by practicing a cognitive approach to metaphor, to make the learning of otherwise unrelated words easy.

Keywords: *conceptual metaphor, instantiation, cross-domain projection, source domain, target domain, frame structure*

Introduction

This article is based on my knowledge as a teacher of Translation for EFL majors and ESP students, as well as a linguist with interests in metaphor studies.

To be diligent and successful, majors in English have to learn a lot. Those with photographic memory may learn lists of words and phrases and rattle off English texts, but that does not mean they are able to express their own ideas using vocabulary as fluently and correctly as native speakers. The results are far less impressive when students are asked to do a translation or, which is still worse, an interpretation from Russian into English. Making students commit to memory lists of words is not a great idea but in teaching translation a teacher has to do it, because in translation classes the focus shifts from vocabulary drilling onto developing interpreter/translator's skills. Learning essential topical vocabulary becomes entirely a student's responsibility. My insights might be of interest to those who want to help their students optimize the process of vocabulary learning on their own. The author argues that students may spare time and effort if they get aware that most of the words are metaphors.

Theoretical assumptions: metaphor in mind and in language; its omnipresence

Traditionally, metaphor was taken to be a figure of speech. As such it is a subject of study for Decoding Stylistics (whose focus is on analysis: how to understand texts interlaced with idiomatic expressions) and for Rhetoric (whose focus is on synthesis: how to decorate our speech with figurative means, namely metaphors). A cognitive approach to linguistics has taken a new attitude towards metaphor. Metaphor is no longer an exclusively stylistic or rhetoric decoration. Metaphor is claimed to be originally in mind and in brain and then in language. As a cognitive phenomenon, it is a "cross-domain mapping from a source domain to a target domain" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1999: 58).

What we find in language is an instantiation (objectivation) of a mental concept, a reflex of a mental cross-domain projection onto language (ibid). Metaphor in language, or "metaphoric(al) expression" in the Lacoffian terms, is, by Lynn Cameron (2011: 34), any usage of a word whose meaning in a context is different from its primary direct concrete meaning in the dictionary. This definition serves as a criterion of identification of metaphors in language (for more detail see Procedure…; Cameron, 2011: 34-58).

Finally, metaphors are taken to be omnipresent in language. Paul Ricoeur once said that language is a cemetery of dead metaphors. Cognitive linguistics posits that all abstract concepts are understood and expressed linguistically in terms of concrete things: "Our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980: 3). As long as we can *grasp* the direct (etymological) meaning of a word (like *catch a flying object* in grasp) it is a live metaphor (Lakoff & Johnson, 1999: 124-125). Sometimes we do not even realize that using general language we use metaphors. Therefore, metaphors outnumber non-metaphors.

A great number of metaphors may be an instantiation of a single conceptual metaphor. In other words, one conceptual metaphor may project onto language a great number of metaphoric expressions. Though numerous, conceptual metaphors are far fewer in number than their linguistic instantiations, and therefore easier to remember. The task for a teacher is to draw students' attention to metaphors in texts, i.e. 1) identify them, and then 2) teach students how to subsume metaphorical expressions under more inclusive categories, conceptual metaphors.

Case study

Here are a few examples. The first one shows how useful it is to identify metaphors. A general language word *problem* collocates (*verb+problem*) with a plethora of verbs: *be beset with, be confronted by/with, be dogged by, be faced with, be fraught with, confront, encounter, face, run into, identify*; *consider, debate, discuss, look at/into*; *address, approach, attack, combat, come/get to grips with, grapple with, handle, tackle*; *avoid, circumvent, find a way around/round, get around/round*; *clear up, cure, deal with, overcome, resolve, solve*; *alleviate, ease, reduce*; *exacerbate (make smth worse, esp. a disease)*; *analyse, explore* (taken from Oxford Dictionary and sampled from contexts by the author). Russian students tend to avoid most of them, giving preference to the collocation *deal with a problem*. Except for verbs of mental activity *consider, analyse* and verbs of speaking *debate* and *discuss*, all the rest verbal collocations are of metaphoric nature. An abstract concept "problem" (target) is understood and discussed as if it is a tangible thing (source).

As a tangible concrete thing "problem" may pose a threat acting like an obstacle in the path, a dangerous living being or enemy ready for hostile actions. It may be understood as a disease or its symptoms, and, finally, as a riddle to be solved (see Table 1).

Table 1. Metaphor PROBLEM IS A THING POSING A THREAT and its instantiations

Conceptual metaphor	**Instantiations (=metaphoric expressions)**
Problem as a concrete thing	*be beset with, be confronted by/with, be dogged by, be faced with, be fraught with, confront, encounter, face, run into, identify, clear up*

1) an obstacle in the path of smth/smb	*avoid, circumvent, find a way around/round, get around/round*
2) a dangerous living being/enemy	*attack, combat, come/get to grips with, grapple with, handle, tackle*
3) a disease and its symptom	*cure/alleviate, ease, reduce, exacerbate (make smth worse, esp. a disease)*
4) a riddle	*solve, resolve*

Ontologically, these source domain verbs are used to describe concrete things of the physical world. To prove it, let us consult the *Oxford English dictionary* (*OED*). Metaphor "problem as a dangerous living being" is instantiated by words which imply a physical contact with an enemy. The definitions below are from the *OED* unless stated otherwise.

Tackle, n. – a physical challenge to an opponent, v. – to prevent smb's progress with the ball; try and take a ball from an opponent in football, rugby, a puck in hockey (*Oxford Phrase-builder*).

Wrestle, v. – fight smb by holding them and trying to throw or force them to the ground;

Grapple, v. – take a firm hold of smb and struggle with them (*Collins Dictionary*);

Grip, n. – holding tightly (neutral).

Take/make / [have] a good <u>stab</u> at a problem means "to make an attempt to do smth" (сделать попытку, попытаться <u>заняться</u>). *Stab* as a verb means "to push a sharp pointed object, especially a knife, into smb, killing or injuring them".

Now, instead of learning a list of collocates, students have to understand that a problem may be an obstacle, enemy, disease and riddle. All the verbs that collocate with these nouns will suit "problem".

Another example is prepositions *on* and *off* in contexts. As a Russian speaker, I found out that some expressions and phrases are difficult for ESP translation students to memorize and reproduce, especially in translations and interpretations from their native language into English.

English uses *on-/off*-phrases (be/stay on; put smb on – get/go off; take smth/smb off smth) like in the examples below regardless of a field of knowledge (be it economy, law or medicine). These are a few sentences with the vocabulary that students are unlikely to use. We discussed and translated texts on Macroeconomics (the gold standard and the FIAT system, 1-6), Medicine (diseases, equipment and medications, 7-9), and Law (10-12, *The Good wife* movie). An asterisk (*) before a word is used to give a blue-print meaning of the Russian word in bold type.

1) …[H]is [Roosevelt's] top economic advisers were telling him <u>to stay **on** the gold standard</u>. – Советники Рузвельта советовали ему **придерживаться (*stick to)** системы золотого стандарта.
2) In the early part of the 20th century, all the world's key economies <u>were **on** the gold standard</u>. – В ведущих экономических державах **действовала (*acted)** система золотого стандарта.
3) In 1971 president Nixon <u>took the United States **off** the gold standard</u>. – … **отменил** золотой стандарт **(*cancelled**).

4) Going **off** the gold standard gave the government new tools to steer the economy. – Отказ от (*refusal/cancellation) золотого стандарта….
5) *[A]t the bottom of the pyramid [are] those* **on** *fixed wages or incomes. – …те, кто живут* ***(*live) на*** *зарплату.*
6) …[N]ext come corporations who borrow large sums [from banks] – those **on** lucrative government contracts – for new ventures particularly overseas. – … те, кто на выгодных контрактах (***on**… contracts. A link verb *be* is omitted, or **получили (*secured/got)** выгодные государственные контракты.
7) To be **on** medication/pills/drugs (of a drug addict). – The doctor took the patient off the medication (больной **принимает (*takes)** лекарства, **сидит на** (*sits on) лекарствах – ему **отменили** лекарства (*medicine was **cancelled** to him).
8) Be **on** life-support system – take smb **off** it/be off it (**быть** на/**держать к.-л. на** системе жизнеобеспечения **– отключить от** (*switch off) системы жизнеобеспечения).
9) She was put **on** a ventilator. – After three days she was taken **off** the ventilator ("Ее **подключили к**…" (***switched onto),** "она на системе" (*she **is on** the system) – "**отключили от** системы искусственного дыхания" (she was switched off the ventilator).
10) She is **on** it (="She is working at this assignment" from *The Good wife* movie) – Она этим **занимается (*deals** with this)/над этим уже **работает**. Ей это **поручили.** (*it was entrusted to her)
11) I'll get/have Kalinda **on** it (*The Good wife* movie) (meaning "I will have Kalinda do it" – Я **поручу** это Калинде).
12) The officer leading the investigation has been taken **off** the case. – "Следователь **отстранен** (*pushed aside) от этого дела = у него **забрали** дело (*the case is taken away from him). However, Russian has a way to say "он на должности", antonym: "снят с должности" (*he is **on** a good position/*He is **taken off** the position).

As can be seen from translations (1-12), unlike in English, Russian tends to use verbs with specific meanings in most cases to produce a reasonable translation. However when Russian students have to interpret from Russian into English the idea of "being on/taken off medication, position, ventilation etc", they prefer to use English blue-prints of Russian specific verbs. Dictionaries may help in some particular cases but do not cover all the diversity of such instances. Nor can dictionaries explain why "be on/off" in 10-12 have meanings different from in 1-9.

Sentences 1-9 share a common thing: they have the primary metaphor of support. Primary conceptual metaphors are always experience-grounded. Support (n) in its direct meaning is "a thing that holds smth/smb in position and prevents it from falling" (for example, the supports under the bridge) (*OED*), or in a mental picture of a Padaung woman from Burma in Southeast Asia with neck coils supporting her head. The verb *support* means "to hold smth/smb in position". We are able to understand a bank advertisement showing a bird sitting comfortably in the nest on a life-saving ring floating safely along the river. The picture is a mental projection onto the "safety-of-your-accounts-at-our-bank" idea.

In the sentences above, English speakers understand target domain concepts of gold standard, wages/incomes, contracts, medication/pills/drugs, life-support systems, ventilators meaning support (Table 2). BEING ON these things means HAVING SUPPORT. People depend on these things for life, comfort, or benefit.

Table 2. Metaphor of support from below (A depends on B for life/some benefit). Examples 1-9.

Target domain	**Source domain**
GOLD STANDARD n_1 WAGE/INCOME n_2 CONTRACT n_2 MEDICATION/PILL/DRUG ($n_{4)}$ LIFE-SUPPORT SYSTEM/VENTILATOR (n_5)	IS SUPPORT

The awareness of how the support metaphor works in English helps students be creative and continue a list of target concepts that may be understood in terms of support, thus enhancing linguistic predictability and diversity.

Now let us take a look at the remaining examples 10-12, which have different meanings. It happens so because they are instantiations of a different metaphor – BEING ON A THING IS HAVING POWER AND CONTROL. “I’ll get/I have her on it” (10-11) means “I’ll make her responsible for this assignment/task etc” and “I’ll put her in the position of a controller”.

Those who are not interested in cognitive studies, especially in frame structure of metaphoric concepts which were described here in compliance with the method offered in Baranov and Dobrovolskiy (2008: 225-250), may skip the following four paragraphs to get to the conclusion.

Table 3. Metaphor of responsibility/control: BEING ON SMTH IS HAVING RESPONSIBILITY/CONTROL

Target domain	**Source domain**
JOB/POSITION ($n_{6)}$	IS RESPONSIBILITY/CONTROL/POWER/SUPPORT

How does it happen that BEING ON SMTH fails to mean “getting support”? It is because SMTH in the target domain is different making a source domain concept depend on it. I mean an ASSIGNMENT (n_7) in sentences 10-11, and a LAW CASE (n_7) in 12. Some target concepts (JOB, POSITION) may entail support (the money we get), and responsibility, control or even power. Depending on the situation a source domain concept may be either highlighted or “back-staged” (peripheral) in our conceptual system. On the one hand, having a job implies support/power beneficial for one who is in the possession of it, and on the other hand, responsibility. When we are taken off this position we lose support, and consequently benefits, control and power over others. Control and power may be peripheral in the conceptual sphere when we think about job. Sometimes a target concept is not necessarily associated with support, as in sentences 10-12 (“I’ll have Kalinda on it”), with responsibility and power highlighted. Cognitive linguists say (see the method in Baranov & Dobrovolskiy, 2008) that the SUPPORT concept is replaced with a POWER concept in the source domain. BEING ON SMTH IS HAVING (-) SUPPORT/(+) CONTROL/POWER/RESPONSIBILITY. Minus (-) shows that there is no longer SUPPORT in the conceptual metaphor. BEING ON SMTH is a *target* domain, while HAVING (-) SUPPORT/(+) CONTROL/POWER/RESPONSIBILITY is a *source* domain. Both domains have a complex tree-like structure. The way a domain (concept) is structured is called a frame. Frame is a structure of a conceptual domain (or simply CONCEPT if it is a complex one).

Target domain concepts ASSIGNMENT (part of job = pars pro toto, n_7) in 10-11, CASE (in 12, n_8) highlight concepts RESPONSIBILITY, CONTROL, and POWER in the source domains, firing (activating) pertaining neurons in brain, and shift concept SUPPORT (in the source domain) to the periphery of the conceptual sphere, or even eliminate it completely from the frame and replace with POWER/CONTROL/AUTHORITY.

POWER/CONTROL/AUTHORITY are understood as quantities: when we say “more or less powerful/dominant/authoritative” we speak of levels of control. The higher position, the more powerful/dominant is a beholder. Such entities (positions) are usually thought of in terms of verticality. As soon as we introduce into the frame an amount of control/dominance we get an orientational metaphor. UP IS CONTROL/DOWN IS NO CONTROL. The elimination of a concept of SUPPORT and the ADDITION of the concept of AMOUNT into the frame has changed the nature of the metaphor, namely, added a new vertical dimension.

A student does not need to know all this theory. S/he needs to know that the homonymous form “*being on smth*” may be an instantiation of two different metaphors: 1) the support metaphor (if targets are n_{1}- n_{5}, 2) the control/responsibility metaphor (with targets n_{6}- n_{8}.). *Being off smth* means 1) “no longer have support” in the first case, and 2) “no longer have control/responsibility over smth” in the second. As soon as a student gets the general idea of the expression, s/he needs to analyze the context and find appropriate words in the target language.

Conclusion

The message of this paper is as follows. The vocabulary of any language does not build up chaotically. Language is a cemetery of dead metaphors, but cognitive linguistics posits that the presumably dead metaphors are still alive and are instantiated in language on a regular basis. A single conceptual metaphor spins off a lot of metaphorical expressions, all of them seem to be easy to commit to memory if organized around several generic source domains of metaphors. If we look for a conceptual metaphor behind a group of thematically interrelated and metaphorically used lexemes we may make teaching and learning not as difficult. This knowledge spares a student mechanical learning of otherwise unrelated words. Conceptual metaphors work as a unifying principle for some stratum of lexemes. Being aware of the metaphors, a student may organize the vocabulary in a system and understand the mechanisms of word combinability. We claim that subsuming linguistic metaphors under corresponding conceptual metaphors will facilitate the process of teaching/learning metaphors in any discourse.

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Bilingual Literature: A Crossroads of Two Cultures (A Study of Olga Grushin's Novels)

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Abstract: This paper addresses the issues of bilingual creativity in the framework of the World Englishes paradigm. Olga Grushin's novels (*The Dream Life of Sukhanov*, 2005 and *The Line*, 2010) are of great scholarly interest as they stand out from other Russian-American immigrant fiction as the author positions herself firmly as a "Russian writer". Moreover, the plot and setting are grounded in the Soviet Union; the themes of immigrants and their assimilation are not described in her novels. Thus the issues of her Russian identity represented in the English language of her creative writings have become challenging and essential for the linguistic community studying bilingualism, contact or translingual literature.

Keywords: *bilingual literature, national identity, Russianness, code-switching, calque translation*

Introduction

"A majority of the world's population is at least bilingual. Fortunately, few speakers are writers. Fewer still write well. And rarer still are those who write well in a second language. It is demanding enough to put the right words in the right place in one's native tongue. How vain, then, are those who presume to write imaginative literature in a foreign tongue?" (Kellman, 2000: 16). Nevertheless, contemporary Russian Anglophone writers, being audacious and ambitious, as a result turn out to be successful.

Gary Shteyngart's *The Russian Debutante's Handbook* won the Stephen Crane Award for First Fiction, the Book-of-the-Month Club First Fiction Award and the National Jewish Book Award for Fiction. It was named a *New York Times* Notable Book and one of the best debuts of the year by *The Guardian*. Anya Ulinich has won the Goldberg Prize for Emerging Writers of Jewish Fiction Winner (2008) and National Book Foundation's "5 under 35" Winner (2007). Olga Grushin's *The Dream Life of Sukhanov*, her first novel (published in 2005), won the 2007 New York Public Library Young Lions

Fiction Award, was chosen as a *New York Times* Notable Book of the Year and a *Washington Post* Top Ten Best Book of the Year, and has been translated into fourteen languages. Her second novel, *The Line*, was published in April 2010 and chosen as an Editors' Choice book by *The New York Times*. The English language fiction of Russian writers is an emerging and fast developing market, thus extremely interesting to study, describe and analyze.

The purpose of the present paper is to trace the way Russian identity of an author is represented in the English language of her work.

Tracing Russianness

It must be noted that English language works of non-native speakers of English are more than authentic writing. They are a blend of two cultures, two literary norms and traditions. It is two different language systems in contact, and for the writers their works are a form of cultural self-expression. They tend to be quasi-autobiographical and focus on questions of cultural alienation and adaptation, identity, and nostalgia (Ryan, 2013). In this respect Olga Grushin's novels (*The Dream Life of Sukhanov*, 2005 and *The Line*, 2010) are tremendously interesting to study as they stand out from other Russian English fiction as the plots and settings are grounded in the Soviet Union and the themes of immigrants and their assimilation, characteristic of other formerly Russian authors, are not described in her novels. This is how she gives an English-language voice to a Russian setting and subject-matter (Hansen, 2012). Olga Grushin positions herself firmly as a "Russian writer", but gives a sense of belonging to two cultures, of existing simultaneously in two vastly different and fascinating worlds, both of which inform her style in equal measure; and in her work she hopes to arrive at an original blend of the two.[1]

It is interesting to examine how this double consciousness afforded by bilingualism is inscribed into Russian-American texts, to what extent her Russian identity and Russian language is present and to what degree it varies from work to work. Olga Grushin often exhibits a high degree of code-switching and language-mixing. The author directly transfers Russian borrowings and integrates them into English:

> On a bright, windy afternoon in early April, just after five o`clock, she met Sergei at the corner to take his tuba from him and to hand over their number and a *buterbrod* wrapped in a napkin, as she did every day. (*The Line* 2010: 96)

The Russian word *buterbrod* is a borrowing from German (Butterbrot), which originally means a piece of bread and butter. In Russian culture *buterbrod* has become a piece of bread and any other spread, like cheese, butter, jam, caviar or fish. As English is a Germanic language the approximate meaning of the word *buterbrod* can be understood by the English-speaking reader because of the German roots *butter* and *brot* (bread).

> Well, give my regards to Fyodor. *Spokoinoi nochi,* Tolya. (*The Dream Life of Sukhanov,* 2005: 83)

[1] http://www.politics-prose.com/book-notes/10-questions-olga-grushin

The denotative meaning of the Russian phrase *spokoinoi nochi* is not obvious at all, but the bigger context (of a paragraph) is sufficient to convey both the approximate sense (good night) and the tone. These words are said by a mother to her son, and with this phrase she wants to end their telephone conversation, in which previously she has informed her son about things he was shocked to hear.

Quite often Russian borrowings are given in italics and followed by an explanation and calque translation:

> The girl was giggling, and Sukhanov distinctly heard her say *babochka* – "bow tie" or "butterfly" – but the night swallowed the rest of the sentence and…. (*The Dream Life of Sukhanov,* 2005: 19)

> …there would be many butterflies, yellow, white and orange, spiraling like sunspots over these weeds, which Sukhanov somehow knew, were called *ivan chai* – Ivan's chai, Ivan's tea – an odd, lyrical name that came back to him all at once… (*The Dream Life of Sukhanov,* 2005: 124)

Sometimes Russian words do not appear in the text, and only the explicatory translation is given as shown in the example below:

> …but both needed the doctor's signature on a document required by their place of employment. (*The Line* 2010: 103)

In this example both characters were waiting for the doctor to issue them a *spravka*, a kind of a medical note which is needed to give to the employer to justify absence from work.

Calque translation tends to be a very common technique to render Russian cultural things. The same technique is used to translate and integrate Russian idioms into the novel:

> I remember when you first came, such a dashing fellow, practically a boy, bushes of curly hair, <u>milk on your lips</u>…(*The Line* 2010: 60)

These are the words said to Sergey (the main character in *The Line*) by the director of the theater he works in. The director is remembering Sergey's first day at work, the time when he was young. Russian people use the idiom "milk on one's lips" when they want to say that the person is young and inexperienced. The basic meaning of the idiom refers to the process of breastfeeding the baby who sometimes has milk left on his or her lips. And when Russian people want to say that "it must please both parties and no harm is done to either of them" they say "to keep the wolves full and the sheep whole":

> …he was beginning to think that it was possible, just possible, <u>to keep the wolves full and the sheep whole</u>. (*The Dream Life of Sukhanov,* 2005: 174)

This proverb appeared in the book *Russian Proverbs* in 1853 and in the fiction of famous Russian writers (A. Ostrovskiy, L. Tolstoy). Although the idiom has a translation equivalent in the English language (run with the hare and hunt with the hounds) Olga Grushin uses the Russian idiom in order to keep linguistic and cultural peculiarities of her Russian identity.

Sayings and proverbs are, of course, a rich linguistic resource in Russian, and their translation is a particularly productive technique. These translations draw attention to themselves as foreign and exotic.

The same effect can be produced by Russian superstitions explained in English:

> She kissed him as she always had, in the doorway, repeating, "Careful, not across the threshold," standing on tiptoe to reach him. (*The Line* 2010: 138)

The Russian superstition "not to give anything/talk across the threshold" has very deep roots in the time of the Slavonic heathendom. Our ancestors buried their dead under the threshold and the dead souls were supposed to save and protect the house from evil. So, it was forbidden to give/take anything, or greet/say goodbye, and to talk in general, across the threshold.

As well as plentiful borrowings from Russian, Olga Grushin's novels are rich in personal names, and variants on the same name (short forms, pet names, diminutives, familiar forms) (Ermolovich, 2001). This is another way of detecting the Russian identity of the author:

> This fact made little differences to Alexander. (*The Line* 2010: 39)
>
> "Sashenka, just what do you do to get it so wrinkled?" (Ibid: 126)
>
> "Is everything alright with you, Sasha?" she said quietly (Ibid: 126)
>
> …past the drunks splattered over the sidewalk dealing cards, spitting on the ground, cursing some Sashka who had skipped out on them for the second week running. (Ibid: 151)

The Russian language is rich in diminutive and evaluative forms, which are used to name a person depending on the situation, on the speaker's attitude to this person, on the degree the interlocutors know each other or have a close relationship with each other. Despite the variations of a name (as given in the examples above: *Alexander, Sashenka, Sasha, Sashka*), Russian-speaking readers know that they refer to the same person.

As for Russian patronymics, which denote respect and sometimes age, they do not have analogues in European languages at all:

> Elizaveta Nikitishna, her voice simpering, had asked about the anniversary supper. (Ibid: 111)

All personal names are transcribed in the novels as transcription was found to be the most productive technique for rendering proper names.

Conclusion

The techniques described (code-switching and language mixing, calque translation, explicatory translation, transcription of personal names) do not by any means make an overall typology of the ways the author renders her Russian identity. This study is intended as a description and analysis of some of the ways bilingualism is productively inscribed in Russian English literature. The combination of English and Russian creates a linguistic product, where Russian underlies and affects the English of the text. These writings reflect the double vision of the contemporary Russian writer in the USA, to whom bilingualism has become both form and substance. Olga Grushin and other Russian English writers are inscribing Russianness – Russian identity – into Anglophone texts and leaving a very significant imprint.

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Japanese-English Code-switching and Mixing as a Mirror of Japanese Identity

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Abstract: This paper focuses on the functioning of English in Japan. In the introduction the terms "code-switching", "code-mixing" and "borrowings" are explained and a historical review of the introduction of English to Japan is given. This paper suggests that the use of code alternation by Japanese people is an act of self-affirmation. The material studied is a collection of Japanese movie dialogues. The English language items found were divided according to language levels and alternation function. The study finds that the nominative function is the most frequent that encapsulates the low occurrence of English used for the affirmation of Japanese self.

Keywords: *Japanese, English, code-switching, code-mixing, borrowings, code alternation functions*

Introduction

The English language has for a long time been the subject to peculiar abuse by other languages, and from this "arose the structure of our present English language, in which the speech of the victors and the vanquished have been so happily blended together; and which has since been so richly improved by importations from the classical languages, and from those spoken by the southern nations of Europe” (Skott, 1985).

English was subdued during the Norman conquest of England, but the 19th century brought another period of industrial and commercial development, when English became the “language on which the sun never sets” (Crystal, 2003).

Once subdued, English was the ideal material to become the *lingua franca* that it is now. Acquiring the status of world language, on one hand, can be considered as some sort of compensation for the past but, on the other hand, the number of languages in contact with English grew, which resulted in further absorption of foreign words. For example, contact with Japanese brought words like *kimono, ikebana, samurai, sushi, kawaii, haiku, anime, tsunami*, into English.

As language contact cannot be one-way, we cannot say that English was the only language enriched or contaminated by its contact with Japanese. Japan was an isolated country for a long time before it was forced to sign the inequitable Kanagawa Treaty with the Americans in 1854 (Tanaka, 1995). From being a feudal country Japan soon became a technologically intensive one that needed a *lingua franca* to communicate with the rest of the world and English was chosen to serve this function. However, it is used even for internal purposes now. In every Japanese conversation, English elements can be heard.

The usage of two languages in one speech event is normally called code-switching (CS) or code-mixing (CM), though there is no unanimity in defining the notions either in Russian or international studies. The principal distinction in Russian studies is whether or not there is a syntactic relation among the elements of one code (Studenichkin, 2006). If there is, then it is code-switching, if not, and the elements are only nominative, then it is code-mixing (Akhutina, 1985). At the same time Muysken (2000) uses the term “code-mixing” to refer to all cases where lexical items and grammatical features from two languages appear in one sentence. In this paper, we will stick to the point of view of Russian scholars.

Both CS and CM are elements of speech, not language, and are purely individual, which is why we can assume that CS and CM in Japanese speech can be part of the speaker’s self-affirmation, part of their idiolect.

How widespread CS and CM are in Japan is understudied. Even though English word elements can be found in any sphere of Japanese life (Proshina, 2001), the English language in Japan still belongs to the expanding circle, according to B. Kachru (2006), and attempts to teach it fail (Kirkpatrick, 2010).

Maybe in the case of Japanese English we should only talk about borrowings, as they are adopted and registered in dictionaries?

Spoken language is not restricted by clichés or terms; it can use any set of lexical and grammatical means. The most generally accessible way of studying spoken language is to analyze a movie, more precisely movie dialogues, which constitute the material under study here.

Japanese cinema has a history that spans more than 100 years; it started after foreign movies were brought to Japan. As Japanese cinema developed according to the rules of the theatre, Japanese theatre, so the art of acting, costumes and sets was theatrical; some of these features can still be found.

As for genres, modern Japanese movies have only slight differences from foreign ones. The main distinction is between *jidai-geki* (period dramas) and *gendai-geki* (contemporary dramas). It is only natural that *jidai-geki* which were once popular gave way to *gendai-geki*.

For our study, we selected 30 Japanese films made within the last 25 years. Four out of the 30 movies were of the *jidai-geki* genre, and contained no English word elements. That eliminates the hypothesis that English language elements are an obligatory part of decorating Japanese movie dialogues. The other 26 movies contained 748 cases of the use of English language elements, on different levels: 50 at the sentence level, 108 at the word combination level and 590 at the word level.

The Sentence Level

It is easy to imagine that English elements on the sentence level only belong to CS, but our examples do not support this idea.

CS itself, when is used on purpose, is intended to be understood by people from different countries; and that is the addressee function, according to Chirsheva's classification (Chirsheva, 2008). For example, the manager of a construction site says *Ok, let's get started* when addressing Korean workers.

CS also occurs without the presence of non-Japanese speaking people. It may be presented in the form of a lyrical digression at the beginning of a movie, e.g. *This day a boy and a girl both deadly heart broken by love, the girl, because she is tall, the boy because he is short, they promised themselves that they will never fall in love with someone who doesn't match in height. Who could have imagined that these two would meet again and become their high school's "All Hanshin Kyoujin". None could have.* The English speech in this movie was conveyed in Japanese in the form of subtitles to be understood by every Japanese person. This case of CS is used to make contact with viewers, and therefore serves the phatic function.

CS serves the esoteric function, that is to conceal some facts from outside listeners. *Keep speaking English. No Japanese*, says a young man to his fellow when it turns out that they are being followed.

Inclusions in quotation marks show CS that serves the nominative function: *"Ocean life and the theory of evolution" bu (club).*

Inclusions also carry out the citation function; they are verbalized in the form of sayings, mottos and colorful expressions: *Yume gaaru, tsumari "No music – no dream" mitai da ne.* (I have a dream. In other words, it is something like "No music – no dream").

To underline the ability of a person to speak another language or show his or her up-bringing, background or origin, CS is used with the self-identification function: *Yeah, it's my dream. Eigakanto kuninaru no waatashi no yume*. (Yeah, it's my dream. It's my dream to become a film director). According to the movie script, the speaker was originally Japanese but was raised in America, which is why the use of CS shows that she is bilingual. She repeated her speech in different languages, to be sure of being understood.

The next two are examples of the influence function:

Sonasanka artist wa: *Eminem, Elvis Costello, Marilyn Manson, Bjork, and more. Dyna wo nonde, let's groove!* (The following artists will take part: Eminem, Elvis Costello, Marilyn Manson, Bjork, and more. Drink Dyna Beer and let's groove!) This example is a part of a promotional video where the code alternation is used to add a particular effect of popularity and significance in order to attract attention, that is to impact future clients.

The next example represents another communicative situation: it is not an advertisement but a talk between two people, though functionally we suppose they are close and are used to producing a certain impact: *Toriaezu, yarebaiin ja naika. Let's go.* (So, it's ok to do that. Let's go!) We think these examples may also be referred to as the decorative function.

Apart from its decorative function, CS creates a certain taste of place and time, as, for example, in one movie all the news and ads were transmitted in English because the locale was colonial Britain.

All the above were examples of CS on the sentence level. On the same level we may encounter some borderline cases, that is between CS and CM. For example, in this dialogue:

– *Shiba-san no teni tattoo yareba, oyasui mon deshou*. (If Shiba gets the ink done, I have no doubts). – *God arm*. The response represents an elliptical structure containing only English lexical elements though phonetically adapted – [goddo a:mu]. The rest of the conversation is in Japanese, which leads us to think that it is CM serving a decorative function, not CS.

The same borderline case may serve the nominative function:

– *Kingyo arigatou.*(Thank you for the goldfish.)

– *Douitas himashite. Tree arigatou.* (You are welcome. Thank you for the Christmas tree.)

– Kochirakoso douitashimashite. (You are welcome.)

– Merry Christmas!

Apart from the above cases, we may encounter monosyllabic or dissyllabic utterances or responses. Most of these words and phrases are already found in Japanese dictionaries as borrowings. These are such phatic expressions as *Bye-bye* and *Thank you.*

All the examples studied show that not only CS, but also CM and borrowings may be present at the sentence level.

Word Combination Level

Even though one might think that the word combination level dominated by a form of CM, in reality we see that the percentage of CM is only 20% of all the English items under study. They can also be divided into groups according their function.

The first group consists of English items in quotation marks serving the nominative function: *Sensen koodo wa "Last suicide". Saigo no jisatsu*. (The mission code is "Last suicide". The last suicide.)

CM is used to decorate the text, to add a certain flair of place and time: *Kioharu botchan no asawa early morning tea kara hajimarimasu.* (Young master Kioharu's morning starts with early morning tea). Here the talk is about a descendant of the British aristocracy who follows its traditions, one of which is drinking tea.

The cases of loan translations (calques) of Japanese taboo items into the English language could be referred to as the euphemistic function, though we consider them to be only decorative: – *Nanda? **Booru** mite na.* (What is that? It looks like balls?) – *Sore wawatashi no **gold balls***. (These are my golden balls).Here we see a calque from Japanese 金玉 *kintama* (金 kin – gold, 玉 tama – ball) euphemistically used for “testes”.

The emotional-evaluative function is represented by the usage of taboo English lexis, because it is more accessible than the native lexis: *Ano* ***fucking monster*** *kowareru zo*! (Let’s kill that fucking monster!)

English words and word combinations are used to create humorous effects: – *Niounda! Ore wa inugami kyuukaku wo motsu* ***top breeder*** *da yo!* (I smell them! I’m like the top breeder with a dog nose!) – ***Top breeder****?!*It is not verbal humour here, but humour of situation, which is achieved by repeating similar dialogue with English nominative elements throughout the movie (arrogant utterance and sarcastic response). While the response accentuates the humour, the utterance shows the self-identification of the character as a person of a higher level, able to use a foreign language.

CM can be expressed as a quote: “***No comments***” *nanka imasu yo!* (I won’t take “no comments” as an answer!). However, this case is a rather borderline case where CM borders on borrowing. Such cases are a little more frequent than cases of CM (25%). Here we mean word combinations that are not fixed in Japanese language dictionaries in a combined form, but each element of which is registered in dictionaries. That is why we consider these cases to be CM, but they might have already stepped over the border of individual items: *Fuan na kareshi to* ***date schedule*** *ga ippai?!* (Your schedule is already filled with dates with your weird boyfriend?!)

The case is the same with English collocations: *Ano futomi nakami wa nanda?* ***Last chance*** *da*. (What was in the envelope? That is your last chance) – *Hanasu koto nanka ne. Omaera jigoku wo miru zo*. (I have no reason to answer. We shall meet in hell). – *Souka. Nara* ***game over*** *da*. (I see. Then the game is over). The phrases *last chance* and *game over* are widely known throughout the world by computer games, which are mostly in English. Functionally we combine such cases in the nominative/decorative function.

Grammatical borrowing also belongs to this borderline group. The English negative particle “no” is borrowed in the structure “no + noun”, where the noun is usually an English lexical element which is also usually borrowed: *Kono saki no* ***plan*** *annokai?* (Do you have a plan?) – ***No plan*** *da*. (No plan). We believe it is used more for decoration than for “saving one’s breath”.

The larger part (55%) of English language word combinations can be labeled as borrowings, as they are fixed in Japanese dictionaries. Most of them, as Proshina (2001) says, are borrowed to make up the terminology system for a professional sphere: ***Death metal*** *wa* ***heavy metal*** *music no shu, “shi”, “akuma”, “jigoku” nado teema ni shite atsuku kageki na* ***sound*** *de aru.* (Death metal is a variety of heavy metal with explosive and violent sound and lyrics about “death”, “demons” and “hell”); *Soshite* ***lower hull*** *nu aru* ***kingston*** *no* ***valve*** *wo kaihou surun da* (Then open the Kingston valve that is in the lower hull). In the first example, we see music terms that came to Japan with the music itself. The second example is of terms used on a drill ship.

The level of word combinations for the first time brings to light so-called *wasei-eigo*, English-inspired Japanese vocabulary items (Stanlaw, 2004) or pseudo English loan words. These are word combinations that have no similar structure in the donor language (here English) but are created by a target language (here Japanese) to denote culture-specific concepts or to imitate language means of the donor language (Proshina, 2001: 225): – *Sora-kuntte, sore* ***kiss mark****?* (Sora, is it a hickey?) –

Mushi da yo, mushi. (Just a mosquito bite). Here we see *kiss mark* instead of *hickey*. ***Steady ring***, *konna no okoru boku hajimete desu yo.* (That is the first time somebody has given me an engagement ring). *Steady ring* is used instead of *engagement ring*.

Word level

The absolute majority of English language items used in Japanese movie dialogues is encountered on the word level (about 80%). They represent borrowings as well as code-mixing.

– *Ore ga yaru ka? Ore ga* **fighter** *da!* (You wanna do me? I am a fighter!) – ***Fighter***?! Here we see a case of CM serving the humour and self-identification functions. A similar case was mentioned above on the word combination level.

Humourous effect can also be achieved by using occasional blend words: *Kanojo no koto yoroshi* ***QUEEN!*** (Hello, queens!). The ending of the original Japanese *yoroshiku* meaning "hello" has been blended with the English word, adding additional dandyism to the phrase.

Self-identification of a character is not necessarily followed by humour; it can be manifested as a quote: *Hantoshi mae nara kitto sugu ni "**Yes**" tte itte to omou.* (If I were asked half a year ago, I would immediately have answered "Yes"). According to the script, the person who is supposed to hear this answer is an American film director, so the would-be conversation would also be in English.

The emotional-evaluative function is quite close to the humorous one, because it engages senses and feelings: *Ore wa* ***ecstasy!*** (I am in ecstasy!); *Aitsu wa* **hero** *ni nareru otoko da!* ***Fucking*** *yaro ga!* (That fucking guy will become a hero!).

CM can be presented in inclusions in quotation marks, serving the nominative or the metalinguistic function: Kotoshi no "**Yearbook**" no **title**, **chief** ga kangaeta yo, "**Futurama**", "**Future**" to "**Camera**" awaseta zo, mirai he no tenbou to iu imi desu. (This year's "Yearbook" title – "Futurama"– was made up by our chief who combined "Future" and "Camera", and it meant "Insight into the future").

To specify the addressee's association with Western society, English determiners are used: ***Captain*** *Tomoki, watakushi oite oritashimaundesu yo*? (Captain Tomoki, are you going to leave me?); ***Mister*** *Iriya anata wo goji suru.* (Mr. Iriya, we are here to protect you).

The decorative function is also present: ***Suicide*** *wo shite kureta* (He committed a suicide). "Last suicide" was a mission code, which is why the Allies of Justice kept to the same word choice throughout the movie.

Borrowing is the most widely found phenomenon. There are many factors to it. For example, a new culture-specific item is brought to another country and brings with it its lexical manifestation – a word. And here we have the pure nominative function: ***Net*** *de iroiro mitetara sa, mechakucha kuwashii* ***blog*** *ga atta na,* ***comment*** *de shitsumon toka shite mo ii.* (I surfed the Net and found a blog where you can post a comment.)

Wasei-eigo cases occur quite often among nominative borrowings: *Kochi wa Kasumi-san,* ***ranobe*** *toka,* ***net games*** *kuwashii n dakedo.* (This is Kasumi, she adores *ranobe* and net games.) *Ranobe* is a style of Japanese novel, a small-format book, often illustrated. The word itself came from blending the pseudo English "light novel" which is pronounced as [**ra**ito **nobe**ru]. Moreover, this term has been reborrowed into English as well as into many other languages.

Nominative borrowings may also differentiate a word connotationnaly: *Otoko no hou ga seiiku* ***couple*** *nante kakkowaru ya.* (Couples where the girl is taller seem funny.) Historically in Japan there was no gender equity, so the use of the Western word shows changes in relationships.

Borrowings are also used to euphemize: *Gomen ne,* ***H*** *ja nai.* (Sorry, I'm not a pervert.) The English letter H, pronounced as ecchi, is used to mean "perverted". This letter borrowing can be considered a *wasei-eigo* term, because it is formed from the first letter of the Latinized Japanese word hentai with the same meaning.

Conclusion

To sum it up, English language elements can be found in nearly every sphere of Japanese life. They can be manifested as a word, word combination or a sentence. The most numerous are at the word level, about 80% of all English language items. Word combination and sentence items are few in number, 14% and 6% respectively. English language items can represent code-mixing, code-switching and borrowing. During the study, it emerged that code-switching and code-mixing are not characteristic of Japanese speech (about 15%) as is the case with borrowings (85%), which are functionally more nominative or connotative. This study has disproved our hypothesis that CS and CM are only used for self-identification, which was the function in only 7% of cases. The most frequent code-switching functions were addressee and phatic, while for code-mixing they were decorative and humoristic.

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Xenonym as "Insider\Outsider" Concept Formatting in Bilingual Post-colonial Literature

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Abstract: This study investigates a phenomenon of xenonymia used in the discourse of African post-colonialist literature of the twentieth century to discover the role of xenonyms and to figure out the "insider/outsider" concept in the context of African writers. The analysis of Negritude movement authors' texts shows the specific linguistic elements which seem to be artificially brought to the language of uncultivated tribes and filled in with a variety of specific African terms without translation into French. The study draws conclusions about the influence of partitive code-mixing in the realization of the artistic conceptualization of "insiders and outsiders".

Keywords: *xenonym, bilingualism, code-mixing, code-switching*

Introduction

In our research we are studying ways of expressing the "insider/outsider" concept through African xenonyms in the fictional literature of a postcolonial twentieth century movement named "Negritude".

In our article this concept is reviewed in the context of such subjects as cultural linguistics, ethno-psycholinguistics, culture-oriented linguistics, psychology and philology.

The novelty of this investigation lies in the aforementioned conceptual opposition mechanism through the introduction of xenonyms, or verbal and non-verbal other (outer) culture elements. Thus, the peculiarities of the "insider" and "outsider" are intensified. Xenonym, a term, introduced by the Soviet researcher V. V. Kabakchi (1998) is used to name specific elements of the other culture.

As a preliminary hypothesis we suggest that in the context of literary texts from the Negritude movement a concept exercises the function of picturesqueness, showing the gorgeous and distinctive character of African tribes, and a xenonym (lexical, phraseological, or syntactic) is an instrument for the realization of the concept.

Main Study

The Negritude (French neologism) movement, formed by bilingual African writers and poets, such as Leopold Sedar Senghor, Aime Cesaire and Leon Gontran Damasin in the 1920s had definite objectives. Firstly, it was to remind French people who originated from African countries of their history, language and traditions reflecting their soul, and to revitalise their ancestors' language in order for them to make a contribution to panhuman civilization.

Analysis of the texts' vocabulary to detect expressive features and imagery showed that the main text's dominant form which fulfilled these functions is xenonyms. Xenonyms serve as a marker of national language specificity in the text space of another culture.

The concept "insider" is formed through existential discourse, a traditional one, enriched by rites, proverbs and tales, and tribal songs. “Nepotism” as a semantic dominant of the home culture is expressed as a characteristic of African society as one of the most ancient ones, provided with worldly wisdom, and is shown by phraseological items which are accessible to the reader’s comprehension due to the “europhone” discourse.

In order to figure out the “insider” conceptual space we examined a repertoire of the novels’ key words, including the following lexical and phraseological units, and present them in the form of a conceptual analysis.

The core of the sphere of “insider” concepts represents a notion of God. The home aspects refer first of all to divine and fatal sides of housekeeping, pervading most of the writing with religious expressions, exclamations and metaphors. Due to frequent usage of xenonyms in religious contexts they have the prime importance for reader. However, for linguistic and extralinguistic reasons their lingual cortex is differentiated. In Rene Maran’s novel *Batouala* (1921) the author explicates a lexical xenonym, *N’Gakoura*, through contextualization.

N’est pas versé qui veut dans les bonnes grâces de *N’Gakoura*!	Not everyone may get the grace of *N’Gakoura.*

The image of God, or an allusion to coming to him at the end of one’s life, when His kingdom comes, is disguised in such a proverb as:

Et quand on ne sait où l’on va, qu’on sache d’où l’on vient.	And when we don’t know where we go, let’s know where we’ve come from.

The proximate periphery. Situations referring to the “insider” notion are: cultural and religious rites, traditional collective songs and tales, the hunt, friendship and situations of self-sacrifice for a friend. Similar situations are also transplanted into the text with proverbs; we call them phraseological xenonyms, with frequent inclusions of transliterated interjections.

On ne partage pas la mort avec son ami, mais s’il est humilié, couvert de honte, tu partages sa honte.	We don’t share the death with our friend, but if he is ashamed, you’ll share his shame.

Lexical xenonyms signifying the specific elements of African culture, which do not exist in French or Occidental culture are also a part of this semantic field and are integrated into the text with parallel explanations with the aid of intertextual commentary or a definition.

Par *le dja*, âme vengeresse de Sita	By the name of *dja***,** revenging soul of Sita
*Le sora***,** le griot des chasseurs, est venu déclarer son oraison funèbre.	*Le sora*, the griot of hunters, has come to declare his funeral prayer.

The furthest periphery. Imagery associations, appreciative nominations of events: frequent comparison of parts of the human body or actions with animals.

Il ne peut exister deuxhippopotames males dans un seul bief.	Two hippopotamus can’t exist in one slough.

This idiom indicates the existence of only one chief of the tribe, where there are two allegories: *hippopotamus – chief* and *tribe – slough.* The author uses it to make more expressions and to demonstrate the African epithets' abundance.

Positive and negative elements are present in "our" Africa in the novels of all the African writers studied, to a greater or lesser extent and this shows the self-criticism and absence of prejudice in the "black/white" category.

Suis insolent, incorrect comme barbe d'un bouc	Am insolent, wrong as a goat's barb

As for the "outsider" concept, its representation is intentionally made through a colonial discourse which serves to describe a system within the frame of all practices which can be called colonial, according to this term's creator, Edward Said (1978).

In the African writers' novels the "outsider" concept is represented partly through the discourse of Africans who joined the ranks of colonizers, whose speech reinforces the stereotypical image of Africans as viewed by Europeans as rude, wild, limited, wicked, ignorant and backward, neglecting the rules of politeness and being unable to subsist in other way than by hunting.

The core of the sphere of "outsider" concepts is cruelty. Cruelty is seen by the authors not only in Europeans, especially in the French, but also in compatriots who took the colonizers' side, willingly or not. Thus, a xenonym, *le faro***,** makes a part of a half-calque in which the predicate remains French and the subject is in the Malinké language, accompanied by a French definite article; stated differently, xenonymia integrates in a phrase on the structural level, contributing to a mixture of two languages.

Des enfants-soldats faisaient le faro avec des kalachs.	The child soldiers had great skills with the kalash.

The proximate periphery. Situations referring to "outsiders": indecent speech, violence, ignorance.

Faforo! Gnakamodé!	One's father's penis! Jerk!

These examples illustrate the two curses most often used by the author, which we see regularly in every second or third page. Its repetitive character is also significant for us, as it does not let the reader forget who he or she is dealing with, making the experience more like an allusion in a conversation with an uneducated person than like reading a book.

The furthest periphery. Imaginative associations, appreciative nominations of events: an associative image of dementia in a person representing another tribe.

Quand un dement agite le grelot, toujours danse un autre dément, jamais un descendant des Doumbouya.	When a demented person plays with a bell, another demented person dances, but never a descendant of Doumbouya.
Le lit excepté, le pernod est la seule	Except for the bed, Pernod is the only important invention of "*boundjous*"

importante invention des “*boundjous*”. (*whites*).

Lack of convergence of semantic volume of African lexical units and their French equivalents is one of the reasons why the author falls back on code-mixing.

The ethno-specific lexical unit *boundjous* represents simultaneously a xenonym and a concept-minimum/concept-maximum according to whether the reader’s worldview is French or African. As explained by Vezhbitskaya (2008), a concept-minimum is a non-full understanding of a word sense, available to a native-speaker, who knows the corresponding real-world object, but it is peripheral to his or her life practice. A concept-maximum is a full understanding of a word sense, common for a native-speaker.

All the examples above from Negritude literature deal with the African literary worldview to some extent, because, as explained by Danilenko (1999), the artistic worldview represents the art of a word.

Summing up the results and answering the questions raised in the order of their appearance, we can say that: verbal and non-verbal means used by authors to influence the reader according to his or her national orientation, consist of semantic, lexical, structural and phraseological xenonyms, xenonyms-interjections, African pidgins of the French and English languages and inclusions of contaminated French speech.

Conclusion

The results of the analysis of ways of notion component metaphorisation of the “insider/outsider” concept demonstrate that the majority of imagery representations of “one’s culture” are represented through the paroemia of the fear of God and fatalism, fidelity to one’s nation, friendship and family, while the insiders’ culture is shown through all of human malice.

The effects made by authors by verbal and non-verbal means given here as example are ambiguous due to double and even triple cultural-orientedness of the reader who may be:

– European by origin or culture;
– African but has already adopted to European culture and already forgotten his or her ancestors’ culture;
– African and has preserved knowledge about his or her native culture or learned it from relatives.

In the first case there is the effect of a “guest” who is becoming acquainted with an absolutely foreign culture. The reader becomes a stranger, and the abundance and originality of African culture suppresses him or her, pervading his or her native language.

A European African, according to the author’s concept, should see in the Negritude movement a way to “look back” and to address the language and the wisdom of his or her background.

A conscious African should see in these novels a way to popularize his or her native culture and not to let it disappear.

Thus, the problem of xenonymia in literary texts finds an answer not only as part of a concept and a way of switching from one culture to another, but also as a creator of the effect of multiple cultural-orientedness, driving us to figure out a “multicultural” novel, reflect on its language, the political, intercultural and personal relationships, and contributing to the popularization of plurilingualism.

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Asian Accent Identification in Computer-Assisted English Pronunciation Training

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Abstract: This paper reports on a methodology for developing a Chinese Accent Identification module in an English computer-assisted pronunciation training system. Accent Identification is understood as the determination of accent in a speech signal by comparing the input signal with templates stored in a database. Psycho-cognitive aspects of phonetic transfer and distinctive features of East Asian English accent are taken into account when preparing an English word-set, the realizations of which by Chinese speakers are included in the database. The Chinese Accent Identification module can be applied to enhance multimedia educational resources as part of accent reduction programs for international students from East Asia.

Keywords: *foreign-accented speech, accent identification, ASR, CAPT, English pronunciation simulator, feature retrieving, linguistic data set, phonetic transfer*

Introduction

Our world is developing and changing rapidly and it is possible to say that today comprehensive a multicultural and polylingual space has been formed with people within it talking in English as a *lingua franca*. The English language is currently being transformed from English as a foreign language to English as an international language. Linguists distinguish three circles of distribution and functioning of English language varieties: the norm-providing inner circle, where English is used as a native language and in nearly all the spheres (UK, USA); the norm-developing outer circle, where English is not native but an institutionally authorized second language (India, Singapore), and the third circle, the norm-dependent or norm-accepting expanding circle where English is not native and not used in a wide range of spheres (Russia, China) (Kachru, 1986: 19; Crystal, 1999: 359; Kachru, Nelson, 2006: 31). Today we have seen a shift of teaching paradigm which accepts speakers' cultural diversity and therefore contributes to speakers' mutual understanding. In light of this new paradigm, awareness of transfer-related phenomena – the inevitable cross-influence of native (L1) and acquired language (L2) systems and cultures – must be considered as a key to successful communication in a *lingua franca*. Following L. Samuel (2015), J. Mompean (2006) and A. Samuel (1996), it is assumed that speech production is closely related to speech perception. The pronunciation of L2 sounds with an L1 accent triggers the speaker to store data about both native and non-native sounds in the same brain area, which subsequently, leads to incorrect perception of the L2 native speakers' speech. The authors propose to take into account the psycho-cognitive origins of transfer-related phonetic phenomena and focus on the distinctive features of native and acquired languages (Kelly, 2011; Mompean, 2006; Moyer, 2013; Sakoe, 1978).

The present paper addresses issues of approaching Chinese Accent Identification for educational purposes in computer-assisted pronunciation teaching (CAPT), namely, in developing an English pronunciation training simulator. Traditionally, learners are recommended to listen to and to imitate a native speaker pronunciation pattern in order to improve their pronunciation. More recent research suggests a new approach to accent reduction and elimination, in which more emphasis is laid upon the speech properties of the learner's own L2. For example, Felps et al (2009) propose a pedagogical strategy for integrating accent conversion, which provides learners with prosodically corrected versions of their utterances, as a form of behavioral shaping in CAPT. In the current research the authors are creating a simulator for Chinese natives (speakers of the Putonghua dialect in particular at the present stage and other Chinese dialects and different East Asian languages in the next stages) who want to improve their English pronunciation skills. Our simulator is designed with respect to Chinese language norms which trigger pronunciation differences.

Details

Linguists today differentiate three notions as related to the English language spoken by Chinese people: China English, Chinese English, and Chinglish (Ivankova, 2009: 39). China English is a sustainable language system, a stable English variety; Chinese English is understood as an "interlanguage" (Selinker, 1972), an intermediate language system formed in the process of acquiring the language, whereas Chinglish is seen as a basilect variety. According to Y. Kachru the term "interlanguage" should be used just for describing the process of acquiring the language in class when English does not function as a real communicative tool (1994: 796). Our simulator aims to work with

Chinese English but not with the sustainable China English variety.

The cross-influence of native and acquired language systems and cultures triggers the appearance of mistakes, deviations, and innovations in the L2. Mistakes are things that sound unacceptable to a native speaker's ear and cannot be resolved by the socio-cultural context. On the other hand, deviations and innovations appear due to the use of the English language in specific regional, local, socio-cultural surrounding (Kachru, 1986: 29) and do not constitute an obstacle to successful communication (Proshina, 2005: 124).

We propose a computer-assisted training system for the elimination of phonetic mistakes and the reduction of deviations in Chinese English at the educational stage. The exercises are designed with respect to the Chinese language norm, therefore with the emphasis on the psychocognitive origins of transferential phonetic phenomena and distinctive characteristics of the native (Chinese) and acquired (English) language in order to develop comprehensive phonetic-phonological space for both languages in the user's consciousness. This approach contributes to the communicative competence of a person speaking China English in a real communication environment. The architecture of the simulator under development is designed to have several stages, which are determined by the methodology of English pronunciation training offered to native Chinese speaker international students. Accent Identification is the first stage, after Registration.

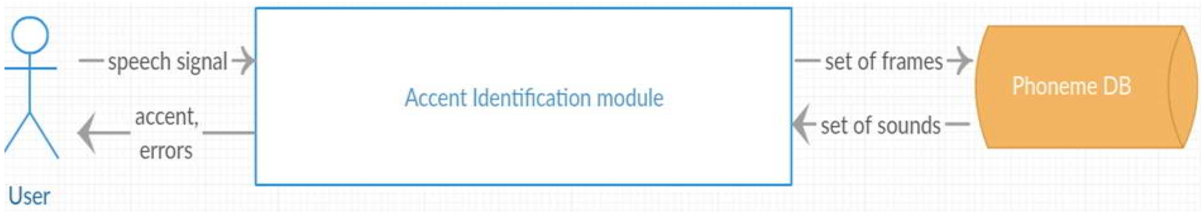

Fig.1. Architectural-context diagram (ACD) of the Accent Identification Module

When working with the Accent Identification Module, the user is asked to read a set of words. The system analyzes the user's speech, identifies the type of accent (Chinese or not) and then displays the percentage of its presence. The Accent Identification Module receives the user's sound, the speech signal as "Input" and generates a set of frames (frames = vectors = sound characteristics) which are compared with phonemes from the database. The Module gets back the set of sounds and the percentage of accent presence, while defined mistakes and deviations ("errors" in mathematical terms) are given as "Output". The system is implemented with three classes for each window in the interface of the module and two auxiliary classes which link with the database and calculate (evaluate) the accent. The following development tools are used: *NetBeans* development environment, *Java* programming language, *Java Swing* and *CMU Sphinx 4-1* database management systems.

In this paper the authors rely on a speaker-dependent model of speech recognition as the specific properties of Chinese English speech are used both as a template (in the training phase) and as an input signal (in the recognition phase). To develop the Phoneme Database we collected speech samples of Chinese English. At the present stage our corpus includes speech samples from 40 speakers (*note:* when adhering to a text-dependent approach it is necessary to work with at least between 10 to 50 recordings of each word or phrase (Ronanki, Bo, Salsman, 2012)). As we worked with Chinese students studying at the Far Eastern Federal University, the speakers' ages varied from 18 to 26. Bearing in mind the speech feature differences of people of different age, we concede that at this stage the simulator is mostly devised not for a general audience but for students and their professors. Later we will expand the corpus and the audience.

The speakers using the Accent Identification module are asked some general questions. After answering the questions, the speakers are asked to pronounce the set of 197 words. Three criteria are applied to the set of words and to the word-set arrangement in the data collection.

The first criterion is the phonetic completeness and acoustic diversity of contexts for the phonemes in the words. In other words, the presence of all the sounds of Standard English (British English is taken as the model) with different phonetic surroundings. The occurrence frequency of phonemes is also estimated, as this will determine the likely repetition frequency of the identified accent feature in the proposed collection of words. Most of the vowels are presented in approximately 20 words. (It is important to mention that some words may contain more than one example of the same sound.) However, the most frequent vowels in the word-set – [ɪ/i], [ə], [e], [eɪ] – are presented in up to 90 words ([ɪ/i]). The sharp discrepancy in the number of words containing [ɪ/i], [ə], [e], [eɪ] and those containing other vowels reflects the frequency of occurrence of these vowels in English. The dominant frequency of [ɪ/i] and [ə] is also explained by their occurrence in unstressed syllable positions in polysyllabic English words. The most frequent consonants in the set of words are [s] (99 words), [t] (76), [l] (76), [r] (70), [k] (61) and и [n] (53). The predominance of these sounds is explained by their occurrence frequency in English consonant clusters. For example, the combination of [s] plus unvoiced plosives [p], [t], [k] and constrictive sonants [l], [w], [r], [j] appears in two-, three-component clusters both at the beginning and at the end of a word (Bonkovskaya, 2014: 19). Syllabic sonorants [l] and [n] form clusters with all constrictives, creating a separate syllable with no vowel nucleus (Torsuev, 1975).

The second criterion for arranging the word-set for the research is the presence of words with phonetic phenomena that are difficult for Chinese natives. Thus, the sounds [r] and [l], which are not differentiated by Chinese speakers (Bondarenko et al, 2007), are well represented in the proposed word-set ([r] – 70 words, [l] – 76). Consonant endings trigger pronunciation (and perception) difficulties for Chinese speakers as well, particularly the consonant endings [l] and [t], which are quite regularly reduced (Chwat, 1994: 59, 70). Of 73 words with consonant endings, eight words end with [l] and 8 with [t]. The inventories of all East Asian languages contain words which start with the consonant [d] and have no words which end with it. This fact explains the appearance of a vowel after [d] at the end of a word (Chwat, 1994: 88). The word-set includes nine words ending with [d]. Hence, words with final [l], [t] and [d] are included in the word collection. Chinese natives substitute [r] at the beginning of words with [w] sound; interdental *constrictive* [θ] with [t] or [s]; [ð] with [d] or [z] (in any position); and [ʃ] with [s]. The word-set includes seven words with an initial [r], 21 words with interdental *constrictives and 18 words with* [ʃ]. The inclusion of words containing all the sounds of British English ensures the presence of voiced/voiceless consonant and long/short vowel contrasts and diphthongs, which give rise to pronunciation (and perception) problems for native speakers of Chinese.

The third criterion, the most important, is the presence of numerous English consonant clusters. The pronouncing of consonant clusters poses difficulty not only for Chinese native speakers but also for Japanese and Korean native speakers, whose first languages prohibit clustering of consonants within a syllable or even totally/partially ban syllable final consonants. In order to ease the difficulties of pronunciation (as well as perception), Chinese, Japanese, and Korean English speakers use either omission of one (or two) consonants in a cluster or insertion of a vowel sound after each consonant. However, as previous research suggests (Bondarenko et al, 2007; Witteman, 2015), the quality of the epenthetic vowel, the vowel which East Asians insert after each consonant in order to facilitate pronunciation, changes depending on the user's native language. This can be taken as a discriminative feature for the identification of a specific East Asian accent. Computer analysis of epenthetic vowels helps the system to "ensure" that the accent identified is Chinese rather than Japanese or Korean. Despite the fact that the simulator is designed for Chinese native speakers, the corpus for the acoustic model includes samples of English speech with Chinese, Japanese and Korean accents. For accurate identification of a Chinese accent the system is trained to find discrepancies in English speech with other accents of East Asian languages. Comparative analysis of corpora and studies devoted to English phonotactics (Antonova, 1994; Arakin, 1989; Bondarenko et al, 2007; Bonkovskaya, 2014; Chwat, 1994; "Corpus", 2011; Torsuev, 1975; Sorokin, 2010; Witteman, 2015; Zavyalova, 2010) allowed us to select the most frequent English clusters for the proposed word-set; some non-frequent clusters, for instance, *gw* and *dw*, were ignored. The following types of clusters are observed in English words: 33 initial clusters, including 28 two-component and 5 three-component clusters; 75 medial clusters, including 52 two-component, 20 three-component and 3 four-component clusters; and 48 final clusters, including 32 two-component, 13 three-component and three four-component clusters.

The total number of words selected with initial clusters is 72, with 61 of them being two-component clusters, and 11 three-component clusters. Words with two-component clusters include 49 words with the constrictive sonorants [l], [r], [w], [j] and 12 with the sound combinations [s]+[p], [k], [f], [t], [m] and [n]. One hundred and two words with medial clusters have been selected, 77 of them being two-component, 22 three-component, three four-component ones. Among two-component words there are 36 with constrictive sonorants [l], [r], [w] and [j] and 41 with other medial clusters. The total number of words with final clusters is 79. We selected 63 words with two-component final clusters (among them 44 are without syllabic consonants and 19 with); thirteen words with three-component final clusters **(**six and seven words respectively); and three words with four-component final clusters (one and two words respectively).

Analysis of the word-set shows that all three criteria are observed. In the process of collecting speech samples, the set of words is given to Chinese speakers in the form of a list. The word order is structured in a way which excludes the possibility for certain factors to affect the quality of the audio material obtained. For instance, words containing similar phonetic phenomena are placed at the beginning and at the end of the list to reduce the influence of such factors as the presence or absence of fatigue at the beginning and at the end of the reading. The words on the list given to Chinese speakers are supplied with a transcription to exclude the factor of the word ignorance, in case a word is unknown to them. It is assumed that the speakers are acquainted with the rules of transcription. Examples of mistakes and deviations in the speakers' speech samples may be considered as evidence of the appropriateness of the word-set as well.

So far, the Accent Identification Module has undergone six structure tests (on whether the windows open/close properly when the buttons are pushed, etc.). Five out of six tests were successful. Nine Black Box tests have been done (testing the Accent Identification function). Nine out of nine tests were successful.

Conclusion

CAPT systems with ASR modules (particularly, with built-in accent identification units) are indispensible for effective pronunciation training and accent reduction in L2, as they allow for selecting specific accent-oriented training material. Speaker-dependent accent identification models seem to be most efficient in CAPT. High proficiency in teaching and learning a foreign language can be achieved by developing a comprehensive phonetic-phonological space of native and acquired languages in the speaker's consciousness. It is likely to be achieved if due regard is given to psycho-cognitive aspects of phonetic and phonological transfer. This should be the underlying principle in the design and architecture of foreign accent reduction simulators as well.

In view of the increasing number of international students from East Asian countries in Russian universities, the proposed Accent Training Simulator is likely to be widely used. The ultimate goal of developing these educational multimedia resources for international students is to raise the efficiency of *lingua franca* international communication in the Asia Pacific region, and it is of huge significance for enhancing interaction between the Russian Far East and Asia Pacific countries at the present stage of the development of external economic and political relations. The chosen approach for the development of the Accent Identification Module has been shown to be successful. The Accent Identification Module (and identification of mistakes triggered by accent) in the form of an automated simulator for pronunciation training enables its users to form individual specific study courses depending on the percentage of accent presence in his or her speech. Paying attention to the discrepancies in phonetic systems of native and acquired languages in pronunciation training at the educational stage is of considerable significance as it helps to prevent further problems with speech perception.

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Chinese-English Bilingual Creativity: Some Aspects of Studies

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Abstract: Bilingual creativity can metaphorically be compared to the meeting of two different worlds: an adopted language and a native mentality. The present paper highlights the peculiarities of code-mixing creative use in the contemporary literary works by Chinese American authors. These writers “nativize” the use of English to the Chinese context in order to recast the cultural meanings of the language. A distinct Chinese cultural identity is expressed through such linguistic exponents as proper names, address terms, proverbs, culture-loaded words, curse words, contaminated speech, as well as syntactic and graphic means. All these linguistic devices help bilingual authors to convey a sense of “Chineseness” in the texts written in English.

Keywords: *bilingual creativity*, *translingual writers*, *culture-loaded words*, *address terms*, *proper names*, *proverbs*, *curse words*, *contaminated speech*

Nowadays more and more often English is chosen as a creative tool by the so-called bilingual or translingual writers. There is still a discussion going on among linguists whether to call this kind of literary work as “literature in English”, “contact literature”, “bilingual literature”, “crosscultural”, “transcultural” or “translingual literature”. In any case one cannot underestimate the current trend of writers’ self-expression through such a worldwide medium as English.

The definition of bilingual creativity was given by Braj Kachru (1985: 20): “those creative linguistic processes which are the result of competence in two or more languages.” It embraces “literary creativity”, which focuses on literary works of bilingual writers (“contact literatures”), “discursive creativity”, which implies “the creative ways language is used to affect social change” (Bolton, 2010: 454). Some researchers apply the term “linguistic creativity” to all types of linguistic innovations and deviations caused by language contact, including code-switching, code-mixing, and borrowing.

Eyamba G. Bokamba considers that “In creative writings, however, the variations are often more deliberative, than subconscious or accidental products for the usual reasons: 1) to culturally contextualize the text; 2) depict and differentiate characters; and 3) convey cultural meanings that can be easily accessed by any reader who is familiar with the targeted culture, or may deduce it from other textual clues.” (Bokamba, 2015: 320)

This paper is part of an on-going investigation of the Chinese English bilingual creativity works written by contemporary American writers of Chinese descent. The data have been collected from different contemporary writers, including Amy Tan, Ha Jin, Gish Jen, Kim Wong Keltner, Jade Snow Wong, Gus Lee and others. It explores the degree to which these writers reconstruct the English language in their writings to convey the Chinese culture represented in their works. A related issue is whether these texts demonstrate “trans-creations” that still hold onto the standard varieties of English with appropriately encoded and limited Chinese culture-loaded words to capture Chinese culture.

In the terms by Achebe (cited in Bokamba, 2015: 316), the creative writing by translingual authors can be characterized metaphorically as the “bending” of the English language to carry the weight of the Chinese culture.

If we take into consideration the ideas of Ngugi (Ngugi, 1986: 7), the only way to use Chinese ideas, Chinese philosophy and Chinese folklore and imagery to the fullest extent possible is to translate them almost literally from the Chinese language native to the writer into whatever European language he is using as a medium of expression. This assumption can be at least partly disputed by the practical material we have found during our research.

Among the linguistic devices, which convey Chinese culture, are the following: culture-loaded words, curse words, proverbs, proper names, address terms, contaminated speech, etc. Let us demonstrate the usage of some of them.

Use of such linguistic means as curse and obscene words in the creative writing can play a double role. On the one hand, they create a necessary effect in the narration and convey the attitudes of the communicants to each other or to the things and events. On the other hand, curse and obscene words can be a valuable source of underlying cultural values of a particular society.

> He couldn’t help cursing Liu to himself, “Son of a tortoise, you’ve had a good apartment already, but you took a larger one this time. You’ve abused your power. This is unfair, unfair!” (Ha Jin, 2001: 5)

This example illustrates a loan translation from Chinese. Here the readers may expect the usage of such an expression as “son of a bitch”, but the phrase “son of a tortoise” helps to achieve a more comic effect due to a peculiar cultural nuance on the background of the same phrase structure. Thus, there is no need in explanation and a reader can easily comprehend the author’s intention.

Address terms play a crucial role in conveying cultural messages. Most often it deals with the status of the interlocutors and the power-relation between them. These can be either relations within the family (which is very peculiar in the Chinese context) or in the society. In the majority of the cases the translingual writers choose loan translation as a means of transmission of this cultural information.

> The Wong brothers shared a common middle name, “Heaven”. This was used not only for Daddy’s sons, but also for the sons of his first cousin, to provide a bond between the families. Since Daddy’s first cousins were as close to him as brothers, their grandchildren

also called Daddy "Grandfather". (Jade Snow Wong, 2000: 79)

In the following example the protagonist, Shao Bin, is referred to in various ways as "Young Shao", "Comrade Young Shao", "Brother Shao" and "Comrade Old Shao". This may seem strange, especially in the case of "Comrade Young Shao" and "Comrade Old Shao" in relation to one person. *Comrade Young Shao* is used by party officials and indicates a low rank of Shao Bin. By contrast, *Comrade Old Shao* is used by a reporter Song who feels a certain level of respect towards Shao Bin. In both cases the element *Comrade* indicates that the action of the novel takes place in Communist China. *Young Shao* and *Brother Shao* indicate equal status of the interlocutors, comradeship and friendly relations. As we can see, each of the address terms has its own connotations:

> Shao Bin, Comrade Young Shao, Young Shao, Brother Shao, Comrade Old Shao. (Ha Jin, 2001)

The power of proper names in identifying culture may seem subtle, but it is immense. They do not only indicate locality and historical accuracy, but convey cultural connotations as well.

The following example demonstrates the creativity of the Chinese naming system which is so different from a European one.

> My father draws imagery characters on the window. "One means 'Spring Rain', the other 'Spring Flower'," he explains in English, "because they born in the spring, and of course rain come before flower, same order these girls are born. Your mother like a poet, don't you think?" (Tan, 1989: 322)

Chinese brand-names, as in many other cultures, represent specific values. Most of them are connected with wealth, longevity, folklore and patriotism. The majority of translingual writers prefer to give a literal translation of the brand-names.

> Maotai Liquor, West Phoenix Liquor, Great China Cigarette, National Defense Bicycle. (Ha Jin, 2001)

Proverbs and sayings, being a genuine essence of people's wisdom and worldview, are among the most powerful means of depicting native culture. As a rule, proverbs appear in the text as a loan translation together with a parallel original idiom (usually transliterated in the case of Chinese). Thus, the author preserves an ethnic coloring of a proverb and at the same time makes it clear to the readers.

> A Chinese maxim often repeated to me by my parents is, "When you drink water, think of its source." (Jade Snow Wong, 2000: 1)

> Her indignation came to her in English, even as she recalled a Chinese saying, *Lao xucheng nu* – constant shame becomes anger. (Gish Jen, 1998: 142)

Cultural information can sometimes be withdrawn from the text even without knowing the English equivalents of the Chinese culture-loaded words. This is often the case with the words connected with food, which can be considered as one of the crucial points of Chinese culture. In the following example a reader can guess that there are the names of dishes only due to the collocation with such English words as “plate”, “chopsticks” and “fork”.

> Kevin scoffed at him. “Are you even Chinese? You can’t pick up *fahn* on the plate, you need the *woohn*, so you can use your *fai-jee*.” He gestured to a pair of chopsticks, then teased, “That is, unless you need a fork…” (Kim Wong Keltner, 2004: 70)

> A special lunch. Oyster beef over rice with black mushrooms and wood ears; mu shu pork in wafer-thin wrappers; curried crab with prawns; *muhr-deh*; *johdiao* long-bean, and water chestnut duvu; Peking duck with plum sauce. Noodles. And more noodles. (Gus Lee, 1991: 217)

The incorporation of contaminated speech is a widespread method used by translingual writers. Foreign insertions are explained by the parallel phrases presenting the same information in English or they are quite understandable from the context. One even more widely used method nowadays is using local varieties of English in fiction.

> They say they cannot find work, this is not the economy of the fifties, but I say, Even the black people doing better these days, some of them live so fancy, you’d be surprised. Why the Shea family have so much trouble? They are white people, they speak English. When I come to this country, I have no money and do not speak English. But my husband and I own our restaurant before he die. Free and clear, no mortgage. Of course, I understand I am just lucky, come from a country where the food is popular all over the world. I understand it is not the Shea family’s fault they come from a country where everything is boiled. Still, I say. (Gish Jen, 1999: 4)

In conclusion we should mention that at a linguistic level, in the works of the abovementioned translingual writers one could identify a great range of linguistic devices that come with a rich load of cultural information and are employed to serve as cultural and historical landmarks. These include proper names, address terms, curse words, proverbs, culture-loaded words and contaminated speech to name a few of them. By their creative works translingual authors demonstrate the possibilities of intercultural communication and cultural understanding through a common medium, the medium of Englishes.

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Verbalization of Russia's Image in the Mirror of Ukraine Events

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Abstract: The aim of this research is the analysis of lexical means with the help of which the authors of American newspapers create the image of Russia through the prism of events in Ukraine in 2013-2016. Media image of the state is the image transformed by means of the mass media. The repertoire of lexical means creating the image of Russia is diverse enough: choice of lexemes, density of thematic fields, metaphors, etc. A special place is given to President of Russia.

Keywords: *discourse, image, Russia, mass media, ideology, headlines, referential aspect*

Introduction

Information space is one of the conditions of the modern society and the mass media are an effective instrument of an access to information flows. Linguistic means which are used in the articles of the American newspapers *The New York Times* (*NYT*), *The USA Today* (*UT*), *The Washington Post* (*WP*) construct the image of Russia through the prism of political and military events in Ukraine in the period from December 2013 to April 2016. The mass media are a multifunctional political, ideological, social and cultural institute. The function of influence, function of constructing conscience of the society causes filtration of information in the necessary direction for this or that edition which is a bearer of a certain ideology and culture.

The interpretation of events by journalists leads to creating a specific picture of the world which is sometimes far from reality. Some foreign analysts call this quality of the mass media "an interpretation function" of the mass media, thus emphasizing the importance of informative interpretation, the choice and description of facts from concrete ideological positions.

Journalistic discourse demonstrates special textual characteristics. And if we apply to a relationship between the language and the society, it is expedient to consider this relationship through the prism of critical approach which is closely connected with the interpretation of an ideological basis beyond the frame of textual interpretation. Critical discourse analysis (CDA) has to do with linguistic character of social, ideological, cultural processes. Besides keeping to the functional definition of discourse as language in use, CDA connects linguistic analysis to social analysis and thus examines the relationship between the text, its social conditions and ideologies in an interpretative and explanatory way.

Images that are created in journalistic discourse are reflection and incarnation of ideas, beliefs and values of those power structures which are behind political editions. "The mainstream media have their own power…by being in the key position of having control over public discourse, and hence indirectly over the public mind" (Dijuk van, 1997: 23).

The category of image is a complex phenomenon, one of the forms of reflecting objective reality, a subjective picture of the world, a model of a real object but it may not coincide with the object itself. In the mass media we may see purposeful constructing images. A well-known Russian linguist Arutyunova states, "Ideology finds its support in images" (1999: 323).

Ron Polburn (2003) analyses the image as a phenomenon of communication. He comments on the close connection of the image and discourse saying that the image cannot exist without discourse. He adds that the image constantly transforms into the word.

Considering the image as the "sign", Russian linguist Olyanich writes: "Creation of the image by the mass media is produced in a specific way. The mass media replace reality by the sign reality. A specific world of images is being formed, the world of virtual reality. Its basis is informative manipulations with signs…" (2007: 102).

The choice of key themes, the value of these themes and their hierarchical organization depends on the character of political trends and ideological preferences of journalists. As Richardson remarks, "The term 'ideology' was originally coined by Antoine Destutt de Tracey <…> to refer to a new science of ideas, an idea – logy, which would be the ground of all other sciences" (2007: 32). The notion of ideology may be defined in the following way: "The system of ideas, notions, concepts, expressed in various forms of social conscience – philosophy, politics, law, morals, art, religion, reflecting the basic interests of classes, social groups" (Russian Dictionary, 1985: 630).

The editions we are analyzing are "mainstream" state newspapers and they reflect the values of the American society and proclaim national ideology. The mass media do not limit themselves only to information but offer ideas and world outlook to the society. Thus, the image of another country will be formed under the influence of the existing ideology of the country journalists belong to.

Headlines

The first thing the reader pays attention to is headlines. The main function of headlines is to attract the reader. The informative function of headlines is closely interwoven with a pragmatic function that is with expressive, emotive and evaluative functions, forming emotional tension.

The first stage of the relations between Russia and Ukraine is marked by more or less neutral language representation: *Ukraine talks begin; Russia seeks "peace settlement"* (*UT*, Sept.1, 2014). Further the negative representation of Russia's image gradually strengthens: *Ukraine military routed as Russia talks tough* (*UT*, Sept.2, 2014); *Ukraine accuses Russia of sending dozens of tanks* (*UT*, March 3, 2015). The image of Russia "escalating the situation" is reflected in the metaphorical fragment of the headline *"Russia flexes muscle with bomber flights near U.S."* (*UT*, Sept.1, 2014). The idea of Russia – the aggressor – penetrates into the conscience of the readers of this issue and only the contents of the article reveal the real motifs of such actions: *Russia's mission was to monitor foreign powers' military activities.*

Russia's help to Syria is interpreted as transferring the Russian "military doctrine" to Syria. The headline runs: *"Russia transfers Ukraine war doctrine to Syria"* (*UT*, Oct. 10, 2015).

Russian President Vladimir Putin appears to be the political figure personifying an aggressive and militant Russia and this is realized in the headline of the article *"Putin: Russia to focus on new offensive weapons"*(*UT*, Sept. 10, 2014). The headline does not reflect the countermeasure character of Moscow weapons modernization program and concentrates on attacking but not defensive aspect of Russia's politics. In the headline of another article *"is Mr. Putin serious about making peace in Ukraine?"* (*WP*, Feb. 5, 2016) the *Washington Post* uses the interrogative form allowing the reader to doubt sincere intentions of President Putin. In the article titled *"Pope tells Putin: "Sincere" peace efforts needed for Ukraine"* (*WP*, June 10, 2015) the person who may enjoy the readers' confidence is Pope Francis, a religion figure of the highest rank. The reader is sure to think that Francis's advice is worth listening to and that President Putin should be obedient in this case.

The apotheosis of the negative attitude to Russia is the headline citing Hilary Clinton's statement: *"Hilary Clinton: Putin's tactics like Hitler's before WWII"* (*UT*, March 5, 2014).

The most frequent occurrences are headlines expressed by narrative sentences. The structure of narrative headlines may vary: some of the headlines are only fragments of sentences, ellipses. This omission of the parts of the sentences is aimed at distinguishing the significant lexemes in the headline. In these cases the most pragmatically important component of the elliptical headline is the name of the country – "Russia" and its derivative "Russian": *"European official not ready to stiffen Russia"* (*NYT*, March 8, 2015); *"Ukraine to ban flights by major Russian airlines"* (*NYT,* Sept. 25, 2015). The words "Russia" and "Russian" are not used in the headlines of some of the articles but the lexical structure of headlines implies them which is confirmed by the first sentences of the body of the text: "*Resumed violence threatens Ukraine cease-fire"*. The first sentence of the article with the above-mentioned headline runs: *"Ongoing fighting in Eastern Ukraine will be a factor when the European Union decides in January whether to continue economic sanctions against* ***Russia*** *for its role in the conflict"* (*UT,* Dec. 8, 2015). One more example from the *New York Times*: *"Nearly 8,000 killed in Ukraine conflict, U.N. says"* (*NYT,* Sept. 8, 2015). This headline is followed by the further explanation: *Nearly 8,000 people have died in the conflict in eastern Ukraine, the United Nations said Tuesday in a report blaming the continuing influx of fighters and weaponry from* ***Russia*** *as the major obstacle to peace.*

References to the names of well-known people such as President Vladimir Putin, President Obama, German Chancellor Angela Merkel, Pope Francis and some others are rather often used in the headlines of the articles: *"Obama, Merkel hint at disagreement on Ukraine"* (*UT*, Febr. 9, 2015).

Referential aspect

The status, the role of a social and political actor does not only identify the group he/she is associated with but signals political motifs and likings of that social or political figure.

The fact of the important political figures being referred to can have significant impact on the readers and can serve many different social and political purposes. The referential aspect of the discourse is sure to bear the imprint of value judgments.

The names of political actors mentioned in the articles analyzed may be divided into several groups:

1) The first group includes persons holding office of the highest ranks in the state or in the church and also those official figures who proclaim political positions of their leaders: *President Obama, Vice President Biden, Secretary of State John Kerry, White House press secretary Josh Earnest,; German Chancellor Angela Merkel, Angela Merkel's spokesman Steffan Seibert; French President Francois Holland, Australia's foreign minister Julie Bishop, Pope Francis; Italian Prime Minister Matteo Renzi; Ukrainian President Petro Poroshenko, etc.*
2) The second group of individual political actors are persons who hold or held rather important posts and their names are also specific markers of certain political views and opinions: *NATO's secretary General Jens Stoltenberg; European Council President Donald Tusk; Hilary Rodham Clinton; the U.S. ambassador to the Holy See, Kenneth Hackett; Refat Chubarov, a Crimean Tatar leader; Gianni Magazzeni, a senior United Nations human rights official, etc.*
3) The third group consists of the names of collective actors: organizations, political institutes, councils, foundations, commissions, committees, funds, expressing certain attitude to Russia in an explicit or, sometimes implicit way: *the International Monetary Fund; an influential European Parliament committee; the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE), etc.*

The referential aspect of the mass media communication is also evident in the choice of citations. Citations are rather a powerful, instrument of influence of the reader's conscience. They create an impression of an impartial picture of this or that event. Citations as sources of information attach more trustworthiness to the contents of articles.

The actors mentioned in the articles belong to different nations of the United States and Europe, however we find much in common in their commentaries and evaluation of Russia's role in Ukraine events. This fragment of the conceptual picture of the world is interpreted by the political actors mostly in similar ways reflecting their cognitive specific character. As a result Russia and its President are represented as the Negative Other, the Bad Alien, Bad "They" and the foreign political actors as Positive, Good "We". Social and political activities of Russia, President Putin, "Their" values are emphasized by "Their" negative characteristics; the actions and qualities which are assigned to "Them" are far from being respectable.

Statements of the political figures from the first and the second groups vary from very critical to neutral ones though the latter are fewer: 1) *President Obama and German Chancellor Angela Merkel presented a united front against Russia* <…> *saying they would continue to mount diplomatic and economic pressure to get Russia to withdraw from Ukraine* (*UT*, Febr. 9, 2015); 2) *Ms. Bishop expressed outrage at Russia* (*NYT*, Sept. 23, 2015).

The common tendency of the USA, Australian and European leaders reflecting their opinion about Russia is the expression of their indignation and threats: *to get Russia to withdraw, expressed outrage,* etc.

Pope Francis's and Italian Prime Minister Matteo Renzi's positions are milder: 1) *Francis hasn't publicly put any blame on Russia…* (*WP*, June 10, 2015); 2) *Renzi didn't voice any criticism against Russia's actions in Ukraine* (*WP*, June 10, 2015). It should be noted that sometimes people who are on good terms with President Putin are referred to in a careless, ironic way: *…old pals of the*

Russian President, Vladimir V. Putin like Silvio Berlusconi, and dazed-and-confused celebrities like veteran American boxer Roy Jones Jr. (*NYT*, Dec. 27, 2015).

The opinion of the representatives of the second group is much more critical: 1) "Either by military or economic or other tools, I am afraid that Russia wants to rebuild control over the whole of Ukraine", Mr. Tusk said (*NYT*, March 8, 2015); 2) "If Russia continues escalating the situation, it will experience continued economic disruption from the U.S. and international sanctions…", said Ben Rhodes, who is President Obama's deputy national security adviser (*UT*, Sept. 1, 2014).

However the attitude of political figures to Russia is not absolutely identical. James Kanter and Andrew Higgins, journalists of the *New York Times* remark, for example, that *"Mr. Tusk's views are more hawkish to Russia than those of many of Europe's national leaders"* (*NYT*, March 8, 2015).

Topicalization

Two topics: **"Russia is an aggressor"** and **"Russia is a sponsor of terrorism"** prevail over the others. They are united by the lexemes containing the semes "war", "danger", "force": *Russian military involvement in the Ukrainian conflict; to face any Russian threat; to help Ukraine defend itself against the potential nuclear threat of Russia,* etc.

The topic **"Russia is an aggressor"** is incarnated in lexemes "aggression, aggressive, violence": *a newly aggressive Russia; to defend against aggression from Russia*, etc.

The name of the country "Russia, Russian" is found in the context detalizing the theme of cruelty: *United Nations monitors reported allegations of summary killings, by pro-Russian armed groups and of torture, abduction and sexual violence…* (*NYT*, Sept. 8, 2015).

The topic **"Russia is a sponsor of terrorism"** is represented in the word combinations: *a terrorism sponsor; to formally recognize Russia as a sponsor of terrorism; Russia backed insurgents,* etc. The core of this topic is a semantic group "weapons" testifying to the involvement of Russia into the sphere of supplying rebels with weapons. The figures in the articles considerably support the idea of Russia's terrorism: *at least 32 tanks, 16 artillery and 30 trucks loaded with fighters and ammunition had crossed into Eastern Ukraine from Russia; a column of Russian tanks and armored vehicles, sending dozens of tanks,* etc. (*UT*, Nov. 7, 2014). The figures referring to the number of victims are very impressive creating a vivid image of the country – an aggressor and a terrorist: *Nearly 8,000 people have died in the conflict in eastern Ukraine, the United Nations said Tuesday in a report blaming the continuing influx of fighters and weaponry from Russia as the major obstacle to peace…* (*NYT*, Sept. 8, 2015). The quantitative characteristics create a picture of the abundancy of Russian military force.

Accusation of Russia of cyberterrorism intensifies impression of Russia as a sponsor of terrorism. The thing is that one of the regions of western Ukraine went dark for three hours. This blackout was considered to be an example of Russian cyberterrorism: *Russia probably was behind the attack; Russia carried out such a cyberattack on Ukraine; Russia's offensive cyber capabilities are growing* (*WP*, Febr. 17, 2016).

The next topic to which some of the articles are devoted is **"Russia is an invader"**. This topic deals with supposedly firm intensions of Russia to invade alien territories, to redraw the borders of

Ukraine and Europe: *Russian efforts to redraw the borders of Ukraine; Russian invasion of other regions; to allow the borders of Europe to be redrawn by the barrel of the gun; Russia's intervention in Ukraine* (*NYT*, March 13, 2014).

Russia's annexation of Crimea, a Black Sea peninsula, sharing a narrow land border with Ukraine and separated from southern Russia by the Kerch Strait gave a powerful push to new accusations of Russia of invasion: …*unacknowledged occupation of Crimea* (*NYT*, March 13, 2014); *takeover of the peninsula; seizing, stealing Crimea*, etc. (*NYT*, Dec. 27, 2015). Historically Crimea is a Russian territory, and a freelance journalist Dimiter Kenarov emphasizes this fact by rather picturesque metaphors: *Crimea may be a millstone around Russia's neck but also a crown jewel that it will guard at all costs* (*NYT*, Dec. 27, 2015). The metaphorical opposition *"a millstone"* and *"a crown jewel"* reveals the thorny issues arising before Russia after Crimea's annexation. Repressive measures carried out by the authorities in Kiev refusing to recognize the annexation of Crimea are also reflected in metaphors. Kiev's strategy is referred to as *"a carrot-and-stick strategy"* while Kiev's own presentation is called *"a future beacon of light* ".

The important component of Russia's image is the image of its President, Vladimir Putin. In a number of articles Vladimir Putin is depicted as a leader initiating the aggressive policy of his country: *Russian President Vladimir Putin sent troops…* (*UT*, March 23, 2015); *Prime Minister Arseniy Yatsenyuk said that Russian President Vladimir Putin is trying to divide Europe over Ukraine* (*UT*, March 19, 2015). Some of Vladimir Putin's statements are placed in the headlines, especially those statements to which aggressive intentions may be ascribed: *Putin: Russia to focus on new offensive weapons* (*UT*, Sept. 10, 2014). And only the content of the article gives the details; it turns out that these plans of Russia are necessary steps in response to the USA and NATO measures: *Russia is developing an array of new nuclear and convention weapons to counter recent moves by the US and NATO…*

One of the brightest means of creating a negative image of Russian President became Hilary Rodham Clinton's comparison of Putin with Hitler: *Vladimir Putin is pursuing a strategy in Ukraine that is similar to Nazi leader Adolf Hitler's* (*UT*, March 5, 2014). Hilary Clinton draws a parallel between Putin and Hitler: *Putin's claim that ethnic Russians in Ukraine are threatened – echo Hitler assertions* (*UT*, March 5, 2014). The precedent name expresses a sharply negative reaction influencing the image of President. Putin is also represented as a person inclined to creating myths. The headline of the article *"The fantasy Mr. Putin is selling"* is developing in the article itself: *President Vladimir Putin of Russia is not veering from the mythology he created to explain away the crisis over Ukraine* (*NYT*, Feb. 10, 2016).

Conclusion

Summarizing the contents of the articles we should say that Russia's image in the context of Ukrainian events is constructed in the press of the USA by mostly negative categories, lexical means with negative meaning and moderately aggressive tones. The image of Russia is made up in a one-sided way and reflects a specific metonymic outlook of its creators. As for pedagogical implications of the research it is important in the English language teaching to show learners of

English how difference in ideologies influences the presentation of political, social and cultural domains. This contributes to better revealing the identity of learners of English, especially journalists, sociologists, and to improve their communicative competence in the target language.

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Grammar in the Context of Culture

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Abstract: In this paper language is regarded not only as a linguistic phenomenon but also as an element of culture conveying cultural norms of behavior characteristic of the society. This approach to the investigation is connected with the study of the linguistic picture of the world and reflects the level of the linguistic culture typical of a certain nation. According to Sapir (1993), language proceeds culture while culture can be defined as the way a certain society thinks and does.

Keywords: *disagreement speech acts*, *contrastive grammar*, *cultural diversity*, *identity*

Introduction

This paper is based on the analysis of data containing speech acts of disagreement acquired from the two languages: English (US and UK varieties) and Russian. Disagreement is defined here as a complex phenomenon, which expresses a negative attitude to the action or statement of the interlocutor and has a specific set of expressive means, the use of which in a given situation depends on the speaker's intentions, the nature of the recipient's reaction and features of the speech situation (Arhipova, 2009; Vasilina, 2012; Vorob'eva, 2016). To express disagreement interlocutors use various means, verbal and non-verbal, direct and indirect. Among verbal means the priority belongs to the verbs. In the English language a list of such verbs includes ten words: *disapprove, argue, contradict, dispute, quarrel, differ, disaccord, object, oppose*, and *disagree*. Similarly, there are ten verbs of disagreement in the Russian language: *возражать*, *противоречить*, *протестовать*, *спорить* or *оспаривать*, *отвергать*, *упрямиться*, *артачиться*, *отрицать*, *прекословить*, *отнекиваться*. All of these verbs convey protest, disapproval, dissatisfaction, condemnation, contradiction, refusal, objection, opposition, resistance and counteraction.

Our attention has been concentrated on the verbal means of expressing disagreement in different languages. The paper contains the analysis of British, American and Russian speech patterns expressing disagreement. The material under investigation was selected from modern British (Unsworth, 1995; McEwan, 2001), American (Ripley, 1991; Forman, 2009), and Russian (Ulitskaya, 1996; Bulgakov, 1925; Akunin, 2002) fiction.

The relevance of the work is predetermined by the following factors. On the one hand, the paper is written from the perspective of contrastive grammar. It attempts to show how in speech one and the same meaning can be expressed by the representatives of different cultures (Yartseva, 1981; Gak, 1989). On the other hand, the paper touches upon the problems of cultural identity and results in description of cultural peculiarities characteristic of the three nations. The description of results also includes contextual means with the help of which common and differential features typical of both languages – English and Russian – are defined. In the paper, the context is looked upon as a semantically meaningful passage of the text which most accurately reveals the meaning and significance the individual includes in his words, phrases and sentences (Ivin & Nikiforov, 1997: 146).

Methods and Results

As previously mentioned, this work is devoted to the study of speech acts of negative reaction. It is based on the analysis of data collected from the novels by British, American and Russian authors. The reported factors help determine the purpose of the present study as the investigation of transmitting the same meaning by means of different languages. The following methods were used during the study:

1) descriptive-analytical method involving the analysis of the results and their description in line with the corresponding theoretical concept;

2) analysis of dictionary definitions. The method is reduced to comparison of different verb tokens transmitting disagreement;

3) method of contextual analysis, according to which the unit is described as a part of a certain text fragment, necessary and sufficient to determine its value, combined with elements of quantitative analysis.

Theoretically the paper deals with the problems associated with various approaches to the study of speech acts. The review of the linguistic literature showed that the hypotheses of foreign and Russian researchers in the field of the theory of speech acts are diverse. Thus, in his classification of speech acts and general speech acts theory, J. Austin distinguishes three-level scheme of the analysis of the speech acts, and the core is the notion of the illocutionary act and the corresponding notion of illocutionary force (Austin, 1999).

A supporter of Austin, Searle introduces a new concept – the illocutionary goal – and offers a modified classification of speech acts, highlighting the propositional act. Most foreign and domestic classifications of speech acts are based on the proposals by J. Austin and J. Searle (Searle, 1999).

The analysis of theoretical material carried out in our work shows that in the domestic and foreign linguistics there exist several classifications of speech acts significantly different from each other. Russian researchers, such as Kobozeva, Osiyanova, engaged in study of the theory of speech acts, emit positive and negative features of the theory, arguing that the speech act has several definitions, and every speech act in the process of interaction between a speaker and a listener has three levels: locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary. These linguists also point out that one of the main goals of the speech act is to transfer information (Kobozeva, 1986; Osiyanova, 2009). Another Russian scholar, Pocheptsov, offers a five-level classification of speech acts. But the speech acts of disagreement are not included in his classification (Pocheptsov, 1981). Thus it is important to emphasize that the theory of speech acts still has many unresolved issues; for example, there is no finally formed nomenclature of speech acts.

Regarding the speech act of disagreement, we can draw on the definitions given above and conclude that a disagreement speech act is a complex phenomenon, which expresses a negative attitude to the action or statement of the interlocutor, and has a specific set of expressive means, the use of which in a given situation depends on the speaker's intentions, the nature of the recipient reaction and gives special prominence to the described situation. The analysis of speech acts of disagreement in Russian and English languages carried out in this study revealed that in addition to the verbal lexemes in both languages, there are a lot of other lexical and grammatical means expressing dissent, namely, the words of valuation semantics, negative adverbs, interrogative sentences, expressing doubt, some syntactic structures with modal verbs and response replicas. In general, they can be divided into three groups: purely lexical, lexical and syntactical in their interaction and syntactic ones transmitting disagreement either explicitly or implicitly. For example:

– Assessment of word semantics: *madness; doubtful; rot; dammit*;
– Negative adverbs: *no more, never;*
– Interrogative sentences, expressing doubt: *are you sure?; are you mad ?; indeed ?;*
– Some modal verbs and structures: *should, might*, *I'd rather; we'd better;*
– Replies of a negative character: *not at all; absolutely not, no;*
– Sentences, including repeated elements of the previous cue: *relax!*

The analysis of the data obtained from American, British and Russian fiction made it possible to establish common and differential features typical of the three linguocultures. Thus the British more often use syntactic means (66%); lexical and grammatical means, including verbs of mental activity with denial (10%), negative adverbs (5%) and modal verbs (5%). Least of all British speakers use lexical means, which include verbal tokens (1%) and the word valuation semantics (11%). American communicants also prefer to use syntactic means (63%), lexical and grammatical, including verbs of mental activity with negation (8%), negative adverbs (6%) and some modal verbs (9%). Rarer they resort to lexical means, which include verbal tokens (2%) and word semantics assessment (13%). The representatives of the Russian linguistic culture often use syntactic means (61%), lexical and grammatical, including verbs of mental activity with negation (22%) and negative adverbs (7%). Less frequently they use lexical means, which include verbal tokens (2%) and word semantics assessment (8%).

Considering the received data in the context of culture it should be noted that:

1. The main features of speech behavior of the British and Americans are the absence of categorical judgment, as well as the desire to avoid negative evaluations, direct and frank opinions as indicated by the use of such phrases as *I do not think; I do not believe; I am not sure, etc.*

2. In terms of disagreement the representatives of the American linguistic culture, in addition to the above-mentioned structures, often resort to the help of some modal structures, namely, the structure *better not*, which is not typical of the British.

3. The main distinctive features of the Russian verbal behavior are openness, simplicity, sociability, which leads to frequent use of verbs with negation: *I do not agree; I do not like; I do not want, etc.*

4. The British and Americans are similar in the widespread use of the words of valuation semantics (British – 11%, Americans – 13%), Russian people, on the contrary, prefer to express disagreement by repeating elements or the whole replica of their interlocutor (18%), which include syntactic means.

5. Representatives of the British and American linguistic cultures often disagree with the help of interrogative sentences expressing doubt, for example, *Are you sure? Indeed?*, while in the Russian language, these forms are used much less frequently (the British – 15%, Americans – 13%, the Russian – 8%).

6. The use of lexical and grammatical means in the Russian language (29%) exceeds the amount of such tools in the English language (the British – 22%, Americans – 23%), which indicates the openness and easiness of communication.

7. Russian-speaking communicants choose a direct communication style, while the British and Americans are more concerned with the form and show a marked tendency to soften the verbal behavior, that is, to use an indirect/implicit expression of disagreement.

8. For the Russians it is more characteristic to express emotions in the process of communication: *Do not dare to give him a ticket*!; *Oh, well, all of you*! Or communicative naturalness *I say what I think: He's lying*!, while for the English-speaking people – emotionally laden use of lexical units: *This is outrageous/That's impossible.*

Thus, both English and American ways of communicative behavior are characterized by indirectness, by the tendency to draw a veil over something, by the absence of categorical statements and ambiguity. The Russians, on the contrary, are characterized by straightforward, unambiguous and categorical answers.

The results of the analysis can be presented in the following table:

Table 1. Means of transmission of disagreement

Language	Lexical means	Lexical and grammatical means	Syntactic means
The English language (UK version)	12%	22%	66%

The English language (US version)	14%	23%	63%
The Russian language	10%	29%	61%

Conclusion

Summing up, it should be noted that comparative grammar opens new perspectives in the study of verbal behavior of speakers belonging to different ethnic communities.

Describing the results in line with the concept of "Grammar in the Context of Culture", it should be noted that representatives of the Russian linguistic culture are usually straightforward, open, emotional, sincere people, in some cases, categorical, which is manifested by their speech behavior, namely for the Russian people it is typical to use the verbs with negation and structures including previously repeated cues, which is not typical of the British and Americans.

Speaking about the British, it is possible to identify such traits as tolerance and isolation, individualism, as well as non-interference in the affairs of others. The British avoid overt forms of dissent, which is manifested in the use of such phrases as *I do not think, I do not believe, I am not sure, etc*. Representatives of the American linguistic culture possess such qualities as independence and mutual respect, which manifested itself in the form of alleviating outspoken dissent through the use of modal constructions *I'd rather not; she'd better, etc.*

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About Adjectives *True* and *Real*

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Abstract: The paper is devoted to the analysis of the English adjectives *true* and *real* in the framework of modern theory of natural categorization. According to one of the postulates of this theory, a mental category has a core and a periphery. The adjectives *true* and *real* (as a part of a noun phrase) are considered by the author to be in the group of linguistic means that place “an object” into the core of a concept. Acknowledging the semantic overlap of these adjectives in the similar contexts, the author peers into the linguistic data to trace semantic nuances between the two.

Keywords: *prototype theory of natural categorization*, *a core and a periphery of a concept*, *semantic operators*, *maximizers*, *approximators*

Introduction

What is the difference between *a true friend* and *a real friend*? Is there any difference between *a true teacher* and a *real teacher*, *a true love* and *a real love*?

The article summarizes the reflections on the semantics of the adjectives *true* and *real* in the framework of the theory of natural categorization.

The nominative function is one of the basic functions of a language. In the process of nomination we connect a thing, a phenomenon, a quality or an action that we speak about with a certain mental category represented by a word. Such categories, according to the modern prototype theory of natural categorization (Wittgenstein, 1985; Kubryakova, 1997; Taylor, 1989; Wierzbicka, 1985), are not absolute or discrete (in contrast to the classical Aristotle theory of categorization). On the contrary, they are fuzzy concepts – in Lakoff's (1972) words. Besides, a category has a core (a nucleus) which is a concentration of some sort of a prototype – an image that sums up the most typical characteristics of the representatives of this category, and a periphery with vague boundaries. Thus, there are "more prototypical" and "less prototypical" representatives of a category that is some members of a category are more central than others.

The world around us is so diverse and this diversity is endless. The language offers us means to express our attitude towards the placement of this or that object, phenomenon, etc. in the "field" of the concept, whether we think it should be placed in the very center of it or on the periphery.

Semantic overlap and semantic nuances

The adjectives *true* and *real* in the position before a noun (i.e. as a part of a noun phrase) are among the linguistic means that point at the very central position of an object in the "field" of a concept. Among other means there are such adjectives as *ideal*, *genuine*, *proper.* The adjectives *true* and *real* are in focus of our attention because they appear to be among five hundred top most frequently used English adjectives (according to the data of the Corpus of Contemporary American English, http://corpus.byu.edu). Besides, *true* and *real* tend to appear in similar contexts, in similar word combinations. At first sight they may be regarded as interchangeable synonyms as there are large areas of semantic overlap if we look up these adjectives in the dictionaries:

TRUE	REAL
1. correct, connected with facts rather than things that have been invented or guessed: *All the rumours turned out to be true. I think it would be true to say that the show was a success. The novel is based on a true story. Unfortunately, these findings do not hold true* (=are not valid) *for women and children.*	1. actually existing or happening and not imagined or pretended: *It wasn't a ghost; it was a real person. Politicians seem to be out of touch with the real world. The growth of violent crime is a very real problem. There's no real possibility of them changing their minds.*
2. real or exact, especially when this is different from how something seems: *the true face of war* (=what it is really like rather than what people think it is like). *The true cost of these experiments to the environment will not be known for years to come. He reveals his true character to very few people.*	2. [only before noun] actual or true, rather than what appears to be true: *Tell me the real reason. See the real Africa on one of our walking safaris. I couldn't resist the opportunity to meet a real live celebrity. I do my best to hide my real feelings from others.*
3. [usually before noun] having the qualities or characteristics of the thing mentioned: *It was true love between them. He's a true gentleman. The painting is a masterpiece in the truest sense of the word. He is credited with inventing the first true*	3. [only before noun] having all the important qualities that it should have to deserve to be called what it is called: *She never had any real friends at school. I had no real interest in politics. He was making a real effort to be*

helicopter. *nice to her.*

We have chosen the data of the Oxford Learner's Dictionaries (OLD) because it offers us the definitions that explicitly convey the meanings we are mostly interested in: (3) for *true:* [having the qualities or characteristics of the thing mentioned] and (3) for *real*: [having all the important qualities that it should have to deserve to be called what it is called]. In these meanings the adjectives *true* and *real* put the "thing" they qualify into the center of the category. *A true friend* / *a real friend* is not just a friend: he/she is considered by a speaker to be in the center of his/her idea of "a friend", i.e. one of the best representatives of friends. Now we've come to the question we started with: Is there any difference between *a true friend* and *a real friend*, *a true teacher* and a *real teacher, a true love* and *a real love*? Although *true* and *real* in these contexts share almost the same semantic areas, there exist subtle nuances between the two. Here are some examples:

(1) *True love is more serious than real love. I agree. A true love is definitely real love but it is on a higher level of love. A love that just happens, a strong love, unwavering love, unselfish love, a love you can feel through and through, a love above all others, a love that never leaves you even if the person does* (http://www.answers.com/).

(2) *A real friend is someone who tells you what's on his mind. A true friend is someone who likes you for who you are and who is there for you no matter what* (http://www.answers.com/).

Now compare the ideas of the articles about *true teachers* and *real teachers*:

(3) The summary of the article *4 Ways to Recognize a True Teacher*: *A True Teacher Has Knowledge, Not "Love". True Teacher Shows You How to Think, Not What to Think. True Teacher Creates Peers, Not Fans. A True Teacher Helps You Find Autonomy, Not Dependence. When you find a true teacher, you won't need him forever. As a wise man once said: "A teacher is one who makes himself progressively unnecessary." True teachers show pupils how to find the answers themselves and how to manage their own learning. A true teacher may always be there for you, but less as an educator and more as a friend. Once you find a true teacher, you'll never settle for less* (http://selfmadescholar.com/b/2009/04/06/).

(4) The idea of the article *Real moms praying for real teachers*: *Every teacher is a real person with a real life full of real concerns and needs* (www.thewomaninitiative.com).

(5) *HOW TO TELL IF YOU'RE A REAL TEACHER: Real teachers grade papers in the car, during commercials, in faculty meetings, in the bathroom, and (at the end of the six weeks) have been seen grading in church. Real teachers cheer when they hear April 1 does not fall on a school day. Real teachers clutch a pencil while thinking and make notes in the margins of books, etc.* (http://people.wku.edu).

Examples (1)-(5) show us that *true love*, *true friends* and *true teachers* are on a higher level than *real love*, *real friends* and *real teachers*.

For better understanding of the difference let us consider the etymology of the adjectives *true* and *real*:

True comes from the Old English *triewe*, *treowe* "faithful, trustworthy, honest". *Real* originally meant "actually existing", "relating to things (especially property)", from Old French *reel* "real, actual", from Late Latin *real* is "actual" (*OED*). No doubt, *faithful, trustworthy, honest* are elevated, noble ideas in comparison with down-to-earth *actually existing*. These original meanings are present in the semantics of the modern words *true* and *real* and they determine semantic nuances of these adjectives in similar noun phrases, in similar contexts.

Conclusion

In conclusion we should underline that the adjectives *true* and *real,* along with *ideal*, *genuine*, *proper,* belong to the group of semantic operators (Arutyunova,1999) that intensify or maximize the meaning of a noun (a concept) they are combined with. That is why they can be called intensifiers or maximizers (Remizova, Turanskiy, 1990). They intensify and purify the idea of the concept; they point out that the representative they describe is purely one of the central representatives of the concept. Their function is opposite to the function of approximators (e.g., *a kind of…*, *a sort of …*, *so-called…etc.*) which are semantic operators that push the representative to the margins of the concept, highlighting its periphery status. The need in these semantic operators, both maximizers and approximators, is explained by the diversity of the world that should be described by a language that can't create a separate word for every particular object, phenomenon, etc. Thus, it is clear that such semantic operators have a universal linguistic nature.

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Discourse Personality of a DotA2 Player

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Abstract: This paper touches upon the peculiarities that characterize the discourse personality of a DotA2 player. It addresses the communicative features of speech behavior, such as desire to make communication concise and successful, yet emotional, also noting the obvious influence of the American communicative norms, expressed in aggressive self-representation, self-centeredness, a sense of superiority over others. This is reflected in the vocabulary, frequent use of lexical units with negative connotations and profanities. The contemporary processes of globalization in today's society are reflected in the multicultural nature of the whole subculture that uses English language as the main language of communication.

Keywords: *video games, gamers, DotA2, discourse, discourse personality*

Introduction

Modern technologies have been rapidly changing the way people communicate for decades. Computers and Internet modifies traditional forms of communication and allows new ones to emerge. These new forms of communication have their own peculiarities that more and more often come into focus of linguistic researches. Modern online communication in particular is drawing researchers' attention. But studying online communication can be difficult due to the fact that online user acts differently and plays various roles depending on the genre of communication, so it seems reasonable to narrow the subject of such researches to a certain genre, meaning, to a certain communicative environment. In our study, this environment is a videogame DotA2.

DotA2 is a multiplayer computer game that belongs to ARTS (Action Real Time Strategy) / MOBA (Multiplayer Online Battle Arena) genre. In games of this genre two teams of players compete with each other on a special map. Each player controls one character from a specific list of available characters which differ in their abilities. During the match, the characters can become stronger, gain new abilities and equipment. The ultimate goal is to destroy the main building of the opposing team with the help of both characters controlled by players and computer-controlled creatures. There are several reasons for selecting this particular game:

1. The popularity. According to statistics posted on the official website of the game (www.DotA2.com), every month more than 13 million unique gamers from dozens of countries play DotA2;

2. The usage of English as a *lingua franca*, predominant language of communication in a multilingual, multicultural environment. The specifics of the language used by players in DotA2 reflect specificity of game audience;

3. The growing acceptance of eSports. Nowadays video games stop being available just to a limited group of enthusiasts (geeks). In recent years, they have become more accessible to a wider audience, being now a part of the sports scene.

The materials for our research are texts, generated as a result of the DotA2 discourse. Analysis of this speech material allows us to put together a discourse personality of a DotA2 player.

Defining linguistic, communicative and discourse personality

Before delving into the specifics, let us look at what discourse personality is and how it differs from linguistic and communicative personalities.

Language reflects human perception of reality, and, as Y. N. Karaulov stated, “there is a linguistic personality behind every text” (Karaulov, 1989: 3-8), so every text is a direct manifestation of linguistic personality. Y. N. Karaulov defined it as “a set of human abilities and characteristics that determine the creation of texts” (Karaulov, 1989: 132). He proposed to consider the linguistic personality as a “kind of a full-fledged representation of the person that accommodates the psychological, social, and other components, but is refracted through its language, its discourse” (Karaulov, 1989: 86). These ideas were subsequently developed in a series of further researches by M. V. Kitaygorodskaya, N. N. Rozanova, and S. N. Plotnikova. In particular, M. V. Kitaygorodskaya and N. N. Rozanova speculated that “the functional model of the linguistic personality (that is, its verbal portrait)” contains the three levels (Kitaygorodskaya, Rozanova, 1995: 4):

1. Verbal-semantic level, reflecting the usage of lexical and grammatical foundation of language (vocabulary);
2. Linguistic and cognitive level, reflecting the view of the world (thesaurus);
3. The system of communicative roles, motives, goals that guide a person through the communication process.

Further researches also introduced concepts of “communicative personality” and “discourse personality”, which are sometimes used without a clear enough differentiation, though we think it is important to note key differences in these terms. Language personality is defined as any language user who has the language competence, which means they can use the language for speaking, listening, reading, writing (Plotnikova, 2008), at the same time language personality is limited to only one language.

During the process of communication, language personality transforms into a communicative personality that has all the language competence of the language personality and reflects a certain communicative behavior. Communicative personality is characterized by communicative competence and, unlike language personality, is not limited by only one language. When taking part in a particular communicative situation, communicative personality is manifested in a discourse personality depending on the type of discourse, be it verbal or non-verbal (paintings, music, dancing, etc. or their combination). Discourse competence is based on cognitive factors that determine the choice of language means and structures, speech strategies and tactics. Thus we can say that discourse personality is a communicative personality that acts in a specific discourse. Analyzing a set of texts produced by a certain person or group of people in one discourse allows us to identify main specificities of their discourse personality through the language.

Analyzing discourse personality of a DotA2 player

First step in our research was constructing a holistic sociolinguistic portrait of DotA2 players, peculiarities of which find their reflection in the speech behavior of players. Analysis of their social, psychological, biological features was based on social surveys and infographics (/r/DotA2 Survey, 2015; DotA2 Survey, 2014).

According to polls, the vast majority of players in DotA2 are men, although recent polls have shown that there is roughly the same number of male and female gamers (Lofgren, 2015). This fact is reflected in the people's skeptical attitude towards the girl-gamers, that goes as far as the claim that girls do not play video games.

The average player in DotA2 is much younger than the average gamer: DotA2 is played mainly by people between 15 and 25 years, while the average age of gamers is more than 30 years.

From the point of view of the employment, we can say that more than 60% of the players in DotA2 are still students.

Players in DotA2 are represented by people of different nationalities and cultures (Kiryukin, 2015), which is a reflection of the globalization processes in the modern society. Though it is very important to note that most of the players come from countries where English is widely spread (English-speaking countries, the CIS countries).

Thus, from the sociocultural point of view an average player in DotA2 is a man about 20 years old, student, capable of speaking English at a level sufficient for basic communication (Beginner / Elementary).

Analysis of the material allowed us to characterize features of speech on different levels of language system, except for the phonetic one, as the analyzed material consisted only of written texts.

1. At the level of word-formation prevalence of compound words and abbreviations is observed as a consequence of the general trend to increase "capacity" of each sign as compared with the corresponding source lexical units. Also, the communication itself exists in a written form, due to the format of in-game communication.

2. The morphological level is characterized by the frequency of verb forms and nouns, while the number of adjectives is insignificant. This can be explained by the fact that the speech of DotA2 players is not descriptive; there are a large number of grammatical constructions, based on dynamic, action verbs (*push*, *gank*, *kill*).

3. At the syntactic level, the most common are simple sentences, there is a general trend towards simplification of grammatical structures, in particular, the omission of predicate in a sentence:

Player 1 – clinkz orchid

// Clinkz (character) has got Orchid of Malevolence (in-game item).

Player 1 – *shadow blade*

Player 1 – *on dp*

// Death Prophet (character) has Shadow Blade (in-game item).

In addition, imperative sentences are used quite often:

Player 1 – go rosh fast

// Go kill Roshan (NPC) fast.

The frequent use of such structures can be explained by both the illocutionary intentions as a predominant feature of the communication, and the dynamical nature of the game, which often does not allow enough time for writing a long, well-worded message. This is compensated by a variety of extra-linguistic phenomena, for example, sound and image signals "ping" (pings) that help relay the message. During matches conversations can be pretty chaotic, the focus can quickly jump from one subject to another, at the same time multiple parallel conversations between different people can be carried out.

As you can see, in-game communication of DotA2 players has a general trend to simplification that affects all sides of language. The desire of communicants to save communication efforts and increase the amount of information transmitted per unit of time in a highly dynamic situations (one round of the game lasts on average 40-60 minutes) is reflected in the abundance of grammatical and lexical errors and different forms of reductions. This is also reflected in frequent usage of leet speak – the particular style of language, the main peculiarity of which is its approach to orthography, mainly the prevalence of alphanumeric substitutions (substitutions of characters or letters that can represent a letter or a combination of letters in a word) and usage of homoglyphs (non-letter symbols, that resemble to varying degrees the letter they substitute), and also imitation of errors, typical for fast typing. Also, in-game communication is characterized by a big number of errors caused by insufficient knowledge of the language of communication (wrong spelling, wrong grammatical constructions, etc.). This is a result of the use of English as an intermediary language in situations where communication happens between people with different levels of proficiency. Thus, in general, significant impairment of language norms is typical for the in-game communication of DotA2 players.

4. Lexicon of a DotA2 player is heterogeneous. Alongside common used words, players widely use slang words and curse words. One can frequently see words, borrowed from other languages – Russian, Chinese and others (depending on the region in which the game takes place): *katka* (Russian – *game*), *Ka le* (Chinese – *lags*), *Nice la* (originally *lah*, Singaporean English, used for emphasizing).

Slang words can be both made-up and exist only in the context of this game or be borrowed from Standard English and other languages. Thematically these slang words are used to name game related things: *supp – support, mid – middle lane, Rosh – Roshan, CC – crowd control, hat – cosmetic item*.

Sometimes slang words expand their meaning and become closely associated not only with the game objects, but with phenomena of the real world:

gg – good game, *wp* – Well played!, *We lost (the game)* (sarcastic);

to rage – to be angry (sarcastic);

to juke – to outplay, to outsmart.

A special place in the language of DotA2 players is occupied by the so-called “memes” – cultural information units (any idea, character, manner or mode of action, consciously or unconsciously transmitted from person to person through speech, writing, video, rituals, gestures, etc...). They can occur directly in the DotA2:

322 – often deliberately bad game, which leads to the loss ($322 were won by player Solo who betted against his team);

4 – reckless, risk-taking way of playing, often leading to the death of a character (4 is a nickname given to player XBOCT, who is famous for his high risk – high reward game play style);

OSfrog – a mockery of the game balance (refers to the Dota 2 lead designer, IceFrog. It is usually present in DotA2 content that showcases an unbalanced hero.)

Memes can also be borrowed from other sources, such as Twitch chats (Twitch.com – site for live streaming games). In the original state these memes are usually images, similar to emoticons, but because of the in-game chat restrictions they have been replaced by words:

kappa – irony, sarcasm or trolling (mockery);

BibleThump – sadness, grief;

4Head – laughter, mockery.

Further analysis of DotA2 discourse revealed another characteristic feature of DotA2 players' discourse personality – imitation of the norms of communicative behavior in American culture. While communicating the players clearly represent such behavioral patterns as aggressive self-representation, straightforwardness in communication, self-centeredness, a sense of superiority over others (Sternin, 2001: 42-55). Discourse personality of DotA2 players is dominant, aggressive, the prevailing illocutionary intention is a desire to influence interlocutor, to convince him to their cause, using their superiority in a particular area. This can be both a game parameter (KDA – kill / deaths / assists, Kill / Death / participation in kills ratio, CS – creep score or the number of killed creatures, MMR – Match Making Rating, digital indicator of the player skill) or a characteristic of a player in the real world (age, education, salary, relationship status):

Player 1 – *пишу*

Player 1 – раз вам нету 20 лет

Player 1 – *вы РАКИ*

// Player 1 explains the bad actions of his teammates with their age.

The competitive nature of the DotA2 (all ARTS / MOBA genre in general), together with the introduction of the rules of the American communicative behavior is reflected also in the relationship between the players, in particular the scornful attitude towards losers and praise of the winners. This can be illustrated by the usage of lexical units with a negative connotation to describe the player's abilities (*noob, рак* – a bad player) or the game itself (*ez, ez katka*, *rekt (get wrecked)* – easy); frequent use of foul language that emphasizes the expressive and emotional, familiar character of speech:

Player 1 – oleysa u can not go mid

Player 1 – u r 3.1 shit player

// Player 1 is trying to convince the other player (oleysa), that he/she cannot play a certain role on a team (mid), because his/her MMR is not high enough (3.1 shit player).

It should be noted that the Americanization of the features manifested in communication is universal and happens regardless of the nationality of players, majority of lexical units used while communicating are universal and understood by all players.

Conclusion

Analysis of DotA2 discourse allowed us to determine specific speech features, which are a result of DotA2 players belonging to a particular social group. Based on what was discussed above, we can draw the following conclusions:

1. The main feature of DotA2 player's verbal behavior is a desire to make their speech concise, emotional and successful. For this purpose, a variety of linguistic techniques are used.

2. Speech of DotA2 players is rich with slang words; it also reflects the desire of communicants to save speech efforts. In addition, it shows the multiculturalism of the entire subculture.

3. DotA2 slang is a closed formation, it is relatively cryptographic, and it is hard to understand without knowing the game itself.

4. A trend to increase the aggressiveness of speech, its familiarization is the result of the influence of the American norms of communicative behavior, as well as socio-cultural characteristics of the players in DotA2.

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English Fever in South Korea

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Abstract: The spread of English goes hand-in-hand with globalization processes. As a result, a phenomenon called "English Fever" appears in the international arena. East Asian countries believe that it is essential to increase the number of people in their population who can communicate efficiently in English. Korean government has been taking actions in changing the English curriculum to develop communicative competence in their students for political and economic gains now. Of all the countries in the world, Korea sends more students to the U.S. to study English than other countries. Koreans learn English as a foreign language temporarily migrating to America.

Keywords: *English Fever, globalization, Communicative Language Teaching, temporary migration*

Introduction

The need to speak English seriously became an issue when South Korea started to become a more international country, by hosting the 1986 Asian Games and the 1988 Olympics (Park, 2009). Another factor that enhanced this desire to speak English was the 1997 Asian financial crisis (Jeon, 2009). The economic crisis throughout Asia caused South Korea to recognize English as a way to develop their international market and rebuild their economy (ibid). Now English has become increasingly prominent in Korean media. American popular culture comes to Korea in the form of Hollywood movies, TV shows, and popular music. Movies and TV programs are broadcast in Korea in English, with subtitles. Cable TV provides American sitcoms and dramas and sports events around the clock. CNN news is broadcast daily. English plays a notably visible role in academia as well. In higher education in Korea, English is required in most departments. Students must take an English test to get into college. Once there, they take a year of English. Recently students have been required to take a few of their major courses in English. When applying for graduate school in most academic departments, students are required to take an English exam as prerequisite for further study (Chung, 2008). All this seems to suggest that English has a strong presence in Korean society.

Discussion

The passion for education in South Korea and the explosion of "English Fever" can be attributed to the academic values founded on the tradition of Confucian education (Lee, 2006: 6). "English Fever" in this context is understood as the overwhelming desire to acquire English as a second or foreign language. This term is commonly used in Korean newspapers, magazines, television, and in daily conversation. Fever may carry a negative connotation in English, but in Korean it is relatively neutral. A great respect for education has been a value of Confucian education for years, not only through intellect, but also through moral qualities (Hu, 2002: 97). This enthusiasm for education can be seen in the development of English education throughout the years. However, despite the strong presence of English and nine years of mandatory English education from third-grade to high school in Korea, English, except for some Koreanized English words, is not much used in daily conversation by Koreans, even in increasingly cosmopolitan Seoul. Speaking English in Korea will still cause other Koreans to raise their eyebrows in disapproval (Chung, 2008: 10).

As part of the 1997 globalization policy in Korea, communication skills in English have been stressed in Korea. A common belief is that Koreans cannot speak English well (Kim & Kim, 2007) and need to improve this skill. This emphasis on English communication resulted in policy changes at different levels of education in order to provide more opportunities for English communication or at least for people to become familiar with English. The government mandated English education starting in the 3rd grade in 1999 (previously it began in middle school). Some elementary schools began teaching English in the first grade in 2005. In the middle school and high school curriculum, the time devoted to teaching English, both listening and speaking skills, has increased (Jung & Norton, 2002; Paik, 2005).

Since 2005, each province in Korea has developed and maintained local English villages where people can experience an English-speaking environment without the expense of travelling to an English-speaking country. English education is now emphasized from preschool age to adulthood in Korea (Park, 2006). Even though the government supports English education in various ways, these efforts have not appeared to satisfy people's desire or need to improve their English. Instead the efforts appear to have intensified their desire for it (Kim, 2006 as cited in Chung, 2008), a desire that becomes even more intensified about young children's English learning. Parents believe that younger children are better at learning English, especially oral communication. Even though English instruction begins in the third grade in public schools, parents think that children do not get enough exposure to an English-speaking environment and that they need more class time for English than the present one-to-two hours per week (Kim, 2006 as cited in Chung, 2008).

Most important of all, the Korean government has played a critical role in creating the current English boom. Korean parents have tried their best to adapt their devotion to the new policies for their children's success in entrance exams. South Korea has long valued formal schooling, which unfortunately has made the country "the most exam-obsessed culture in the world" (Seth, 2002: 5). It has driven Korean parents to compete with each other and to help their children score well on entrance exams providing a good background for the entrance into prestigious colleges and universities. English is seen as playing a significant role in "promoting international exchange, acquiring scientific knowledge and technological expertise, fostering economic progress, and participating in international competition" (Ross, 1992 as cited in Hu, 2002: 93). Governments have answered this necessity by making changes to the English curriculum to include a more communicative approach to language teaching. Despite being an advanced innovation in language teaching, many countries in Asia have been unsuccessful introducing Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in their English classes (Carless, 2003: 485-486).

Governments have put pressure on schools and teachers to implement CLT in order to develop communicative competence for the next generation (Shin, 2007). However, there has been a mismatch between the governmental mandates and what is actually being implemented in the schools (Carless, 2003; Nunan, 2003). Consequently, teachers are accused of paying "lipservice" by telling the government that they are following CLT, when in actuality they are sticking to their comfortable traditional methods (Hu, 2002: 94). It happens for at least three reasons: 1) teachers seem to be having a difficult time applying a more communicative approach in their classrooms, which appears to be caused by uncertainty regarding the methods of CLT (Gorsuch, 2000; Kirkgoz, 2008; Littlewood, 2007); 2) teachers feel that they are not proficient enough in English to teach in a communicative way because of grammar-translation training obtained; 3) CLT is a Western method developed for western countries and culture, and Korean teachers have been apprehensive to apply it. All these have posed challenges in adopting CLT in Korea despite pressure being put on by the government.

Taking into consideration all these challenges in teaching and learning English, a great number of Korean parents are not satisfied with either public school or private English learning. Therefore, they have begun to consider going abroad for their children's English education. Thus, more and more school-age Korean children have been sent abroad for this purpose. In Korea, this is called "early study-abroad". Elementary and secondary school students go abroad every year. It is noteworthy that "early study-abroad" of elementary schoolchildren is illegal in this country. However, the current boom for "early study-abroad" has become a social concern. Temporary migration becomes a most desirable practice for some Koreans. According to the investigation made by K. Chung (2008), for Korean parents English education in the U.S. is not just for language education, but for preparing their children for a globalized and cosmopolitan future. English is a means to future happiness for their children. English is what the parents could not have, but desired, in their past. Communication in English cannot, they believe, be acquired in Korea. Based on their individual strong desires and also on the collective desires of this generation of parents, they see temporary migration as an opportunity they must make the most of. Their daily lives become driven by their children's English education. Though, temporary migrant parents' desires and educational practices are considered by some to be extreme. Many Koreans consider these parents different from regular people in Korea (Chung, 2008: 158).

Conclusion

The historical events, combined with the status of English as a global language, have encouraged the South Korean government to put a high importance on English education (Li, 1998: 681). In addition to the curriculum change, in 1995 the Korean government drastically lowered the age at which English is first learned in school, from the first grade of middle school to the third grade of elementary school (Jeong, 2004). Besides, the government has been pressuring teachers to implement a more communicative approach to their English curriculum believing that this will enhance the ability to communicate in English. However, there have been apprehensions from teachers to implement this method because of the exam-culture, misunderstandings and lack of confidence from teachers, as well as cultural matters. Given the state of English education in Korea, parents strongly believe that they have no other choice but to temporarily migrate to the U.S. Korean parents do not think that they are driving the phenomenon of "English Fever", but they are being pulled along by it. Nevertheless, Korea should continue to support these changes that are being made to the English section of the entrance exams to guarantee the importance of communicative competence. It also may be beneficial for Korea to develop an appropriate communicative method to coincide with their culture and the desires of their students, parents, and teachers.

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Influence of Personal Names on Settlement Name Formation

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Abstract: This paper highlights the results of academic investigation the main topic of which is the place-names historical development, namely, the historical formation of settlement names. The research aims to discover all linguistic and extralinguistic factors that influenced settlement names formation and development. In this work we expose only one factor – personal names. The influence of personal names of Celtic, Anglo-Saxon, Scandinavian, Norman and Latin origin on settlement names derivation of the northern and southern counties of England, Cumbria and Devon is revealed in the paper.

Keywords: *place-name*, *settlement name*, *personal name*, *historical formation*, *stratification*, *linguistic factor*, *extralinguistic factor*

The intense desire to interpret the meaning of place-names can be found in the writings of ancient Greek philosophers like Plato, in the Bible, in the works of Virgil and many others. As far as England is concerned, we find interpretations of place-names formation as early as the eighth century in Bede's records. Part of those early explanations is at any rate false. Some interpretations include merely components of veracious information. Others disclose not imaginary and fictitious but actual facts and a real knowledge of the subject. Place-names and personal names as well were and continue to be an unlimited source of inquisitiveness. It should be emphasized that interpretation of place-names demands the knowledge of history, philology and certain languages.

It is obvious that the actual development of place-names must be interpreted in the light of language development theory. The phenomenon of language historical development is acknowledged by representatives of all fields of linguistics. But the question arises, what is the cause of language development. Scholars, such as C. Bazell (1957), Y. Kurilovich (1965) and A. Martinet (1963), consider that the only reason for language development is a linguistic one. A. Meillet (1926), A. Sommerfelt (1962), P. Budagov (1965), U. Baichura (1967) and others admit only extralinguistic reasons. We share the opinion expressed by B. Serebrennikov (1970), B. Golovin (1979) and E. Kubryakova (1997) that language evolution depends on the close connection of both linguistic and extralinguistic reasons.

The topic of the research is the place-names historical formation and the development of two counties in England: Cumbria and Devon, namely, the historical creation of settlement names of these two counties. The aim of investigation is to discover all linguistic and extralinguistic factors that affected settlement names formation and development, according to the following stratification: from the period of Roman Britain, through the Anglo-Saxon, Scandinavian, Norman Conquest and Post Conquest periods. In this paper we focus only on one factor: personal names. While examining the settlement names of these counties we paid attention to the fact that very often one element of the place-name is a personal name of some former owner, occupier or early inhabitant.

We discovered that in Cumbria and Devon the number of settlement names originating from Celtic personal names is insignificant. In both counties "names of small rivers, streams, hills and other topographical vocabulary" (Ekwall, 1960: xviii) were used significantly more often than Celtic personal names.

According to A. M. Armstrong (1952), of a small number of Roman Britain settlement names in *Cumberland* with the meaning "*the land of Cymry or Welsh*" recorded in historical sources, only one, *Luguvalium*, now *Carlisle*, the main city of Cumbria, is represented on the modern map. It appears in the Antonine Itinerary as *Luguvalio* "*belonging to Luguvalos*", a personal name meaning "*strong as the Celtic god Lugus*". By the ninth century the name had become *Luel*, to which OW *cair* (W caer) "*city*" was prefixed, *Carleol* 1108, *Carleil* 1129 from which the modern name *Carlisle* comes. *Carwinley* (not survived) contains OW personal name *Gwendoleu*, the name of a Celtic woman-leader at the Battle of *Arthuret* (573 AD). *Dunmail Raise* – "*the cairn of Dunmail*", is a memorial of *Dunmail*, one of the last Celtic kings of Strathclyde.

The name Devon is identical with the tribal name *Defnas*, which came to be used as the name of their territory. It is *Britonic Dumnonii*, the name of the Celtic aborigines which was transferred by their Saxon conquerors. It appears highly probable that a large number of Celts of Devon must have withdrawn from Britain a century or more before the arrival of the Saxons, who in the late seventh century found Celtic Kingdom only sparsely settled. To P. H. Reaney's (1960) mind, when the resistance of Celtic kings had been broken, the Saxons now dominant and outnumbering the natives, proceeded with their settlements and by the eleventh century had created a distinctive local nomenclature which extended over every part of the county.

The amount of *Anglian names* is obviously scanty in Cumbria. The reason of this situation is that only in 685 Carlisle and less mountainous area of Cumbria came firmly into Anglian hands. Cumbria remained under Anglian occupation for more than two centuries, even after the Scandinavian conquest. There are 14 earliest Anglian settlement names in Cumbria, for example, *Addingham* having its name from the OE personal name *Adda*, *Dalston* – from *Deal*, *Whicham* – from *Hwita*, etc.

The majority of Devon settlement names contain personal names of *Anglo-Saxon* origin (235) and a third of them are names of women. This fact indicates that men had no monopoly in holding land. Women could also own settlements, churches and land in equality with men. It was also the custom in Devon for a husband in the morning after his marriage to give land to his wife as a "*morning gift*" (OE *morgen-gifu*) (Gover, 1956: xv), for example, *Wulfgifu* in *Wollaton*, *Cengifu* in *Konnicott*.

In Devon possessive formations have given rise to settlement names from the early days of the Saxon invasion always combined with some word defining the actual possession: *-hām*, (*homestead*), *-tūn* (*farm*), *-lēah* (*wood*) and others (Ekwall, 1960: xiii). An interesting point in Devon settlement names is the great frequency of such OE personal names as *Babba*, *Bic(s)a*, *Cada*, *Cola* and *Dod(d)a*. It is necessary to highlight that the number of female personal names recorded as the first element of settlement names is remarkably higher than that in Cumbria.

In Devon a third of the settlement names ending in *-cott* contain personal names including names of men and women and surnames as well. The settlement name *Buzzacott* has its name from a male name *Beorhtsige*, *Sepscott* – from a male name *Saebeorht*, *Iddlecott* and *Edrichescote* – from a male name *Edric*, *Rabscott* and *Roberdescote* – from a male name *Robert*. The settlement name *Allacott* comprises a female name *Elfgifu*, *Kennacott* and *Kennicott* – a female name *C^ngifu*, *Lydcott* – a female name *L^ofgy*. The settlement names *Coffcott Green* and *Coffyncott* have in their names a well-known Devon surname *Coffin* and *Brazacott* has the surname of *Brosia*.

It is important to mention that *Scandinavians* in Cumbria were of Norwegian descent, but greatly assimilated in speech by their stay in a Gaelic-speaking area. At the beginning of the tenth century, Scandinavians from Ireland settled in Cumbria, where they left their mark in settlement names (43) showing signs of Irish-Scandinavian influence. In Ireland they adopted the Irish language, place names and personal names. Scandinavians became so Celticised that instead of the normal Scandinavian type of patronymic, for example, *Orm Gamalsuna*, they followed the Irish form *Thorfynn Mac Thore*, even when both father and son bore Scandinavian names. They also took over the Irish method of compounds derivation by placing the defining element last, for example, *Aspatria – Patric's ash*, *Brotherilkeld – Ulkell's booths* and others. An amount of compounds with such inversion you can see on Cumbria geographical maps up to this time. Irish personal names survive in Cumbria settlement names with Scandinavian *-bý*, for example, *Glassan* in *Glassonby*, *Core* in *Corby*, *Dubhan* in *Dovenby* and others. Numerous settlement names on the maps of Cumbria prove that the Irish-Norwegians continued to use Scandinavian personal names, like *Gamall* in *Gamblesby*, *Godric*in *Gutterby*, *Puncum* in *Ponsonby* and others, but many of them were not recorded before the twelfth century.

Most *Scandinavian* personal names in Devon can definitely be identified as Danish, though the Scandinavian influence on settlement names of this county is extremely slight, for example, Danish male name *Grim* in *Grimston*, *Inwar* in *Inwardleigh*, *Hraefn* in *Ramsland* and others.

"*Grimston hybrid*" (Smith, 1956: 66) is a convenient term for settlement names consisting of a Danish personal name compounded with OE *-tūn*. From their geographical position, it is most unlikely that these settlements were new ones in the Scandinavian period. A settlement name like *Gonalston* probably denoted a settlement acquired by a *Dane* named *Gunnulf* at the time when the Scandinavian conquerors divided out the land for settlements. There is no reason to suppose that the English peasants were displaced. The new Danish owner had an obvious interest in retaining them as a source of rent and services. The settlement probably had a name preserving that of the original

English founder. As settlement names arose spontaneously, it became convenient and customary to refer to the settlement by the new owner's name. "*Gunnulf'stūn*" (Smith, 1956: 188) acknowledging the new, foreign owner, but keeping an English *-tūn* or*-bý*, depended on local circumstances, in particular on the relative number of Danes and Englishmen in the settlement or its immediate neighbourhood.

In Devon settlement names we found a handful of examples of Anglo-Scandinavian personal names, but they belong to settlers of the time of Canute (1016) or even later, when Scandinavian names were popular. It is obvious that none of these personal names dates back to the Viking raids of the eighth and ninth centuries.

The Norman Conquest imposed on Britain a foreign aristocracy organized for war. It was a conquest, not a settlement or national migration. These Normans were descendants of Vikings, they became Normans, Northmen by race, speaking a northern French dialect, born and bred in Normandy, a Duchy of France. The first task of the conquerors in Britain was to build castles equipped by Norman men-at-arms to hold down the country. English bishops and abbots were replaced by the Normans. Law and administration were also controlled by the Normans. French was the language of the ruling class, as well as of traders and merchants (Morton, 1989: 20-42).

The Norman period in Cumbria is well illustrated by immigration from the south and the occurrence of a fair number of settlement names in*-bý* to which Norman or at least continental Germanic personal names are prefixed (Armstrong, 1952). The thickest concentration of these *-bý*, names is naturally in Carlisle immediate vicinity, for example, *Botcherby*, *Etterby*, *Harraby* and others. It must be remembered that the Normans who came over with the Conqueror were not a homogeneous national body. Some of them were Bretons, such as *Alein* and *Wigan* who gave their names to *Ellonby* and *Wiggonby*, Anglo-Scandinavians such as *Gamall* in *Gamston* and others, and all of them gave their names to Cumbria settlements (75). Norman-French manorial additions are exceedingly rare in Cumbria. The only surviving example of this type is *Newton Reigny*.

In Devon, on the contrary, quite marked effect of the Norman Conquest on its settlement names is to be seen in the feudal and manorial attributes consisting of French surnames (768) added to English settlement names, for example, *Verdon* in *Verdoncott* and others.

It is a noteworthy fact that the overwhelming majority of settlement names on the maps of Devon contain personal names of Norman-French origin. In Cumbria the largest number of place names, that is to say, settlement names, include personal names of Irish-Scandinavian origin.

In conclusion it is necessary to stress that the contribution of personal names, as one of many factors, that influenced the formation and development of Cumbria and Devon settlement names is not the main but, by no means, not the minor of the factors.

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