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Editorial

Welcome to the first issue of the Journal of Language and Education (JLE) – the platform that synopsizes scientific enquiry in Linguistics, Psychology, Language Teaching and Learning. JLE is also a fine-drawn forum for scientific debates about the significance and replicability of linguistic and education phenomena. Scientific infelicity as well as unconstrained and accidental misreporting, not to comment the occasional case of forgery, absolutely diminish the contribution of practically any fundamental study considered in insulation. Instead, well-conducted research compound will proceed to reserve advantage from our collective contributions to mastery in linguistic science and education issues. We hope to continue to promote the publication of well-written, intelligent syntheses of topics with broad appeal.

The article 'Role of Suing English as medium of Instruction in Reshaping Bahraini Senior Teachers' Perceptions of Their Roles as Middle Leadership in their Schools' by Hasan M. Al-Wadi is devoted to the significance English plays as the medium of instruction in reshaping the Bahraini senior teachers' perceptions about their actual role in their schools during their professional development programme at Bahrain Teachers College at the University of Bahrain. The quantitative findings show that using English played a significant role in motivating the participants to form positive attitudes towards their professional development programme. The study concludes with implications of how using English as the main medium of instruction facilitates for conceptual change in professional development programmes.

The paper 'Taking a MOOC: Socio-cultural Aspects of Virtual Interaction In a Multicultural Learning Community' by Galina Pavlovskaya and Molly Perkins states that HSE students establishing online communication with their peers from other countries often complain about sudden, unexpected communication breakdowns that they find difficult to explain and that are likely to occur due to the socio-cultural differences existing between communication partners in a multicultural learning community. The results of the survey presented in the article indicate that there is an urgent need to find effective ways to increase the students' level of socio-cultural competence that would allow them to communicate successfully in a new virtual learning environment.

In 'Developing chemistry students' study skills through integration of visual organizers in teaching ESP' Anastasia Sitnikova, Olga Simonova and Mrityunjoy Kar study development chemistry students' study skills through integration of visual organizers (VOs) in teaching English for Special Purposes. The research specifically determined the students' attitude toward chemistry content of English classes and achievement of two groups of 54 students under study. The results of the study indicated that there is a significant difference between the study skills' level in dealing with chemistry context in English of the students in the experimental group before and after the experiment. This analysis implied that the experimental group performed significantly better than their peers in the control group. Hence, the use of visual organizers effect changes in learning chemistry content for the better. Visual organizers help students perform better and improve their attitude toward learning English for professional communication.

Tatiana Pospelova's paper 'The influence of self-editing on micro skills development in academic writing in English as a second language' establishes the aim of this study to focus on the stage of self-editing and identify the role of self-editing in micro skills development. Her findings reveal that students are most often weak at producing coherent and cohesive paragraphs; they also lack appropriate argumentation and are often inaccurate in using grammatical structures and lexis. They also, however, suggest that L2 writing students can improve their own writing by transferring micro skills they learn when editing texts. The present study may contribute to teachers' views on developing micro skills of student writers.

Katerina Stepanenko and Liya Torosyan in 'Modern educational domain: prerequisites and prospects for individual learning path development' investigate issues of prerequisites and perspectives of individual learning path (ILP) development in the framework of student-centered educational paradigm, defines rationale of ILP and proves the idea of project learning technology (PLT) introduction into ILP modeling in higher educational institutions. The special emphasis is put on the idea that ILP framing is aimed at enhancing students' autonomy and responsibility for their education, fostering cooperation skills in a close dialogue with other participants of out-of-class projects and teachers. In this scenario individualized approach is to be implemented in a harmonious solidarity with principles of cooperation and collaboration. To verify the abovementioned ideas we conducted an experiment based on cognitive, diagnostic and empirical methods. Research findings show that ILP modeling boosts student's motivation to learn English as a second language, enables to form students' reflexive skills, identifies their individual features simultaneously developing cooperation and collaboration skills.

In 'Constructions Expressing Inaccurate Quantity: Functions and Status in Modern English' Ludmila Petrochenko and Nina Zhukova look at issues arising from the periphery of scientific and traditional metric systems. However, as revealed through the research, has great significance for operational partitioning and measuring different kinds of objects in everyday life of native English speakers. The article, based on the British National Corpus and English dictionaries, as well as extracts from modern American fiction, is the result of analyzing and systematizing the constructions, or patterns, expressing inaccurate and unspecified quantities in Modern English. The results of the conducted research reveal how the "human factor" manifests itself in the English-language culture when expressing quantity evaluation of the outward things.

The article 'Discourse Elements in English Academic Discourse' presented by Yulia Chubarova and Natalia Rezepova unfolds as discourse elements in spoken academic discourse – a lecture – and identifies their specificities. The study seeks to identify discourse elements in a wide body of research material; to study structural, functional and pragmatic features of discourse elements in terms of the implementation of the intentions of the speaker; to identify from the auditory analysis any prosodic features of discourse elements. The results of the research show that the studied elements differ structurally and can perform various functions. The functions of the discourse elements, their structure, intentions of the speaker and also their position in the phrase determine their prosodic features.

The paper 'Historical and Symbolic Aspects of Linguistic Representation of the World' by Margarita Ganyushina presents a study done with new perspectives in LWI research, as well as undertaken review of previous LWI investigations. It should be noted that studying of symbolic language properties and linguistic sign within the linguistic world-image, which were not taken into account before, is conductive to a more profound comprehension of the correlation between language, culture, and mutual understanding index in the intercultural communication process. The LWI notion is considered as a subjective-objective dynamic multilevel construct which presents its dominating component by lexical-semantic language system within the world and national culture formed as a result of the reflection of the sensorial perception facts, understanding and estimation of the objective reality phenomena in national linguistic consciousness.

The book review 'Systemic genesis approach in psychology' by Galina Suvorova and Tatiana Baranovskaya, leading specialists in the field of psycholinguistics and education considers V.D. Shadrikov's fundamental publications on activity, abilities, human inner world. The problems he touches upon in his publications are considered in the context of evolution of education. Shadrikov V.D. develops the methodology of systemic genesis approach in psychology. He shows that the systemic genesis paradigm opens new aspects in fundamental and applied psychology. This paradigm gives the opportunity to carry out research on a new level.

We really appreciate the contribution of all the authors and would like to thank them for the quality papers they submitted to Issue 1 of Volume 2. Their papers present the phenomenon of language and communication not only form a wide variety angles, ranging from language teaching methods to cognitive semantics; the authors also further consolidate connections among these fields and demonstrate the efficiency and effectiveness of an interdisciplinary approach.

Editor-in-Chief of Issue 1 Tatiana Baranovskaya

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The Role of English as a Medium of Instruction in Reshaping Bahraini Senior Teachers' Perceptions of Their Roles as Middle Leadership in Their Schools (An Exploratory Study)

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This paper investigates the role English plays as the medium of instruction in reshaping Bahraini senior teachers' perceptions about their actual role in their schools during their professional development program at the Bahrain Teachers College at the University of Bahrain. The data were collected using questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and focus group discussion with an opportunity sample of the senior teachers who recently graduated from the program. The quantitative findings show that using English played a significant role in motivating the participants to form positive attitudes towards their professional development program while the qualitative data reveal how the target language participated in enabling those teachers reshape their perceptions about certain professional practices and assisted them in gaining new skills to improve the overall performance of their teachers in school. The study concludes with implications of how using English as the main medium of instruction facilitates conceptual change in professional development programs.

Keywords: teacher development, English as medium of instruction, in-service professional development, head/senior teachers, perception of change in teacher education

In modern schools, senior or head teachers and other school leaders play a multifaceted role in improving the teaching learning process by changing certain values, cultural perceptions and teaching and learning practices. Ideally, these teachers are considered to guide the direction of professional practices at school in ways that prove positive and increase learning opportunities for students (Al-Baharna, 2003).

This fundamental role that is perceived of and expected from senior teachers has led education colleges and institutions to design special professional programs for senior teachers to develop their leadership skills and prepare them to become change agents who foster the change process in their school. However, though programs that develop senior teachers' leadership are spread widely, their major focus has been on examining the best ways to prepare and develop effective school leaders within, usually, a broad scope, and lwithout a proper contextualization (Holliday, 1999). According to Jones (2003), to improve the head or senior teachers' professional development programs, a serious attempt to investigate their existing knowledge and understandings about how they view and perceive change in their practices during and after their professional development program is fundamental. Foster and St. Hilaire (2003) concur and suggest that the best way to prepare and develop effective school leadership programs for head teachers is by exploring how these leaders conceptualize the issue of change when reflecting on their actual practices and role within their teaching environment and the school's improvement and reform initiatives.

This focus on the importance of realizing and understanding issues of change as perceived by teachers has been approached from different perspectives. The first is through the form of reflective practice. The pioneer in this field is the German scientist Schön (1983, 1987), who views reflection as a way in which teachers express their views of change and develop a constructive knowledge that helps enhance their professional autonomy and supports them to examine the beliefs and thinking patterns which underlie their classroom actions. Richards and Lockhart (1996) also report that when teachers practice reflection, they become more aware of what they need to change towards how certain beliefs should be conceived or how some practices can be improved. Another perspective to measure teachers' change of perceptions has been approached through focusing on investigating the 'Theory of Variation' and how it can be used to explain change in the beliefs, attitudes and actual practices of teachers. Hargreaves (2001) and Marton and Amy (2004) suggest that teachers' awareness of change and their readiness to illustrate it in their professional context can be clearly observed when they try to practise or express new techniques and beliefs that coincide with their current views of their teaching context. The researchers even suggest that utilization of this theory may lead to improving these teachers' existing reality. Nonetheless, change of perceptions at certain times can also be interpreted or illustrated in the teachers' constructed knowledge. According to Banks (2010), knowledge construction refers to the ways teachers seek to enable students to understand, investigate and determine how new information 'fits in with' existing frames of references and perspectives (Banks, 2010). In this sense, the degree of change in teachers' beliefs and performance are reflected in the level of the constructed knowledge developed by the learner, and not by the amount of the delivered knowledge (Duffy & Cunningham, 1996). Overall, some other researchers (e.g. Grossman et al., 2001; Prestridge, 2009) state that change of perceptions during professional practices is more easily fostered and reflected upon when: strong professional learning communities are formed with a professional group identity and, norms for interaction; a sense of communal responsibility for the regulation of norms and behaviour; and a willingness to assume some responsibility for colleagues' growth and development are formulated and respected. These represent an indicator of teachers perception of change, as they involve an engagement the way teachers try to identify deficiencies in their existing practice and learn new approaches and integrate them within their personal repertoire and check their impact. Amy Hollenbeck and Kalchman (2012) report that teachers do not develop better teaching approaches through abstract reflection outside the school context; on the contrary, they develop meaningful insights through their attempts of trial and error while teaching inside the classroom.

In conclusion, although there are different interpretations of how teachers' conceptual change can be precisely observed or interpreted, most researchers find it fundamental to be investigated as an internal factor of the school and the teaching-learning process and not as an exogenous factor that interacts with external relationships and situation outside the school and the classroom (Johnson, 1999). This entails that change of perceptions for teachers is a progressive process of conceptualisation and this can be best shown and observed during their joining to one of their professional development programs as it will clearly illustrate how these teachers make sense of, rationalize, and justify for themselves aspects of their teaching within their organizational or regional education context (Hollenbeck & Kalchman, 2012).

Materials and Methods

The government of Bahrain has implemented in the last five years an education reform project to improve the quality of teaching and learning for all Bahraini teachers and students. Teacher pre- and in-service training is seen as a key for achieving this goal. In 2008, the Bahrain Teachers' College (BTC) was established in line with the Kingdom's Education Reform initiatives as outlined in the Government of Bahrain's Vision 2030 proposed by the Economic Development Board (EDB). Collaborating with the National Institute of Education (NIE) in Singapore, the BTC worked on designing and developing various teachers' education programs in accordance with the needs of the Kingdom. Currently, the BTC offers the following programs with the support and funding of the Ministry of Education (MOE):

- Bachelor (B.Ed) programs for Cycle 1 and Cycle 2 primary school teachers;
- Full time Post Graduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) (specialized subjects teachers for intermediate and secondary schools);
- Professional Development courses for in-service teachers (Cadre PD Modules);
- Educational Leadership Program for senior teachers and school principals (ELP).

Since 2008, 312 B.Ed students had graduated from BTC. Currently there are 1627 candidate teachers enrolled in the four years B.Ed program. In addition, 2803 teachers and school principals have graduated from the in-service programs: PGDE, Cadre PD, and ELP. Each year hundreds of candidate and in-service teachers enrol in the PD programs. Being the only and main provider for teacher professional development programs outside the MOE, in 2013 the BTC issued a new strategic plan that focused on improving the school leaders, specifically the senior teachers, in their professional and academic knowledge and skills.

Methodology & Research Questions

This is an exploratory study that examines the link between the Educational Leadership Program – level 1 (ELP1) and potential change of perceptions of senior teachers who participated in the program. For the purposes of this study, efficacy will be broadly conceived, but the shift in the Bahraini professional persona of participants, as exhibited and understood by the Bahraini senior teachers (BST), will be explored in depth. Therefore, two main research questions in this study are:

1. To what extent did the BSTs find the ELP1 effective in changing their perceptions about their actual practices as middle school leaders after completing the program?
2. What role did English as a medium of instruction play in helping BSTs reshape their perceptions about their practices during/after the program?

Method of Research

A mixed method approach was implemented to allow for in-depth data sources about the participants' views and opinions regarding their ELP1 and perceptions of themselves as agents of change in their schools. This was achieved through:

- a questionnaire to survey the BSTs' attitudes towards their ELP1 and how they felt about using English as a medium of instruction (EMI) in that program;
- conducting a series of semi-structured interviews with BST participants to further explore what and how those teachers reshaped their perceptions about themselves as middle leadership authority in their schools. In addition, the issue of using English as a medium of instruction and how it contributed to their re-conceptualization of certain practices and perceptions was also highlighted through the interviews;
- having a focus group interview drawn from participants to discuss perceived efficacy and issues related to the ELP1

For validity and reliability purposes (Guba & Lincoln, 1998), the questionnaire was shared with other colleagues who taught on the program; their concerns were considered and necessary adjustments were made to make it simple and practical for the participants when they responded to its statements. Regarding the interviews, the questions were firstly piloted with one of the colleagues before using them with the participants. Though the questions were formed in English, the use of mother tongue [Arabic in the context of this study] was used during the interviews with the participants. The purpose behind this procedure was to ensure that the participants were not only able to express themselves clearly, but also to feel free and comfortable during their individual and group interviews. Most interviews took between 30 to 45 minutes and all were conducted in one of the BTC classrooms where the participants felt relaxed and secured. All interviews (n=10) were recorded for transcription and analysis of the data and they were shared with the participants for respondent validation in order to ensure a representative presentation of the BSTs' views and opinions.

Participants

An opportunity sample of the BSTs (n=25) who recently finished their ELP1 at the BTC were interviewed. They were all senior teachers of different subjects (e.g. English, Arabic, science, math, social studies, and physical education) in their schools. All were Bahrainis wiht professional experience that ranged between 15 to 20 years in teaching in the Bahraini context. They all were heads with not less than four teachers in their departments and they all went into several in-service training programs (INSET) at the Ministry of Education. However, this was their first time attending an academic program at the BTC and, therefore, it was their first time to go through a comprehensive professional development program that was linked to their overall professional development in their current position as BSTs. Nevertheless, the participants in this study can also be considered as highly distinguished and motivated as they were from the first two cohorts that were nominated by the MOE to join the ELP1 offered by the BTC. During their ELP1, the participants met daily and away from their actual work at school for one academic semester (3 months). The participants studied two courses related to leading and managing curriculum innovation and designing professional teacher training programs. Both courses were led and instructed by a university professor and they were based on sharing and integrating both the academic theoretical knowledge with their professional experience and represented in writing reflective entries, conducting studies analysing some of their curriculum or training projects and designing new projects for improving the quality of their teachers' performance in school. English was the language of the content and instruction in this course (see Appendix 1 for the course syllabi). Although the participants were found to have an average level of language proficiency, they were able to express their views and opinions and comprehend the reading materials given and shared with them.

Significance of the Study

1. This study allows a participant-led review of the BSTs professional development program, offering insight into the role of BSTs specifically as a middle leadership and more generally as a school leadership body in general in the governmental schools in the Kingdom of Bahrain.
2. Direct access to qualitative data related to issues of interest about the BSTs in public schools, with a focus on how they can be empowered and supported to be agents of change in their schools after their completion of their ELP in response to new professional culture and practices that are promoted for by the BTC and the education reform project.
3. Gain an insight into what and how English as a medium of instruction might contribute to teachers' professional development in terms of the possibility of reshaping their understanding of certain concepts and assisting them construct new knowledge in their profession.

Results and Discussion

Quantitative Findings

The questionnaire results reveal overall satisfaction on the part of the BSTs towards their ELP1 plus an appreciation of using English as the medium of instruction. An overall summary of the participants' attitudes towards their ELP1 can be shown in the Table 1.

According to the table, the ELP1 is viewed by the BSTs as sufficiently designed and that it meets with most of their professional needs as middle leaders in their schools. Responses to items (4, 10, 12, 13, 15, 19, 20) illustrate this where 24 to 25 participants expressed their agreement on this regard. This result reflects how the participants were satisfied with the program's content and its correlation to the actual projects and duties required from them in their schools and the MOE. This was further reflected in their responses to items (3,5,11, 16, 23, 24) as they show how the program improved their knowledge about concurrent issues in education and developed their leadership professional skills. However, the obtained responses also show some contradiction with the participants' attitudes towards the benefit they gained from the program. The results obtained for items (1, 7, 8, 9, 17) show that not all the senior teachers found their ELP1's content new to them nor that it helped them with some of their duties at school. In fact, several of them felt that the program did not equip them with new professional skills or that it changed their perception about their role as senior teachers in their schools. Yet, the responses for the items (2, 6, 14, 18, 21, 22) indicate that the majority of the participants managed to change their perceptions about certain practices and concepts. This was clear in the way they have become more reflective about their actual practices and how they now view professional development in the teaching profession. The participants also indicated how they reshaped their ways in expressing certain issues and concepts in education becoming more precise and concise when expressing a concept or an issue that would lead to definite practice or performance that they might ask or request of their teachers. This sign of reflective thinking corresponds to what is reported in the literature. According to Richards and Lockhart (1996), reflective practice normally becomes a trait of those experienced teachers who have several years of service in the profession but it becomes more advanced and critical for those teachers when they practice it in a teacher education program. Johnson (1999) states that teacher education programs normally represent a good opportunity for those teachers to develop their questioning and reasoning by reexamining the whole experience of their practices in the profession as they feel more empowered and confident and respected. Borg (2001) mentions this too and specifies that language teachers shape their integrated model of conceptual change that is usually based on the theory of possible selves in psychology and become more able to create their autonomous professional identity when they go through a professional development opportunity especially when this opportunity is well linked to their educational context.

A) A mean for professional empowerment : *'A sign of legacy'*

A very common and immediate response was captured from almost all the respondents' (n=10) during their interviews that reflected their perception of themselves as more qualified professionals because of the language proficiency level they developed after the program. The following testimony by one of the respondents illustrates this view clearly:

> Of course I find myself now different than before I joined this program, it taught me how to read materials in English, how to write my reflective entries in English and also I learnt the names of the technical terms in English that can help me when I speak and discuss things with officials in English …"(T1)

Table 1
BSTs' Attitudes towards their ELP1 (n=25)

№	Statements	Agree	Don't know	Disagree
1	The content was new for me.	11	6	8
2	The content was exciting.	22	3	-
3	The content match with my professional growth as a middle leadership member in my school.	23	-	1
4	There is a strong relation between the content and my actual practice as a senior teacher in school.	24	-	-
5	The content helped me change some of the pre-conceptions I had had about some issues and practices as a senior teacher.	23	2	-
6	I've become more reflective upon my practices after the program.	20	-	5
7	I cultivated many of my current professional skills during the program.	21	2	2
8	I gained new professional skills from the program.	21	2	2
9	Most of the skills I learnt during the program are relevant to my actual practices in the school.	22	1	2
10	The professional skills I learnt in the program are relevant to the MOE projects.	24	-	1
11	Using English as the medium of instruction was helpful for me to understand the content of the courses.	23	-	2
12	I enjoyed studying the program in English.	24	1	1
13	Studying in English increased my professional confidence.	25	-	-
14	Using English made me become more precise and focused when expressing my thoughts and views.	22	2	1
15	Studying in English facilitated my research readings.	24	-	1
16	My perceptions of certain practices have changed.	23	1	1
17	My perception of my role as a senior teacher in school has changed.	21	-	4
18	My perception of professional development has changed.	22	1	3
19	My perceptions of innovations in curriculum and teacher training have changed.	24	-	1
20	I've become more accurate in using educational terms/concepts.	25	-	-
21	I've become more able to make innovations in the curriculum and teaching in general.	20	2	3
22	My skills in organizing professional development sessions for my staff at school has improved.	22	1	2
23	My social skills in communicating and interacting with my staff have improved.	23	2	-
24	I've developed better understanding of my role in relation to the school's administration members (i.e. the principal & assistant principal).	23	1	1

This change of perception about self becoming more professional because of being qualified in using the target language has its justifications rooted in the respondents' practical context. To start with, some BSTs explained that English would help them to interact with experts and other officials whom they meet with at the MOE:

> Of course I find myself now different than before I joined this program, it taught me how to read materials in English, how to write my reflective entries in English and also I learnt the names of the technical terms in English that can help me when I speak and discuss things with officials in English ..."(T1)

This change of perception about self becoming more professional because of being qualified in using the target language has its justifications rooted in the respondents' practical context. To start with, some BSTs explained that English would help them to interact with experts and other officials whom they meet with at the MOE:

> I've always been facing problems that I know what I want to talk about but I had never been able to express it well because I didn't know what such terms to be used and how?! Learning in English through this program has helped me go over this problem, I can express my thoughts and opinions very well now when I meet with any official. (T3)

Respondents 6, 2 and 4 explained how English as the official medium of instruction in the program was the main element that allowed them to feel more confident about their abilities as professional senior teachers and not the program content. Teacher 6 said:

> I was very shy to express or share my professional practices or suggestions for any projects at the ministry but now I feel I am more able to do this, I am different now, I speak and read and write in English. (T6)

Two other respondents elaborated further on this:

> I already know most of the content covered in this program but studying it in English made it different for me, yeah ... I need to know how it is said in English so that when I explain my suggestions in English all members ... the principal, the assistant principal, the schools' district chef and all the other officials at the MOE accept what I say (T2);

and:

> My both bosses at school [principal and vice-principal] won't argue with me anymore as I studied everything in English! (T4)

Other respondents found that joining any professional development course, with English as its main medium of instruction, added more reliability and accreditation to the program not only on the part of the participants themselves but to their role as school leaders as well:

> In my opinion, any course that is taught in English or uses materials written in English is more beneficial for me as it sounds more accredited and reliable than those taught in Arabic. (T3)

B) Reshaping work discourse – *'becoming more accurate'*:

Several respondents found themselves becoming more accurate regarding the terms, concepts or any of the issues related to their professionalism as middle leaders in their schools. According to these respondents, the way terms and issues are defined and explained in English developed a new kind of behaviour that mad it easier for them to share a similar understanding and agreement on certain policies and practices at their workplace. For instance, Teacher 7 states that:

> For me I was not that much specific and clear about some terms that I've been using with my teachers such as curriculum and professional development plan maybe because of the way they are defined in Arabic or because of the nature of the Arabic language that there are lots of adjectives and styles for expressing such terms. Using English helped me to go over this ... at least within my department. (T7)

Other respondents reported how discussing the concepts and issues during their program using English helped them resolve some of the constant challenges they usually face with their colleagues in their departments. Teachers 2 & 7 explained:

> We [as senior teachers] normally have different interpretations of such practices and mix up with others such as curriculum development and curriculum innovations, which usually ends up with me having either a long argument to persuade those who have a different view/interpretation of the terms or a conflict with those who don't want to collaborate.

Teacher 5 added:

> After studying these two courses in English, a new kind of behaviour has developed within my work place, a kind of behaviour during discussion with colleagues in the sense that you are committed to definite practices within a mutual understanding of its reference and terminology, a certain expected performance and role within the definition of the practice you've learnt and

> shared with your colleagues…

This changing tune of behaviour with their teachers from the participants' point of view has developed certain ethics that positively affected the way their teachers do their duties at school:

> Because of the accurate referencing I've recently been doing, I gained more respect from my colleagues, and they became also specific and we both shared same perspectives towards things, this also was reflected in their punctuality towards the deadline I establish for finishing a project. (T9)

Another teacher adds that:

> Because we learnt most of the concepts in English and those are the same ones used in some of the MOE's projects [referring to e.learning project], it was easier for me to share my thoughts and definite aspects of what an e.lesson should consist of … in fact, it was hard for me to give my teachers the same meaning if it was explained in Arabic as the dilemma of having different interpretations will come up again … now with sharing this article in English with my staff, we all came up to a unified meaning and same understanding … T10

C) Reshaping professional identity – *' teach me in English and I change'*

As expressed by many of the participants, the ELP1 participants perceived themselves after the program as more capable in adapting and contextualizing the skills and knowledge they learned in their program to improve the overall performance and practices of their teachers in their schools. To start with, six of them explained how their ELP1 enabled them to change their view of their leadership role as senior teachers and develop it further to the extent that they now affirm how they consider themselves first and foremost as reflective practitioners and not only implementers of the school administration or MOE's policies. Teacher 2's response can best represent this:

> For me my idea of what a senior teacher should do has changed now, he [or she] should be more involved not only in curriculum planning and design but also into innovative projects related to how the curriculum should be taught and train his [or her] teachers on it, For me now [after finishing the program] I see that I'm not just a senior teacher who links and creates connections between teachers and school admin. I have a more significant role in reflecting on our current performance, modify and change it, then develop it … this happens when I create collaboration between teachers and my school admin."

This change in view of professional identity was associated with certain practices. For Teachers 3 & 8, they see that they started adopting some of the learnt strategies in the program and implemented it by collaborating with their teachers:

> We both started using the lesson study strategy to develop our teachers' skills in teaching, of course this became easy because we studied this in our ELP1 and also because the language we studied this strategy in [English] enabled us to search and provide handouts to our teachers.

Another pair, teachers 9 & 7, also reported about another practice that informs their new perception of themselves as professional practitioners, Teacher 9 says:

> I see myself now changed in more role, I now consider myself as a mentor to my teachers, I guide them and supervise them to enable them become professional teachers in their career.

And Teacher 7 says:

> I no more see myself as an evaluator but rather an advisor who shares views and concerns with her staff and see how these issues or practices can be resolved or improved.

This change of perception of being *"a mentor"* or *"an advisor"* indicates how these respondents have reshaped their perceptions of themselves as senior teachers from being evaluators or fosterers of formal school/ministry policies to be more collaborative and sharing of thoughts with their staff of teachers. This shift in view was influenced by the language those participants were taught in and how it led them to exemplify such expressions that reflected professional behaviour such as sharing, respect, and collaboration. Teacher 1's testimony states all of this below:

> I really find myself different now as a head of my department especially after this finishing this intensive program [ELP1] and especially after studying it using English. Honestly, my colleagues and I benefited a lot from studying this program in English as we learnt to use some expressions like I think, in my opinion, as a group, as a team, and many other expressions that have been reflected upon our practices when we came back to work in school, I now do not say you must do this but instead I say I think you should do this, it's more respectful and more sharing to the other partner.

However, some respondents were had different reactions from their colleagues. Four of the ten interviewed participants were in agreement that they still see themselves as both mediators between school administration and their teachers and also leaders who seek continuous professional development for themselves and their staff. For instance, Teacher 10 says:

> I still see myself as both, a channel through which my staff can communicate with the school principal and a developer of current practices through encouraging reflection among us in the department. Ideally, we are supposed to be reflective practitioners because we work in a field that is consistently changing but at the same time we must work to echo our staff's voice to the school principal to let them heard and listened to. (T10)

Teacher 8 shares the same view relating her perception of herself after the program and explains how her role still should be divided between both, being a leader and correspondent of her teachers' affairs to the school management:

> I'm also both, a channel for teachers to send their concerns and requests to the school admin and a collaborator who seeks to improve my staff's performance through reflection and adaptation of new practices. I think that as long as I enter classes I have to be a teacher who shares concerns, thoughts and feelings with his [or her] colleagues, and also a facilitator for performance development because I am a leader group of teachers.

In fact, regardless of the extent, the change in perception for respondents was definite and determined; they have become more aware of themselves being involved and collaborative with their teachers. In addition, it also reflects the amount of influence those senior teachers had had while studying in English during their ELP1.

Conclusion

The results in this study, both quantitative and qualitative, reveal how using English as medium of instruction (EMI) can help senior teachers who work in a bilingual context, such as Bahrain, to become more open-minded, positive and confident to carry out new roles in their schools. This can lead those teachers to act as agents of change in their schools which will directly input into the overall education reform project that was launched in Bahrain in 2006. Luckacs and Galluzzo (2014) promote this approach and suggest that a new model for educational reform can be shaped in the way that the teachers' role becomes more active than recipient and that reform occurs by them and not through them. This is exactly where the impact of using EMI was noted when those teachers in the study expressed how studying in English enabled them to get access to diverse materials and techniques and how they found themselves more confident in proposing and suggesting new ideas and practices to improve their schools' actual practice. In this regard, Wong (2009) reports a similar finding that exposure to English has a great positive impact on shaping new views towards actual practice. To conclude, the findings in this study open doors for investigating the policy of implementing EMI in the in-service and pre-service teacher education programs in the Kingdom of Bahrain and suggesting recommendations to resolve any special challenges which teachers who have been trained either in English or Arabic could face when they act as agents of change in their schools.

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Appendix 1

Interview questions

1. *How do you view yourself as a SELT in your school?*
2. *How has been your role in contributing for any change that the MOE has called for within your department? Give examples.*
3. *Has this perception of yourself as a SELT changed after your join to the program? How? Give examples.*
4. *How do you feel after you finished your ELP1 regarding yourself as a middle school management authority? Why? Give examples.*
5. *Do you feel more capable of making a significant change in your school after you finished your ELP1? Give examples.*
6. *What skills/qualities/knowledge did the prramme provide to you to enable you make changes in practices with your teachers in your school?*
7. *How do you find the ELP1 as an in-service training program? Why?*
8. *Which areas do you think the program needs to be improved in future? Why? Give examples.*

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Taking a MOOC: Socio-Cultural Aspects of Virtual Interaction in a Multicultural Learning Community

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Featuring different approaches to Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) among education policy makers, theorists and practitioners in the field and highlighting an increasing popularity of this educational phenomenon worldwide, the article provides a brief record of MOOCs' success at Harvard University and the National Research University Higher School of Economics (HSE) making the authors move gradually towards the main focus of this paper – socio-cultural problems, that Russian students frequently face while taking a MOOC in English. The survey described in the article revealed that HSE students establishing online communication with their peers from other countries often complain about sudden, unexpected communication breakdowns that they find difficult to explain and that are likely to occur due to the socio-cultural differences existing between communication partners in a multicultural learning community. The results of the survey presented in the article indicate that there is an urgent need to find effective ways to increase the students' level of socio-cultural competence that would allow them to communicate successfully in a new virtual learning environment.

Keywords: intercultural communication, socio-cultural competence, socio-cultural awareness, MOOCs, virtual interaction, multicultural learning community

Having analyzed a number of publications devoted to MOOCs by Russian and foreign experts, one will inevitably come to the conclusion that there are at least three schools of thought: the first one proclaims the invention of a MOOC a "revolution" (Davidson, Goldberg, 2010; Demillo, Young, 2015), their opponents call MOOCs a "disruptive innovation" (Christensen, Horn, 2013) struggling to find as many darks sides of MOOCs as they can only think of (Kelly, 2014; Mangan, 2013). The most moderate and forward-looking side of this argument chooses to estimate the economic profitability of a MOOC, to outline its place in the educational market, to predict future perspectives (Kuzminov, Carnoy, 2015) and to find sufficient evidence that can show whether MOOCs are effective in producing desirable educational outcomes (Hollands, Tirthali, 2014).

The increasing popularity of MOOCs is hard to underestimate. In 2013 Harvard and MIT launched their online learning platform edX, offering 68 courses. As reported more people signed up for MOOCs at Harvard in a single year than have attended the university in its entire 377-year history (Rosengbergh, 2015). According to Prof. Robert Lue from Harvard University, institutions that sit back and watch may find themselves in trouble (Dotsenko, 2014).

The National Research University Higher School of Economics, one of the leading universities in Russia, decided not to sit back but to keep up with the times and to offer its students in Russia and worldwide more than 21 courses on Coursera (Kulik, 2015).

The success of MOOCs is defined by the wide range of opportunities they give their diverse and heterogeneous audience (Gruzdev, Makarov, Semenova, & Terentev, 2015). The rector of HSE, Prof. Yaroslav Kuzminov outlines at least three target groups that can benefit from MOOCs. The first group is made up of students for whom taking a course means experiencing a new learning environment in the most prestigious and well-established universities of their choice, which now seems to be unlimited and no longer restricted by only one brick-and-mortar university. The second, and frequently the biggest group, are so-called life-long learners and working professionals who can gain new skills and knowledge without making dramatic changes in their schedules. Last but not least are universities themselves and their teaching communities, for whom producing a MOOC is a chance to teach their few but eager students some field-specific courses that are often unprofitable and, consequently, are bound to be excluded from the curricula (Kuzminov, Carnoy, 2015).

However, the success of a MOOC is sometimes considered its biggest disadvantage. Many controversial issues, such as appropriate feedback and adequate assessment of thousands of students enrolled in a course, still remain widely discussed (Sharples, Adams, & Ferguson, 2014; Kuzminov, Carnoy, 2015).

Meanwhile, students from all over the world seem to ignore this debate and enroll in courses that promise to suit their needs, interests and tastes. For this purpose, students use various online platforms, among which the most popular are Coursera, edx, Udacity, FutureLearn and Open2Study. For them a MOOC is not only a chance to gain new knowledge, skills, and maybe to obtain a verified certificate or a free certificate of attendance but, more importantly, it is an event which allows them to form a new type of a learning community – a global community that unites people with different professional and educational backgrounds.

Unsurprisingly, while students enjoy the benefits of MOOCs, they almost inevitably experience their downsides as well. The survey described further in this article revealed that Russian students who establish online communication with their peers often complain about sudden, unexpected communication breakdowns that they cannot explain. A more detailed investigation in each case has shown that the problems occur due to the socio-cultural differences that exist between communication partners in a multicultural learning community.

Materials and Methods

As Prof. Victoria Safonova highlights in her article devoted to the most controversial and urgent issues of communicative education in the context of the dialogue of cultures and civilizations, today we are witnessing that the process of forming a global culture that involves online communication is frequently accompanied with a low level of socio-cultural awareness of culturally-specific features and of what is considered to be polite and impolite in different cultures (Safonova, 2014). This sort of awareness is often considered an integral part of socio-cultural competence – a complex phenomenon including a number of essential and interconnected components. According to G. Zarate and G. Neuner, socio-cultural competence includes an ability to relate to the representatives of other cultures, knowledge of their way of life, a capacity to enter and discover new situations of intercultural exchange, as well as awareness of self and of how people from different cultures see us (Zarate, Neuner, 1997). The lack of socio-cultural competence and socio-cultural awareness may result in communication failures in intercultural communication full of challenges and numerous socio-cultural pitfalls awaiting a FL (foreign language) learner.

In an effort to determine what socio-cultural pitfalls Russian students typically fail to avoid, 450 presentations delivered by Russian EFL learners – the students of different faculties from Voronezh State University were analyzed. The analysis showed that the students made so called socio-cultural mistakes – those caused by Russian EFL learners' unawareness of the differences between Russian and foreign traditions, norms, and behavioral patterns (Safonova, Kuzmina, 1998; Pavlovskaya, Kuzmina, 2010). These mistakes may be divided into three major categories that are briefly described in this article[1].

The first category is classified as verbal socio-cultural mistakes that arise in the use of mainly lexical and grammatical means. The most common lexical socio-cultural mistakes are linked to the use of a) pseudo international lexis or "faux amis" and; b) contextually inappropriate lexical units, e.g., the use of pronoun "we", which many Russian EFL learners favor so much when they present the results of their individual scientific research (Wierzbicka, 1992). Grammatical socio-cultural mistakes are connected with the choice of grammatical means that sometimes may appear to be absolutely awkward or even rude. One of the most vivid examples of grammatical socio-cultural mistakes is the use of imperative constructions and modal verbs of obligation that students frequently use to express requests and recommendations (Elizarova, 2005).

The second category includes non-verbal socio-cultural mistakes that can be explained by an attitude to smiling, using gestures, and establishing an eye-contact, which can vary greatly in different cultures. What is usually regarded as a "natural smile" and "a proper eye-contact" in one culture may be considered bizarre or even irritating in the others (Elizarova, 2005; Leontovich, 2002).

Finally, the third category of socio-cultural mistakes includes verbal, sub-verbal and non-verbal signals that Russian students send to their target recipients basing on the behavioral speech patterns that exist in Russian culture. These mistakes influence the whole manner of delivering information and reacting to the communication partners' needs. As a result, Russian students may seem unwilling to engage into direct and open interaction or may even create the mistaken impression of 'rude and unconcerned' communicators (Elizarova, 2005, p. 344).

Drawing on the works devoted to the problems of intercultural communication of foreign and Russian authors and taking into consideration the results of the analysis briefly described above, we hypothesized that Russian students taking a MOOC in English might encounter similar socio-cultural problems trying to engage in online communication with their peers and tutors. In order to check this assumption the survey described further was conducted.

Research Methods and Procedures

The survey was conducted amongst first- and second-year students of HSE studying for a Bachelor's degree in "Software engineering". More than 70 students answered the questionnaire, which was mainly focused on the socio-cultural problems the students encounter interacting with their online peers and tutors. The survey included two stages: at the first stage the students were asked to answer a number of questions and the second stage included critical incident analysis that was required to explain the reasons for communication breakdowns reported by the students participating in the survey.

Stage 1: Answering the Questionnaire

The questionnaire included a number of questions aimed at finding out the following: 1) whether the students have ever taken a MOOC; 2) whether they chose to take a MOOC in Russian or in English; 3) what difficulties they faced communicating with their peers and tutors in a new virtual learning environment.

Figure1 shows that 32% of students have never taken a MOOC either in Russian or in English. The majority of them are first-year students, and while they have not participated in a MOOC yet, they are familiar with the term and hope to take a MOOC in the future. Those who do have experience in online learning prefer taking a MOOC in English; 44% of students chose field-specific courses in English. Students point out two reasons for this: the course is only available in English, and they consider a MOOC in English to be an effective way to practice their language skills.

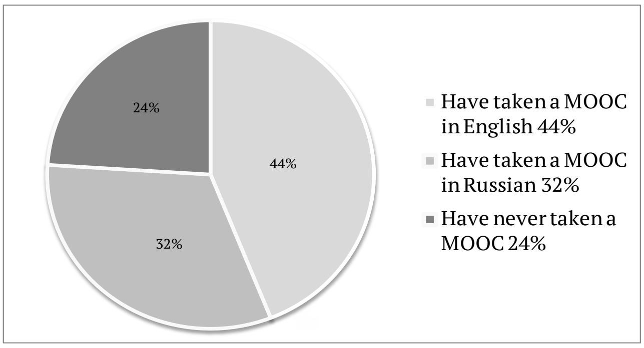

Figure 1. The percentage of students taking MOOCs.

As Figure 2 indicates 57% of students experience difficulties taking a MOOC in English; disturbingly enough, 38% of all the students taking part in the survey complain about sudden communication breakdowns. The students from these two categories can be divided into two groups.

The first group is represented by students whose language level is below B1 and who reported experiencing so called "language difficulties" when taking a MOOC in English. They usually try to solve the problem using a dictionary and switching on the subtitles to help them communicate and understand the video lectures and the comments posted on the forums. The second group of students can boast a comparatively higher language level from B2 to C1; they usually enjoy taking a MOOC in English and actively participate in forum discussions and establish personal contacts with their online peers. Many students from this group claim to be surprised with the situations in which they fail to achieve their communication goals, though their language level allows them to share their ideas easily and articulately.

Stage 2: Analyzing Cultural Incidents

At this stage we took a closer look at each case that was reported by the students as a situation of a sudden communication breakdown. These cases are usually classified as "critical incidents" (Fowler & Blohm, 2004) or "cultural incidents" – conflicting or uncomfortable situations which arise because of the

[1] For more examples of typical socio-cultural mistakes in oral presentations of Russian students also see Pavlovskaya, G., Kuzmina, L. (2010). Avoiding Socio-cultural Pitfall While Presenting in English. Moscow: Research center "Euroschool".

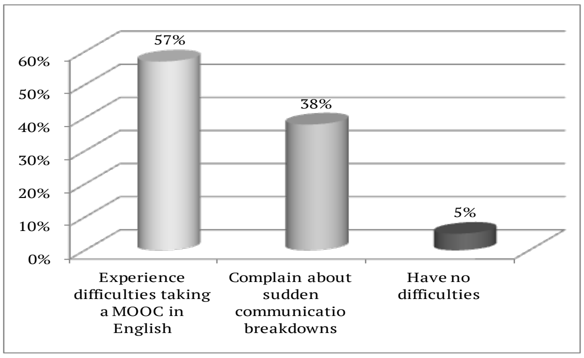

Figure 2. The percentage of students experiencing difficulties while taking a MOOC.

differences in a system of culturally specific values and behavioral norms (Byram, 2001, p. 117). Unawareness of these values and norms may lead to communication failures similar to those described further in this article.

Incident 1: Taboo Topics

The situation described below was reported by one student who participated in the survey. It can serve an example of one of the numerous pitfalls that students interacting in a multicultural learning community may encounter. After communicating with his online peers for some time, the student was pleased to find like-minded programmers with whom he could discuss the details of a project that he was eager to join. After a while, however, his peers unexpectedly became reluctant to engage even in small talk with him. Further investigation of the incident revealed that the student was trying to receive first-hand information to estimate the profitability of the project, and had asked his online peers about the money and the bonuses that the project brought them personally.

Incident 2: Misinterpreting Visual Information

One more example is connected with the use of the visual material that the student, participating in the survey, was asked to prepare a presentation to demonstrate the advantages of a new antivirus computer program. The student was proud to come up with a presentation showing a sequence of images for his program that could be used to protect a computer from a “virus”. The first slide demonstrated a “virus” in a form of a funny wiggling worm appearing on the computer screen that suddenly turned red and started to beep. The second slide represented a superhero with an antivirus program that turned the suffering computer into a happy and smiling one in the third slide. The final slide included all of the three images appearing in the same sequence. The student reported to have high marks for the presentation but he also mentioned “strange and envious remarks” that he got from some of his online peers who claimed that the presentation was “a complete disaster” on the discussion form.

Results and Discussion

On the whole, the results of the survey may be summarized as follows. As predicted, the communication failures or cultural incidents described above may be explained by the socio-cultural differences that exist between the communication partners. In the first case, the Russian student lacked awareness of the fact that money is still one of the strictest taboo topics for discussion even in a circle of close friends and relatives in American culture (Ford, 1980; Elizarova, 2005; Leontovich, 2002). On the other hand, asking how much you pay for rent is not considered offensive since housing is an issue of a constant social concern in the USA (Ford, 1980, p. 36). Obviously, this border between money as a matter of “personal concern” and money as a “widely-discussed problem” may not seem very clear for an EFL learner representing a different culture.

The second case deserves special attention since it clearly demonstrates that a learner taking a MOOC enters a virtual learning community that is very culturally diverse. Trying to find out the reasons for the communication failure we referred the student to the peers’ personal profiles that helped to realize that they came from Arab countries, and could misinterpret the message being used to reading from right to left. Unsurprisingly enough, the antivirus program presented by the Russian student, seemed to them “a complete disaster” that could damage their computers. The Russian student, in his turn, could not work out the reason for the comments received from his peers and interpreted them as something “strange and envious” because his high marks for the presentation, which he got from the majority of his peers, signaled to him that he had performed quite well. As a result, being unable to account for the socio-cultural differences, both sides were left disappointed and with mutual stereotypes.

As outlined previously, the second stage of our survey was based on critical/cultural incident analysis. This technique has often been described as an effective form of teaching and assessing socio-cultural skills together with other frequently used techniques such as a portfolio, standard cultural tests, diagnostic scales, case studies, interviews, analysis of reflective diaries, and logs (Byram, 2001; Deardoff, 2006, Jackson, 2005). On the other hand, all of them have been questioned for the validity of the received results and criticized for testing only factual knowledge which is often generalized and stereotypical (Hashem, 1995). Though the danger of building stereotypes is sometimes very high, we share G. Neuner's views based on the assumption that socio-cultural mistakes in intercultural communication are inevitable and it is essential to help FL learners realize that "such breakdowns in comprehension and communication are quite natural and will occur again and again at all stages of foreign language learning and use" (Neuner, 2003, p. 50). Analysis of the reasons for communication breakdown in intercultural communication gives students "comprehension of the other culture" that is required to "defuse the incident and clear the way for better understanding in the future" (Archer, 1986, p. 172).

Conclusion

The results of the survey presented in this article demonstrate an urgent need for Russian EFL learners to increase the level of socio-cultural competence that serves as the basis for developing a better understanding of a foreign culture as well as of one's own, and helps to establish successful intercultural communication. Taking into consideration an increasing number of international contacts, a considerable share of which has become possible thanks to modern technology, it is particularly important to find ways to increase the students' level of socio-cultural competence that would allow them to communicate effectively in both real and virtual multicultural learning communities. Though MOOCs are sometimes heavily criticized for a number of reasons, it is quite obvious that in taking a MOOC a learner joins a virtual learning community that can give real experience of intercultural communication, and this opportunity should not be ignored either by the researchers and the teachers or by the learners themselves.

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Developing Chemistry Students' Study Skills through Integration of Visual Organizers in Teaching ESP

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This study is aimed at development chemistry students' study skills through integration of visual organizers (VOs) in teaching English for Special Purposes (ESP). The research specifically examined the students' attitude toward the chemistry content of English classes and the achievement of two groups of 54 students under study. The results of the study indicated that there is a significant difference between the level of study skills in dealing with chemistry in English of the students in the experimental group before and after the experiment. The result of students' perception about visual organizers, as a strategy and approach to teaching English through chemistry, highlighted the rationale in this undertaking. All communicative activities and presentations used by the teacher in the class incorporating visual organizers in identified formats such word webbing, web diagram, flowcharts, concept maps, Venn diagram and pictorial graphics obtained a positive perception of chemistry information in English. Performance, on the other hand, indicated the VO's effectiveness in facilitating the learning of English and study skills development. This analysis implied that the experimental group performed significantly better than their peers in the control group. Facilitating English learning through chemistry content can be made through integrating visual organizers that help develop students' study skills. Hence, the use of visual organizers effect changes in learning chemistry content for the better. Visual organizers help students perform better and improve their attitude toward learning English for professional communication.

Keywords: competence, skills, study skills, visual learning, visual organizers, facilitating learning, attitude toward English trough chemistry, student performance

The implementation of the Federal State Educational Standards of Higher Professional Education in Russian universities, as one of the most significant impacts of the Bologna Process, has influenced competence-oriented teaching involving students' acquisition of professional knowledge and skills. Among the key European competences for lifelong learning two are under the study here: communication in a foreign language and learning to learn. When studying and researching chemistry students are supposed to develop their cognitive competence including study skills or strategies and a communicative competence based on foreign language knowledge within a professional context. Cognitive competence as a component of learner centered educational paradigm (Khutorskoy, 2003) is the system of general educational skills representing ways of receiving and using knowledge that are universal for many educational disciplines (p. 58). Communicative competence as the goal for language education is 'composed of grammatical, sociolinguistic and strategic competences' (Canale, Swain, 1980, p. 27).

The effectiveness of students' performance in university is determined by their ability to study efficiently. The results of having poor study skills are low grades, frustration or wasted time. No two people study the same way and have the same learning style. However, there are some general teaching and learning techniques that help students achieve good results. The aim of the present research was to develop study skills of students learning chemistry through the integration of visual organizers (VOs) in teaching English for Special Purposes. Teaching English to chemistry science students during their first university year is supposed to involve them in the scientific aspects of the target study area – chemistry through reading texts loaded with professional terms and science vocabulary in English. Although some study skills are taught at school, first-year students have numerous problems to cope with during their learning, for example, reading texts on chemistry and extracting information from them, acquiring new terminology and applying it in oral and written communication, etc.

Materials and Methods

The study's theoretical background is based on two educational paradigms: the personality-oriented and the competence approaches. The personality-oriented paradigm defined by A. V. Khutorskoy as, "the set of the intercorrected semantic orientations, knowledge, abilities, skills and experience of pupil's activity, that is necessary for the realization of personality and socially significant productive activity in relation to a certain circle of the object of reality" (p. 143).

Another important paradigm, called "the competence paradigm", influences all stages of the educational system especially in vocational education. A competence 'means the ability to apply knowledge know-how and skills in a stable/recurring or changing situation' (Gordon, et al., 2009)). Competences described by I. A. Zimnyaya (2003) as, "some internal, potential, hidden psychological new formations: knowledge, notions, program (algorithms) of actions, systems of values and relations which then are reflected in a man's competences" (p. 8), in fact include abilities or set of skills possessed by a person. It is obvious that the two terms 'competence' and 'skills' are interconnected. According to the CASE network report, a skill is defined as 'the ability, usually learned, and acquired through training to perform actions that achieve a desired outcome' (Gordon et al., 2009, p. 26). The term 'skill' is used (Winterton, Stringfellow, 2005) to refer to a level of performance, in the sense of accuracy and speed in performing particular tasks (p. 10). Proctor and Dutta (1995) define a skill as 'goal-directed, well-organized behavior that is required through practice and performed with economy of effort' (p. 18). Among numerous kinds of skills (labour, social, life, etc.) study skills are considered as those ones acquired through learning or experiences.

The problem of forming study skills has been actively researched by Currie (2005), Kennedy (2005), Drew and Bingham (2010), Cottrell (2013). Considering study skills or study strategies as the approaches essential for lifelong learning, Stella Cottrell (2013) claims that study skills might be developed only at the university level. In 'The Study Skills Handbook' she notes that 'study skills evolve and mature though practice, reflection, trial and error, and feedback from others…' (p. 10). All the researchers note that study skills help students deal with the process of organizing and acquiring new information, processing, interpreting or applying it. They are also necessary for effective reading and writing, mind-mapping and note-taking.

Russian didactics have introduced some categories for study skills. For instance, G. K. Selevko (2003) considers five groups of study skills such as: 1) planning skills; 2) learning organization skills; 3) information cognitive skills; 4) thinking skills; 5) performance self-assessment.

According to Babansky's (1990) theory of rational study management, study skills are divided into three groups: 1) study-organizational skills which help to set up and apply the objectives of work, plan the activity rationally and create efficient working conditions; 2) study-informative skills, for example, extracting information from books, do some observations; 3) study-intellectual skills, for example, the ability to self-motivate a student's activity, such as an attentive perception of information, rational memorizing and logic conceptualization of study materials, self-assessment of cognitive activities. This classification is used in the present study as the basis for working out the students' progress evaluation criteria.

Students' study skills development is provided by a range of curriculum subject areas, including a foreign language. Knowledge of another language that helps students develop skills to share ideas about science, for example chemistry, in their professional communication with people from other countries is rather important in our global technological society. Overton Johnson and Scott (2011) note that chemisty students' study and communication skills help them fulfill their true potential during their studies, and to enhance their employability beyond university. Language learning at university level is contextualized and supported by various resources such as textbooks, additional materials from the Internet, multimedia and visual (graphic) organizers.

The second key term of the present study is 'visual organizers' (VOs) that are drawings or formats used to represent information and to show relationships between ideas, for example, tables, graphs, charts, timelines, diagrams, flowcharts, etc. The purpose of using visual organizers is to help students think more critically and at higher levels of cognition than if they only focused on reading a text and taking notes. Visual organizers also help to process the information at higher levels of comprehension, analysis, synthesis, application, and evaluation.

Some research (Arnheim, 1969; Silverman, 2005; Mayer & Massa, 2003) consider visualizing as one of the main ways of learning. As Arnheim wrote: "The clarification of visual forms and their organization in integrated patterns as well as the attribution of such forms to suitable objects is one of the most effective training grounds of the young mind". The research by Linda K. Silverman (2005) suggests that less than 30% of the population strongly uses visual/spatial thinking, another 45% uses both visual/spatial thinking and thinking in the form of words, and 25% thinks exclusively in words. So, visualizing in the form of drawings, pictures, diagrams or charts help learners understand more complex information. Moreover, as Mayer and Massa (2003) claim 'People with high spatial ability have higher proficiency in creating, holding and manipulating special representations' (p. 838).

In the academic context the term 'graphic organizers' is used more often than visual organizer (VOs), so we may consider them as synonyms. According to G. Dye (2000) 'graphic organizers are visual displays that make information easier to understand' (pp. 72-76). Hall and trangman (2002) noted that integrating graphic organizers can be supportive of teacher's teaching and student learning. It provides holistic representation of facts and concepts and their relationships within an organized frame.

Peculiarities of Teaching ESP to Chemistry Students

Teaching English to students studying chemistry as their major is challenging and has some specific features for both teachers and students because they need to know the content-obligatory language, i.e. the vocabulary, grammatical structures and functional language for communication in this subject. As our teaching ESP experience shows that the first-year students have a necessary level of their language competence (between A2 and B1) and they know the content-compatible language, i.e. how to use grammatical structures to describe a process, cause and effect as well as general vocabulary, for example, the names of some chemical elements "oxygen", "hydrogen", etc. By the end of the course the students are supposed to know subject-specific language to be able to communicate in the professional context.

Our study has been influenced by the fact that the students in their first university year might face two challenging things: studying chemistry as a difficult 'abstract' science, on the one hand, and the English language that might create misconceptions as far as students' processing of content is concerned, on the other hand.

Research Questions and Hypothesis

The study is intended to facilitate students' study skills with the help of visual organizers' integration in English language teaching to chemistry students. Specifically, our study attempted to answer the *following problems*:

1. Is there a significant difference in study skills of chemistry science students in (a) the experimental group exposed to using VOs and (b) the control group exposed to the traditional English language teaching method before and after intervention?
2. What is the perception of chemistry students exposed to lessons integrating graphic organizers in learning English for specific purposes?
3. How does the achievement test in reading the text on chemistry done by the students in the experimental group differ from those ones from the control group?

Before the research we had put forward the following *hypothesis*: by comparing or contrasting information, identifying cause or effect relationships, classifying vocabulary and information the chemistry students will develop their study skills while using visual organizers (mind-mapping, tables, graphs, charts, diagrams, flowcharts) in learning English with chemical content and improve their study skills and content-obligatory language level.

Methods

The study was conducted with two groups of the first-year students (52 participants) at the Institute of Natural Sciences (Surgut State University, Russia) involved in the research work as the experimental and control groups. Admission test result on chemistry and on-line Cambridge English test of these students were used as basis for the selection to heterogeneous.

The research methodology consists of a reference analysis, a quantitative analysis of the results of the survey, language testing, and an achievement test on reading a chemistry text.

The framework of the study includes three stages: the first stage, a theoretical and pre-experimental, took place in 2012-2013 academic year. Its main aim is defining the theoretical basis for the research including the selection of the participants, tools and methods of study. The second (experimental) stage was in the 2013-2014 academic year. It was aimed at integration of visual organizers in teaching an English language course to chemistry students. During the final stage of the study in 2015 all data and results were analyzed and described. The stages, their aims and methods of study are presented in Table 1.

Table 1
The stages of the research work

	Stage	Aims	Methods of study
	Theoretical and pre-experimental stage (2012-2013 academic year).	To define the theoretical and methodological basis for the research including the selection of the participants, tools and methods of study.	Reference analysis; Language testing; Selection of students; Preparing study texts and visual organizers
I.	Experimental stage (2013-2014 academic year).	To integrate visual organizers in teaching English language course to chemistry students	Practical method (integration VOs in teaching ESP); Descriptive method Assessment method
II.	Final stage (2015)	To analyze the results of the study.	Assessment method Reflexive method

Research Procedure

In the first stage of the study the students-participants from the experimental and control groups had an on-line language test (www.camridgeenglish.org/test- your-english). Their results of the entrance exam on chemistry were also taken into consideration. As shown in Table 2, the English language testing and the students' performance in state chemistry exams have the insignificant *t*-value which is at the 0.05 level, that means that the two groups (EG and CG) are almost equal in the experimental work.

The teaching resources for the study include the basic course books for teaching chemistry in English to students at SurSU, "The World of Chemistry" by M. M. Kutepova (2005) and "About the Foundations of Chemistry. A Practical Course of English for the First Year Chemistry Students" by N. A. Stepanova (2011). Moreover, the materials from the specialized blog for chemical science students "Chemistry English" (http://esp-chemistry.blogspot.ru/) were widely used during the study.

The main purpose of *the experimental stage* of the study was to facilitate students' learning environment to develop their study skills by means of integrating various visual organizers in the English language class in the experimental group. Teaching English in the control group was based on the traditional approach aimed at learning grammar and vocabulary, reading texts on chemistry issues, writing abstracts and annotations to the articles. While teaching reading in the CG we used skim reading for gist, so students had to read and find the answers to questions or translate the text. Whereas in the EG the students brainstormed the main idea of the text based on some key words or a title, they used mind-mapping techniques to represent the content of the text. Different types of reading were used, including scanning, skimming or reading for detailed comprehension with the students in the EG having to transfer information in the form of diagrams or charts. While teaching writing the students of the CG were asked to translate new words or give their definitions. In both groups the students were taught how to write abstracts and to take notes. Communicative listening and speaking skills in the CG were taught through answering questions or True/False statements activities, whereas the students in the EG were involved in graphic presentation of the information, describing the graphs or process cycle, making reports with Power Point Presentation. The different methods and teaching techniques used the CG and EG groups of chemistry students are presented in Table 3.

Levels of Study Skills' Development

One of the instruments for data collection was self-assessment on the basis of the criteria and descriptors worked out to compare the levels of study skills'

Table 2
Students' English test and Chemistry exam results

	English test (average score from 15)	Mean difference	p-value	State chemistry exam scores	Mean difference	p-value
Experimental group (EG)	17	1	Less 0,05	84		
Control group(CG)	16			85	1	Less 0,05

Table 3
Teaching methods and techniques in Control and Experimental Groups

Communicative skills	Control group	Experimental group
Reading	- reading for gist - answering questions - translation of the text.	- brainstorming; - mind-mapping the content of the text; - reading for detailed comprehension - information transfer (graphs)
Writing	- translation of new words - definitions - written vocabulary exercises - writing abstracts - taking notes	- word webbing - concept maps - writing project works - summarizing - taking notes
Listening	- listening for specific information and skimming ; - answering questions or True/False statements	- listening for specific information, skimming and detailed comprehension with graphic presentation of the information
Speaking	- asking and answering questions - describing the process - short reports	- describing the graphs or process cycle - reports with Power Point Presentation

Table 4
Levels of study skills' development in the chemistry content-obligatory English language course with integration VOs

	Low level (equal to A2)	Middle level (B1)	High level (B2)
Study-organizational skills	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions, read simple texts related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal information, chemistry terms).	Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar chemistry matters; organize independent study of new vocabulary in a form of wordweb and mind map	Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in the field of chemistry, can organize vocabulary in a concept map.
Study-informative skills	Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on basic chemistry matters.	Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst reading or listening to professional communication on chemistry issues.	Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity on chemistry issues that makes regular interaction in the professional context, can make and explain graphs and diagrams
Study-intellectual skills	Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, basic chemistry matters with help of simple VOs	Can describe experiences and process, briefly give reasons and explanations for professional opinions and plans using VOs (charts, diagrams, etc.).	Can produce clear, detailed text on a chemistry matter, explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options, represent them in a form of VOs

formation in English language chemistry according to the Common European Framework of Reference, "The Can-do-statements" and Babansky's classification of study skills. Table 4 represents the criteria for self-evaluation of the level of study skills' development in the chemistry content-obligatory English language course with integration of VOs. In the first stage of the study the students and teachers from both groups assessed their study skills on the basis of the suggested descriptors. After the experimental English teaching with wide use of visual organizers in the EG, the study skills evaluation was used again.

Levels of study skills' development in the chemistry content-obligatory English language course with integration VOs.

Results

At the beginning of the study the question was asked to find out if there was a significant difference in the study skills of chemistry students in the experimental group exposed to VOs and the control group exposed to the traditional English language teaching method before and after intervention.

Table 5 represents the difference in the development of study skills in both groups (EG and CG). The obvious dynamics can be seen in both groups as the result of the learning process. Nevertheless, the progress in the experimental group is more than in the control group. If we compare the middle level of study skills development, the difference of study-organizational skills in CG is 10 to 15, i.e. in 1.5 times more, while in EG the difference is 7 to 15, i.e. 2.1 times more. The difference of study-informative skills in CG is 6 to 12, i.e. 2 times more; in EG: 2.25. Comparing the dynamics in the development of study-intellectual skills in both groups there is the following difference in the middle level : in CG 9 to18 (twice bigger), in EG 9 to 20 (2.2). Accordingly, the progress in study skills development in the experimental group is higher than in the control group.

Table 5
Absolute figures of progress development of study skills in EG and CG

Study skills	Levels	Before the experimental work		After the experimen-tal work	
		CG	EG	CG	EG
Study-organiza-tional skills	Low	16	19	9	3
	Middle	10	7	15	15
	High	-	-	2	8
Study-informative skills	Low	20	18	11	3
	Middle	6	8	12	18
	High	-	-	3	5
Study-intellectual skills	Low	17	17	6	2
	Middle	9	9	18	20
	High	-	-	2	4

Answering the second question about the perception of chemistry students exposed to lessons integrating graphic organizers in learning English for specific purposes, the data from questionnaire may be used. While self-assessing their study skills, the students of the EG could explain the purpose and profit of using visual organizers for their English and chemistry learning. According to the survey, the EG students found using visual organizers while reading English texts on chemistry issues as an effective tool to memorize a new vocabulary and understand the content.The third question concerned the difference between the students from EG and CG in the reading test performance. It was the optimal way to evaluate the results of the effectiveness of using visual organizers in teaching English to chemistry students. In the first part of the test the students read the text and chose on from the variants (A, B or C). In the second part, they had to make a pie chart on the information of a chemistry process. The results of the test have also helped prove the effectiveness of using visual organizers, which 'make meaning and their learning meaningful' (Ausubel, 1969).

In Table 6 there are the results of the achievement reading test in EG and CG, demonstrating that the students in EG performed much better in the test.

Table 6
Achievement test results

Correct answers	Experimental group	Control group
85-100%	19	9
70-84%	6	13
69-54%	1	4
Less than 50%		

Discussion

The integration of visual organizers in the teaching of English to chemistry students revealed its influence on the development of their study skills. The results of our research indicated that there is a significant difference between the level of study skills in dealing with chemistry content in English of the students in the experimental group before and after the experiment. Therefore, some benefits from the use of visual organizers facilitating students' language and study skills might be suggested for scientific discussion.

Firstly, the results of other studies on the use of graphic organizers (Ausubel, 1960; Al-Hinnawi, 2012; Dye, 2000; Hall, Strangman, 2002; Torres, Espaňa, & Orleans, 2014) proved that students who used the graphic organizer strategy in learning new vocabulary and grammar, reading a text, writing summaries and doing other classroom and autonomous activities outperformed the students in the control groups. Moreover, the study revealed that the students learning English within their professional context showed high motivation in reading authentic information on chemistry and presenting it in various visual forms.

Secondly, all communicative activities and presentations used by the teacher and the students in the English language class incorporating visual organizers in identified formats such word-webbing, web diagram, flowcharts, concept maps, Venn diagram and pictorial graphics had a good reception of chemistry information. The use of visual organizers as educational tools effects change in learning chemistry content for the better. Visual organizers help students perform better and improve their attitude toward learning English for professional communication.

Thirdly, the study aimed at the development of students' study skills that are considered as the basic components of cognitive competence (Babansky, 1990; Khutorskoy, 2002; Raven, Stephenson, 2001; Overton, Johnson, & Scott, 2011). The lack of study skills (study-organizational, study-informative and study-intellectual skills) prevents students from better performance, in fact it is a constant deficiency in the study methods of many high school and college students. Having good study skills help students apply them in different situations, especially in learning a foreign language with specific scientific context.

The study's hypothesis stated that by comparing or contrasting information, identifying cause or effect relationships, classifying vocabulary and information due to the integration of various visual organizers the chemistry students will develop their study while learning English with chemical content and improve their study skills and content-obligatory language level. The results of the study give some evidence to support the hypothesis and make some contribution to improve teaching ESP on the base of visual learning.

Conclusion

In conclusion, it might be stated that the goal of the study has been achieved, the hypothesis has been supported by the experiment data described above. It has been shown that by comparing or contrasting information, identifying cause or effect relationships, classifying vocabulary and information the chemistry students develop their study skills while using various visual organizers in learning English with chemical content. Moreover, the main impact of using visual organizers is the increase in students' ability to think more critically and at higher levels of cognition than if they only focused on reading the text and taking notes. Visual organizers helped students to process the information at higher levels of comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. By thinking about and organizing information in this way, chemistry students better understand and recall the information in English on chemistry issues.

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The Influence of Self-Editing on Micro Skills Development in Academic Writing in English as a Second Language

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Self-editing skills are extremely important in foreign language learning; without them university students tend not to write appropriately in academic contexts. These skills are, however, often less developed in school graduates and it is thus essential to understand the challenges faced by university students. The present study was conducted to answer the research question: whether self-editing as a final component of written production can boost the writing micro skills of learners. It analyzes English-language essays written by 50 second-year ESL students in the Faculty of Economics at the National Research University Higher School of Economics, Moscow, and reports on the most frequent errors committed in their formal writing. The aim of this study is to focus on the stage of self-editing and identify the role of self-editing in micro skills development. Findings reveal that students are most often weak at producing coherent and cohesive paragraphs; they also lack appropriate argumentation and are often inaccurate in using grammatical structures and lexis. Results also suggest, however, that L2 writing students can improve their own writing by transferring micro skills they learn when editing texts. The present study may contribute to teachers' views on developing micro skills of student writers.

Keywords: self-editing, writing micro skills, typical errors, essays

Academic writing has started to be seen as a desired aspect of students' academic and professional training across the disciplines in the majority of universities. Student programs are increasingly using academic writing in English as a second language as a graded component of students' coursework. The expectation is that, at this educational level, graduate students need to master a variety of written genres. Writing tasks vary from writing short answers in exams, doing some written assignments like reports, seminar research papers or term papers, to writing dissertations and theses in ESL. A number of universities employ all of these sets of genres as they are considered integral to not only their graduate students' educational training but also their professionalization and professional identity development. However, upon entering universities, students do not necessarily already have skills in the written language and, consequently, they often face difficulties of various kinds. Despite the fact that secondary education also implies teaching writing skills, schools often focus more on boosting grammatical and spelling rules than on the content of writing. Although this deficit mainly concerns the native language of students, it also has an impact on their acquisition of writing skills in a second language, particularly in English. "Writing production is multifaceted and includes a number of skills that must work together", particularly organizing essays coherently with appropriate sentence structure and vocabulary, "spelling, handwriting, prior knowledge of the topic, and familiarity with models of academic literacies or genres", where high quality writing depends on this large constellation of skills and abilities (TEAL Center, 2010, p. 1). T. Baranovskaya et al. (2011, pp. 52–56), A. Gillet (1996) and other researchers see writing as the most problematic use of English in tertiary education. It is a complex and rather difficult to acquire process which requires from learners a number of academic skills (micro and macro) and comprises several stages, namely, prewriting, drafting, and revising. According to the Common European Reference Framework for languages (CEFR), an advanced learner can write clear, well-structured expositions on complex subjects, underlining the relevant salient issues, expand and support points of view at some length with subsidiary points, reasons and relevant examples (Council of Europe, 2011). It is worth pointing out that the invariant kernel of writing skills correspond to "can do" statements used in the CEFR to describe what learners can do at various levels of skill in speaking, writing, listening and reading. H. D. Brown, who was the first to categorize skills into micro and macro categories, defines micro skills of written production in the following way. Having acquired each of these micro skills, students are supposed to produce graphemes and orthographic patterns of English; produce writing at an efficient rate to suit the purpose; produce an acceptable core of words and use appropriate word order patterns; use acceptable grammatical systems (e.g., tense, pluralization), patterns, and rules; express a particular meaning in different grammatical forms; use cohesive devices in written discourse (Brown, 2004, p. 221).

All the steps in the writing process – planning, organizing, presenting, re-writing, and proofreading – have long been the subject of investigation and are proven to equally contribute to the effectiveness and quality of written production. The aim of this study is to focus on the stage of self-editing in written production and identify the role of self-editing in micro skills development. Teachers need to be aware of their students' needs and, in order to determine these, need to analyze the errors made by their students in written production. Thus, this study also intends to report on typical errors made by learners and examine whether students effectively edit for errors during revision and whether additional editing instruction helps reduce errors in revised essays written in ESL.

Materials and Methods

Literature Review

Over the last decade, the research literature has focused much on the written genres, since they provide a wide scope for research, including the most problematic areas in the field and ways of tackling them. A. Levinzon (2014, pp. 29–32) analyzes the reasons for the relatively poor writing skills of Russian schoolchildren and makes some suggestions on how to deal with them. She claims that these could be due to 1) less importance given to speech development in the school curriculum than to grammar, spelling or punctuation, which leads to the underdevelopment of critical writing; 2) inappropriacy of the topics of essays in a number of Russian textbooks provided to students since topics are not aimed at adolescents' emotional experience, discussing controversial issues and expressing the voice of the writer. Y. Ahapkina (2013, pp. 88–90) also touches upon some long-term and contextual reasons for deviations from standard speech in the written language of native speakers who create an academic text: for example, students' extreme inattentiveness to information given for contemplation; their disinterest in acquiring the skill of perceiving flows of information; their surprising indiscriminateness in their own writing and that of their peers. She also depicts the most frequent errors students commit in their essays in the native language, among which are concordance, word formation, the usage of linking words and phrases, and intensifiers.

It is necessary to note that Brown distinguishes between mistakes and errors, which he considers to be technically different phenomena (Brown, 2007, pp. 257–258). Mistakes are intrinsic in both native and second language and are seen as slips or performance errors which can be easily self-corrected, whereas errors manifest the language competence of the learner. Error analysis should be an integral part of the language acquisition process during which learners benefit from various forms of feedback on the errors they commit. Investigations into the nature and effects of error correction were attempted by a number of researchers. Much debate arose when J. Truscott (1996) published his review essay "The Case against Grammar Correction in L2 Writing Classes", which considers error correction as unnecessary and even harmful. Most researchers, however, agree that learners should be initiated into correction activity in various forms. Notably, D. Ferris and B. Roberts (2001, p. 161) as well as J. Bitchener (2008, p. 102) claim that, despite controversial opinions on the efficacy of error feedback, most studies on error correction in L2 writing classes have provided evidence that students who receive error feedback from teachers improve in accuracy and overall quality over time. This error feedback from teachers could be provided in different forms, such as direct or indirect corrective feedback. The former is considered as "the provision of the correct linguistic form or structure above or near the linguistic error" (Bitchener, 2008, p. 105). Such direct correction can be done in different forms from crossing out the wrong word or phrase and writing the correct one above it or in the margin, to oral meta-linguistic explanations in which the rules and examples are presented, practiced, and discussed. Indirect corrective feedback provides less explicit correction through underlining the error and using a code to indicate what type of error has occurred so that students can improve their piece of writing by themselves (Bitchener, 2008, p. 105; Diab, 2010, p. 91; Ferris et al., 2013, p. 328).

Some research is also devoted to the usefulness of peer-review in the writing process. Reichelt (1999, p. 195) proves that peer-editing can improve students' language ability by reducing the frequency of their errors. Harris and Brown (2013, p. 110) consider peer-assessment along with self-assessment under the combined term PASA, coming to the conclusion that "although PASA accuracy is important it seems unlikely that students will feel confident in their own evaluations without guidance and support from their teacher" at least at the secondary school level. Diab (2010, p. 92) expresses a similar opinion in favor of peer-assessment, having found that engaging student writers in peer-editing reduced their rule-based language errors in revised drafts more than those who self-edited their essays. R. Santagata (2005, p. 504) also claims that handing over the mistake management activity to students alone does not assure a high-level reasoning process on their part nor does it assure significant elaboration of the mistake. Mistakes tend to be elaborated more when the correction is given by the teacher.

However, it is important to note that self-editing seems to be undervalued. In particular, Ferris and Roberts (2001, p. 166) studied the differences in student editing success ratios across five major categories of error — verbs, noun endings, articles, word choice, and sentence structure. They concluded that less explicit feedback seemed to help students to self-edit just as well as corrections coded by error type. Furthermore, Ferris (2004, p. 58) categorized errors into lexical, morphological, and syntactic categories while Bitchener (2008, p. 102) targeted only article-based mistakes. In this study, the analysis of different error categories has been implemented in order to identify the most problematic areas in students' academic writing and clarify what role self-editing has to play in developing micro-skills in writing.

Methodology

The study was conducted to answer the research question: whether self-editing as a final component of written production can boost writing micro skills of learners. It is based on a corpus of essays produced by 50 full-time students, randomly chosen at the beginning and at the end of their second year of study in the Faculty of Economics of the National Research University Higher School of Economics, Moscow. All of them were non-native speakers of English. At the time of data collection, all the participants were taking EAP classes in preparation for a mock exam designed according to the IELTS standard. The compulsory course of EAP is generally taught over two academic years. During the first year, paragraph writing is addressed, while the second year focuses more on comprehensive writing, particularly essays. In addition, the syllabus suggests a simultaneous course of English for specific purposes (ESP). Although most students have passed the Unified State Examination in the English language, their level of English varies. Ideally, their level of English should correspond to the B2 level of the CEFR, which is identical to an IELTS score of 5-6.

The following criteria were applied to the written assignments set for students. The task was set pretty openly in the course syllabi. The students were expected to provide a comprehensive analysis of the problem stated in the topic of their assignment and present a solution to the problem, express their own opinion and provide well-balanced argumentation. The word limit in the written assignments was originally set at a minimum of 250 words in accordance with the IELTS standard, and the total time allocated for the task was 40 minutes. There was no special selection of essays for students with higher or lower levels of English, which generally varied from Pre-Intermediate to Upper Intermediate.

Criteria for the essay assessment were the same as those in IELTS writing band descriptors for Task 2 (public version) and included such components as:

1) task response — Task 2 requires the candidates to formulate and develop a position in relation to a given prompt in the form of a question or statement. Ideas should be supported by evidence, and examples may be drawn from the candidates' own experience;
2) coherence and cohesion — this criterion concerns the overall clarity and fluency of the message: how the response organizes and links information, ideas and language. Coherence refers to the linking of ideas through logical sequencing. Cohesion refers to the varied and appropriate use of cohesive devices (for example, logical connectors, pronouns and conjunctions) to assist in making the conceptual and referential relationships between and within sentences clear;
3) lexical resource — this criterion refers to the range of vocabulary the candidate has used and the accuracy and appropriacy of that use in terms of the specific task;
4) grammatical range and accuracy — this criterion refers to the range and accurate use of the candidate's grammatical resource as manifested in the candidate's writing at the sentence level.

Essay topics being of general interest to the public (about music, education, crime and punishment) were as follows:

- Music is played in every society and culture in the world today. Some people think that music brings only benefits to individuals and society. However, others think that music can have a negative effect on both. Discuss both points of view and express your own opinion.

- Some people believe that exams are an inappropriate way of measuring students' performance and should be replaced by continuous assessment. To what extent do you agree or disagree with this view?
- Some people argue that universities should provide students with more practical training for their future career. Should university education be more vocational or academic?
- Some people believe that there should be fixed punishments for each type of crime. Others, however, argue that the circumstances of an individual crime, and the motivation for committing it, should always be taken into account when deciding on the punishment. Discuss both these views and give your own opinion.

At the beginning of the second year, after students had been introduced to the basic concepts of essay writing, types of essays and criteria used for assessment, they were asked to write a diagnostic in-class IELTS-type essay in 40 minutes.

At the next stage of the experiment, the essays were analyzed and each occurrence of an error was carefully examined in the wider context in which the error occurred and was then classified according to its specific area. In particular, errors frequently concerned formal aspects (the layout of the paper and its structure) as well as linguistic-stylistic aspects (grammar and spelling, choice of lexis, stylistics, and punctuation). Then the frequency of each type of error in the essays was calculated in percentage terms (See Table 1). During the course, learners were consistently involved in revision of features of academic writing, along with grammatical and lexical aspects, with the focus on error correction exercises. The choice of revised features was based on the most frequent errors made by students. Meanwhile the students were also asked to make a list of the typical errors they tend to commit in their own written assignments and, considering these specific errors, spend 10 minutes on editing each of their consecutive essays written during the course. At the end of the semester, a final diagnostic timed essay was implemented, with errors being analyzed afterwards in percentage terms (see Table 2).

Results and Discussion

The findings of this study suggest that L2 writing students can improve their own writing by transferring micro skills they learn when editing texts. The results of the essay analysis are in line with those obtained by Ferris et al (2001, p. 172; Ferris, 2004, p. 53; Bitchener, 2008, p. 102). Table 1 shows the types of error committed by learners and their frequency divided according to the criteria used in assessing the written assignments.

As demonstrated in table 1, students' weakest point concerning the formal aspect of writing seems to be the structure of paragraphs, which usually consists of a thesis statement, some supporting sentences containing ideas and examples, and a concluding sentence. It is often difficult for students to distinguish between the topic sentence and supporting ideas since they fail to generalize ideas. Thus, students do not provide well-balanced argumentation (27% of essays), which often leads to insufficient length (in 7% of essays), mainly due to a lack of ideas generated within the time provided for the written task. In addition, the introduction does not clearly state the topic of the essay (in 13% of cases). The conclusion, which should express the writer's opinion, is often not persuasive enough (9%).

However, the most frequent basic errors committed by students concern the linguistic-stylistic aspects related to use of articles, prepositions, and concordance between subject and predicate. Undoubtedly, articles are the most problematic elements for Russian students writing in English due to the lack of this grammatical element in their native language. The use of articles with determiners (*another/other/the other*, etc) also presents notable difficulties for students, with a significant 82% of the essays analyzed containing this error. Incorrect use of prepositions was found in just over half of the essays (56%). The most frequent examples – *related with, can influence on, dependent from, invest to, reasons of, rise on 30%, listen something* – again demonstrate the interference of the Russian language when students rely on a word-to-word translation from their native language. On the other hand, other incorrect prepositions reveal errors of a different nature (*by radio, by/in the other hand, at morning, despite of, etc*) showing some gaps in students' knowledge in this area. Students often use prepositions such as *and/but* in the initial position while Biber et al. (1999, p. 84) claim that "the prescription against initial coordinators seems most influential in academic prose." Almost half of all essays revealed problems with concordance in subject and predicate. These, however, can be considered as slips due to students' inattentiveness (*music improve, method don't, there is songs, people enjoys, etc*) and could be easily removed through proofreading. However, other instances of this mistake could be due to insufficient knowledge in the corresponding areas of English grammar (*the majority of universities provides*, etc). On the whole, both grammatical and spelling mistakes could be eliminated by allowing time to proofread the written

Table 1
Typical errors in students' essays (%) at the beginning of the course

Task Response		Cohesion/Coherence		Lexical Resource		Grammatical Range and Accuracy	
Type of error	Occurrence (%)	Type of error	Occurrence (%)	Type of error	Occurrence (%)	Type of error	Occurrence (%)
wrong layout	6	linking words	5	wrong word	44	articles	82
no problem stated in introduction	13	illogical ideas	11	wrong collocation	46	noun/verb concord	49
not per-suasive conclusion	9	no central idea in paragraphs	22	lexical register	3	prepositions	56
register	14	weakly developed argumenta-tion	27	spelling	44	word order	5
irrelevant information	3	repetition	8	word form	12	passive voice	15
underlength	7					countable/ uncountable nouns	16
						punctuation	21

Table 2
Typical errors in students' essays (%) at the end of the course

Task Response		Cohesion/Coherence		Lexical Resource		Grammatical Range and Accuracy	
Type of error	Occurrence (%)	Type of error	Occurrence (%)	Type of error	Occurrence (%)	Type of error	Occurrence (%)
wrong layout	3	linking words	4	wrong word	31	articles	53
no problem stated in introduction	4	illogical ideas	10	wrong collocation	32	noun/verb concord	29
not per-suasive conclusion	5	no central idea in paragraphs	18	lexical register	2	prepositions	41
register	9	weakly developed argumenta-tion	25	spelling	28	word order	4
irrelevant information	3	repetition	6	word form	9	passive voice	10
underlength	5					countable/ uncountable nouns	5
						punctuation	11

work, or using the Spellchecker or peer-review.

In the stylistic category of error type, students usually have difficulties with the following aspects: register and appropriacy (14%) and incorrect choice of a word or a phrase (46%). Concerning register and appropriacy, students are often unaware of using certain words in an inappropriate register in academic language, including abbreviations. Incorrect choice of a word or a phrase (wrong collocations) can be due to polysemy in English when students find it especially difficult to choose the correct meaning of a word according to the particular context. Examples of such misuse are as follows: *make the job, do crimes, make crime, make homework, do order, do mistakes, make research; increase mood, heal people's emotions, broadcast culture, measure education/ performance/students, perform knowledge, hard crimes, attend sport, visit university; found business, bring up program, economical crisis, low-quantity job, development countries.* This aspect is also closely related to the interference of the native language. Students oftentimes use the words which exist in English but with a different meaning, so-called 'false friends'; for example, *expertise, complexion,* etc. Among mechanical errors, the most common concern punctuation, namely, the use of commas after a subordinate sentence, which precedes the main clause, or after fronting a word or a group of words to add something to the main part of the sentence, usually adverbials: *however, for instance, for example, finally, in my opinion.* On the other hand, commas are wrongly used before the pronoun *that*, or in a defining relative clause, which in English is considered a very serious mistake. By contrast, in the Russian language, such use of a comma is a must; for example, "*I think/believe/ know, that… Nowadays the science is highly developed in different spheres, especially in those, which are connected with education."*

Another common mistake is a lack of tentativeness – hedging – in students' written works in which they express themselves very straightforwardly; for example, *This is a ridiculous idea.* On this issue, Biber et al. (1999, p. 980) state that "it is not at all uncommon to find personal attitudes and estimates of likelihood expressed in academic writing through impersonal stance devices such as modal verbs, adverbials, and extra posed complement clauses".

Table 2, which depicts the results of the essay analysis implemented at the end of the course with types of error categorized according to the same criteria, illustrates that the outcome proved to be better than in the first diagnostic test. In terms of task response, learners improved the quality of their essays by approximately 50% in terms of layout, particularly in the introduction and conclusion, and also in terms of register, with no changes in the relevancy of information applied. Cohesion and coherence, however, proved to be much more challenging aspects to acquire, with only a very slight improvement of 1-4 errors per category. Lexical resource and grammatical range and accuracy, areas in which the vast majority of errors are committed, improved by nearly 30%.

Based on a statistical analysis of learners' errors made separately according to assessment criteria, Appendix A provides evidence that, in 95% of all cases, there has been a significant shift in the level of knowledge, with students showing more proficiency at the end of the course than at the beginning. After sufficient instruction provided by the teacher and through self-editing, the students were able to significantly improve their skills in dealing with the formal aspects of the essays (the layout of the paper and its structure) as well as some types of error related to linguistic-stylistic aspects (grammatical accuracy and spelling, stylistics, and punctuation). Cohesion and coherence, however, improved only slightly, which prompts the conclusion that these are the most challenging areas for students.

Conclusion

Results from this study indicate that those students who are involved in self-correction during written production improved in specific areas of writing. After this study sought to explore some of the most typical errors that non-native students of English make in writing essays, it examined the influence of self-editing on improving students' micro skills in writing. The results show that by the end of the semester, the quality of the written assignments had significantly improved compared to the beginning of the academic year. The micro skills of learners, such as linguistic accuracy in correct use of grammatical structures, appropriate word forms and collocations, spelling and punctuation, had to some extent improved after self-editing instruction and feedback. It is essential to note that the degree of improvement depends largely on the amount of time provided for editing. After instruction sessions, when students were allowed more time to self-edit essays, the occurrence of mistakes decreased noticeably. However, since students are limited by time and often do not have sufficient time for editing while writing essays, the results are not so impressive. This refers mainly to rule-based errors, which can be rather easily erased after appropriate instruction and sufficient practice. The same cannot be said for non rule-based errors, such as word collocations, correct choice of words, coherence or developing argumentation, which demand more time and practice and might be erased over time. Thus, different types of errors are likely to require varying treatments (Ferris, 2004, p. 60).

That is why a more practical approach to developing micro skills in academic writing and more focus are necessary. This study can help teachers to reflect on their students' writing and guide how they instruct students on the above-mentioned challenges in order to improve students' formal written speech and, consequently, their oral competence. There is a need for teachers to train themselves in competent error correction; they must plan for this carefully in designing their courses, and they must execute it faithfully and consistently by assisting learners in vocabulary learning and expanding the list of grammatical constructions that are taught through analysis of written texts. Only by developing understanding of the difficulties encountered by students and the underlying reasons for these can teachers help students gain control over their writing and meet the challenges of academic writing during the process of second language acquisition. "L2 student writers want, expect, and value teacher feedback on their written errors" in different forms (Ferris et al., 2001, p. 166).

To this end, teachers need to focus on those parts of language that are significant in the writing process and present some difficulties for students. Errors provide certain feedback for teachers because they reflect the effectiveness of teaching materials and teaching techniques, revealing what parts of the syllabus have been inadequately learned or taught and require further attention (Keshavarz, 1992, pp. 23–24). The challenge for teachers is to extrapolate from earlier student essays and apply these findings in a personalized instructional design for each student. This can be used as a basis for planning revising lessons and exercises.

As Brown (2007, p. 259) states, errors arise from different sources: "interlingual errors of interference from the native language; intralingual errors within the target language; the sociolinguistic context of communication; psycholinguistic or cognitive strategies, and numerous affective variables." Bearing this in mind, it is essential for teachers to make sure that students have access to additional courses such as Academic Writing, Critical Thinking, including online courses, etc. Students need to be encouraged to find ways of using the language that they feel are expressive of their own needs and desires, to read more, to write, speak and listen in the foreign language making efforts to think critically about what was perceived and produced. Students should be taught how to monitor their written output and slowly convert systematic errors into appropriate forms. It is through error analysis that learners can come to improving their micro skills in writing such as producing appropriate sentence structures with acceptable choice of words, grammatical systems, spelling, punctuation, and using cohesive devices, at an efficient rate of speed. After becoming aware of both common errors and their own typical errors, learners can engage in improving these particular weak fields; after a while, they will not hesitate about the appropriacy of their output and will automatically make the necessary differentiation between the correct and incorrect application of existing rules. Error analysis is thus a way for students to become more independent, self-regulated learners: "Self-regulated learning refers to the processes by which students attempt to monitor and control their own learning" (Baranovskaya, 2015, p. 38). Specifically, active engagement in self-editing may contribute to learners' motivation and confidence. It also seems reasonable to agree with Santagata who claims that "students may need some consciousness-raising … about why linguistic accuracy and editing skills are important. … And they need practice, accountability, and the opportunity to engage cognitively in editing as a problem-solving process" (Santagata, 2005, p. 59). Thus, the challenging task for teachers is to facilitate students in developing viable strategies for getting started, drafting, re-writing and editing in order to produce good, error-free written output.

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Appendix A

Since observations are rather limited, having been undertaken only at the beginning and at the end of the course, it cannot be said that they are made from exponential population with known probability distribution. In this case it was appropriate to apply the analysis of non-parametric criteria, such as a rank-based Wilcoxon test. In this test data are constructed as follows. For two samples x1 and x2 of the same size n, the number of differences x2-x1 is calculated, which is then ranked in the ascending order. In the ordered series of values of x2-x1 the sum of ranks (T) of positive differences can be seen (Kobzar, 2006). A "typical" shift is significantly predominant in intensity, if T emp is below or equal to T' 0.05, and even more significantly predominant if T emp is less than or equal to T' 0.01. In our case x1 corresponds to typical errors in students' essays (%) at the beginning of the course, x2 means typical errors in students' essays (%) at the end of the course.

Table 3 shows the critical value of the T criterion by Wilcoxon et al. for the levels of statistical significance $\rho \leqslant 0.05$ and $\rho \leqslant 0.01$ (Wilcoxon et al., 1963).

In Table 2, T equals 0 (the sum of ranks of positive differences), which is below the critical value of T'0.05=2.

In Table 3, T = 0 (the sum of ranks of positive differences), which is equal to the critical value of T' 0.05=0.

In Table 4, T=0 (the sum of ranks of positive differences), which is equal to the critical value of T' 0.05=0.

In Table 5, T=0 (the sum of ranks of positive differences), which is below the critical value of T' 0.05=3.

Table 1
Levels of statistical significance (ρ)

n	Levels of statistical significance (ρ)	
	0.05	0.01
5	0	-
6	2	-
7	3	0

Table 2
Task response

Type of error	x1	x2	x2-x1
wrong layout	6	3	-3
no problem stated in introduction	13	4	-9
not persuasive conclusion	9	5	-4
register	14	9	-5
irrelevant information	3	3	0
under length	7	5	-2

Table 3
Cohesion/coherence

Type of error	x1	x2	x2-x1
wrong layout	6	3	-3
linking words	5	4	-1
illogical ideas	11	10	-1
no central idea in paragraphs	22	18	-4
weakly developed argumentation	27	25	-2
repetition	8	6	-2

Table 4
Lexical resource

Type of error	x1	x2	x2-x1
wrong word	44	31	-13
wrong collocation	46	32	-14
lexical register	3	2	-1
spelling	44	28	-16
word form	12	9	-3

Table 5
Grammatical range and accuracy

Type of error	x1	x2	x2-x1
articles	82	53	-29
noun/verb concord	49	29	-20
prepositions	56	41	-15
word order	5	4	-1
passive voice	15	10	-5
countable/uncountable nouns	16	5	-11
punctuation	21	11	-10

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The Modern Educational Domain: Prerequisites and Prospects for Individual Learning Path Development

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This article considers the prerequisites and perspectives of individual learning path (ILP) development in the framework of a student-centered educational paradigm; it defines the rationale of ILP and examines the introduction of project learning technology (PLT) into ILP modeling in higher educational institutions. We claim that identification of students' individual features and compliance with their requirements becomes feasible via the integration of project learning technology into the educational process with relevant pedagogical and computer support. The special emphasis is put on the idea that ILP framing is aimed at enhancing students' autonomy and responsibility for their education, fostering cooperation skills in a close dialogue with other participants in out-of-class projects and teachers. In this scenario an individualized approach is to be implemented in a harmonious solidarity with principles of cooperation and collaboration.
To verify the above-mentioned ideas we conducted an experiment based on cognitive, diagnostic and empirical methods. Two groups of students participated in our research project at the Plekhanov Russian University of Economics in September – November 2015. They are second-year undergraduate students majoring in Economics and studying English as a second language. We designed individual study routes (ISR) for each student and handed them out. The ISR contained progress steps of the project, a set of assignments and deadlines for project submission. The students were provided with opportunity to play an active role devising and altering an ISR. Research findings show that ILP modeling boosts student's motivation to learn English as a second language, enables students' reflexive skills, identifies their individual features while simultaneously developing cooperation and collaboration skills.

Keywords: student-centered educational paradigm, individual learning path, individual study route, computer support, pedagogical support, project learning technology, educational domain

The modern educational domain focuses on the concept of individualization and differentiation, which can be implemented via individual learning paths in the context of a student-centered educational paradigm. Nowadays a student becomes the focal point in the educational process, with the teacher's role concentrated only on providing assistance, creating atmosphere for the student's self-development and advancement. The new vector in education is undoubtedly aimed at enhancement of students' autonomy and responsibility for their own learning process. The current shift of emphasis in the educational models in Russian universities results in a permanent search for new integrative learning technologies (collaborative learning, project learning, computer learning, etc.) that expand opportunities for students to choose their own individual learning path, to create a student-centered domain and to boost their autonomy.

Materials and Methods

Student-Centered Approach Versus Traditional One

This article examines one of the dominant approaches to language learning: student-centredness, whose essence is in teaching process management aimed at learners' personality development so that they are able to manage their own learning independently and consciously assuming responsibility for the learning outcome. According to the first developer of a student-centered approach in Russia Iraida Yakimanskaya (2013), it is based on the principles of humanization, individualization and differentiation and is aimed at exposure of each and every student's unique individual features .

Student-centered education is based on the synergy of learning, teaching and developing processes. It is a coherent educational process that is substantially different from the traditional one. Comparing student-centered and traditional curriculum David Nunan (1988) emphasizes that the key difference between them is that, "in the former, the curriculum is a collaborative effort between teachers and learners, since learners are closely involved in the decision-making process regarding the content of the curriculum and how it is taught" (Nunan, 1988, p. 2).

A student-centered approach implies changes in the educational domain, shifting from a regimented educational process to a flexible and elective one. These changes are reflected in Table 1.

Evidently, student-centered education means deeper involvement by students in the learning process, more freedom regarding what and how to be taught, opportunities for managing their own learning process, and showing a higher level of autonomy.

The concept of learner autonomy was first elaborated by Henri Holec (1981) and it has currently attained a "buzzword status" (Little, 1991, p. 2) in the context of language learning. Researchers generally agree that learner autonomy can be defined as accountability for the learning process (Benson & Voller, 1997; Benson, 2003; Holec, 1981; Little, 1991, 1995). Phil Benson and Peter Voller pointed out that in terms of language education autonomy can be implemented in five different ways (Benson & Voller, 1997, pp. 1-2):

1. by situations in which learners study entirely on their own;
2. by a set of skills which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning;
3. by an inborn capacity which is suppressed by institutional education;
4. by the exercise of learners' responsibility for their own learning;
5. by the right of learners to determine the direction of their own learning..

We assume that an autonomous student should have the following characteristics: has an active position in the educational process, defines learning aims and objectives independently, is motivated to learn a foreign language; analyzes, generalizes and gradually deepens their knowledge on a regular basis. All of these ideas are perfectly materialized in an ILP model.

Table 1
Traditional curriculum versus Student-centered curriculum

Parameters	**Traditional**	**Student-centered**
Form of organization	In-class activities	Both in-class and out-of-class activities
Communication	Direct (face-to-face)	Both direct and indirect (computer-related communication)
Responsibility	Teacher's	Student's
Teacher's role	Leading	Supportive
Student's role	Passive	Active
Assignments	Standardized	Customized
Teacher's engagement degree in the educational process	High	Low
Student's engagement degree in the educational process	Low	High
Autonomy degree	Low	High

Individual Learning Path

There are many definitions of ILP (Khutorskoy, 2005; Sysoev, 2013; Yakimanskaya, 2013). However, its central tenets are as follows: ILP is a way for students to achieve educational goals and learning objectives customized to their needs and requirements, incentives and interests.

Transition to an individual learning path can be stipulated by:

– Multilevel foreign language competence in a group (batch, course);
– Rising percentage of students with special needs;
– Entry of students who are forced to miss classes due to their participation in sporting tournaments;
– Accessibility of computer assisted instruction;
– Humanization of education, which presumes consideration of students' individuality.

In higher educational institutions, a student's transition to the ILP includes several stages (Podlasy, 2007):

– Student readiness assessment to study and bear responsibility for the educational results in the framework of the ILP, executed by leading professors;
– Student's willingness to shift to the ILP model.

It should be noted that an ILP can be designed for a short or long period of time (module, semester, academic year). ILP could be materialized in the form of individual study route (ISR), which is to be designed for each student. An ISR structure includes (an example of an ISR prototype is presented in Appendix 1):

1. Student's name;
2. Course, group;
3. Name of academic subject;
4. Teaching material (course book, tests, workbook, additional literature, plans, schemes, lecture notes, etc.);
5. Assignments;
6. Deadline for assignments submission;
7. Progress tutorials (intramural or extra mural via e-mail, videoconferences with project work participants and teachers, chats, blogs, posts and reposts);
8. Credit points.

Project Learning Technology

As mentioned above, individualization and differentiation facilitate meeting the student's individual unique features, needs and requirements. Pedagogical science has been frequently using terms such as "self-actualization, self-assessment, self-control", etc. However it should be noted that the notion of "self" is a synergy effect of joint efforts produced by teamwork. To our mind, the project method is a further step in the development of an education in cooperation that has proven its unique autonomy and success. Consequently, the project is an individual learning product, which is a key factor in choosing this very technique for educational purposes in institutions of higher education. As project work advances, the learning process for a student becomes more valuable and self-motivating. It should be mentioned that such assignment type requires significant content knowledge in order to achieve the following results: problem determination, solution options, possible development scenarios.

We completely share the thesis of the first developer in this field in Russia, Evgenia Polat (2007), that the project method is a core of student-centered education. It can be used at any stage of learning process and is an ideal educational technique in higher education (Stepanenko, 2011) as it meets all the main teaching aims in the current emphasis on individual activity, enhancement of students' autonomy, and plans for individual-centered routes to learning. Marina Bukharkina and Evgenia Polat (2007) highlight the most significant project technology features:

– Dominant activity types: role-playing, informative, prospect-orientated;
– Subject-packed: mono project, cross-curriculum project;
– Principles of activity coordination in the process of project work: direct coordination (face-to-face), indirect coordination (via videoconferences, chats, e-mail, etc.);
– Status report of project progress;
– Duration of project execution: short-term, long-term.

Project work process requires different activity types, such as cognitive, communicative, practical and presentational. One of the positive consequences in higher education of these activities is the organization of work in groups that, in the context of current global computerization and student autonomy, plays an important role in learning. Project work in groups implies cast breakdown, segmented task performance and joint efforts of all participants towards a common goal. We deem it advisable to include project work as one of the creative and research activity types into plans for individual learning routes for senior students. Coordination of students project work can be executed indirectly via Internet and Intranet technologies.

Pedagogical Support for ILP

The modern educational domain is constantly changing due to social development and innovations (Egorychev, Fomina, Mardochaev, Rybakova, Sizikova, 2014), changes that are not always positive. One result is increasing tension within learning and teaching processes, making relevant pedagogical support ever more crucial (Torosyan, 2013). Providing proper pedagogical support of ILP implies an array of competencies that a teacher should acquire for successful task performance. An analysis of the research (Isaev, Shiyanov, & Slastyonin, 2014; Markova, 1996; Yakusheva, 2014) allows us to highlight several pedagogical skills which determine teacher's professional competency:

- Didactic skills – general pedagogical skills to define learning tasks and objectives; to choose adequate forms, methods, techniques and strategies; to be able to convey personal knowledge, training and educational technologies in a new pedagogical situation; to be able to find solutions for each pedagogic scenario;
- Organizational-pedagogical skills - general pedagogical skills to plan, to choose optimal tools for pedagogic impact and cooperation, to shape an individual professional route for learners;
- Organizational-methodical skills – skills to create learning interest, to organize educational-professional activity for students, to build a positive rapport in a community, to organize team work;
- Communicative skills - general pedagogical skills which include perceptive, evocative and declamatory skills that achieve pedagogical objectives in the framework of constant pedagogical cooperation;
- Prognostic skills - general pedagogical skills which include the ability to forecast individual and community development, pedagogical progress, students' learning difficulties, results of methods, techniques, learning and training tools application;
- Reflexive skills – ability for self-cognition, self-assessment of professional activity and behavior, self-actualization;
- Special skills – single-discipline skills (field-specific knowledge).

Use of information technology (IT) in learning is part of the strategic mission of modern education. IT literacy is an integral part of a teacher's professional competency and is a determinative factor for proper ILP pedagogical support in the context of modern educational development trends. IT competency is defined by a group of authors (Gritskov, Evstigneev, Sysoev, 2008) as high proficiency in new information technologies, comprehension of their application range in learning and critical attitude towards posted information. Svetlana Trishina (2005) determines IT competency as an integrative individual feature which is a result of processes such as informational selection, content uptake, processing, transformation, generation of a special type of subject-specific knowledge which allows for production, uptake, forecasting and optimal solutions in different life spheres.

Disaggregating the composition of IT competency has been examined by parts of the scholarly literature. Trishina's position (2005) is useful to our argument as she points out the following structural components:

- Cognitive: processes of analysis, comparison, generalization, fusion, information processing and storage;
- Value-motivating: personal incentives towards professional activity, mandatory competency level attainment;
- Technical-technological: skills and abilities to work with IT flows using information technologies;
- Communicative: knowledge, comprehension, use of foreign languages and other semiotic systems, communication types (verbal, non-verbal) and information transfer;
- Reflexive: individual self-regulation, self-consciousness and self-realization.

Consequently, implementation of IT learning in higher educational institutions is correlated with the introduction of absolutely new educational approaches, remapping of procedural roles and alteration of top priorities that profoundly change both student's and teacher's opportunities in choosing a learning path and soundly enhances student's autonomy.

Computer Support of ILP

We are currently facing a new revolutionary stage in the development of communication. With respect to learning, the current emphasis on variability and diversity favors individual paths that use computer technologies, supported by such modern learning trends as dynamism, possibility of individual-tuition and educational differentiation. The "autonomous student – teacher" collaboration with the use of e-technologies can draw on different computer-related communication forms:

- E-mail;
- Mailing list;
- Group projects;
- Blogs;
- Videoconferences;
- Chats;
- Forums;
- Guest books;
- Web portal.

E-mail is a traditional form of electronic communication, which boosts effective dialogue among students and teachers. In addition to transferring information about assignments, forwarding materials, individual progress tutorials, students and teachers can also interact in written form on any chosen subject. Moreover, it has become extremely popular among learners to shape their own mailing lists that create additional opportunities for communication.

Group projects are one of the most effective working methods that profoundly enable the development of communicative competency. They allow students to create their own educational domain, to hold videoconferences to discuss a project concept with the participation of their tutor, to frame e-guest books and/or forums with third party participants for the purpose of sharing different opinions concerning a research topic.

Web Portal (Using E-Docflow and E-Education Tools)

The web portal with the content management system is the core of a university information system, providing access to the Internet and Intranet, human resources management, documentation flow (graphic description of business processes), learning materials (including tests) and creating an interface with video classes (webinars and other distant learning tools) and different infrastructural departments (accounts office, HR office, etc.). Web e-docflow applications allow for the framing of visual business processes that also can be used as a basis for educational process management. Collective tools are easy to use for the organization of students' project work.

Vyacheslav Zhirov (2015) identified that main web portal components as:

– Global database of all employees;
– Employee personal online account with expanded e-possibilities (personal data, photos and video materials, blog, personal schedule, etc.);
– General information about a company, its history, mission, values and corporate culture;
– Official news (orders, directives, rules);
– Full-text search engine with all the online information posted in Russian and English;
– Russian and English morphology support;
– Possibility to create working or project groups for joint brainstorming and discussion of operating and non-operating tasks;
– Discussion of ongoing problems (forums, web-messenger);
– Tasks and instructions for group members, planning, implementation control;
– Documents archive for a group, versions and alterations control, work with group documents via Windows Explorer, for example, and office applications;
– Photos and video materials;
– Library stock of course books and study guides for university teachers;
– Library stock of faculties' research papers;
– Web references to sites of partner universities and e-mails of their administration;
– Cooperation with partner universities' web portals;
– Cooperation with companies' web portals;
– Possibility to watch lectures of Russian and foreign professors online.

The following positive features of the abovementioned communication forms can be:

– Possibility to form communication skills in a specific environment. For example, during videoconferences participants meet one another; virtual barrier and unusual atmosphere enable members' cooperation.
– Skills practice to present projects in a virtual environment.
– Text messages can be considered as language material and extra-curricula activity while discussing topics in forums/guest books/chats. Posted messages can become a part of e-course book, e-lectures, etc.
– Chats motivate students to learn foreign languages more intensively because, firstly, chatting is usually informal and interesting and, secondly, its unconventional educational form attracts many more learners. In addition, chats develop students' writing skills, enable them to share ideas on line, to get feedback from their group mates and teachers.
– Blog communication lacks the emotional features of live communication. Consequently, the autonomy removes psychological inhibition, liberates a person, and creates an atmosphere where students feel confident and empowered. Blogs are essential tools for explanation, course topics comments, progress tutorials, knowledge management and educational organization, writing skills training, reading and pronunciation learning (especially for short and intensive programs), business language training (imitation of company work, business environment simulation), etc.
– Students perform real tasks (that are neither exercises nor artificial situations), work with different databases in order to find a solution for a particular scenario that would be supported by program applications including real practice.
– Students get new knowledge teaching one another as well with the use of communication technologies and, of course, the Internet.

Results and Discussion

Hypotheses and Methodology

The first hypothesis is that ILP implementation into the educational process will be based on the identification of students' unique individual features. The second hypothesis is that the proposed ILP will serve as the most efficient tool to motivate students to learn English as a foreign language. In order to prove these hypotheses the following methods were applied:

- Cognitive (analysis and synthesis of methodological and psychological-pedagogical literature; analysis of foreign language educational programs, course books and guidebooks for bachelor students);
- Diagnostic (students' questionnaires, learning process analysis);
- Empirical-experimental (quantitative and qualitative analysis of research phase results);
- Statistical processing of obtained results.

Participants and Procedure

The research phase of the project began on September 10, 2015 in Moscow and lasted 9 weeks (one module), with 50 students (32 male and 18 female, aged 18-20, majoring in Economics) enthusiastically participating in all stages of the research. The underlying idea was that the synergetic effects of teamwork could produce the self-actualization of an autonomous student and enable him or her to critically evaluate and reassess results of project work. The participants (second-year bachelor students studying at Plekhanov Russian University of Economics at the B1-B2 level of English in the CEFR for languages) were divided into 2 groups, with 6 teams in the first group and 4 teams in the second one. After this stage, individual study routes were designed and handed out to each participant. These routes contained progress steps of the project, a set of assignments and deadlines for project submission and the students were able to independently choose a market segment, a product/service and initial budget. Within the project work, participants allocated responsibilities on their own and were provided with opportunities to modify their ISR. Video clips with project presentations (2 groups, 10 teams) were posted online on a social network, VKontakte. Students voted online for the best business plan for a start-up company, the outline of which included the following steps:

1. Description of market niche for the company.
2. Description of the unique selling points of a product or service.
3. Analysis of advantages over competitors' comparable products/services.
4. Financial road map design.
5. Results and conclusions.

Moreover, learners actively participated in discussions of project work results and shared comments why this or that project was worth being awarded. The results are listed below in Table 2.

Table 2
Online voting results

Group 1 B2 level students		**Group 2 B1level students**	
Team №	%	Team №	%
1	38,1	1	31,2
2	38,1	2	31,2
3	9,5	3	25,4
4	9,5	4	12,2
5	4,8		
6	0		

Furthermore, a survey was conducted among the same groups. The predominant aim was to identify the possible outcomes of the project learning method (PLM) in the learning process and determine its correlation with top teaching priorities, such as the development of motivation and professional self-orientation. We defined two questions that required students to analyze the motives, reasons and possible outcome of PLM realization:

1. “Do you think that the incorporation of project learning technology can be considered as a motivating factor to learn foreign languages in higher education?” (see Figure 1);
2. «Does project learning technology implementation bring out your unique features? (see Figure 2).

Possible answers were: ‘Yes”, “No”, “Neither agree nor disagree”. These survey questions would enable students to consolidate their ideas, thoughts and individual educational experience, to think more thoroughly about the genuine factors that motivate them to learn foreign languages beyond in-curriculum activities.

Reviewing the data we registered the following results. Figure 1 illustrates that 76 % of students considered the innovative method as a positive motivating factor for their individual learning process; while 13 % expressed a negative attitude towards implementation of the abovementioned method and only 11 % gave neutral answers. The second question targeted students' assessments of their disposition towards choosing PLM as the most effective tool to identify their unique learning features, taking into account variability and diversity. The correlation between answers was practically similar to those given to the first question. Figure 2 illustrates that 78 % of students preferred PLM to discover their individual peculiarities, 11 % expressed a negative view and 11 % gave a neutral answer.

We believe that the positive feedback can be considered as a sound argument proving our hypotheses and can serve as the basis for further research and implementation of the proposed models in teaching practice.

Conclusion

The Russian modern educational domain has been developing in a different direction and is focused on the concepts of humanization, individualization, differentiation, informatization, etc. Our analysis leads us to conclude that ideas of collaboration and cooperation are reflected in new educational technologies, which can best meet learners' individual features and requirements. The proposed educational model implies implementing ILP with the application of project learning technology and IT support. This choice is not accidental. The project learning method stimulates individual self-actualization and simultaneously develops teamwork, cooperation and collaboration skills. Modern information technologies offer path breaking opportunities and frontiers for the management of learning, including distant education and individual routes. It seems extremely important to complete technical tools with live human content, to preserve "student-teacher" collaboration in the context of technical and technological progress. The very incorporation of project technology into ILP would allow the implementation in practice of the ideas and concepts of pedagogical and computer support, individualization and cooperation in the framework of a student-centered educational paradigm.

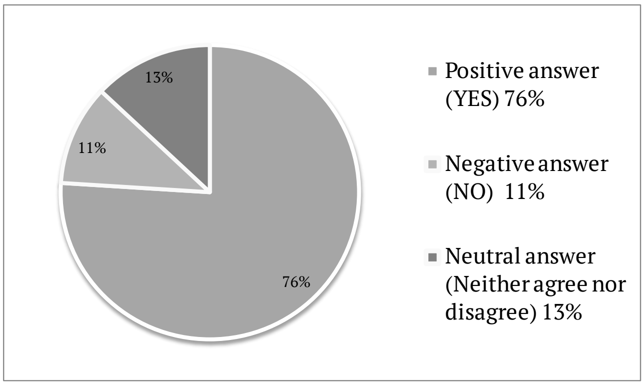

Figure 1. Opinion poll results for the first question.

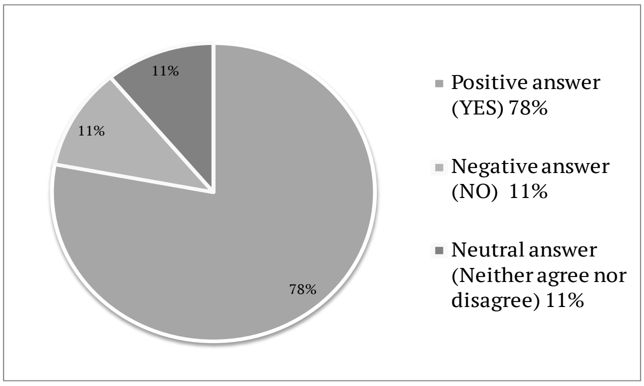

Figure 2. Opinion poll results for the second question.

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INDIVIDUAL STUDY ROUTE

STUDENT'S NAME ____

GROUP, COURSE ____

ACADEMIC SUBJECT ______________________________________

TEACHER____

START AND TERMINATION DATE_______________________________

ACADEMIC HOURS _______________________________________

PROGRESS TUTORIALS (Date and time)

Assignment	Assignment details	Credit Points	Creativity index	Deadline for assignment submission	Teacher's signature
Project 1.					

Motivation	excellent	good	average	poor	weak
Independent learning	excellent	good	average	poor	weak
Language ability	excellent	good	average	poor	weak
Homework completion	excellent	good	average	poor	weak

General comments and advice for continued studies ______________________

____

Teacher's signature

Dean's signature

Date

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Constructions Expressing Inaccurate Quantity: Functions and Status in Modern English

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The article reviews lexical units expressing evaluative (inaccurate and/or unspecified) measurement in Modern English. The study reveals that this measurement, located on the periphery of scientific and traditional metric systems, has great significance for operational partitioning and measuring different kinds of objects in the everyday life of native English speakers. To date, there have been no detailed descriptions of lexical representations for evaluative measurement in the English language since existing papers do not approach this issue systematically. The present article, based on the British National Corpus and English dictionaries, as well as on extracts from modern American fiction, is the result of an analysis and systematization of the constructions, or patterns, expressing inaccurate and unspecified quantities in Modern English. In particular, the article provides a list of such constructions and their corresponding classifications based on their functions as specific classifiers. It also studies the structure of each type distinguished, the semantics of their components and their combinatory specificities. The analysis determines the status of these constructions in the paradigm of the category of measure in relation to the other language means of the given conceptual category, with which the constructions in question form the corresponding functional-semantic field. The results of the conducted research reveal how the "human factor" manifests itself in the English-language culture when expressing quantity evaluation of the outward things

Keywords: category of measure, inaccurate and unspecified quantity, group classifier, object measurement classifier, mensural classifier

Perhaps a definitive human characteristic is the multiplicity, the diversity and heterogeneity of forms which are used to mediate human relations with the world. Forms are human constructions, and a plurality of languages, perspectives, conceptual and mechanical schemes serve to constitute a plurality of worlds of human invention. No form or set of forms possesses a privileged logical, ontological or epistemological status over any other, and use of particular forms is more a matter of contingency, of tradition, of rhetoric, of strategy, of power and of practical implications. A particular set or fund of forms, linked over time, might be described as a 'culture', and to belong to a culture is to share knowledge of the normal use and proper practice of a fund of forms (Rapport & Overing, 2000, p. 464).

Ethnic language is acknowledged as the base code and the foundation of each culture's semiotic system. The semantic space of culture and human consciousness is defined by the limits of expressive possibilities of its sign systems based on the ethnic language (Pilipenko & Yakovenko, 1998; Gudkov, 2003; Ryabova, 2014). Identification and analysis of the possibilities of these sign systems are conducted both on the basis of different languages and on the material samples within one ethnic language. An example of the existence of different expressive possibilities in one language is the special nature of verbalization in the category of 'measure' in English.

Materials and Methods

Theoretical Background

Measure is a category that is no less important than the most general categories of thought, such as space, time, quality, quantity, motion, existence, etc. In the philosophical sense, measure expresses the dialectical unity of quality and quantity of an object (Audi, 1999; Blackburn, 2003). An understanding of measure was gradually formed in the process of the cognitive development of humanity when people began to realize that the world consists of objects that can be divided into smaller components and that such discreteness is their natural characteristic (Kleiner & Kleiner, 1984; Bondarko, 1996).

Multiplicity and heterogeneity of objects in the real and conceptual worlds also imply a large number of possible ways for their division and, consequently, for their measurement. Units of measurement play an important role in quantification since they are the only guarantee of accuracy, which is required in modern thinking (Bondarko, 1996). Measures vary widely: precise, scientific measurement; approximative accurate measurement, not adopted in science (national measures, obsolete measures, etc.); evaluative measurement (inaccurate and/or unspecified), etc. (Nagornaya, 2005; Gupta, 2010; Petrochenko, 2014).

Names for the units of ***accurate measurement*** in English correspond to the international metric system. Cf. quantitative characteristics of space with the bodies positioned in it: measures of length, height, and width) (*millimetre, centimetre, metre, kilometre, etc*.); measures of area (*square millimetre / centimetre / metre / kilometre, etc.*); measures of capacity or volume for granular materials, liquids and other substances (*cubic millimetre / centimetre / metre, millilitre, litre, etc.*); body weight measures (*milligram(me), gram(me), kilogram(me), tonne or metric ton, etc*.) (Gupta, 2010; Hosch, 2011).

In addition to the international system, English-speaking countries widely use a ***traditional system of measures*** developed in the United Kingdom: measures of length, height, and width (*inch, foot, yard, rod, chain, furlong, mile, league, etc.*); measures of area (*square inch / foot / yard / rod / mile, rood, acre, hide, etc*.); measures of capacity for granular materials, liquids and other substances (*cubic inch / foot / yard /, barrel, pint, quart, gallon, etc.*); body weight measures (*grain, ounce, pound, stone, etc*.) (Gupta, 2010; Hosch, 2011).

It is important to accurately measure quantity in scientific domains; this is achieved by using the instruments, scales and precise units of measurement. Yet, an analysis of the means of expressing quantity in everyday terms invariably leads researchers to the words and language constructions that represent approximate amounts or quantities. Such inaccurate estimations of quantities are applied to both concrete objects and substances and to the phenomena of the mental spheres expressed by abstract nouns (see Petrochenko, 2014; Zhukova, 2014; Zhukova, 2015). Thus, in many ethnic languages, including English, evaluative measurements developed over time under the influence of various socio-cultural factors along with the expression of accurate digital data since, in an ordinary consciousness, quantity is evaluated and not measured (Ryabtseva, 2005).

As the analysis of contemporary linguistic literature shows, there has been no systematic investigation of the means for representing these inaccurate (evaluative) measures in English. Evaluative measurements expressed by certain constructions were mentioned in some scientific works under the name of 'pseudo-partitives', without further concretization or a more sophisticated treatment of examples (Selkirk, 1977; Beckwith, 2007; Keizer, 2007). In the bulk of other constructions and different syntactic structures, the specific features distinguishing them from other linguistic units are less explicitly rendered and especially lack an adequate support through examples of their usage in everyday speech. Examples are not only a means of talking about something, but also a means for thinking about it (McEnery & Hardie, 2012). To this end, the authors of the present article share their results from a detailed analysis and systematization of various constructions denoting ***evaluative (inaccurate and/or unspecified) measures*** in Modern English.

Research

This study pursues the following three goals: first, to reveal the constructions of Modern English used by English-speaking people in everyday life for a prompt division into parts and evaluation of objects of various kinds; second, to carry out an analysis and systematization of the given constructions; third, to define their status within the system of Modern English.

The investigation is specifically concerned with the constructions representing inaccurate and/or unspecified quantities (N^1 of N^2; N-sized; N^1+-ful; N^1+load of N^2) in the British and American variants of Modern English. To this end, the sample materials for the study were taken from the British National Corpus, from English dictionaries, and from texts of modern American popular literature. This choice was motivated by the authors' desire to show that the constructions under study which express inaccurate and unspecified quantities are often used by both Britons and Americans and belong to specific ethno-cultural traits of common knowledge.

Using the data of the British corpus which are available electronically opens up considerable possibilities for collecting examples with linguistic units and constructions that represent inaccurate and unspecified quantities, while the study of American popular literarary texts with their informal language provides a way of estimating the frequency of recurrence of this linguistic phenomenon in everyday speech practices. On the whole, the eleven literary works analyzed according to a *solid sampling method* (about 3000 pages) yielded a large number of examples of American usages which both structurally and semantically coincide with the British ones.

The constructions in question from the literary texts, along with the examples found in the British National Corpus, were combined into three groups. The classification was carried out on the basis of structural analysis of each kind of construction, the semantics of its components, and the specific features of its combinability. For this purpose, *the contextual method of analysis* and *the semantic interpretation method* were used. Both methods require the interpretation of a linguistic element based on its context, that is, a semantically complete passage of written speech sufficient to establish the meaning of a given word or phrase (Babich, 2010).

A combination of the revealed constructions into corresponding classes was conducted on the basis of their functions as classifiers, namely, group classifiers, object measurement classifiers and mensural classifiers. For the identification of their functions along with the above-mentioned methods of contextual analysis and semantic interpretation *the descriptive method* and *the functional analysis* were used.

The functional analysis consists in distinguishing and systematizing the main and secondary functions of linguistic units representing one and the same concept; for example, the concept of measurement. Using the functions as the base, linguists divide the revealed units into those belonging to the core of the system and those constituting its periphery, thus forming the functional-semantic field (Bondarko, 1996; Rodionova, 2005).

The major focus of the investigation is the analysis of the following classifiers:

a) *The group classifiers* represented by the partitive construction N^1 of N^2 (*a herd of cattle, a pack of wolves, a flock of birds, etc.*). These classifiers are usually used for dividing living beings into groups with the help of collective nouns, which semantically correlate with the word '*group*' (Rijkhoff, 2002; Beckwith, 2007; Payne, 2011).

b) *The object measurement classifiers* represented by the constructions N^1 of N^2, N-sized, N^1+-ful, N^1+load of N^2. In the given cases, the estimation of mass, volume, size, number, etc. of different substances and objects is done with the help of improvised means ("materials at hand"): *hands, palm, cups, spoons, forks, buckets, cars, buses, trucks, etc*. These nouns are called *container measures* (Beckwith, 2007; Keizer, 2007).

c) *The mensural classifiers* expressed by the construction N^1 of N^2 (Beckwith, 2007). In this case the construction represents a part of the whole, without "materials at hand". To express the size of such parts, English has a large number of words: bit, chunk, dab, dash, dollop, drop, grain, hunk, jot, lick, mite, modicum, morsel, nugget, ounce, particle, pat, piece, rasher, scrap, sliver, smear, snippet, speck, touch, trace, whiff, etc. (*a bit of land, paper; information, interest, etc.; a piece of bread, land, paper; advice, information, etc.*). For these classifiers the common, generic terms of inaccurate measurement are the words 'bit' and 'piece'.

Results and Discussion

The category of measure has a complex paradigm which manifests itself in the functional-semantic field. The core of the field in English is represented by the international and traditional terms of measure, while the periphery unites a great variety of constructions, phrases, syntactic structures of evaluative (inaccurate and/or unspecified) measurement which form several zones of different status. The linguistic expression of evaluative (inaccurate and/or unspecified) measurement is located on the periphery of scientific and traditional metric systems, but it has greater importance in the operational partitioning and measuring of different kinds of objects in the everyday lives of people.

As the first step of investigation, we should mention the spatial measurement provided with the help of the objects positioned in space (*stones, houses, streets, towns, galaxies*). In our opinion, this measurement refers to the far peripheral zone of the functional-semantic field. For example, to express short distances, the following words are used: *stone's throw; house(s) away; store(s) away, shop(s) away*:

(1) *The hotel is* ***a stone's throw*** *from the beautiful*

sandy beach of Scheveningen (BYU-BNC: EBN 44)

(2) *The tabby **a couple of houses away** on the other side is a cheeky sod* (BYU-BNC: HJC 1).

(3) *"I'm **three stores away** from a market," Sunny pointed out* (Donally, 2013, p. 203).

(4) *... yes, unmistakably it was the same road, and he was **three shops away** from the toyshop* (Crispin, 2007, p. 22).

Whereas, to express long distances, the phrase *street(s) away* is often used:

(5) *... a few seconds later I heard and saw the explosion*, ***two or three streets away*** (BNC: B3F 619).

(6) *There's a pub about **four streets away** from us where I used to go with my dad* (BNC: HR9 2789).

To express vast distances, the terms *town(s) away; galaxy / galaxies away* are employed:

(7) *burg named Little Kentucky* (Adams, 2012, p. 83).

(8) *They were **three towns away** from the Mason* (*BNC: HTN 174*).

(9) *It begins with Peter, a devoted man of faith, as he is called to the mission of a lifetime, one that takes him **galaxies away** from his wife, Bea* (Faber, 2014, p. 386).

The investigation carried out on the basis of the information obtained from the British National Corpus, English dictionaries and texts of contemporary American popular literature gives us an idea of the linguistic units that can be included in the periphery zones. The following classifiers belong to the close periphery zone of the functional-semantic field.

In English the evaluative (inaccurate and/or unspecified) measurement has several variants, the most significant of which can be represented by the following classification:

- construction of group classifiers;
- construction of object measurement classifiers;
- construction of mensural classifiers.

Construction of group classifiers N^1 of N^2 (*partitive construction* consisting of two nouns linked together with the preposition *of*) is used in partitioning of the objects of the various kinds using the words (N^1) belonging to the class of *collective nouns (nouns of assemblage)* (Rijkhoff, 2002, pp. 48-49; Beckwith, 2007, p. 67; Payne, 2011, p. 120).

In singular form, nouns of this class denote groups of people, living creatures, things, etc. Semantically they correlate with the neutral word '*group*': cattle, deer, antelope, horse and other animals in group calculations are represented by the word *herd.* For example, *a herd of cows (cattle*), *a herd of horses, a herd of deer, a herd of zebras*, *a herd of whales,* etc.:

(10) *The last time she'd met **a herd of cows,** she'd turned and ridden away* (BYU-BNC: BOB 7).

(11) *I'm planning to have **a herd of deer** in the parkland around the house* (BYU-BNC: J54 30).

(12) *When **a herd of whales** is sighted, two-way ra dios carry the news from village to village* (BYU-BNC: ABC 1).

For cattle and horses, there also exists the word *drove* to describe animals gathered for a cattle drive/ transportation; for example, *a drove of cows (cattle*) or *a drove of horses*:

(13) *They came across at the Kershopefoot crossing of Liddel Water, driving **an even larger drove of cattle** from Gilsland* (BYU-BNC: CD8 2).

For groups of dogs and wolves, 'in packs' is used: *a pack of dogs or wolves*:

(14) *But the cells in **a pack of wolves** do not have the same genes* (BYU-BNC: ARR 51).

(15) *The dawn light showed a crowd of men and women with **a pack of dogs** running beside them* (BYU-BNC: A0N 2).

Small livestock, such as sheep and goats, are described with the word *flock*, as in *a flock of sheep*:

(16) *They stared blankly at her, like **a flock of sheep** startled by a tractor* (BYU-BNC: FR0 22).

Birds are also categorized with the word *flock*, as in *a flock of birds*, *a flock of seagulls*, *a flock of geese*:

(17) ***A flock of birds** passed overhead, sensing the barrenness of the space beneath them* (BYU-BNC: ALL 77).

(18) *A girl was coming in their direction, driving **a flock of geese** in front of her* (BYU-BNC: FUB 1).

Groups of insects are usually distinguished from the class of insects by the word *swarm* as in *a swarm of flies*; *a swarm of bees*:

(19) *The cow was bloated and **a swarm of flies** were already buzzing round it* (BYU-BNC: AN7 1).

(20) *... they are as furious about it as **a swarm of bees*** (BYU-BNC: A0N 2).

Groups of fish, dolphins, whales can be separated from their class by the word *school* as in *a school of fish*, *a school of sharks, a school of whales,* etc.:

(21) *Once dolphins locate **a school of fish,** they spread out ...* (BYU-BNC: ABC 59).

(22) *It is only the second time this century that **a school of sperm whales** has been seen in the waters around Orkney* (BYU-BNC: K5M 20).

(23) *... and right above **a school of dolphins** swimming below me in the crystal-clear Pacific waters of Doubtless Bay* (BYU-BNC: CAU 24).

In English, along with more commonly used words, there also exist dozens of specialist words (N^1) whose usage is even more regulated by the specific characteristics of a referent, represented by the noun N^2 in the construction N^1 of N^2. For example, the word 'shoal' as in *a shoal of fish, a shoal of herrings, a shoal of minnows, etc.*:

(24) ***A shoal of** several hundred golden-grey **fish***

followed me (BYU-BNC: G13 8).

(25) *The blue-overalled workers reacted to his passage like* ***a shoal of minnows*** *in the presence of a big fish* (BYU-BNC: ANY 3).

Two other such specialist words are *gaggle* (*a gaggle of geese)* and *skein* (*a skein of geese, a skein of crows*):

(26) *A dog – or better still –* ***a gaggle of geese*** *not only act as a deterrent to a prowler…* (BYU-BNC: ARA 33).

(27) *Piper saw more choughs and, later,* ***a skein of crows*** (BYU-BNC: FP7 7).

A further example of infrequent usage is *pod* (*a pod of whales, a pod of dolphins*):

(28) *On Sunday there were reliable reports of* ***a pod of live whales*** *off Skegness* (BYU-BNC: B73 2).

(29) *Next day we were visited by* ***a pod of dolphins*** *which behaved as if they had escaped from a circus* (BYU-BNC: FEP 3).

And pride (*a pride of lions*):

(30) *A herd of deer,* ***a pride of lions*** *or a pack of wolves has a certain rudimentary coherence and unity of purpose* (BYU-BNC: ARR 51).

Constructions of object measurement classifiers are presented in English by two most frequent types: partitive construction N^1 of N^2 and compound adjectives N(-)sized**.** In both cases the estimation of area, capacity and mass is done with the help of "materials at hand" (Bondarko, 1996, p. 193; Ryabtseva, 2005, p. 127; Payne, 2011, p. 116): a *cup* of tea, a *glass* of milk, a *pail* of cold water, a *bottle* of wine; *a carload* of tourists; a *fist*-sized lump of ice, a *palm*-sized pie, a *postage-stamp*-sized front garden, etc. The nouns *bottle, bowl, cup, can, carton, pail, spoon, tin*, *truckload* and others are called ***container measures*** (Beckwith, 2007, p. 29; Keizer, 2007, p. 136). The usage of one or another container measure N^1 depends on the characteristics of a referent, marked as noun N^2. Many nouns of this class in this construction are supplemented by the suffix – *ful* (N^1+-ful): *a bucketful of cold water, a cupful of water to drink, a glassful of juice, a handful of coins, a jugful of water, a mouthful of sausage, a forkful of sausage, a spoonful of soup, a thimbleful of food, a shovelful of snow, etc*.:

(31) *Clean rocks, plastic plants, etc. in* ***a bucket of*** *warm water with* ***a cupful of*** *household bleach* (BNC: CLT 563).

(32) *… he dropped it into* ***a bucketful of*** *warm water* (BNC: AT1 201).

(33) *She took out a pitcher of orange juice and poured herself* ***a glassful*** (O'Callaghan, 1997, p. 59).

(34) *She went directly to the cupboard and got herself* ***a handful of crackers*** (Daniels, 2011, p. 214).

(35) *A* ***forkful of*** *bacon and fried bread remained poised between plate and mouth* (BNC: HHA 132).

(36) *Helena Martinson took a cup and saucer, added* ***half a spoonful of sugar****, and lightened the coffee with a quick dollop of milk from the creamer* (Donally, 2013, p. 96).

(37) *Serve hot, warm or cold with* ***a spoonful of olive oil*** *and* ***fresh lemon juice*** (BYU-BNC: H06 109)

(38) *She gave me a penurious slice of cobbler along with a dollop of ice cream … It was probably a good thing. By the time I had the last bite, I wasn't sure I'd be able to hold* ***a thimbleful more of food*** (Beck, 2010, p. 111).

In this case, the noun semantics of measure in position N^1 is not unspecified. The nouns are referred to the means expressing *inaccurate quantity.* People who have the experience of seeing the world around them, of interacting with it and who share the common cultural notions of objects and phenomena of this shared world are able to approximately evaluate how much fluid or any other substance a spoon, cup, jug, bucket might contain, how many coins can fit in the palm of a hand, etc.

However, under the influence of the characteristics of some referents, represented by N^2, the measurement semantics in some examples becomes unspecified. For example, handful, spoonful, etc. refers to a small quantity or number:

(39) *Mick was one of only* ***a handful of people*** *she'd met in Ireland* (Connolly, 2013, p. 166).

(40) *Charlotte can think of just* ***a handful of resorts*** *that offer the best skiing for all standards* (BNC: G2W 954).

Whereas houseful, mouthful, etc. refers to a large quantity or number:

(41) *… being raised by a strong mother in* ***a houseful of four sisters*** *had apparently humbled him* (Cates, 2013, p. 36).

(42) *And yes, I am Mrs. Penelope Blakely-Jones, but it's such* ***a mouthful*** *I think it would be simpler if you called me Penny* (Sanders, 1998, p. 301).

In other cases, the measurement semantics becomes figurative, that is, the given construction might be used as a stylistic device: *a spoonful of mischief, a bucketful of pernicious politics, a bucketful of bad acting, a mouthful of decay*:

(43) *Last week Lord Lawson, a former chancellor, added* ***his spoonful of mischief*** *by blaming Mr. Major personally for last September's Black Wednesday fiasco* (BNC: CR8 1638).

(44) *Watch those in their full two-hour glory and you get* ***a bucketful of pernicious politics and bad acting*** (BNC: ACN 525).

(45) *My objection to the royal symbol is that it is dead; it is the gold filling in* ***a mouthful of decay*** (BNC: ADB 56).

Such a variant of the partitive construction as N^1+load of N^2 also belongs to the container measures: *an armload of N^2, a carload of N^2, a cartload of N^2, a* *truckload of N², etc.*:

(46) *Susannah thrust **an armload of empty bags** at him* (Bolin, 2011, p. 220).

(47) *… **a carload of American tourists** pulled up in the street beside him* (BNC: K2W 488).

(48) *A bus rolled into town … No classes were scheduled, but I didn't mind new **busloads of tourists** discovering Threadville* (Bolin, 2011, p. 177).

(49) *… a collision between an engine named 'Samson' and **a cartload of butter and eggs** led to the use on this line of the first train whistle* (BNC: B0A 1047).

(50) *He drove **truckloads of salt** all over New England* (Donally, 2013, p. 19).

In some cases the meaning of the construction N^1+load of N^2 can be figurative.

(51) *If I could, I would have been able to save myself **a bucketload of pain** over the years, most especially from my ex-husband* (Beck, 2010, p. 10).

In an adjective N(-)sized the component, N acts as a *mensural sample,* with which the size of the other objects is compared; for example, pies the size of a palm:

(52) *He greedily took the box of **palm-sized*** pies (Beck, 2010, p. 73).

Dahlias the size of a dinner-plate:

(53) ***Dinner-plate-sized** dahlias were clustered in a huge vase* (McRae, 2010, p. 39).

An encyclopedia book the size of a coffee table:

(54) *It is one of those **coffee table sized** encyclopedia books that contains almost anything and everything about aviation!* (BYU-BNC: J1B 99);

A rock the size of a football:

(55) *Rodomonte picked up a **football sized** rock that lay close to the entrance* (BYU-BNC: FR0 221)

Bar codes the size of an elephant:

(56) *… bar codes on warehouse containers are usually **'Jumbo' sized**. This is so that they are easy to find on the large boxes* (BYU-BNC: C91 281);

Keys the size of a shirt button:

(57) *There's no tactile feedback from the square, **shirt-button sized** keys* (BYU-BNC: A8E 115);

Front gardens the size of a postage-stamp:

(58) *Bay windows on the ground and first floors, **post age-stamp sized** front gardens behind railings, nothing remotely green in-sight* (BYU-BNC: CN3 216);

Pictures the size of a passport:

(59) *… it can be hidden in the palm of the hand: pills, **passport sized** pictures of the family* (BYU-BNC: A03 247).

Constructions of mensural classifiers include the words *piece, slice, chunk, hunk, slab, wedge, dollop, etc.* that might be combined with many nouns (but not all of them) representing substances of hard, soft and liquid consistency. They are not *container measures*, since they are presenting a part of the whole object without "materials at hand" (Beckwith, 2007, p. 27). Sometimes they are called '*part nouns*' (Keizer, 2007, p. 136). To express the size of such parts English has a large number of words, semantically correlating with the neutral words '*bit'* and '*piece'*. In everyday life large-sized parts of a hard or soft object are usually expressed with the help of the words ***hunk***, ***chunk***, ***slab*** (Soanes, Waite, & Hawker, 2001; Kipfer, 2010):

- ***hunk*** (*hunch*): *a hunk of bread, a hunk of meat*;
- ***chunk***: *a chunk of ice, a chunk of mortar*;
- ***slab***: *a slab of rock, a slab of steel, a slab of pizza, a slab of meat*.

If necessary, it is also possible to increase the size of the part of the whole object with the same words using the corresponding attributes: *a great chunk of cotton wool, a generous chunk of cheese, a huge chunk of land, a big hunk of pork, a huge hunk of bread, a huge slab of pizza, an enormous slab of cake, etc.*

Measuring characteristics of the word *piece* expressing the common, generic term of inaccurate measure can only be identified on the basis of context.

In the following example, we are dealing with a cake cut in *generous hunks*. The hostess offers her guest *a piece* of pie and also takes *a sizable chunk*. Thus*, piece* in this context corresponds to *hunk and chunk:*

(60) *Jaymie fixed her coffee, and sat back, eyeing **the generous hunks of carrot cake** on a platter. "Take **a piece**," Dani said, grabbing **a sizable chunk** and a napkin for herself* (Hamilton, 2013, p. 185).

In a second example, there is good reason to believe that semantically *piece* is equal to *slice* which refers to a thin flat piece of food (Summers, 1992):

(61) *She smeared a dollop of pungent garlic butter on **a piece of Italian bread** and reached for **another slice*** (McRae, 2010, p. 15).

In the next case, a woman decided to share with a dog a *piece* of crust. The description of how the dog eats the received treat includes the word *morsel*. Therefore, *piece* in this context corresponds to *morsel* – a very small piece of food (Summers, 1992):

(63) *Taking pity on him (the dog), Anne broke off **a piece of crust** with a smear of cheese and laid it on the floor by her chair. He made a sudden dash to grab **the morsel**, then quickly retreated to chew it a couple of times and gulp it down* (O'Callaghan, 1997, p. 179).

Morsel as a mensural classifier is one of the components in a long range of classifiers expressing small and very small size or measure of not only hard, soft, liquid, gaseous substances but also abstract notions. These classifiers are also widely used in the partitive construction N^1 of N^2: *bit, dab, dash, dollop,* *drop, grain, jot, lick, mite, modicum, nugget, ounce, particle, pat, rasher, scrap, smear, snippet, speck, touch, trace, whiff, etc.* For these classifiers a common, generic term of unspecified measure is expressed by the word '*bit*' (Soanes, Waite, & Hawker, 2001; Brems, 2007; Kipfer, 2010). For example:

– *a bit of* land, paper, baked fish; *a bit of* independence, interest, luck;
– *a chunk of* beef, bread, cheese, flesh, ice, land, gold, lead, continent; *a chunk of* discourse, data, information, money, time, life, etc.;
– *a dash of* eau-de-cologne, spice, milk, lemon juice; *a dash of* courage, realism, madness;
– *a dollop of* cream, jam, honey, ketchup, porridge, etc; *a dollop of* luck, confidence, gratitude, moral authority;
– *a drop of* blood, rain, water, wine, alcohol, fresh air; *a drop of* cruelty, intuition, hatred;
– *a grain of* dust, rice, salt, sand; *a grain of* truth, malice, hatred, sense;
– *a mite of* good wine; *a mite of* deception, discipline, persuasion, sentimentality;
– *a modicum of* accuracy, attention, encouragement, humour, luck, pocket money, success, truth;
– *a morsel of* bread, cheese, food, meat; *a morsel of* good news, support, professional advice, scandal;
– *a piece of* paper, land, glass, equipment; *a piece of* advice, information, folk wisdom;
– *a scrap of* paper, cloth, parchment, land; *a scrap of* courage, positive criticism, power and majesty;
– *a shred of* flesh, tobacco, substance; *a shred of* doubt, embarrassment, evidence, proof, hope;
– *a snippet of* hair; *a snippet of* conversation, information, knowledge, English history;
– *a whiff of* perfume, eau de cologne, disinfectant, sea breeze, staleness; *a whiff of* defeat, glasnost, interest, adventure, the past, etc.

The peculiarity of the mensural classifiers is that most of them by means of the partitive construction can be combined with countable and uncountable nouns representing the objects of different classes and characteristics: discrete objects; hard, liquid, gaseous substances; soft consistency substances; phenomena of not only material but also mental and socio-cultural worlds.

Conclusion

The category of measure in the English linguistic culture has a complex paradigm. The means of its verbalization are characterized by hierarchical arrangement, which manifests itself in the existence of the functional-semantic field. The structure of this field consists of the following components: a core, zones of close and distant periphery. According to the conducted research, the core includes the words of international scientific measures and accurate traditional measures accepted in English-speaking countries. The spatial measurement and the evaluative (inaccurate and/or unspecified) measurement refer to the peripheral zones of the functional-semantic field, the full specification of which requires further analysis.

Summing up the results of this research and at the same time suggesting future strands of analysis to measure the "human factor" impact in the English language when quantifying the world, we affirm that the description of the means representing the functional-semantic field of the category of measure in English must include:

- the definition of all the zones and segments the field consists of;
- the study of the origin of its language units and the appearance of neologisms;
- the study of the peculiarities of classifiers meaning the extension and nature of their metaphorization.

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Discourse Elements in English Academic Discourse

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This paper presents a study of discourse elements in spoken academic discourse – a lecture – and identifies their specificities. The study seeks to identify discourse elements in a wide body of research material; to study structural, functional and pragmatic features of discourse elements in terms of the implementation of the intentions of the speaker; to identify from the auditory analysis any prosodic features of discourse elements. Discourse elements are specifically defined from the point of view of their pragmatics: the intention of the speaker influences the language of the lecture and the way in which ideas are connected with words. The study on discourse elements included several stages. Research material consisted of audio recordings of Philology lectures to students studying English as a foreign language by three native speakers of English (General American standard of pronunciation), all of whom are professors at American colleges and universities. In total, 6 lectures were recorded; they formed *a wide body* of research material lasting 7 hours 33 minutes. This wide body of research material consisted of 2 306 linguistic facts, i.e. discourse elements in context. From these, 150 fragments containing various discourse elements were then chosen to form *a narrow body* of research material lasting 40 minutes. The phonetic research consisted of auditory analysis: dividing the fragments of discourses into syntagms; defining the boundaries of syntagms; specifying pitch movement, tone level and type of scale; using perceptual gradations of each prosodic feature, etc. Prosodic marking was carried out in accordance with the method of notation adopted at the Department of English Phonetics at Moscow State Teacher Training University (1997). Scaling enabled the classification and sorting of all the studied elements (discourse elements). The authors used the following types of scales: nominative, ordinal and interval. Structural analysis proved that discourse elements have different structure and may be one-word elements and predicative phrases S+P incorporated into the structure of the academic discourse. All discourse elements can be divided into two large groups – connecting elements (connectors) and pragmatic elements.

The results of the research show that the studied elements differ structurally and can perform various functions. The functions of the discourse elements, their structure, intentions of the speaker and also their position in the phrase determine their prosodic features

Keywords: discourse, institutional discourse, lecture, discourse elements, structure, function, frequency of use, prosodic features

Discourse as a text in a real communicative situation can be interpreted in different ways. It can be regarded as a «mental model» (Johnson-Laird, 2001), representing a generalized summary of our knowledge and understanding of the world; as a «frame model» (Minsky, 1969; Fillmore, 1976, 1982), arranging perception about various ways of behavior in typical situations; as a «script model» (Shank, 1975; Schank, Abelson, 1977), presuming development, shifts and adjustments of those typical situations.

To study the communicative aspects of discourse, we use a «situational model» elaborated and offered by Teun Van Dijk (2008, 2009), which combines the principles of social categories analysis to define our understanding and behavior within a social context with personal subjective knowledge (evaluation, opinions, patterns), as well as a social-semiotic approach of Michael Halliday (2003) and his discourse model, interlocking empirical, logical, interpersonal and contextual levels of analysis.

In this work we have applied a sociolinguistic approach towards an understanding of discourse. This implies that discourse is communication between people belonging to a particular social group. According to Vladimir Karasik (2002), this status-oriented discourse can have an institutional character. There are many different kinds of institutional discourse in our community, such as scientific, mass media, political, religious, pedagogical, medical, military, etc.

Valeria Chernyavskaya (2006) highlights the social context of discourse in arguing that modern discourse analysis is focused on the character and level of influence of various extra-linguistic factors on the language of the discourse. Discourse analysis has to answer the question of how the author, the receiver of the message, the field of communication, the channel, the intention of the speaker and so determine discourse organization and its language.

Materials and Methods

Definition of Academic Discourse

By spoken academic discourse in this work we mean a kind of scientific and institutional discourse whose purpose is to inform students. For our research we have chosen the lecture as one of the basic monologic genres of scientific discourse: academic discourse is a homogeneous lecture devoted to one topic. The peculiarity of the studied academic discourse is that it has a special addressee that consists of students who study English as a foreign language, with the attendant difficulties caused by listening to a foreign language, which means listening to and understanding a foreign speech, implying a number of psychological challenges. One of them is the irreversibility of the process of perception of speech, which requires a great deal of attention from the listeners.

In addition, the lecturer needs to be able to navigate the communicative situation, feel the addressee, and anticipate their reaction in preparing lectures and directing educational interaction. This is particularly important, as the recipients are students who are learning English as a foreign language. Since it is not their native language the lecturer has to take into consideration the linguistic and cultural competence of the listeners, their ability to understand him/her. That is why the contact with the students and the need to create a free and easy atmosphere in the classroom are very important for the linguistic, communicative and pragmatic organization of the discourse.

Discourse must have a coherent text and explicit textual references. A substantial number of studies (Grosz, Sidner, 1986; Mann, Thompson, 1988; Martin, 1992; Foltz, Kintsch, & Landauer, 1998; Marcu, 2000; Budayev, 2009) examine the principles of inner organization of the discourse and text. By discourse elements many linguists mean those elements that play a very important role in the organization and structure of the discourse. Anna Prokhorova (2007) points out that besides their cohesive functions they may also have some pragmatic aspects. Most discourse elements can express the opinion of the speaker, the relationship between the speaker and the listener, logical links between the ideas. They also can be studied from the point of view of pragmatics. The intention of the speaker can influence the language of the lecture and the way in which the ideas are connected with words.

English academic discourse has a wide range of discourse signals optimizing the process of its perception and aimed at the recipient. It should be noted that oral discourse, unlike the written one, makes the speaker facilitate perception of the material by various means of speech connectors, including discourse elements.

Definition of Discourse Elements

Connecting elements have different names in academic literature. In particular, Randolph Quirk (1955) names expressions, such as *sort of, you see, you know, I mean, well,* etc., as intimacy signals, which allow the listener to feel more at ease, to be closer to the interlocutor. There are also other terms for connecting elements of discourse, such as “linking signals”, “fillers in”, “discourse markers”, “temporizers”. There have been few attempts to describe and classify these elements and most have not been continued. As a result, there is not any well-established scientific term. The terminological inconsistency is caused by a multiplicity of approaches to the study of the connecting elements. Moreover, these terms are used to refer to a different set of units, which is determined by the specific objectives of the researcher.

Most linguists think that discourse connectors are the elements that play an important role in organizing the content and structure of the discourse in addition to their semantic and pragmatic aspects. Their pragmatic essence is to ensure the correct understanding of the discourse. Therefore, the most preferable term, in our opinion, is the term *discourse elements* proposed by Deborah Schiffrin (1994).

By discourse elements we mean segments of speech that connect at least two phrases. They also reflect the intention of the speaker and his/her reaction towards what he/she is saying. The research found that the group of these elements has, firstly, no fixed boundaries, and secondly, has elements that may be presented by different parts of speech. In our article the group of discourse elements is presented by adverbs (*so, now, thus, therefore, anyway, finally, however, though, further, similarly, perhaps, maybe, probably, certainly, (un)fortunately, naturally, evidently, surely, obviously, actually, etc.*), interjections (*well, oh*), numerals (*first, second*), performative verbs (*I think, I'm sure, I suppose, I guess, I agree, I say, I hope, I expect, I mean, I assume, I believe, I remember, I forget, I recall, I daresay, etc.*), set expressions (*first of all, for example, on the one hand, on the other hand, in addition, at the same time, in other words, in terms of, in general, that sort of thing(s), of course, no doubt, as you know, if you remember, you know, as I said, as I mentioned before, etc.*), syntactical constructions (*Let's start with …, Let's move on to …, Do you have any questions?, etc.*).

The lecture as a genre of academic discourse abounds in these discourse elements. Since a lecture may be quite long in time, it demands various elements in its connection, division and organization. This helps explain the great number of discourse elements in it. It is also the result of spontaneity, oral speech and improvisation.

Research Material and Methodology

The research material for our study was audio recordings of lectures to students who studied English as a foreign language, with lectures in Philology given by three native speakers of English (General American standard of pronunciation). Native speakers are professors at American colleges and universities. In total 6 lectures were recorded; they formed *a wide body* of research material lasting 7 hours 33 minutes, consisting of 2306 linguistic facts, i.e. discourse elements in context. Later 150 fragments containing various discourse elements were chosen and formed *a narrow body* of research material lasting 40 minutes.

The research on the material was conducted in the following way. First, all the academic discourses – lectures – were recorded, then transposed into their written variants, and finally discourse elements were identified. The following aims of the analysis of academic discourse were formulated:

1. To identify discourse elements in the wide body of research material.
2. To study structural, functional and pragmatic features of discourse elements, in terms of the implementation of the intentions of the speaker.
3. To find during the auditory analysis prosodic features of discourse elements.

To meet these objectives, we used complex methods of research, which included: functional and semantic, formal and structural, pragmatic and auditory types of analyses, questioning of a native speaker, a statistical method for data analysis of linguistic material, scaling and linguistic interpretation of the results.

Phonetic Research

The phonetic research consisted of auditory analysis of all fragments of discourses. Recorded fragments were presented to two auditors. At the preparatory stage, the fragments were given to the auditor, a native speaker, without any special phonetic training but with a philological education. He was to listen to the material, fill in the questionnaire and do the following tasks:

1. Determine whether the recorded speech belongs to the standard of General American pronunciation or not.
2. Point out whether the speech belongs to an educated native speaker or not.
3. Specify what style the recorded speech is of: informational, academic, publicist, oratorical or conversational.

The native speaker easily answered the questions, with the results of the analysis as follows. The speech belonged to academic style, was of General American standard of pronunciation and belonging to an educated native speaker.

The second auditor was a Russian phonetician, fluent in English, phonetically trained and experienced in the analysis of the intonation of oral speech. The main objective of the auditor was the analysis of the intonation patterns of the selected fragments of discourses and determination of prosodic features of discourse elements. The analysis was conducted in terms of scales, terminal tones and pauses. The auditor was asked to:

1. divide the fragments of discourses to syntagms, define the boundaries of syntagms;
2. specify pitch movement, tone level and type of scale, focusing on prosodic features of particular discourse elements;
3. determine the duration and functional type of pauses, and tempo.

We used the following perceptual gradations of each prosodic feature:

1. Tone level: low, medium, high.
2. Terminal tones:

- Low Fall, Mid Fall, High Fall;

- Low Rise, Mid Rise, High Rise;
- Fall-Rise;
- Rise-Fall;
- Rise-Fall-Rise;
- Low Level, Mid Level, High Level.

3. Duration of a pause: very short, short, average, long.
4. Type of a pause: syntactical, emphatic, hesitation, rhetorical.
5. Tempo of speech: slow, average, fast.
6. Loudness: decreased, normal, increased.

Prosodic marking was done in accordance with the method of notation adopted at the Department of English Phonetics at Moscow State Teacher Training University (1997).

Results and Discussion

Scaling

All discourse elements in the research were scaled, enabling us to classify and sort all the studied elements, which was very necessary given the huge amount of material. All quantitative data obtained was analyzed in accordance with the recommendations of Konstantin Belousov and Natalia Blaznova (2005). Scaling is a form of fixing some features of the studied objects by ordering them in a certain numerical system. All the elements have a certain point, or bar graph index, which reflects the position of the feature on the scale. The scales are based, for example, on the principle of increasing or decreasing the degree of manifestation of the observed feature. In our case, this feature is the frequency of use of various discourse elements. We used the following types of scales: nominative, ordinal and interval.

Nominative Scaling

With the help of nominative scale we classified discourse elements in terms of special features and principles they may have. The first feature is the function they may have. All the elements were classified according to the functions in the discourse. The second feature is their structural characteristic.

Structural analysis has demonstrated that discourse elements have different structure and may be one-word elements (*so, now, thus, therefore, anyway, etc.*) and predicative phrases (S+P) incorporated into the structure of the academic discourse (*if you remember, as I mentioned before, do you have any questions?, etc.*). Thus we found four groups of discourse elements: one-word elements, combinations of meaningful words with auxiliary words, phrases and incorporated phrases. This is shown in Table 1.

Table 1
Structure of discourse elements

Discourse elements			
One-word elements:	Combinations of meaningful words with auxiliary words:	Phrases:	Incorporated phrases:
anyway, first, second, next, however, now, then, well, so, probably, perhaps, etc.	*in general, in other words, in terms of, in addition, in a way, in fact, of course, etc.*	*I suppose, I think, I say, all right, I would add, I mean, the idea is, I'm sure. I have a feeling, interesting enough, you know, etc.*	*do you follow me?, do you know this term?, have you any thoughts about that?, let's look at the concrete example, let's move on to the next technique, look at the sentence, you have to be careful here, etc.*

We found that the structure of discourse elements is also of great importance so that in terms of structure we paid attention to the following features:

1. if discourse elements are used separately (they form a separate syntagm) or not used separately (they are the part of a syntagm) (see Fig. 1);

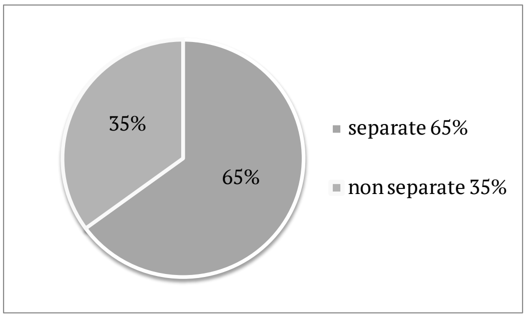

Figure 1. Separate/Non-separate discourse elements.

2. the position of a discourse element in a phrase (at the beginning, in the middle, at the end) (see Fig. 2).

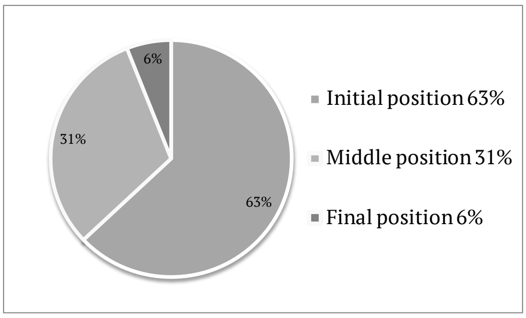

Figure 2. Position of a discourse element is a phrase.

Connectors and Pragmatic Elements

Discourse elements have special peculiarities in spoken discourse. The lecturer tries to make discourse easier and more comprehensible for the students since the students can only listen to the speaker.

Discourse elements include not only elements that organize the discourse structurally but also elements that express the opinion of the speaker and are intended to establish some contact with the audience. That is why we have divided them into two big groups – connecting elements (connectors) and pragmatic elements (see Fig. 3).

The first group consists of elements that indicate linear connections in discourse, i.e. contextual connections. The second group consists of elements that realize the opposition lecturer-students and thus has elements that either express the opinion of the lecturer or are directed towards the audience and aim to create a collaborative setting between the speaker and the students.

As an example of discourse elements that function in academic discourse let us look at the following fragment:

> *If a writer writes poetry or screenplays as well as fiction that gives me a different idea what to expect than if a writer limits himself to one genre. You follow me? In other words, er some writers do write in all three genres, they write essays, they write poetry, they write fiction, they write scripts for dramas and for television programs. Er my feeling is often the more genres they write the perhaps the better qualified writers they are. Let me give an example, historically. Henry James is a famous 19th century-early 20th century American writer.*

The group of pragmatic elements is presented by a direct question to the audience, *You follow me?* This element is very informal and shows the desire of the

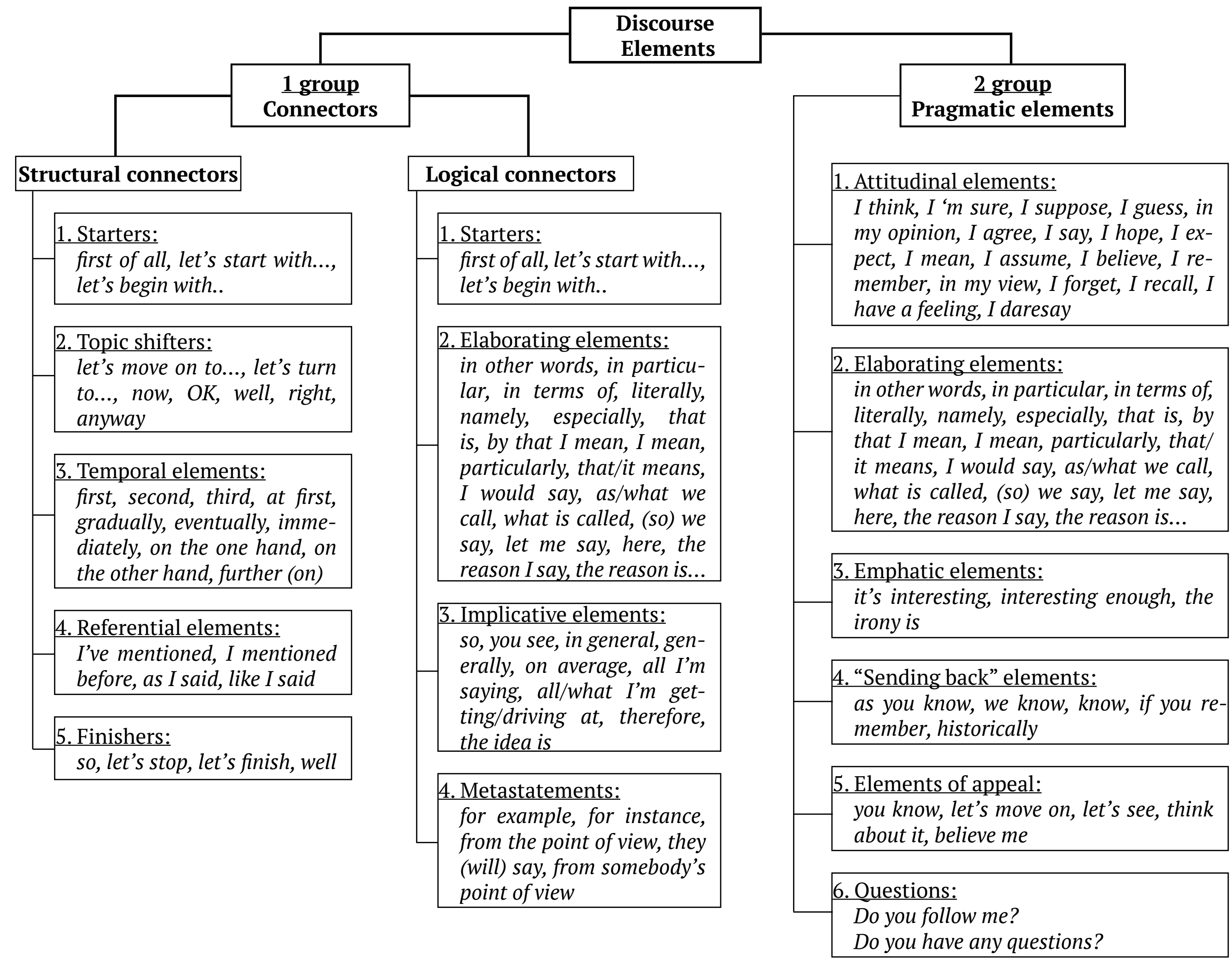

Figure 3. Discourse elements

lecturer to get into contact with the audience and see how well they understand him. The discourse element, *in other words*, is one of the most frequently used and has the status of an elaborating element in this context. It belongs to the group of logical connectors. It is also necessary to note that the speech of the lecturer is very logical and consistent. With the help of discourse element, *let me give you an example, historically*, the lecturer wants to illustrate his opinion. This element also belongs to the group of logical connectors. The fact that the professor uses such elements shows that discourse has institutional character and that it is very important to him that his lecture is well understood by the students..

Ordinal Scaling

With the help of an ordinal scale discourse elements were classified as "more frequently used" and "less frequently used". In this scale it does matter in what order the cells in the scale are put. Using this particular scale we managed to arrive at conclusions about varieties of discourse elements and frequency of their use as shown in Table 2.

Table 2
Frequency of use of discourse elements

№	Discourse element	Frequency of use of use of the discourse element (%)
1.	So	15,3
2.	Now	7,1
3.	I think	5,3
4.	Ok	3,4
5.	In other words	3,1
6.	In terms of	2,8
7.	You know	2,7
8.	For example	2,5
9.	Well	2,4
10.	I mean	2,0
11.	(And) also	1,6
12.	Anyway	1,6
13.	Probably	1,5
14.	That/it means	1,5
15.	As/what we call	1,4
16.	That sort of thing	1,4
17.	I know	1,3
18.	Yes/yeah	1,3
19.	I/we would say	1,1
20.	What/all I'm getting/driving at…	1,0
21.	Maybe	1,0
22.	At the same time	0,9
23.	First of all	0,9
24.	Do you follow me?	0,8
25.	It is/was interesting	0,8
26.	No	0,7
27.	Of course	0,7
28.	Any questions? / Do you have any questions? / Anybody ask questions about …? /Are there any questions you might have? / Let me ask if any questions you had about …?	0.7
29.	Right	0,6
30.	Particularly	0,5
31.	Let's turn to… / Let's look at… / Let me get to … / Let's do smth. / Let's try smth.	0,5
32.	In fact	0,4
33.	I hope	0,4
34.	I don't know	0,4
35.	Actually	0,4
36.	I'm not sure	0,4
37.	Again	0,4
38.	Primarily	0,3
39.	Generally	0,3
40.	Usually	0,3
41.	And so forth	0,3
42.	Fortunately/unfortunately	0,3
43.	Apparently	0,3
44.	(As) I understand	0,3
45.	In a way	0,3
46.	(As) I say	0,3
47.	Have you heard that term/word? / Do you know that term? / Do you know what the word … means? / Is that term you heard/know? / Is that the word you're clear on?	0.3
48.	I'll give you the example. / Let me give you an example.	0,3
49.	Have you heard of … ?	0,3
50.	(So) we say	0,2
51.	I'm sure	0,2
52.	That doesn't mean	0,2
53.	I guess	0,2
54.	By that I mean	0,2
55.	What is called	0,2
56.	I believe	0,2
57.	I will say	0,2
58.	On the other hand	0,2

59.	The idea is ...	0,2
60.	At this/some/one point	0,2
61.	On the one hand	0,2
62.	They say	0,2
63.	I don't think	0,2
64.	Finally	0,2
65.	That's a pattern. / These are patterns. / That's another pattern.	0,2

We also conducted statistic analysis of language material in terms of average statistic figures (discourse elements). As the result of this analysis we found the most frequently used discourse elements are: *so, now, I think, OK, in other words, in terms of, you know, for example, well, I mean, (and) also, anyway, probably, that/it means*. The results of this analysis allow us to conclude that there are a special number of discourse elements that are regularly used in this kind of discourse and that they vary in their functions. However the most commonly used are the elements that express result or consequence; shift the topic; clarify the opinion of the speaker (*so, now, I think, OK, in other words, in terms of, you know, for example, well, I mean, (and) also, anyway, probably, that/it means*). The use of such discourse elements can be explained by the desire of the lecturer to make students understand his ideas and concepts. This pragmatic goal is essential for the professor especially taking into consideration he/she is delivering a lecture to non-native speakers of English.

Interval Scaling

Interval scales enabled us not only to classify discourse elements but also to numerically express and compare them. Thus we received the data about the number of discourse elements and predominance of their prosodic characteristics. The analysis and interpretation of the data collected proved our hypothesis that the prosodic variations of discourse elements are determined by the intention of the speaker, the complexity of the structure of the elements, their position in the sentence and in the phrase (Table 3).

Table 3
Position of a discourse element in the phrase

№	Discourse element	Position (%)		
		Initial	**Middle**	**Final**
1.	So	**98**	2	-
2.	Now	**98**	2	-
3.	I think	46	**51**	3
4.	In other words	**100**	-	-
5.	In terms of	16	**83**	2
6.	You know	43	45	12
7.	For example	32	**56**	12
8.	Well	**91**	9	-
9.	I mean	**61**	39	-
10.	(And) also	**65**	35	-
11.	Anyway	**89**	6	6
12.	Probably	9	**85**	6
13.	That/it means	**71**	29	-
14.	As/what we call	24	**73**	3
15.	That sort of thing	-	23	**77**
16.	I know	**54**	36	11
17.	Yes/yeah	**83**	17	-
18.	I/we would say	12	**72**	16
19.	What/all I'm getting/driving at...	**87**	9	4
20.	Maybe	45	**50**	5
21.	At the same time	**71**	24	5
22.	First of all	**65**	35	-
23.	It is/was interesting	**77**	15	8
24.	No	31	62	8
25.	Of course	41	**53**	6
26.	Right	-	**100**	-
27.	Particularly	-	**92**	8
28.	In fact	45	**55**	-
29.	I hope	**86**	-	14
30.	I don't know	-	**57**	43
31.	Actually	40	**60**	-
32.	I'm not sure	**57**	14	29
33.	Again	-	**78**	22
34.	Primarily	-	**75**	25
35.	Generally	33	**50**	17
36.	Usually	**63**	25	13
37.	Say	29	**71**	-
38.	And so forth	-	17	83
39.	Fortunately/unfortunately	**57**	43	-
40.	Apparently	29	**57**	14
41.	(As) I understand	33	**50**	17
42.	In a way	17	**67**	17
43.	(As) I say	**57**	43	-
44.	(So) we say	20	**60**	20
45.	I'm sure	-	**80**	20
46.	That doesn't mean	60	**40**	-
47.	I guess	20	**80**	-
48.	By that I mean	100	-	-
49.	What is called	40	**60**	-
50.	I believe	40	**60**	-

51.	I will say	**80**	20	-
52.	On the other hand	**100**	-	-
53.	The idea is ...	**75**	25	-
54.	At this/some/one point	**50**	25	25
55.	On the one hand	**100**	-	-
56.	They say	-	80	20
57.	I don't think	**75**	25	-
58.	Finally	-	**100**	-

The quantitative study showed that discourse elements are often used at the beginning of the phrase (63%). They include discourse elements such as: *so, now, in other words, well, anyway, yes/yeah, what/all I'm getting/driving at, I mean, (and) also, that/it means, I know*. The lecturer uses such elements in the initial position to make contact with the students, to attract some attention to particular ideas and also to use this time to figure out what to say next. Such elements normally form a separate syntagm (69%); the terminal tone is Medium Level; tempo and loudness are average. For example,

Because what what 'colleges have 'found out is they can tell historically from the course who is 'likely to 'finish the program.| In other words, the higher the score – the more 'likely the 'student has ability to 'handle the university or 'college 'level work.| And so, they tend 'not to 'take students who have low scores.|

31% of discourse elements are used in the middle of the phrase. The most often used elements in this position are: *I think, in terms of, you know, for example, probably, as/what we say, I/we would say, maybe*. Used in this position they may be ordinary remarks or additions to the main phrase. Or they can be fillers of pauses of hesitation. The speaker casually expresses his/her opinion towards the mentioned facts. He/she may use such elements to make the lecture livelier and let it sound more natural. All these factors determine prosodic realization of the elements. The intonation is normally the same as the one in the preceding syntagm. Very often these elements do not form a separate syntagm (*I think, in terms of, probably, maybe*). For example,

I lived in 'London for a year.| And I can still go 'back to London and not repeat myself in terms of 'places I visited.|

Sometimes discourse elements in this position can form a separate intonation group (44%), separated with pauses and realized with a particular terminal tone. Very often it is Medium Level (44,4%) and Low-Rise (39, 8%). The tempo and loudness are average. For example,

And there're people who have longer vacations.| Namely teachers er for example won't be teaching in the months of July and August most of the time.|

Discourse elements in the final position appear quite seldomly (6%). They are normally used here to attract the attention of the listeners and emphasize the idea mentioned. In this position you can find elements such as: *sort/type of thing, and so forth, I don't know, I'm not sure*. They usually form a separate intonation group (92%) with Low/Medium-Fall (45, 5%) and Medium Level (20%) terminal tones; average tempo and loudness. For example,

So altogether an American employee starting out can expect about fifteen to sixteen 'paid holidays vacation time.| Now that may sound like very 'little by Russian standards, I'm not sure.|

The analysis of the prosodic characteristics of the incorporated phrases lets us say that these elements are usually marked by high, increasing loudness and slow tempo. The terminal tone depends on their structure and the emotional level of the lecturer. Sometimes they are marked by rhetorical pauses. It all allows us to mark them out in the context and also optimize the interpretation of the lecture. For example,

That may be 'only a collection of images just a collection of images that are somehow related.| OK,| er any questions so far?|

Also I think these are main things I wanted to cover.|| Now, do you 'have questions?| I I what I have been 'trying to do is give you a realistic picture of what 'life for 'young 'college 'graduate is in the United States.|

Conclusion

The process of interaction between the lecturer and the students and its result are considered in this research as a kind of institutional discourse, particularly academic discourse. There are many discourse elements in this kind of discourse that make it institutional. They also provide cohesion and realize one of the principles of lectures, that is, a focus on the audience; in our case it is a student audience that studies English as a foreign language. The specific addressee determines special choice of discourse elements and their frequency of use.

The studied elements differ structurally and can perform different functions. The most common function is delimitation and at the same time integration of the fragments of the discourse. Another function can be connected with expressing the personal opinion of the lecture and his/her judgements. That is why we have divided discourse elements in our research into two big groups that are subdivided into smaller groups.

The functions of the discourse elements, their structure, intentions of the speaker and also their position in the phase determine their prosodic features. They are normally marked out in the discourse and thus help the students to comprehend the lecture better. These findings contribute to our understanding of discourse elements representation and their functioning in academic discourse considering specific features of student audience. The obtained results open perspectives for further research on this issue. Interesting and promising, in our opinion, seems a further study of discourse elements, their functional characteristics and prosodic features on the material of different kinds of discourse, as well as different varieties of English.

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Historical and Symbolic Aspects of Linguistic Representation of the World

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The article is an attempt to offer a theoretical understanding of the notion of a "Linguistic world-image" (LWI) within symbolic contexts as represented in the current literature, define the symbol's features, its influence on LWI in historic perspective, and investigate its functioning within idioms or metaphors. We have undertaken the review of previous LWI investigations and, as the methodological basis of our research, we have used ethno-semantic and linguistic-philosophical approaches to language; specifically, the method of multiple etymology, introduced by V. N. Toporov and developed by M.M. Makovsky, which permitted us to identify the correlation of LWI with linguistic signs as a carrier of symbolic meaning. It should be noted that studying symbolic language properties and linguistic signs within the linguistic world-image, which were not taken into account before, is conductive to a more profound comprehension of the correlation between language, culture, and mutual understanding index in the intercultural communication process. The LWI concept is considered as a subjective-objective dynamic multilevel construct, which presents its primary features through a lexical-semantic language system within a world and national culture formed as a result of the reflection of sensorial perception, facts, understanding and estimation of the objective phenomena in national linguistic consciousness, in the experience of correlation of language concepts, images and symbols throughout the cultural historical development of the language. Therefore, two approaches to studying LWI are evident - cognitive and cultural-philosophical - which are not so much conflicting as mutually reinforcing.

Keywords: symbolic language properties, linguistic sign, linguistic world-image, linguistic thinking, linguistic consciousness, inner form

The study of symbolic language properties and linguistic signs within LWI is of utmost importance in the active interaction of cultures and peoples. It leads to a more profound comprehension of the correlation between language, culture, and the level of understanding during the intercultural communication process. For this reason, a theoretical understanding of the linguistic world-image concept in symbolic contexts is pressing and necessary. The review of previous LWI research has revealed that it was mostly reduced to the analysis of metaphor combinations of words having abstract semantics, which singled out perceptible sensory images (Arutyunova, 1976; Apresyan, 1995; Teliya, 1996; Lakoff & Johnson, 1987; Vezhbitskaya, 1996; Zaliznyak, 2005; Kornilov, 2002; Radchenko, 2002). It did not take into account the symbolic aspect of LWI, which may open up new avenues of research. Any national language is known to reflect not only scientific knowledge about the world but also includes things that do not correlate with objective reality, such as metaphors, idioms, and mythical images. This leads us to conclude that symbols and mythological images function in idioms and metaphors because the early culture fixed in a language is held to be a mythological one. It did not disappear completely but continues to live in metaphors, idioms, and proverbs. In that context, the symbol can be considered as the element of cultural information that is used in the speech and linguistic codes of different cultural representations. As a result, we propose one more algorithm of LWI study taking into account its symbolic content. The premise is that LWI research, from the point of view of symbols functioning in a language, allows us to understand a nation's world perception and evolution; it enables us to explain why the same ideas are expressed in distinct ways in different languages.

Materials and Methods

To clarify the challenges faced in studying LWI and deduce its research technique, we have summarized previous theories on linguistic world-image and the correlation of sign and symbol functioning in metaphors and idioms, pointing out flaws or demonstrating the advantage of one theory over another. This analysis has enabled us to suggest the algorithm of symbol content research functioning in metaphors and idioms.

The notion "linguistic world-image" goes back directly to ideas of W. von Humboldt (1821), L. Wittgenstein (1918), L. Weisgerber (1929), E. Sapir and B. Whorf (1954). W. von Humboldt's study (1767 – 1835) on language was the foundation for the notion of the linguistic world-image. The cornerstone of his study was the notion of "objective reality", without which it was impossible to create the relevant concept about the correlation between language, man and the world itself. His doctrine about a linguistic inner form formed the basis of the concept of LWI.

Von Humboldt connected "the national spirit" with national creative activity of consciousness to create "complex ideas of not only objective reality, but also national emotions, feelings, sensations and perceptions about existence", creatively meaningful by a collective" subject of thought". "Language is closely intertwined with the spiritual advance of mankind and accompanies it at each phase of its local progress or regress reflecting every stage of culture" (Humboldt, 2000, p. 48).

In the early twentieth century, under the influence of Ferdinand de Saussure's ideas, the LWI description began to be realized not only in terms of philosophic and inter-linguistic descriptivism, but also as a sociological approach: "Finally WI had acquired the environment in which it forms and exists, i.e., '*the speech community*'" (Radchenko, 2002, p. 141). Until that time, this problem had only been apparent but not considered. Firstly, German scholars such as Tennis, Durkheim, Firkandt, Maine, etc. made an outstanding contribution to give a social-linguistic direction to the world image conceptualization. In Russia, the problem of describing WI and the speech community was raised during the ethnic psychology formation and its research is associated with the name of G. G. Shpet (1879 – 1940).

Austrian philosopher and logician Ludwig Wittgenstein (1889 – 1951) saw the WI notion as a metaphor and emphasized its identity with the mental concept of "the image of the world" and introduced a new approach to language analysis in general and subsequently to the study of LWI to consider the word meaning in its usage. But to perceive the world through language is a "misconception" (Fefilov, 2004, p. 44).

From the perspective of modern linguistic science, thought and language are not identical, hence the notion is a unit of thinking and the meaning is a linguistic unit. Accordingly, the notion is expressed while meaning is inserted in the sign, correlating with the object and actively interacting with the mental concept. Therefore, we cannot say that the "picture" created by language is captured by everybody. Language does not draw anything, it is just "a way of expressing the objective world reflected in the conceptual mind".

Many modern Russian scholars such as Yu. D. Apresyan (1995), Yu. S. Stepanov (2001), N. D. Arutyunova (1976), T. V. Bulygina and D. N. Shmelyov (2000), E. S. Kubryakova (1993) devoted their work to LWI problem. O. A. Kornilov (2003), V. N. Thalia (1996), R. H. Khayrullina et al. (2008) engaged in studying word-formation and phraseological resources of LWI; O. A. Radchenko (2002) studies dialect pictures of the world, M. M. Makovsky (2005), T. V. Toporova (1999) are engaged in mythological decoding of world images in Indo-European languages. O. A. Radchenko (2002) devoted his work to the history of the idio-ethnic direction in language philosophy. A. Vezhbitska's works (1997 et al.) show the necessity of overcoming purely linguistic borders in research and the use of national psychology, national mentality and national cultural data. The correlation between language and thinking is actively investigated in psycholinguistics. A. N. Leontyev's (1983), E. F. Tarasov's (2000), E. V. Sidorov's (2011) work convincingly proves the interactive character of verbal communication. According to S. N. Kurbakova (2013), "being engaged in interaction with other people to achieve some aims, an addresser has to effectively control the recipient's activity during the communication. The person acts in a certain situation (place), and in a broad sense, space, at a certain time or period of time". S. N. Kurbakova believes that "by studying verbal orientation of speech according to the coordinates of person, place and time of activity we get an opportunity to describe the essential parameters of objective reality which are in human consciousness" (Kurbakova, 2013, p. 97).

Having analyzed some basic theoretical directions, we can conclude the following. Consciousness, being a receptive, accumulative and estimated component, provides perception, logical judgment and information assessment. In our consciousness there is a processing of evident feelings, a fixing of their cogitative images and the formation of a conceptual worldview. As consciousness correlates language and objective reality, it takes an intermediate position between language and the objective world. As a result of a world objectification, consciousness presents not only the idea about the thing itself and its initial properties independent of human life, but also reflects its socially significant properties acquired subsequently through personal and public experience. Thereupon, it is possible to say that because of geographical, cultural, historical, social and other distinctions, objective reality is reflected in different nations' consciousness unequally, according to national beliefs as human consciousness is formed to a certain extent under the impact of national culture.

Therefore, we can speak about the notion “national consciousness” which forms the so-called “national linguistic world-image”. A logical-conceptual component of consciousness segments an infinite information stream and turns it into a set of information bundles (O. A. Kornilov defines this as “informema”), which become concepts of a national linguistic consciousness (Kornilov, 2003, p. 147). Cogitative images and concepts are verbalized through a person’s desires and linguistic reasoning as a dynamic component to transform and explain objective reality. Trying to explain events and phenomena of objectivity, the human consciousness draws from a whole number of symbols available to the system of traditional national beliefs. During the early stages of national development, current events and processes of the universe were understood through mythological justification, with the system of images and symbols as the only thing available for that period.

Thanks to the creative activity of linguistic thinking and its associative orientation, abstract notions and physical facts are actualized by cogitative images and real-life objects, their signs and the relations already available in memory, subjective and estimated orientation. The emotional assessment of an image is the cornerstone of an associative correlation with a sign. Thus, in the course of reflection the real image at the consciousness level can have both significant and connotative conceptual content. Metaphorical constructions, which are the code and the meta-code of our thoughts, appear. The correlation of language concepts, images and symbols caused by the language experience and national features of native speakers helps make the so called “national linguistic world image” (NLWI).

It should be noted that a mutual understanding between people of different nationalities occurs because of the uniform logical-conceptual base of mental universals and a substantive universal code (according to N. I. Zhinkin’s terminology), which make thinking independent of national languages and cultures (Kornilov, 2003, p. 121). Distinction is formed as a result of development, concretization and specification of a universal logical conceptual basis by each ethnos. Everything that is beyond the substantive universal code, on the periphery of a logical-conceptual framework of the world order, is nationally determined and specific. Idioms and metaphors are on the periphery and they are the components of NLWI. Idioms can carry out the function of cultural-national world-vision standards. Early mythological culture was fixed in a language, primarily in idioms and metaphors.

Thus, “symbol”, “sign”, “image” and “metaphor” are fundamental concepts to deduce the algorithm of an ethnic linguistic representation. The *LWI notion* is based on the close correlation of a linguistic sign as the carrier of symbolic value, images and characters of heathen thinking. At the same time the language sign acts as the main object of the analysis.

Suggesting the ontological symbolic nature, P. A. Florensky determined a symbol as “the entity which is more than the symbol itself”. He wrote that, “it could be understood as any reality the energy of which contained another one of both the highest value and reality’s hierarchy” (Florensky, 1999, pp. 477–478). In other words, we communicate with reality by means of symbols and we touch something that has been cut off so far from our consciousness. We see the reality by an image, and we hear it by a name, with symbols “the openings made in our subjectivity”. The symbols open “depths of our being by our spirit” to be born and realized. “A secret of the world is revealed by symbols in the authentic essence”. According to Florensky, language, a word and a name are symbolic. A symbol’s language is inseparable from our being, it is “aprioristic”. The symbol’s nature is antinomic: on the one hand, it is transcendental and, on the other, it is human. The danger of the antinomic nature is that subjectively created symbols can take away from reality, or merge with and smother it. Attempts to separate strict sense and a sensual cover from a symbol lead to the disappearance of spiritual content and the destruction of a symbol. A danger of this kind proceeds from rationalism and naturalism (Florensky, 2000, pp. 424-425).

Results and Discussion

The symbol as an element of cultural information is used in a speech and language code of national culture representatives. The generally accepted idea of the symbol comes to understanding it as some content which, in turn, serves as the expression for another culturally more valuable content (Lotman, 2004, p. 240). Archaism is one of a symbol’s properties. Its main objective is to express the correlation between its invariant content and the modern cultural context. With the correlation, the information on objects, actions, phenomena, feelings, and properties is preserved and passes on from one generation to another in a condensed form. Joining in any syntagmatic row, the symbol saves semantic and structural originality.

According to Yu. M. Lotman, “the symbol never belongs to one synchronous cultural cutoff. It always crosses this cutoff down from the past to the future. Symbol’s memory is more ancient, than memory of its nonsymbolic textual surrounding” (Lotman, 2004, p. 241). However, symbol as “the messenger of former cultural eras”, not only appears in its invariable form, but also actively interacts with the modern cultural context, changes under its influence, affects it. The symbol belongs to a multivariate semantic space. Therefore, it is impossible to reveal all the symbol's content through the sphere of expression. In this regard, it is important to notice that:

> Semantic potentialities of the symbol are always wider than its semantic implementations: symbols' links with a semiotic surrounding by means of its expression plane don't exhaust all its semantic valences. That is why there is semantic reserve which can be used by the symbol to form unforeseen connections, changing entity and deforming a textual surrounding (Lotman, 2004, p. 242).

Thus, as an element of cultural information, a symbol has the following properties: a) archaism from a present-day perspective; b) semantic and structural originality; c) dynamism; d) wide semantic potential; e) variability. These features allow a symbol to save in a condensed form significant cultural information, to transfer it from the past to the future, to interact with a modern cultural context and influence it (Ganyushina, 2009, p. 43).

Signs can be called symbolical tools of knowledge. However, there is a substantial difference between a sign and a symbol in the language. N. V. Ivanov claims that if a sign is considered as the beginning of a symbol, then the symbol can be defined as "the most difficult result of semantic formation of a sign". A sign's semantic component is expressed in its meaning. On the contrary, the main thing in a symbol is a sense as logical category. The sign and the symbol interact continuously: "the symbol wants to be a sign, to develop in itself the properties of internal formalization in aspect of content and expression, and it can be considered as an experience of a symbol; the sign aspires to become a symbol, to find in itself the features of symbolization, and it can be understood as semantic experience of a sign, experience of its internal semantic development" (Ivanov, 2002, p. 51).

For a symbol to capture the most important aspect of meaningfulness, it is essential to be identical with the context. Ivanov emphasizes that the symbol in possession of its semantic uniqueness is always understood as some semantic continuation of a context. The sign, on the contrary, expresses some semantic restriction of a context and separates itself from it. Certainly, it should be taken into account that both symbol and sign have their own context: a sign has a so-called "proximate" context, its direct logical environment; a symbol possesses infinitely distant, general context.

Meaning can be considered as a sign's semantic basis while this is found in an image for the symbol. So, a sign can be considered as the result of a symbol's evolution while a symbol as an intermediate link of the movement from an image to a sign. Being one of the forms of symbolic world understanding, myth does not lose timeless fragments and continues to live in metaphors, idioms, proverbs and drawing ethnos' LWI.

As for image, it can be defined, according to M. M. Makovsky, as a form of mythogenic representation; it is a biological social product, the result of the interaction of a higher neurological activity and objective social conditions. The mythological image appears only in the word. For ancient people the word was not a sign, as we understand today, but it was a name. Language abstraction did not exist for them. Therefore, the word is determined as "a semiotic sign, a symbol, a semiotic formula of a mythopoetic image" (Makovsky, 1996, p. 20).

M. M. Makovsky notes: "Language is a peculiar cemetery of metaphors: the word which was once a metaphor can lose the obviously metaphorical properties over time, but then again be converted to metaphorical transformations which are quite often not similar with initial" (Makovsky, 1996, p. 16).

Thanks to metaphors' active nature, a special vision of the world is created. National and cultural sensitivities accumulated by nations during their historical development are imprinted in national languages. The metaphor is characteristic of human thinking and language.

Having analyzed some of the theoretical background, symbol can be considered as an intermediate position between linguistic sign and image, while the sign is a result of a symbol's evolution. Moreover, symbol can be defined as the fusion of archetypes, which are a myth's base. Hence, one more algorithm of LWI research follows – **from myth to symbol to linguistic sign**.

Our theoretical consequences have found confirmation in practical LWI research. The analysis of metaphorical constructions and idioms expressing the same idea in different languages (mainly Russian, English, German, and French) showed that in different languages the content of these ideas revealed by various images and symbols. This fact helps us to lift the veil on the understanding of a nation's mentality and obtain a real meeting of minds during communication between different nations' representatives.

Let us give some examples concerning the notions "wind" and "air". In the traditions of all nations these notions are an element that is necessary for life. In ancient times, the wind was equivalent with soul (cf.: English: *wind*, "German: *Wind* "wind", Ossetic: *udd* "soul") (Makovsky, 2005, p. 500). In idioms *to recover one's wind*, *to catch / get one's second wind,* the lexeme *wind* means "breath"; *be down wind*: "to feel bad"; *be in the wind* "to be slightly [a bit] drunk"- the position of the person relative to a wind explains their meaning. As for Russian, there is no identical idiom, while in French (Fr.) we have *reprendre haleine* and in German

(Ger.) *zu Atem kommen,* where the lexemes *'der Atem' and 'haleine'* breathing, respiration. As we know the lexemes with the meaning "breath" correlate with the meaning "fire". (*Indo-European (I.E):*al-/*el-* "to burn" but Lettish (Let.): *elpēt* "to breathe", Breton: *alan* " to breath", Old-English (O.-E.) *оeðет* "breath" , Germ.: *Atem, Fr.: haleine* ("breath") (Makovsky, 2004, p.41). Moreover, *wind* also correlates with fire (compared with *(I.E):*u̯endh- "make fire"*). In ancient times, fire was equated with wind and the soul (Makovsky, 2004, p. 582).

In the expression *to blow hot and cold* (i.e. to blow hot and cold wind), the elements of wind symbolize moral condition of the person: his constant doubts in decision-making, mood, relations; dual position. In this regard, the correlation of the meaning *wind* with the meaning "dark, blind" is interesting: Latin: *aquilo* "north", but Lithuanian: *aklas* "blind"; Greek: καικίας "a strong wind", but Latin: *caecus* "blind" (Makovsky, 1989, p. 51). The idiom *be right before the wind with all the studding sails out* means "be drunk" for the English. Neither German*,* nor French nor Russian has similar idioms.

Air, as one of four primary elements, symbolizes top and goes back to the meaning "burn", "be in movement"; "spirit, breath"; "to cut"; "to lift"; "to take". As the symbol of fast movement, air is represented in the form of a fast horse (cf. Russian: dialect. орь "horse") (Makovsky, 2005, p. 80).

On the assumption of the research results, the sense of the following expressions becomes clear: *be on air* "to broadcast", *take air* "to become known, become well-known", *to keep something in the air* "to keep someone in a condition of uncertainty, uncertainty, expectation". The British call insignificant talk and chatter *hot air*. As the notion "air" correlates to "fire", *be (get or go) up in the air* means "lose one's temper"; "*He's not a bad sort of fellow, used to get up in the air a bit quick, one time, but he's toned down now*." *Fish in the air* means to "do useless things", to *saw the air* "to gesticulate a lot", "to swing one's arms".

By using classic physio-philosophical language of four elements: "earth", "water", "fire" and "air", it is possible to interpret the human body. As blood was equalized with the Universe, it was considered as the "home" of our soul and our life, as a birth symbol according to the beliefs of many peoples. Both English and Russian could not remain indifferent to this fact and expressed this idea in their idiomatic expressions, mostly to coincide with this concept, but there are also essential distinctions. The English use the idiom *too rich for my blood* (literally "it is too much for my blood", i.e. for my soul's home) having in mind "can't stand something" or 'that's too much, that's going too far".

«Red blood » symbolizes physical force and courage, while "*bad blood*" connotes hostility. According to ancient traditions of magic in Western Europe, *blood* was considered as the "special juice" impregnated with the personal aura of the donor, which is why all pacts with the devil were allegedly subscribed or fastened with blood. In addition, so-called "pure" and "dirty" blood were singled out. The coagulating blood from a wound that was not dangerous was considered pure. "Pure blood" always symbolized undisturbed vitality. According to medieval legends, pure blood had a salutary effect and could cure leprosy. On the other hand, "dirty" menstrual blood, because of a woman's contact with "mythical space, mythical forces", was considered to be charged with a negative force and associated with hostility. It attracted diseases and profaned the holy places. It explains English idiom *breed ill blood*: "to cause a quarrel between sb. and sb., to spread discord". Neither French, German (*Mut; Tapferkeit*) or Russian have equivalent constructions. *Make somebody's blood creep* (literally: make somebody's blood move slowly i.e. curdle from horror because it is the soul that lives there) means to "be horrified (by)". In German we can say, *'Sie wurde vom Grauen gepackt'* where *Grauen* "*terror, horror"* can be correlated with the German word *grau* or "grey", known to be the transition between black and white. The closer grey gets to black, the more dramatic and mysterious it becomes. The closer it gets to silver or white, the more illuminating and lively it becomes. In the Christian religion, grey symbolizes mourning and repentance. It is the colour of ashes (Chevalier, 2004, p. 487). The idea of ruthless use of force is captured in *"blood and iron",* compare with the German, '*Blut und Eisen',* Bismark's policy and the Russian огнём и мечом*,* literally "by fire and sword". Moreover, iron as a Mars' attribute (the war god) is associated with violence and colour of rust with blood. The English dichotomy *blood and thunder* as "bloody melodrama" goes back to understanding of thunder as the manifestation of divine wrath caused by the violation of a space order.

As Prof. M. M. Makovsky notes, "the *blood* concept can correlate to various sincere experiences: "to feel", "think", "understand", cf. Ossetic: *tug* "blood", but Irish *tucu*, New-Irish: *tuigim* "understand" (cf. Lithuanian: *tikyoti* "trust"); English: *blood* "blood", but English "brood" "to think, consider" (Makovsky, 2005, p. 500). This idea finds its expression in *get something out of one's blood* (i.e. to withdraw) having in mind "forget about something", "dismiss".

Red is known to be associated with blood, and bloody hands – with a crime, so, it is clear that *to catch someone red handed* means "catch/ take in the act". This symbolic content is traced in English, Russian and French expressions: in English to *see red mist*, its Russian equivalent смотреть сквозь красную пелену and in French*, se facher tout rouge.* But the symbolic association of red with danger is revealed in the English idioms: *be in the red, out of the red, put in the red.* (The same in French: *compte en rouge* “nominal account”). Moreover, bank clerks are known to score up debts and losses with red ink. The same symbolic meaning we can see in French expressions: être au rouge, être dans le rouge “be embarrassed; be in difficult situation”. In Russian tradition, red is the symbol of beauty: therefore Red Square means “beautiful square” or красна девица (krasna devitsa) “a beautiful girl”.

According to ancient biblical representations, the body of the person was compared to space (microcosm), with its foundation represented by a skeleton or bones. According to the beliefs of many peoples, the spirit of the living being remains in bones and preserving them may guarantee their possible revival. Thus, the following expressions become clearer: in English, *to feel something in one’s bones* is to “sense something; suspect something” or “to be sure absolutely of something”; *bred in the bone* is “ innate “; *to have a bone in one’s arm/leg* means “to be tired”; *to make no bones about something* is to “ have no hesitation in stating or dealing with (something), however unpleasant or awkward it is he makes no bones about his feelings towards the militants” (in interpretation: not to get up courage to undertake something). In French, ça vaut l›os is “to be worthy”; *l’avoir dans l’os* is to “fail, suffer a major setback”. In German, *der Schreck ist ihm in die Knochen gefahren* is “my heart was in my mouth”, literally in German – ‘in bones”. Identity was also associated with a skeleton and bones. In cultures with shaman rituals skeletons are symbols of mental experience and disintegration of personality. Hence it is clear why *skeleton in the closet* means “a discreditable or embarrassing fact that someone wishes to keep secret”, while in French, *cadavre dans l’armoire* literally “dead body in closet”. But in German there is no an identical equivalent.

Conclusion

- Using the given algorithm of our study, the comparative method, and the method of multiple etymology introduced in linguistic science by V. N. Toporov, and having analyzed idioms and metaphorical constructions of concepts such as animals’ images, plants, mechanisms, tools, clothes and others on 10 publication base sheets we can draw the following conclusions:In the history of studying of LWI phenomenon there are two approaches: cognitive and cultural-philosophical. Both are not so much conflicting as mutually reinforcing. That is why in LWI research it is necessary to consider basic ideas of both approaches.
- On the one hand, the ontological status of the LWI concept defines the correlation between language and consciousness: they have mutual correlation. On the other hand, this concept is considered as a so-called peculiar cultural matrix within which a person can think and act.
- The key idea is anthropocentricity and ethnocentricity of language. People’s activity, their feelings and emotions, vast spaces are measured by a human relative to themselves, accepting everything in them, their inner world; and imaging themselves in the visual environment. LWI provides a model of such anthropocentrism for all ages. Any national language reflects not only knowledge about the world but also includes everything that isn’t connected with objective reality, for example, mythological images, metaphors and idioms. By researching LWI the scientist should investigate the inner form of words considering it as the keeper of cultural traditions and meanings.
- The further we go beyond internal linguistics by examining a concept, the more obvious is its correlation with axiological and mythological ideas. Studying the meaning of mythological symbols in metaphors and idioms helps to uncover the hidden springs in the development of human thought and culture as reflected in language.

Cultural traditions and world-vision of any nation, undoubtedly, find their embodiment in language. To find the so-called “index understanding” which would help to define as far as differently the interlocutor perceives objective reality, it is necessary to consider the national way of thinking reflected in the lexical system of a language acting as a NLWI.

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Learning from Collaborative Teacher Development in an EAP/ESP Context

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'Collaborative teacher development is an increasingly common kind of teacher development found in a wide range of language teaching contexts'. Teachers can collaborate with other teachers in writing materials, books, doing research, and analysing observed lessons. Even the format and the content of a teaching journal can be developed in cooperation with other colleagues. The article reports on collaborative teacher development of English language teachers at the National Research University Higher School of Economics (NRU HSE) in Moscow, Russia. The study used a survey to investigate needs for teacher development at NRU HSE. Findings reveal that not all teachers practise self-observation; many teachers believe that feedback must be personal; the majority of teachers find peer observation subjective; almost all teachers have teaching journals but their understanding of what a teaching journal is seems to be erroneous. These results indicate that without a clear understanding of the listed above issues and their implementation in a given context professional development can hardly be possible. The author analyses the results of this research and makes suggestions about teacher development as a continuous and collaborative process.

Keywords: collaborative teacher development, EAP/ESP, self-observation, peer observation, peer-coaching, teaching journal, professionalism

Teacher development has become an integral part of teachers' professional careers. There is a pressure for teachers to update their knowledge and skills in various areas such as innovations, new trends, course design, technology, assessment, and research, and it is the teaching institution and the classroom which serve as a major source for further development.

Ongoing teacher education in English language teaching circles at the NRU HSE has been given a new focus as a result of the introduction of a new concept of teaching English at the university (HSE, 2010) and new requirements for teacher professional assessment. According to these requirements, continuous professional training is now treated as a basis for a teacher's success in his or her work. The requirement to write research articles and teach optional courses is very topical now since these additional activities demonstrate teacher's active role in both teaching and in professional development. On the other hand, not all that teachers need to know can be provided by the administration of the university, even a very advanced university and other various forms of training. Much in teacher development can be done by teachers themselves in collaboration with other teachers as part of their individual long-term plan to update their knowledge and to make their professional development a continuous process.

Language teachers' high qualification is becoming more and more topical in any teaching context since a demand for employees with good skills is more than one or at least one foreign language is very high on the labour market due to the process of internationalisation of education. As a result, teaching profession is becoming more competitive, and teachers who demonstrate continuous self-development are highly demanded. Not simply teachers who know the subject well, but those who are devoted to professional training and extend their qualification to research and publications in professional journals and teacher magazines, make presentations at international conferences and belong to professional organisations (TESOL, IATEFL, etc.), those who want to become 'part of a worldwide community of professionals with shared goals, values, discourse, and practices ... with self-critical view of ... own practices ... (Burns & Richards, 2009, p. 3).

Traditionally, language teacher development has been looked at as attendance of teacher training courses and seminars (inside and outside the university) which offered (luckily for the teacher) 72 hours of training and a certificate of attendance. This has always served as a proof that the knowledge was updated. It is still common practice in many universities in Russia. In the worldwide teaching communities teacher professional development has made a significant step forward: more self-directed, more collaborative, and more inquiry-based forms begin to emerge. They are 'teachers' informal social and professional networks, including their own classrooms', which function as 'powerful sites for professional learning; teacher inquiry seminars, peer coaching, cooperative development, teacher study groups, and critical friends group (Johnson, 2009, p. 25). These forms have developed as a result of teachers' examinations of their own practices and students' learning. The cited authors believe there is correlation between 'teacher professional learning and student learning' (Johnson, 2009, p. 25). The effect is teachers' reconceptualisation of some aspects of their teaching 'when they come to think about and organise activities in the classroom in fundamentally different ways'. There is evidence that critical thinking about own teaching practices 'encourages teacher-learners to critically reflect on their own identities and positioning in society' (Hawkins & Norton, 2009, p. 34). 'Self-reflection provides a window on the relationship between the individual and the social world, highlighting both constraints on and possibilities for social change' (Hawkins & Norton, 2009, p. 34).

Data Collection

In order to understand how critically English language teachers of the HSE think about their own teaching methods and practices and the importance of changes to their understanding of certain professional development issues a survey was conducted. A questionnaire containing six questions (five – open questions and one – closed question) was prepared. All questions required teachers' answers about the importance of self- and peer observation and keeping teaching journals in professional development. These were the questions asked:

1. Have you ever practised self-observation? If yes, do you think it can help in teacher development?
2. How can feedback on peer observation be orgaised in a tactful way?
3. Can judgements about peer observation be subjective?
4. What can be the criteria for a teacher's assessment in peer observation?
5. How important are peer observation and peer coaching?
6. How can keeping a teaching journal add to a teacher's success in the classroom and professional career?

Data collection was performed using opportunity sampling method (Rogers & Willoughby, 2013, p. 53). 12 teachers who volunteered to participate in the study were asked to fill in the questionnaire. All teachers were of the same cultural background and approximately the same age. Out of 12 teachers only four knew what self-observation is, and they admitted that they practise it in the classroom because it allows teachers to critically analyse their teaching methods and the teaching process as a whole. One respondent answered that she does it on a regular basis when she analyses her classes, her own successes and failures. Two teachers answered that they tried it but failed because it is difficult to be objective to yourself, and to have some other person's opinion would be more reasonable and fairer. Five teachers confessed they had never conducted self-observation.

Answering the second question, the teachers had three different views: (1) five respondents thought that peer observation must be transparent. Moreover, teachers must know much in advance that their classes will be observed in order to prepare properly. They also believe that feedback ought to be organised in a friendly way on the basis of principles of pedagogical ethics. (2) Six respondents stated that the feedback should be personal and not accessible to a wide audience. (3) Only one respondent doubted that it can be useful in any way because professional approach can be substituted by good personal relationship.

Ten teachers thought that judgements about peer observation (3d question) are always subjective, and the reason for this is again personal relationship. Only two respondents believed that they ought to be objective and demonstrate the observer's professionalism. In response to Question 4, almost all teachers put the criterion of knowledge of the subject in the 1st place. The second important criterion for them is appropriateness of teaching methods. Some teachers added to it good and logical planning of the lesson and the skill to explain and contact with the audience. The third important criterion is satisfaction of the students. A few teachers included such criteria as a skill to motivate students and self-discipline and self-control.

In answering the 5th question, all teachers agreed that peer observation and peer coaching are essential for professional development, but some of them decided they are more important for beginner teachers and newcomers. There were respondents who believed that experienced teachers could also benefit from both.

The last question caused a shock with only one teacher who answered that she does not have any idea of what a teaching journal is. The other 11 teachers thought that keeping it is useful because it helps to assess strong and weak points of teaching activity, record failures and successes. Three out of 11 teachers thought it helps in time management and self-discipline and self-reflection. One teacher answered that keeping a teaching journal can seriously add to a teacher's success, and another teacher was sure that it enables teachers to make comparative analysis of their work and seek ways of professional development on a regular basis. From all these answers, it is not very clear though how much of what teachers agree on they practise in the classroom. Results of this experiment are given in Figures 1-4.

Teacher development means many different things to different people. Tomlinson (2003) suggests that in a teacher development approach teachers 'are given new experiences to reflect and learn from' (in Harmer, 2013, p. 410). The author believes that the best of these tools is to involve teachers in writing teaching materials since when they do it they have to think carefully about what they want to do, why they want to do it and how to make it happen (in Harmer, 2013, p. 410). It is obvious that writing teaching materials is important for teacher development, but it is also clear to teachers that the analysis of individual teaching practices is even more important. Several teachers, who participated in this research, answered that they practise self-observation in the classroom, but they did not mention that they understand what self-observation in worldwide teaching practices means. In fact, it means 'recording ourselves' (in Harmer, 2013, p. 412), which no teacher reported doing.

Suggestions on Continuous and Collaborative Teacher Development. Self-Observation

If teaching is looked at by teachers as a career-long process, an analysis of their teaching practices and beliefs and teacher development goals ought to be conducted. How can, for example, self-observation help teachers in building up their careers? Some authors (Baily, Curtis, Nunan, Fanselow, Gebhard, Oprandy as cited in Burns & Richards, 2009, p. 252) call it 'non-judgemental observation' which can include 'asking teacher-learners to record their teaching, listen to or view the tape as they collect descriptions of classroom interaction'. These descriptions can then be studied, discussed, and used as case studies for learning with other teachers (Burns & Richards, 2009, p. 252). Templer (2004) suggests that that very simple recording equipment can be used because the purpose of the recording is to lead teachers to reflect on what happened and perhaps cause them to think of how they might do things differently in the future. This reflection can be conducted in various forms:

1. Asking yourself questions (Have I done well in the classroom?, Were my reactions good?, Have

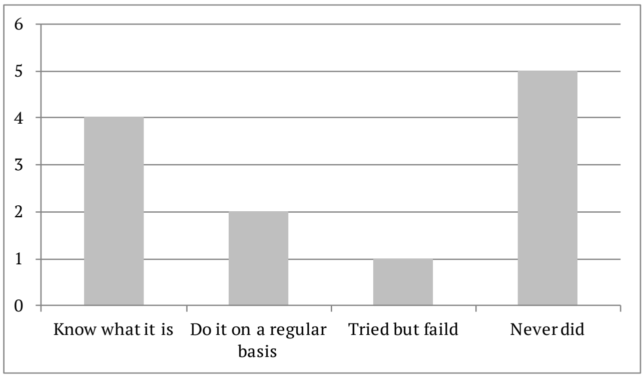

Figure 1. Self-observation.

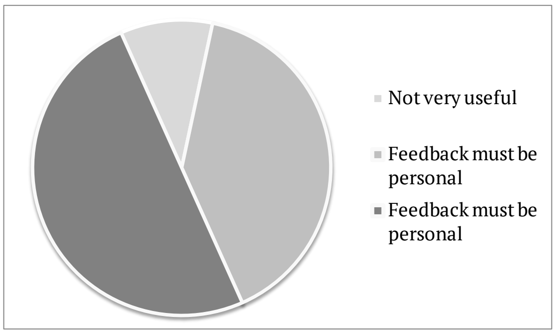

Figure 2. Feedback.

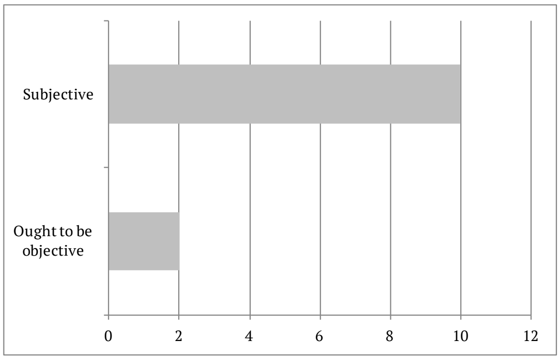

Figure 3. Judgements about peer observation.

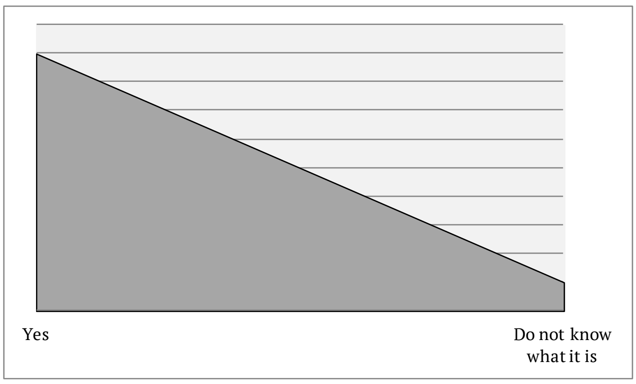

Figure 4. Teaching journals.

I achieved the goal?, What can I change?, What other techniques can I use to achieve the goal?, etc.).

2. Interpreting your own behavior in the classroom from the point of view of 'what I do and what I think I do' (Rolf Tynan cited in Harmer, 2013, p. 413).

The most widely used approaches to self-observation of language lessons are: lesson reports, audio-recording a lesson, and video-recording a lesson. Self-observation is meant for the good of the teachers, and it can serve as evidence for making decisions about a teacher's strengths and weaknesses and working out recommendations on how and what to change in his or her teaching. The major advantage of self-monitoring is that it usually gives an objective account of one's teaching which can be different from his or her own perception. For example, teachers are not allowed to use native language at the lessons even in low groups. But many teachers are unaware of the fact that they sometimes do it quite unconsciously. Teacher dominating in the classroom is common, and it can be only eradicated if teachers analyse the recording in, for example, a teacher support group and with a supervisor. Teachers' reactions to using mobile phones by students in the classroom would be better understood as a thing which was not very successful when it was recorded. Many teachers have no difficulties in explaining various issues to students, but teachers who are used to teaching advanced students will probably feel uncomfortable in a classroom with low-level students and vice versa.

The results of self-observation in general can be summarised in a self-report in which the teacher could analyse the advantages and the disadvantages of the lesson self-monitored and also whether the pre-planned activities went in the right direction, how he or she managed the discipline and the unexpected. Video- or audio recording is a private issue, and the teacher may not share the self-report with the colleagues or supervisor, but for the sake of teacher development this evaluation can be invaluable. Other teachers can learn from the video- or audio recording how to plan and structure their lessons, how to explain new material and brainstorm ideas, how to correct mistakes and give feedback. The way how the teacher dresses and behaves in the classroom can also identify problems. It is very probable that with time and experience teachers will get used to videotaping and will get less stressed and the whole of the lesson will be more educational and beneficial. Besides, if the teacher repeats videotaping several times during the academic year, he or she will see both students' and self-progress. It will also develop the teacher's sense of confidence and self-esteem and identify areas of improvement, and can be included as a component of the teaching portfolio.

How can HSE teacher be motivated to observe themselves in the right way? Only as a result of collaborative teacher development when issues of self-reflection are analysed in teacher groups and, probably, compared with other teachers' results. This experience can add not only to self-development but to other teachers' development and uncover views of classroom behavior which usually remain unnoticed or even neglected but in the long-run can serve as an investment into teachers' professional careers.

Peer Observation

Self-observation can hardly be successful without well organised peer observation. Peer observation basically means observing another teacher's classroom and reflection on the advantages of it for both teachers. It is very common that younger teachers can benefit from peer observation conducted by a more experienced teacher, but if it is organised on a mutual basis with the purpose of professional development, even experienced teachers can learn from each other. Peer observation is in fact seeing 'one's own teaching differently' (Fanselow, 1988, p. 115). In this case teachers can 'construct and reconstruct, and revise (their) own teaching' (Fanselow, 1988, p. 116). 'It provides an opportunity for the teacher to see how someone else deals with many of the same problems teachers face on a daily basis.

The majority of interrogated HSE teachers of English expect that peer observation will be subjective. To a large extent it is true, but if it comes from a 'critical friend (Harmer, 2013, p. 419) with interest and for mutual development, then it can be very useful. For example, a teacher might discover that a colleague has 'effective strategies that the observer has never tried' (Richards & Farrell, 2005, p. 86). The information obtained by the observer can include a written account (in the form of a narrative), a brief description of key events ('field notes'), and a structured inventory listing features of a lesson ('a checklist') that the observer completes during observation (Richards & Farrell, 2005, p. 89).

What should the observer focus on during observation? The authors of the cited above book suggest the following dimensions:

1. How the teacher starts and ends the lesson.
2. How the teacher allots time within the lesson.
3. How the teacher assigns tasks within the lesson.
4. How the teacher deals with a reticent student.
5. How the teacher organises learning groups.
6. How the teacher supervises students while they are learning.
7. How the teacher asks questions.

(Richards & Farrell, 2005, p. 90)

One more benefit of peer observation which cannot be underestimated: its social value. It gives an opportunity to share ideas, discuss problems and concerns in this way building collegiality at the university.

These findings are slightly different from factors which are taken into consideration by the university committee when a teacher goes through a contest to prove his or her qualification (once in three years). The Head of the Department of Foreign Languages E. Solovova believes that the observer in this case has a right to obtain from the teacher a plan of the lesson (E. Solovova, personal communication, 2015, October). While observing the lesson, he or she must focus on the aim and content of the lesson and decide whether they are topical, reasonable and go with the Concept of teaching English at the HSE. The observer will also be interested in the manner of teaching (academic or not), the atmosphere in the classroom, and whether the teacher's language skills are high. One factor which cannot be overlooked by the observer is teacher's instructions to the students (clear or not, relevant or not, logical or not) and a variety of forms of class work: individual or in twos and threes. If streaming was not initially used to group students, then the teacher must provide higher level students with more difficult tasks. The teacher's manner of error correction and giving feedback is taken into account by the observer. At least for one teacher in 2015 the lack of this determinant was decisive in making a decision about extending the contract for next year. Needless to say that the teacher must be familiar with all technical means of the optimisation of the teaching process and use LMS (Learning Management System) which is similar to Moodle (Solovova, personal communication, 2015, September).

Peer Coaching

Peer observation can also serve as a basis for peer coaching. In the real sense of the word this notion is almost unfamiliar to the given context. Teachers can collaborate about some teaching issues, exchange ideas, ask for advice, but it is never done on a regular and official basis. Robbins states that peer coaching is 'a confidential process through which two or more professional colleagues work together to reflect on current practices, expand, refine, and build new skills, share ideas; teach one another; conduct classroom research; or solve problems in the workplace' (1991, p. 1). This kind of collaboration is supposed to be positive and supportive in order to provide feedback and suggestions to the other teacher. Richards and Farrell (2005) list the following forms of peer coaching:

1. a series of informal conversations about what is happening in the teacher's classroom;
2. a collaboration on preparation of teaching materials;
3. observation of each other's classes;
4. co-teaching lessons;
5. videotaping a lesson with subsequent discussion with a coach.

(Richards & Farrell, 2005, n.p.)

Benedetti (1997) lists three types of peer coaching: technical coaching, collegial coaching, and challenge coaching (p. 41). According to this author, technical coaching is revealed when a teacher needs assistance of a more experienced teacher in learning a new teaching method or technique; collegial coaching focuses on improving existing teaching practices; challenge coaching means collegial resolving problems in teaching. All the listed types work well in various contexts where there is a need to implement them. What is required is open-mindedness of the teacher and professionalism of the coach. In any type of peer coaching, there ought to be friendly and constructive feedback which will help the younger or less experienced teachers to develop knowledge and skills needed to teach the subject. Peer coaching will be even more fruitful if the feedback and experience obtained is discussed in larger teacher support groups or even at teachers' meetings on a regular basis. More experienced teachers must be encouraged to be coaches with a reduction of hours taught at the university, and coaches must expect that they will have to produce feedback to the supervisor or the Head of Department containing their report on how the coaching went on and their deductions on the results obtained. Alternatively, it can be done in the form of a questionnaire prepared by the supervisor.

Keeping a Teaching Journal

Almost all teachers keep a record of their students' results in the form of marks for particular activities and exams. It helps teachers to work out the students' final result. This is obviously the way the interrogated teachers of English at the HSE understand the meaning of a teaching journal. Meanwhile teachers who are acquainted with methodological books written by well known authors realise that a teaching journal is 'an ongoing written account of observations, reflections, and other thoughts about teaching, usually in the form of a notebook, book, or electronic mode, which serves as a source of discussion, reflection, or evaluation' (Richards & Farrell, 2005, n.p.). It can include teachers' thoughts about their teaching and their students, 'teaching beliefs and practices, as well as a record of self-observations and observations in their classrooms, conversations, teaching ideas, teaching questions and answers, and personal thoughts about developing a teacher identity' (Gebhard, 2009, p. 253). In this format the notion of a teaching journal is unfamiliar to the majority of language teachers in the given context. It is very probable that some teachers (quite advanced in ideas and not indifferent) ask themselves such questions as 'What have my students learnt today?', 'Were the teaching methods appropriate?', 'Have they obtained the required skills?' Some of the teachers might summarise the content of the lesson and even ask students what they have learnt at the lesson. But almost no teacher will keep a record of all of these events because they were never told to do so by the supervisor or they were never explained that it is common practice in other countries.

What seem to be the advantages of keeping a teaching journal? There are at least two mentioned in Richards & Farrell (2005) – to serve as a recollection of what happened during the lesson (successful and unsuccessful experience) and as a source for further learning. Such teaching journals can be read individually or shared with other teachers, which can add to collaborating with colleagues and, as a result, to professional growth and development. Making teachers keep a teaching journal and making it an integral part of their personal and professional development can be rather difficult because now some teachers resist even having a teaching portfolio, which they call 'unnecessary paperwork'. Under these circumstances, making a teaching journal part of a teaching portfolio would show teachers of English what it means to be part of the worldwide teaching community, too.

Teacher Development and Professionalism

It is a well known fact that 'the teacher is the ultimate key to educational change and school improvement' (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1992, p. ix). This means that teachers very often develop the English language programme, implement it in the classroom, make amendments to it if necessary, design the English language course, adjust it to a particular group of students, develop materials for it and learn from these activities developing certain skills. Does this result in their professional development? Ur (2013), for example, defines a professional both in a broad and a narrow sense. In the broad sense a professional is 'someone whose work involves performing a certain function with some degree of expertise (p. 388). According to her narrower definition, 'professionals are people such as doctors, teachers and lawyers, whose expertise involves not only skill and knowledge but also the exercise of highly sophisticated judgement and whose accreditation necessitates extensive study'. Claiming that English teachers are professionals since they are a community, they are committed, they publish and communicate their ideas, they learn continually, they are autonomous and they are responsible for training new teachers, Ur, nevertheless, questions whether English teaching 'has reached the level of professionalism that seems desirable because there are still many amateurs who think that if they know English, they can teach it (Ur, 2013, pp. 391-392). This can be true for any environment: there will always be people (not professional teachers) who would like to supplement their income by giving private lessons to beginners or school children. But in Russia, no one can be employed as a teacher of English (school or university) without pedagogical education obtained at a university or teacher training college. With pedagogical education of this kind, English teachers become real professionals if they not only teach English and not one course only (for instance, Business English) but if they constantly develop, communicate with teachers worldwide, learn from them and share their own experience at international conferences. Becoming a collaborative teacher is an important step in being more professional in what teachers do in the classroom.

Conclusion

Teachers are generally motivated to continue their professional development, and for many teachers their education is a process which takes place over time. Since all teachers have a different level of knowledge, experience, and skills, mutual sharing of knowledge and experience becomes a valuable source of professional growth. As it has been explained on the example of one particular teaching context in this paper, such tools in teacher development as self-and peer observation and peer coaching, which are new for EAP/ESP teachers at the NRU HSE, can help them to better understand their own and other teachers' practices and can also help to teach one another and develop new skills. Having a teaching journal can serve as a means of keeping a record of self-observation and other observations in a classroom, of teaching ideas, and personal thoughts about professional development. In the 21st century teacher development with the help of many of the above listed powerful ideas can become less isolating and more collaborative and concentrated on particular teachers' needs with a focus on a much higher level of professionalism.

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The article 'Reasons for Requests' written by Julija Baranova and Mark Dingemans is a profound contribution to research relating to reasoning and initiating actions, specifically providing empirical evidence for in-depth analyses. The article draws on the corpus of a six- hour and twenty-minute long video recording of everyday conversations in Russian. Most interestingly, body language is also involved in non-verbal requests. The article raises not only significant theoretical assumptions, but it has a solid theoretical framework as well.

In the Introduction of their article, the authors elucidate the target and the audience, explaining why the research focuses on the Russian language and what prior work was carried out before their study. Concepts that might be new for the audience are addressed; for example, the word 'account', which plays a fundamental role in further discussions of the topic. An account is 'a statement made by a social actor to explain unanticipated or untoward behaviour' (Scott and Lyman, 1968: 46). Moreover, the authors claim that the research will provide a deeper understanding of not only the reasons for casual interaction, but also for the usage of the Russian language as an interactional medium.

In addition, the authors define the terms and concepts that are key points of discussion. For example, 'reason' is defined as a rightful answer to the question 'why?' and 'request' is defined as an attempt to engage a recipient into a practical action. In this study, the authors specifically analyze requests concerning immediate action that is performed in the present, and the presence or absence of a suitable response to such requests. Although the authors clearly demonstrate the gap in existing literature concerning such causal interaction, they only vaguely indicate how their research plans to fill this gap.

In the 'Data and Methods' section, the authors summarize the methods used for the qualitative analysis, specifically the video recordings conducted at the participants' houses and, on two occasions, at their workplaces. In addition, around 160 verbal and non-verbal request sentences were identified, while non-verbal communication included body language with practical actions. The authors analyzed the request sentences with the help of conversational analytic methods, identifying shared sequential structures and features.

In the 'Analysis' section, the authors address: (1) requests with no reason; (2) reasons provided following a delay or problem in uptake; (3) immediate reasons that are built into the requesting turn; (4) reasons that function as a pre-request for the actual request; (5) reasons provided after compliance with the request. Following this brief overview, the paragraphs below offer a summary and analysis of each of these sections in detail.

(1) Requests with no reason imply that the request should be straightforwardly compliable and no further information is required. In their analysis, 93 out of 101 requests made were, in fact, requests without reasons. In addition to affirmations, the authors illustrate the examples through several extracts. The first starts with an offer for more tea that a host makes to her guest. The guest accepts the offer, but eventually notes that he still has some tea. Thus, Anna, the host, accepts the rejection, offering tea to another guest. When the first guest is finished his tea, he stretches his arm out and Anna pours more tea into his cup: this example clearly illustrates a request with no reason. One of the most greatest strengths of the article is that the author presents conversations in a very detailed way, displaying them not only in the original Russian, but also in its translated form, its transcription, and then analyzes each conversation line by line. Furthermore, the authors explain that under different circumstances the guest's gesture might have different options as a reply, like giving some coffee or washing the cup. They assume that this sequential embedding allows the guest to keep the conversation to a minimum while satisfying the request. The other important aspect that the authors discuss is the timing of the request.

The example provided illustrates that the host, Anna, is still standing with the tea in her hand and so is available to pour more tea. Thus, to summarize, non-verbal requests assume that even a mere gesture or non-verbal action is enough to infer a meaning.

To make the analysis more complex and profound, the authors illustrate more complex cases involving more than two participants. However, not all requests are minimal. The second example illustrates family members gathering in kitchen. A guest offers her own son a drink and, following a positive reply, she makes a request to the host. The relation here as compared with the first example is not between requestor and requestee, but between 'requestor and benefactor of the request'. Interestingly, here with only an emphatic head nod, the recipient understands that it is a request. The goal of that conversation is to get the child a drink. As in the first case, in this one as well, the host is available for action after witnessing a conversation between a mother and a son requiring an action.

The third example is more like the first one, comprising two participants only. Lisa takes a teaspoon and her friend, Yana, is about to drink her tea and makes a request for Lisa to pass her a spoon. Lida immediately complies with the request. Thus, the authors leap to a significant conclusion that effective requests can be minimally designed and these can lead to immediate compliance. Moreover, the conversational environment fully supports the causal interaction: the proceeding talk, physical configuration of objects, and the participants' non-verbal communication make these requests fully interpretable.

The authors then move on to address requests with reasons, claiming that reasons make requests more understandable. In cases where the recipient has some trouble complying with the request, the requester can provide a reason for it to make the meaning clearer. The example provided is rather interesting in terms of empirical evidence and its complex nature. The conversation takes place in the kitchen between a mother and her two daughters. Mom is talking to one daughter who is not in the kitchen while she is putting some boiled water on the table for the other daughter. At the same time, the other daughter wants to pour instant coffee in it. Then the girls repeat a conversation over a spoon. With great accuracy, the authors mention the exact line of the confirmation, the request and the repetition. In their analysis, the reason is described as a tentative observation since the first daughter blames the mother for leaving the dirty spoon on the table. As a result the initial request was oriented toward assigning blame. The other part of their analysis involves explaining that the reason was successfully obtained by the mother's 'repair initiation'. Answering the question 'why' is very rare since, as they indicate, the question is not in harmony with common sense. The article presents several more cases of repair initiation, however, none of these directly answers the question 'why?'

An example of when the request contradicts the ongoing action of the participant is subsequently introduced. In this case, the request evokes implications which should be reinforced or rejected. These implications can be related to joking or complaining. The third conversation in this part is of utmost importance as it illustrates how the non-serious character of a request can be conveyed. The request is between school cleaners, one having dinner, the other requesting that one to serve her dinner. Through their interaction, it is clear that one of them is addressing the other in a polite form. It shows that the other woman pretends that there is a status difference between them. The next characteristic of the non-serious nature of a request is that the woman uses the imperfect imperative as opposed to its perfect version. In response here we note just a smile. The authors provide a clear description of the communication between the women by giving clues of how reason is used to make meaning clear.

At the end of this part of the article, the authors sum up their findings for this section: first, by providing a reason for the request, requesters lend specificity to requests; second, when provided, background information concerning the request can also help specify the request. In both cases, providing a reason for the request produces greater compliance.

The authors then proceed to analyze when the reason and the request are made together.

In this case the requesters provide further information concerning the request at the outset in order to avoid complications during communication. Several illustrative examples are provided, and these differ considerably from the minimal requests addressed above. They 'contradict the expectations of the previous sequence or convey delicate requests. Moreover, the requests intervene with the recipients' freedom to act upon their own wishes. The added reasons orient to this potential problem by providing grounds for such an intrusion'.

In addition, another noteworthy example occurs when a reason magnifies a complaint which is conveyed through a request. The case provided begins when friends gather for dinner. One of the guests asks the host to open the window but this request is interrupted by the other guests' conversation. We have a negative evaluation of the guest when the host fails to open the window and the guest states that carrying out the request was the least she could do; in other words, the request was simply for the host to act properly. Instead of reducing its delicacy, the reason provided over-emphasizes it. The usage of special words, such as 'the least', 'such' give extreme emphasis to the communication. The host complies with the request and quickly opens the window. Then one of the other guests explains why the host did not open the window immediately. In fact, 'requesters can supplement their requests with a reason that justifies this invasion and pursue compliance'. This can be followed by complaining, joking or rebuking. Thus, requests can occur together with reasons: if a speaker provides a reason for his request, he avoids misunderstanding or repetition, and the reason is immediately complied with.

The authors further analyze when a reason serves as a pre-request. In this case, Maria is sitting on the bench, obstructing the camera's view of the other woman, Katya, who addresses Maria with this issue. When Maria does not react, Katya makes a request for her to change her position. Maria's compliance is partial as she just shifts slightly on the bench for the benefit of the camera. However, as compared with the above mentioned cases the sequential relation is reversed. In this case, the request is repeated when no immediate response or compliance follows. However as the authors note, Maria cannot be held responsible for not immediately complying with the request. Only when Katya did not receive a response did she repeat her request. The analysis shows that in such cases, when reasons are used as pre-requests, the outcomes are more typical of other types of contexts.

Another interesting aspect of the communication analyzed in the article occurs when the recipient is showing compliance with the request to discover some more information. In this case a reason explains the requested action. Below is described such a case. In the communication the host asks her daughter to bring some more tea for the guests after she finished pouring the tea. The daughter complies with the mother's request, but when she goes to the kitchen a problem arises. The host's request is considered to have two parts: the first is an expectation that the daughter will bring some boiled water; the second expects that the daughter will put some water in the kettle to boil. Later it turns out that these requests have different reasons. Problems arise in communication when the daughter asks for the place of the kettle, then specifies that there is not enough water. The mother responds that not much water is needed, and then repeats her request to put the electric kettle on. We witness another problem when the daughter prepares tea which is 'too strong', and the mother repeats the expression that just a little water is enough. The mother is directly linking her request with a reason with the word because. The authors illustrate that grammatical features also contribute to the link between requests and reasons. However, explicit connectives are not that common, as reason and request are usually very close to each other. Reasons that are usually provided after the response are supposed to address by justifying or clarifying. This section is concluded by claim that after accepting reasons deal with informationally underspecified requests and ancillary actions.

In the 'Discussion and Conclusion' section, the authors sum up their findings and analysis. As they have studied reason in a sequential environment, those were very simple, face- to-face and practical forms of communication. They consider that for practical requests, the requester's ability to perform the requested action is hardly ever a problem. At the same time minimal requests could be maintained and contextualized by ongoing activities. More than one third of the requests that were used in the article had a reason in the sequence. The reasons discussed in the article were in four sequential positions, that highlighted different points at which participants dispose the need for a reason. Those four positions were: (1) reason after a delay; (2) reason with a request; (3) reason as a pre-request; (4) reason provided after acceptance. The authors conclude that despite their positional differences, the reasons had some common features; that is, reasons make the request much more understandable and expand the possibility of compliance with it. Thus, they address the under-specification of requests in three wide domains: social relations; matters of information; and action. Sometimes the context maintains the request only partially, and sometimes context contradicts the request as the latter lacks information about the required action. In such cases, reasons assist in specifying what and how the action should be done. There are also requests that interfere with the recipient's ongoing action. In these cases, the requester justifies this invasion by providing reason for it. In addition, requests can be followed by complaining, joking and rebuking. The authors concluded that despite the fact that in the literature reasons are usually associated to causal connectives like 'because', they saw such a connective in 3 cases, justifying that positioning of the reason is sufficient to relate to the request.

To conclude, reasons assist in providing understanding for requests. Reasons also deal with problematic requests in different ways: they might be informationally underspecified, delicate or potentially harmful for participants' relationships. One of the key points that the authors highlight in the article while using empirical evidence is that the causal connectives are not common, explaining it by the fact that reason and request are very close to each other. This is very significant because it shows a characteristic of the Russian language and how people communicate in everyday casual speech. The other interesting points that the authors claim and later support with empirical evidence is that when a request is allowed by a reason, the recipient is more likely to comply with it. This is very similar to other languages as well, as it is based on psychological and social factors. Providing a reason will solve problems and assist in the interpretation of a request. Moreover, reasons are usually a good source of information. Reasons also mitigate interpretations of a given request and emphasize other ones. In addition, reasons are multifaceted communicative mechanisms while asking for help from others.

After having reviewed in detail the background information concerning requests, the authors offer their findings and conclusions deriving from them. We come across very significant concepts in the discipline of linguistics. This article is significant in its analysis and findings as the sphere of research is rather new and there are many gaps in the current literature. Moreover, the authors carefully selected cases in the Russian language to provide empirical evidence for their research. While evaluating different aspects of communication, the authors sum up each one with their findings. The credibility of the methodological approach lies in its quantitative and qualitative analyses. However, as the nature of the analyses is highly technical, the article might be of interest to linguistics and relevant professionals dealing with it.

There is sufficient data to support the authors' generalizations. They are using specific cases for each of their empirical analyses. The cases chosen by authors are not only good examples of everyday life, but they assist if forming a firm base for further research on the topic. Future studies could be improved by continuing the research and making comparative analyses of the Russian language with some Indo-European languages, by finding the similarities and differences between two languages and trying to find the reason for these differences. The overall contribution that the article makes to the development of research and knowledge in this area is indispensable, as the topic is rather new and there is inadequate literature and research on it.

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