ISSN 2411-7390

jle

# JOURNAL OF LANGUAGE & EDUCATION

Volume 1 Issue 4, 2015

HIGHER SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS
NATIONAL RESEARCH UNIVERSITY

Volume 1, Issue 4, 2015

Journal of Language & Education

## Editorial

Issue 4 of *Journal of Language and Education* presents a wide range of articles covering various topics in linguistics and practices of teaching English.

Agnieszka Dzięcioł-Pędich analyses ministerial and faculty documents that influence ESP teaching in Poland and a number of ESP syllabi for students of economics and management. The article also looks at the nature of foreign language teaching at tertiary level and discusses aims of teaching ESP to students.

The article by Ludmila Kozlova and Nadejda Trubochkina presents two tools developed for two different areas of academic facilities – one for any system of automated transformation or computer-generated synthesis of texts and the other – as a teaching aid for ELT classes. Both tools are designed for a particular area of grammar – reporting rules, and present new ways of operating these rules. The possible areas of application of these approaches are effective linguistic education, automatic synthesis system, and text editing.

The paper by Natalia Lavrova is devoted to a study of semantic and conceptual structure of four emotion states of the thematic field 'romantic relationship': *love*, *lust*, *infatuation*, and *passion*. Her findings suggest that specific conceptual elements and appropriate collocations ought to be taken into consideration both in teaching and compiling dictionaries.

Ekaterina Popkova examines Russian L1 intonation in English, its interference that affects communication in English and leads to misunderstanding. The study emphasizes the importance of intonation teaching in an English classroom.

Natalia Smirnova offers a study of a professional L1 (Russian)/L2 (English) writing experiences among university staff members. The author also provides pedagogical suggestions for non-native speakers' professional writing and the development of critical thinking.

Olga Stognieva considers peer assessment methods as a trigger for a deeper involvement of students in the learning and the assessment process in order to boost their motivation and develop qualities which are relevant for their future professional life. She proposes that peer assessment can be integrated in the teaching-learning process which can lead to an advancement in students' performance.

The article of Ekaterina Talalakina focuses on speech development based on metacognitive knowledge built into L1 (Russian) as a tool for fostering transfer regarding language universals into

L2 (English). The study is based on early childhood education (elementary school level).

Irina Shchemeleva investigates the development of stance-taking strategies in L2 students' academic essays. She presents a case study of integrating academic writing into a content-based course team-taught via teleconference. The article suggests that students' ability to take stance in writing can be developed by integrating relevant materials in an EAP course.

This brief synopsis of the papers constituting Issue 4 of *Journal of Language and Education* demonstrates a diversity of approaches and topics in the areas of linguistics and practices of teaching the English language. We hope our readers will enjoy the selection of articles we have chosen for this issue. We also express our gratitude to a number of scholars who acted as referees and to the colleagues of the School of Design of the NRU HSE for support in preparation of this issue.

**Editor-in-Chief of Issue 4** Elena Velikaya

**Editor of Issue 4** Prithvi Shrestha

**Editor-in-Chief**

Velikaya Elena — National Research University Higher School of Economics, Russia (evelikaya@hse.ru)

**Editorial Board**

Alexandrova Olga — Moscow State University, Russia

Baranovskaya Tatyana — National Research University Higher School of Economics, Russia

Freidina Elena — Moscow State Pedagogical University, Russia

Gillet Andy — Andy Gillet Consulting Ltd, UK

Ginsburgh Victor — Institut d'Etudes Europeennes (IEE) at Universite Libre de Bruxelles (ULB), Belgium

Goumovskaya Galina — Moscow State Pedagogical University, Russia

Hull Toni — Georgetown University, Washington, DC, USA

Krzanowski Mark — Westminster University, UK

Ngoepe Junia — University of Limpopo, South Africa

Nikulina Elena — Moscow State Pedagogical University, Russia

Raitskaya Lilia — Moscow State Institute of International Relations (MGIMO University), Russia

Shadrikov Vladimir — National Research University Higher School of Economics, Russia

Suvorova Galina — Moscow State Pedagogical University, Russia

Solovova Elena — National Research University Higher School of Economics, Russia

Velikaya Elena — National Research University Higher School of Economics, Russia

Voronin Anatoliy — Institute of Psychology, Russia

Weber Shlomo — Southern Methodist University, USA

Shrestha Prithvi — The Open University, United Kingdom

**Editorial team**

Tikhonova Elena — National Research University Higher School of Economics, Russia

Hakobyan Ksenia — National Research University Higher School of Economics, Russia

Beganyan Lilit — University of California, USA

**Editor of Issue**

Shrestha Prithvi

**Website: https://jle.hse.ru**

# Contents

*Articles*

Agnieszka Dzięcioł-Pędich
ESP in Polish Tertiary Language Courses – in Search of Definition 6

Ludmila Kozlova, Nadejda Trubochkina
Graphic and Functional Algorithms of Sequence of Tenses in English Grammar for the Effective Education and Automated Systems of Text Synthesis and Editing 15

Nataliya Lavrova
Semantic and Cognitive Structure of Emotion States Love, Lust, Infatuation, Passion 26

Ekaterina Popkova
The Backyard of EFL Teaching: Issues Behind L1 Prosodic Interference in Russian English 37

Irina Shchemeleva
The Development of Stance-taking Strategies in L2 Students' Academic Essays: the case of a content-based Russian-American Teleconference Course 45

Natalia Smirnova
Successful ESL Writing for Publication: The Role of Writers' Autonomy, Linguistic Competence and L1/L2 Critical Reading Skills 54

Olga Stognieva
Implementing Peer Assessment in a Russian University ESP Classroom 63

Ekaterina Talalakina
Fostering Positive Transfer through Metalinguistic Awareness: A Case for Parallel Instruction of Synonyms in L1 and L2 74

*Reviews*

Maria Volkonskaya
External Influences on English: From its Beginnings to the Renaissance. D. Gary Miller. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2012. 252 pp. ISBN: 9780199654260 81

Notes for contributors 85

National Research University Higher School of Economics
Journal of Language & Education Volume 1, Issue 4, 2015

Dzięcioł-Pędich, A. (2015). ESP in Polish Tertiary Language Courses – in Search of Definition. Journal of Language nd Education, 1(4), 6-14. doi:10.17323/2411-7390-2015-1-4-6-14

# ESP in Polish Tertiary Language Courses – in Search of Definition

**Agnieszka Dzięcioł-Pędich**
School of Foreign Languages, University of Białystok

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Agnieszka Dzięcioł-Pędich, University of Bialystok, ul. M. Skłodowskiej-Curie 14, Białystok, Poland, 15-097. E-mail: lumriel@gmail.com

In the Polish educational system it is mainly institutions of higher education that conduct English for Specific Purpose (ESP) courses, partly because of the regulations of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education, which stipulate that a B.A. graduate should know a foreign language at least at the B2 level of CEFR and its specialized variety.[1] This article presents an analysis of Polish ministerial and faculty documents such as ministerial teaching standards and faculty learning outcomes that influence the teaching of ESP at tertiary level in Poland. It also presents an analysis of ESP syllabi from eight higher education institutions published at Internet websites of faculties of economics and management. The aim of the analysis was to see how ministerial and faculty documents define ESP and what type of ESP students of economics and management learn and what are the main course materials for syllabus design for students of economics, management and their various specializations. All the documents and syllabi were subject to qualitative analysis which showed that neither teaching standards nor faculty learning outcomes provide a clear indication of what language for professional or specific purposes is supposed to be. Furthermore, it showed that while teaching students of economics and management, language teachers reach for business English course books which offer a general set of topics and skills, and use one and the same course books with students of different specialties. This shows that the lack of clear guidelines from the Ministry of Science and Higher Education makes it difficult for teachers to provide ESP courses beyond a certain level of generality.

*Keywords:* ESP syllabi, tertiary education, ministerial and faculty documents, definition of ESP, economics and management

In the 1980s and 1990s the knowledge of foreign languages in Poland was relatively low, so language courses, both in public and private institutions, were aimed mainly at beginner or intermediate students. Advanced courses were attended by a small number of philology or international trade students, as well as some scientists and researchers.

Since the beginning of the 2000s the average level of foreign languages has been increasing. Furthermore, the beginning of the 2000s marks an increase in the number and type of language courses for professional or specific purposes (Komorowska, 2007, p. 251).

In the public sector of education it is mainly institutions of higher education that offer language courses for specific or professional purposes. There are several reasons for this situation. Firstly, institutions of higher education are obliged to follow the regulations of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education, which stipulate that a B.A. graduate is required to know a foreign language at least at the B2 level of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). Additionally, he or she has to know a specialized variety of the language he or she has been learning. The ministerial regulations do not specify what language students will learn, but it seems that English is the most frequently chosen one. Similarly, the level of the specialized variety of the language has not been specified. The second reason why institutions of higher education offer language courses for professional or specific purposes is the fact that an increasing level of knowledge of foreign languages among Polish learners creates solid linguistic foundations on which

[1] The term 'specialized variety of a foreign language' is a literal translation from Polish ministerial documents where it is not defined in any detail (which is one of the problems analyzed in this article).



This article is published under the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

languages for specific purposes can be developed. Thirdly, first-year students had been learning a foreign language for several years. Consequently, higher education institutions offer language courses for specific purposes so as to avoid teaching the same linguistic content for the second or third time. Finally, it seems that B.A. graduates who have good command of a foreign language and additionally know a language for specific or professional purposes are better prepared for the labor market. Nowadays, B.A. graduates find it hard to get a job, which is why they might prefer to pursue studies in a field that is likely to be attractive for future employers. Consequently, those institutions of higher education which better prepare their students for a successful career are more valued by secondary school graduates. All these factors show why language courses for professional or specific purposes are important both for B.A. graduates and institutions for higher education. However, the process of teaching languages for professional or specific purposes at tertiary level in Poland is not easy, since Polish language teachers struggle to choose skills and competences while teaching ESP courses.

## Materials and Methods

Descriptions of general and particular communicative competences for general language courses can be found in CEFR, a document which was meant to be the basis for the development of language syllabi and curriculum guidelines, the design of didactic materials and the assessment of foreign language proficiency.

Had it not been for the Polish ministerial requirements, syllabus and curriculum designers could also refer to the Global Scale of English (GSE) – a standardized, granular scale, the aim of which is to measure language proficiency. GSE can also be used, similarly to CEFR, as a benchmark for the design of language courses and language assessment. The GSE has been psychometrically aligned to CEFR, but it contains an extended number and range of the so-called 'Can Do Statements' originally developed for the purposes of CEFR. However, there are no such documents as CEFR or GSE that could serve as a point of reference for specialized syllabus and curriculum designers. This means that language course providers in Poland have to look for purpose or meaning of language for professional or specific purposes.

Either in professional literature, or to decide themselves how they understand it before choosing skills and competencies to be included in a syllabus.

**Definitions of ESP**

Hutchinson and Waters (1991, p. 19) define English for specific purposes (ESP) as an approach to teaching a language in which every decision concerning the choice of content and method is dictated by learners' reasons for learning. ESP is also thought to be an approach the aim of which is to prepare learners for effective functioning in their target situation (Chabmers 1980; Basturkmen, 2010; Bruce, 2011). Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, pp. 4–5) observe that ESP is designed to meet specific language needs learners bring into the classroom. In their definition of ESP, they use absolute and variable characteristics.

Absolute characteristics:

ESP uses the underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves;

Language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities are the focal point of ESP.

Variable characteristics:

ESP might be related to or designed for specific disciplines;

In specific teaching situations, ESP might make use of a different methodology from that of general English;

ESP is usually designed for adult learners who either study or who already work. In certain contexts, ESP could be designed for secondary school learners;

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p. 6) further argue that ESP can be divided into English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) (see Figure 1).

Thus, English for Management, Finance and Economics belongs to English for Academic Purposes, whereas English for Business Purposes belongs to English for Occupational Purposes. Obviously, the distinction is not clear-cut, as people are likely to work and study at the same time. Hutchinson and Waters (1991, p. 16) stress that language structures meant to be used in a study environment can be used, for instance, when students start working. However, the distinction seems to imply different sets of vocabulary items and language skills. Students learning English for Management, Finance and Economics are more likely to read long (specialized) texts and learn vocabulary that describe general theories and phenomena, that seem to be independent of the workplace. Although these language items have a longer 'shelf-life' than the so-called Business English, they are mostly useful in academic contexts. On the other hand, Business English is strongly context-dependent – much of the vocabulary and phrases used in professional environments belong to a professional jargon specific

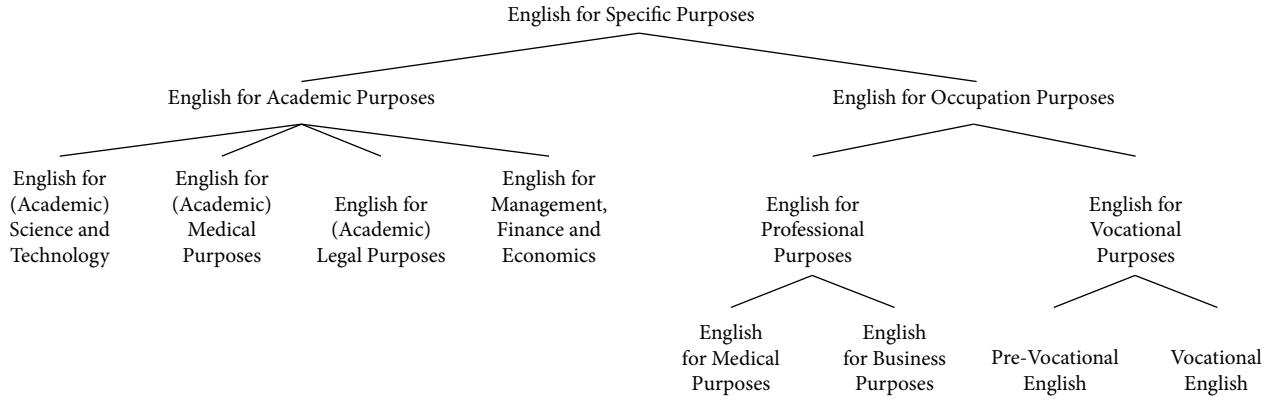



*Figure 1.* Classification of ESP according to Dudley-Evans and St John.

for a given company or profession. As regards writing, students' written discourse has to conform to an academic style imposed by a given institution of higher education, which is not identical to that used in professional contexts.

These definitions of ESP can be found in the literature. The question is how Polish teachers of ESP understand it, especially with regard to Business English (see Table 1).

## Results and Discussion

### As Survey of ESP Courses Taught in Polish Higher Education Institutions

A survey of ESP courses offered in Polish higher education institutions was conducted. Table 1 presents an analysis of the survey of ESP syllabi in public and private institutions of higher education. The choice of the syllabi for analysis was mainly based on availability. In theory universities are obliged to publish their syllabi online, but many fail to do so. The syllabi used for analysis were the ones which could be obtained from publicly available courses. The only higher education institutions that were included in the study were those with the status of a university or technical university. A number of smaller tertiary education institutions exist in Poland and they vary greatly in size and quality of education. Including all of them would go beyond the scope of this study. As it turned out only one of the syllabi obtained for the study came from a private university – University of Business and Administration in Gdynia.

The aim of the analysis was to see what type of ESP students of economics and management learn and what are the main course materials for syllabus design for students of economics, management and their various specializations. It should be stressed that not every faculty where a student can study economics and management and other similar specializations offers ESP courses. Surprisingly, contrary to the content subject, ESP language syllabi are not easy to find on faculty websites.

The analysis of English language syllabi prepared for the needs of tertiary language courses shows that what students learn is not English for Management, Finance and Economics but Business English. If it were otherwise, syllabi analysis would have shown the use of language materials more closely correlated with content subjects. Moreover, the analysis shows that in the majority of cases tertiary language teachers use general Business English course books available on the market as the basis for their course design. In some cases, however, course designers try to use course books, the content of which reflects, at least to a degree, various specializations within economics and management; e.g. University of Science and Technology in Cracow or University of Business and Administration in Gdynia.

The reliance on general English course books seems to suggest that language teachers accept the vision of Business English as understood by course book authors. Business English course books are designed mainly for people who already have some experience of the world of business, although their authors claim that their course books might also be used by students at tertiary level or by people preparing for a career in business. Business English course books are general in nature, i.e. topics seem to represent the areas of widest possible interest to the majority of students and provide a general overview of the world of business. Some of the course books have been developed in cooperation with business newspapers e.g. the *Market Leader* series draws from the *Financial Times* and the *Intelligent Business* series draws from the *Economist* to make the learning content as authentic and up-to-date as possible.

Course books develop four language skills (the greatest emphasis is put on speaking and the least on writing), as well as vocabulary and grammar.

Table 1
*Analysis of course materials in ESP syllabi for students of economics and management*

| Institution of higher education | Faculty | Specialization | Course materials | Length of the course / semester | Level and types of studies |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Technical University of Białystok | Management | Management | **Market Leader Intermediate** D.Cotton ,D. Falvey, S. Kent. Pearson Longman | 120h (1 teaching hours lasts 45 minutes) /2,3,4,5 | B.A. level / daytime studies |
| 2. Technical University of Białystok | Management | Production Management | **Market Leader Intermediate** D.Cotton ,D. Falvey, S. Kent. Pearson Longman | 150h / 2,3,4,5,6 | B.A. level / daytime studies |
| 3. Jagiellonian University | Management and Social Communica-tion | Economics<br>International Economics<br>Finance<br>Banking<br>Insurance | **New English File Upper-Intermediate** C. Oxenden, C. Latham-Koening. OUP<br>**The Business Upper-Intermediate** J. Allison, J. Townend P. Emmerson. Macmillan | 120h / 3,4,5,6 | B.A. level / daytime studies |
| 4. Jagiellonian University | Management and Social Communica-tion | Management<br>Company Management,<br>Personnel Management,<br>International Management | **Business Result Intermediate** J. Hughes, J. Naunton. OUP<br><br>Supplementary course books:<br>**English for Business Studies** I. MacKenzie. CUP<br>**Business Vocabulary in Use** B. Mascull. CUP<br>**Head for Business Intermediate** J. Naunton. OUP<br>**New Insights into Business** G. Tullis, T. Trappe. Pearson Longman<br>**Intelligent Business Intermediate** G. Tullis, T. Trappe. Pearson Longman<br>**Market Leader New Edition** D. Cotton, D. Falvey, S. Kent. Pearson Longman<br>**Business Words** D. Howard-Williams, C. Herd. Macmillan<br>**In Company** M. Powell, S.Clarke. Macmillan<br>**Test Your Business English** J.S. McKellen. Pearson Education | 120h / 3,4,5,6 | B.A. level / daytime studies |
| 5. The John Paul Catholic University of Lublin | Social Sciences | Economics (a specialized language course) | **The Business Pre-Intermediate** J. Allison et al. Macmillan<br>**Business Benchmark Intermediate** N. Whitby. CUP<br>**Market Leader Pre-Intermediate** D. Cotton, D. Falvey, S. Kent. Pearson Longman | 120h /1,2,3,4 | B.A. level/ daytime studies |
| 6. The John Paul Catholic University of Lublin | Social Sciences | Management (a specialized language course) | **The Business Pre-Intermediate** J. Allison et al. Macmillan<br>**Business Benchmark Intermediate** N. Whitby CUP<br>**Market Leader Pre-Intermediate** D. Cotton, D. Falvey, S. Kent. Pearson Longman | 120h / 1,2,3,4 | BA level / daytime studies |

| Institution of higher education | Faculty | Specialization | Course materials | Length of the course / semester | Level and types of studies |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 7. University of Science and Technology (Cracow) | Management | IT in Management,<br>Innovation Management<br>Quality Management,<br>Production Management,<br>Finance Management,<br>Human Resources Management, Company Management,<br>Marketing,<br>Management in Tourism, | **Financial English**. Ian MacKenzie. CUP<br>**Business Vocabulary in Use.** B. Mascull. CUP<br>**English for Business.** K.Luto-Lach, M. Ganczar. Pol-text.<br>**English for Sales and Purchasing.** L.Gutjahr, S.Mahoney. EDU<br>**Business English Management.** M. Warżała-Wojtasiak, W. Wojtasiak. Super memo world<br>**Handbook of Production Management Methods.** G.Halevi. Butterworth-Heineman.<br>**Quality Management: Theory and Application** P. D. Mauch. CRC Press | 30 (from 15 to 30 hours for weekend students depending on the decision of the faculty authorities) / 2 | MA level (daytime and evening studies) |
| 8. University of Business and Administration in Gdynia | Management and Marketing | Management | **The Business** Elementary to Advanced J. Allison et al. Macmillan<br>**Business English Handbook** Pre-intermediate to Avanced P. Emmerson Macmillan<br>**In Company** Upper Intermediate to Advanced M. Powell, S. Clark, P. Sharma Macmillan<br>**Market Leader** Elementary to Upper Intermediate D. Cotton, S. Kent, D. Falvey Macmillan<br>**First Insights into Business** S. Robbins Pearson Longman<br>**New Insights into Business** G. Tuttis, T. Trappe Pearson Longman<br>**Model Business Letters, E-mails & Other Busienss Documents** S. Taylor Pearson Longman<br>**Business Correspondence** L. Lougheed Pearson Longman<br>**Business Basics** D. Grant, R. McLarty OUP<br>**New Headway** Beginner to Upper-intermediate Liz & John Soars OUP | 240h /1,2,3,4,5,6 | B.A. level /day time studies |
| 9. Technical University of Opole | Economics and Management | Management | **Intelligent Business Intermediate** G. Tullis, T. Trappe. Pearson Longman<br>**The Business Intermediate** J. Allison, J. Townend P. Emmerson. Macmillan<br>**Business Vocabulary in Use Advanced** B. Mascull. CUP<br>**In Company** M. Powell, S.Clarke. Macmillan<br>**Market Leader** D.Cotton ,D. Falvey, S. Kent. Pearson Longman | 120h /3,4,5,6 | B.A. level / daytime studies |
| 10. University of Technology and Life Sciences in Bydgoszcz | Management | Management in Administration<br>Management in an organization<br>Management in commerce and services | **Profile 2** J.Nauton, M.Tulip. OUP Janusz Siuda | 120h /3,4,5,6 | B.A. level / daytimes studies |
| 11. University of Szczecin | Management and Economics of Services | Economics<br>Finance and Accountancy<br>Logistics<br>Tourism and Recreation Management | **Market Leader Intermediate** D.Cotton ,D. Falvey, S. Kent. Pearson Longman | 20h / not given | B.A. level / daytimes studies |

As regards speaking, students develop their communication skills usually for use in presentations, meetings, negotiations, telephoning, and social English. Writing tasks aim to reflect correspondence of the business world.

There are usually case studies after each chapter which are based on realistic business problems and which consolidate and recycle what has been learnt. Some course books contain sections devoted to doing business in different cultures which introduce key intercultural concepts and which develop intercultural awareness and skills necessary for effective communication in international professional situations.

Summing up, Business English course books offer a balanced approach to the development of language skills and various (e.g. sociocultural, strategic or intercultural) competencies. However, pre-service students who use such course books might get a distorted picture of the business world. A strong emphasis on speaking creates a false impression that business is mostly conducted orally, while in fact a lot of actual business communication is written. As for speaking, students get the impression that the international world of business speaks only British English with a variety of accents, as no other Englishes are presented in the course books. Speakers' accents seem to be the only linguistic indication that the world of business is "truly international". In the course books, non-native speakers of English use the language the same way as native speakers and yet contemporary organizations are characterized by verbal diversity: employees come from different cultures and possess different language competence levels that enable them to achieve effective communication during business interactions (Ayoko et al., 2004, p. 157). Moreover, communication in course books does not differ across various levels of hierarchy.

## Business English Course Books and Needs Analysis in Tertiary ESP Courses

Despite these flaws, business English course books are widely used in institutions of higher education in Poland. Extensive reliance on course books might suggest that language teachers do not know how to identify ESP needs of their students. One of the reasons might be that language teachers are not trained specialists in economics and management and would rather defer to the expertise of course book authors. The fact that one and the same course book is used with students of various specialties (as is the case, for instance, at the Technical University of Białystok or the John Paul Catholic University of Lublin – see Table 1) might suggest that language teachers do not know their students' academic, linguistic and professional needs. Moreover, the language courses being planned in advance (as in the case of, for instance, the Jagiellonian University – see Table 1), rather than designed anew every year, or even every semester, suggests that teachers may not conduct needs analysis which should be a part of every ESP course.

However, in the context of Polish institutions of higher education such a situation is hardly surprising. Language courses usually start when students are in their first year or second year (see Table 1) – this means that they are pre-service learners who know little about various aspects and branches of economics, management or finances they are studying. People who have never had contact with the world of business might find it difficult to tell what their professional needs might be in the future. Moreover, it is impossible to predict whether the job students find in the future will require them to use English, as this language is still not widely used in the Polish labor market. For that reason, it might happen that students who learn only ESP during language courses acquire skills they will never use when they start their professional career. It is also difficult to predict what English language skills (if any) students are more likely to use in their potential jobs: will they need English for preparing written documents or will they have contact with the general public? Finally, since most students finish their ESP course with their third year of studies (see Table 1), it is at least 2+ years (two years to M.A plus an unpredictable period of job searching) until they have a chance to put those skills into practice, at which point they may have all but forgotten them.

Extensive reliance on course books also seems to suggest that language teachers are not required by faculty or university authorities to design language courses so that they reflect the content of other subjects. Furthermore, it appears that, due to their high workload, English teachers cannot afford to design all course materials and have to rely on course books whether they like them or not.

## Ministerial Documents and Faculty Learning Outcomes

One could argue that, instead of relying on course books, Polish ESP teachers could refer to ministerial documents that shape language courses at the tertiary level. The Polish Ministry of Science and Higher Education developed teaching standards for 108 scholarly areas. These standards set requirement, among others, for obligatory topics which have to be covered when teaching economics, law, history etc. They also stipulate that a B.A. graduate is supposed to know a foreign language and its specialized variety. For instance, teaching standards for information

technology, finance and accountancy, physics, history, or gardening stipulate that a B.A. graduate should be able to use a specialized variety of a foreign language related to the field she/he studied; teaching standards for information and library science, journalism and social communication, or national security stipulate that a B.A. graduate should know a specialized variety of a foreign language necessary for work. These are the only pieces of information concerning languages for professional or specific purposes that can be found in the teaching standards developed by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education. They are very general in nature and are not helpful in defining what a language for professional or specific purposes really is or how it should be taught. Surprisingly, as regards economics, teaching standards stipulate only that a B.A. graduate should know a foreign language at the B2 level of CEFR. Nothing is mentioned about a language for professional or specific purposes. Another document which shapes the didactic process in institutions of higher education is the qualification framework developed by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education, which describes expected learning outcomes for a given field of study. Qualification frameworks show what students know, understand and are able to do on the basis of a given qualification. They also show how the various qualifications interact at the tertiary level and how students can move between qualifications.

Ministerial learning outcomes are the basis for faculty learning outcomes, which are developed by each institution of higher education independently. They describe knowledge, skills and social competences both for content subjects and for foreign languages. For example, learning outcomes for students of economics at the Faculty of Management and Social Communication of the Jagiellonian University (Załącznik, 2012, pp. 1–4) stipulate that as far as foreign languages are concerned a B.A. graduate is able to prepare short, typical written texts (e.g. essays) or presentations on economic events independently of the teacher. He or she is also able to prepare oral presentations concerning both current and hypothetical economic events. Similar learning outcomes for students of economics have been developed by the Faculty of Economics and Management of the Opole University of Technology (Efekty kształcenia…, p. 7). In this case a B.A. graduate is able to prepare written texts in a foreign language concerning economic issues from a theoretical perspective using a variety of sources. He or she is able to prepare oral presentations in a foreign language concerning economic issues from a theoretical perspective using a variety of sources. The Faculty of Economics of the University of Gdańsk (Efekty kształcenia.., p. 4) also has very similar learning outcomes for students of economics. According to these outcomes a B.A. graduate is able to prepare written texts typical of the field of economics, which are devoted to specific issues and which demonstrate awareness of basic economic theories and the skills of gathering, describing and interpreting data and drawing conclusions from specialist literature. He or she is also able to prepare oral presentations typical for the field of economics which are devoted to specific issues and which demonstrate awareness of basic economic theories and the skills of gathering, describing and interpreting data and drawing conclusions from specialist literature.

Other examples of learning outcomes as developed by faculties are as follows:

- a B.A. graduate is able to use basic economic terminology in a foreign language – the Jagiellonian University, the Faculty of Management and Social Communication (Załącznik, 2012, pp. 1–4)
- a B.A. graduate is able to prepare typical written texts and oral presentations devoted to contemporary problems of economics and management in Polish and in a foreign language on the basis of academic literature and journalistic texts without violating copyrights – the School of Computer Science and Economics in Cracow (Projekt efektów kształcenia.., p. 4)
- a B.A. graduate is able to prepare typical written texts and oral presentations devoted to contemporary problems of economics and management in Polish and in a foreign language and is able to use specialized vocabulary from the field of management in a foreign language – the School of Computer Science and Economics in Cracow (Projekt efektów kształcenia.., p. 4)
- a B.A. graduate is able to prepare written texts and oral presentations in a foreign language (English) at B2 level in a way that is characteristic for business practices – the Nicolaus Copernicus University, Faculty of Economic Sciences and Management (Załącznik, 2012, p. 2)
- a B.A. graduate is able to use a foreign language in the field of Economic Sciences at B2 level – the Nicolaus Copernicus University, Faculty of Economic Sciences and Management (Załącznik, 2012, p. 2)

The skills described in these faculty learning outcomes are basically the same. The more detailed the descriptions of learning outcomes, the greater the emphasis on students being able to use these skills in academic rather than professional contexts. Interestingly, students are often expected to have the same skills in a foreign language and their mother tongue. Such an aim is relatively easy to achieve for Polish, because this is more or less what students do for three years in more theoretically-oriented content subjects. The question is how to reach this goal when

Table 2
*Basic similarities and differences in faculty learning outcomes concerning foreign languages*

| Similarities | Differences |
|---|---|
| – B.A. graduates should be able to prepare written texts or oral presentations characteristic for a given specialization in a foreign language concerning economic or management issues from a theoretical perspective using a variety of sources, among other journalistic texts<br>– B.A. graduates should have a knowledge of specialized terminology from the field of economics or management<br>– B.A. graduates know how to describe problems of contemporary economics or management in a foreign language<br>– B.A. graduates should be able to use specialist literature in a foreign language | – B.A. graduates should be able to work independently of their teachers<br>– B.A. graduates should not violate copyrights<br>– B.A. graduates should demonstrate the skills of gathering, describing and interpreting data and drawing conclusions<br>– B.A. graduate is able to use a foreign language at B2 level<br>– B.A. graduate should be able to describe hypothetical economic events in a foreign language |

it comes to foreign languages in view of the fact that Business English language syllabi are frequently developed on the basis of commercial course books, which develop skills intended to be used in professional settings.

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p. 5) stipulate that in certain contexts ESP might make use of a different methodology from that of general English, which means that, depending on their needs, students might concentrate only on developing, for instance, reading skills. Similarly, Strevens (1988, p. 2) observes that ESP 'may be restricted to the learning skills to be learned (e.g. reading only)'. However, there seems to be no reason to assume, as the authors of the learning outcomes appear to be doing, that students will predominantly use speaking and writing skills. This may be due to the fact that, as it was mentioned before, the learning outcomes list the same productive skills in Polish and in English. However, this seems to ignore the obvious fact that students' mastery of basic receptive and productive skills in their mother tongue greatly surpasses their mastery of the same skills in English. Therefore, the productive skills listed as learning outcomes measuring students' grasp of content subjects fail as a measure of the student's mastery of a foreign language, even in the context of ESP. Learning outcomes for a foreign language, be it general purpose or ESP must include productive and receptive skills, although the degree to which they should be developed may vary depending on the context. However, any teacher attempting to extrapolate the purpose of ESP from these learning outcomes will be led to false conclusions, which are artifacts of the way in which learning outcomes are created, rather than the effect of concern for the actual purpose of ESP. This seems to suggest that ESP teachers are not consulted when faculty learning outcomes are drafted.

Teaching standards developed by the Polish Ministry of Science and Higher Education require B.A. graduates to know a foreign language at the B2 level of CEFR and to know a specialized variety of the foreign language, but they do not clearly state what the level of this specialized variety should be. One might assume that it should also be B2, but it is unclear whether this system even applies to languages for professional or specific purposes and at the same time no analogues frameworks for languages for professional or specific purposes exist. One clue can be found in some faulty learning outcomes, which state that a B.A. graduate should know basic specialized terminology. This is consistent with the scope of the course, which usually lasts only 120 teaching hours (up to 240) and is offered to students with no previous knowledge of ESP. It is unclear to what extent the simple phrase "basic economic vocabulary" reflects the actual complexity of ESP. Neither do such phrases as basic economic terminology, management terminology, finance terminology adequately reflect the complexities of the learning content of various specialties available to students of economics, management or finance and accounting.

## Conclusion

ESP teachers are obliged by various ministerial and faculty requirements to teach students a language for professional or specific purposes. However, neither teaching standards nor faculty learning outcomes seem to provide a clear indication of what this language for professional or specific purposes is supposed to be. Consequently, language teachers reach for course books which offer a general set of topics and skills and use one and the same course books with students of different specialties e.g. within the field of economics or management (see Table 1). On the one hand, since various specialties have different content subjects and graduates are likely to work in different jobs they should similarly have different content of ESP. However, considering the relatively basic level of ESP that can be introduced within these courses, it is uncertain

whether this is in fact possible or practical. The range of vocabulary and skills within these narrower branches of ESP might actually be very similar at this level. One should also remember that learning any one type of ESP will probably improve students' ability to learn whatever types of ESP they might need in the future. Therefore, it is worth considering whether it might not be beneficial to abandon teaching business English as presented by the course books in favor of academic English for economics, management and finance, which has the added benefit of allowing students to actually use these skills immediately, for example while writing their B.A. theses. All this goes back to the essential question of whether the point of teaching English at tertiary level is to prepare students to use English in their future professional career, to use English for the purpose of their studies and education or to simply improve upon whatever mastery of general English they gained in their secondary school.

## References


Ayoko, O., Härtel, C., Fisher, G., & Fujimoto, Y. (2004). Communicative competence in cross-cultural business interactions. In D. Tourish & O. Hargie (Eds.), *Key Issues in Organizational Communication* (pp. 157–171). London, UK: Routledge.

Basturkmen, H. (2010). *Developing courses in English for specific purposes*. Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Bruce, I. (2011). *Theory and concepts of English for academic purposes*. Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Chambers, F. (1980). A re-evaluation of needs analysis. *The ESP Journal*, *1*, 25–33.

Dudley-Evans, T., & St John, M. J. (1998). *Developments in English for specific purposes. A multi-disciplinary approach*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

*Efekty kształcenia dla kierunku ekonomia I-go stopnia* [Learning outcomes for the first-degree in economics]. (2015). Opole University of Technology, Opole. Poland. Retrieved from http://weiz.po.opole.pl/download/sylabusy/eko1/efekty_eko1.pdf

*Efekty kształcenia na wydziale ekonomicznym uniwersytetu Gdańskiego studia pierwszego stopnia – profil ogólnoakademicki, studia drugiego stopnia – profil ogólnoakademicki* [The effects of education at the faculty of economics of the university of Gdansk first-cycle studies - general-school profile, second-cycle studies - general-school profile]. (2015). University of Gdańsk, Poland. Retrieved from https://ekonom.ug.edu.pl/web/download.php?OpenFile=812

Hutchinson, T., & Waters, A. (1991). *English for specific purposes. A learning-centred approach*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Komorowska, H. (2007). *Metodyka nauczania języków obcych w Polsce (1957–2007). 50 lat czasopisma 'Języki obce w szkole". Z wyborem tekstów z lat 1957–2007* [Methodology of teaching foreign languages in Poland (1957-2007). 50 years of 'Foreign languages in school' magazine. With the selection of texts from 1957-2007]. Warszawa, Poland: Centralny Ośrodek Doskonalenia Nauczycieli.

*Projekt efektów kształcenia dla kierunku zarządzanie studia I stopnia* [Project of learning outcomes for the direction of management of the first degree program]. (2015). School of Computer Science and Economics, Warsaw, Poland. Retrieved from http://www.wsei.edu.pl/files/images/aktualnosci/Efekty%20kszta%C5%82cenia%20kierunek%20zarz%C4%85dzanie.pdf

Strevens, P. (1988). ESP after twenty years: A re-appraisal. In M. Tickoo (Ed.), *ESP: State of the art* (pp. 1–13). Singapore, Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Centre.

*Załącznik nr 2 do zarządzenia nr 12 rektora UJ. Opis zakładanych efektów kształcenia w odniesieniu do efektów kształcenia dla obszaru/obszarów* [Appendix #2 to the ordinance #12 to the rector of the Jagiellonian university. Description of the assumed learning outcomes in relation to learning outcomes for the region/area]. (2012, February). Jagiellonian University, Kraków, Poland. Retrieved from http://www.econ.uj.edu.pl/documents/1090224/e2a05a58-2520-4e6d-861a-4a7ba15c7c15

*Załącznik nr 8.1. do uchwały nr32 Senatu. Efekty kształcenia dla kierunku i ich relacje z efektami kształcenia dla obszarów kształcenia* [Attachment 8.1. to resolution #32 of the Senate. Effects of education for the direction and their relation with learning outcomes for education areas]. (2012, April). Nicolaus Copernicus University, Toruń, Poland. Retrieved from http://www.econ.umk.pl/_upload/download/efekty/ekonomia_I.pdf

Kozlova, L., & Trubochkina, N. (2015). Graphic and Functional Algorithms of Sequence of Tenses in English Grammar for the Effective Education and Automated Systems of Text Synthesis and Editing. *Journal of Language and Education, 1*(4), 15-25. doi:10.17323/2411-7390-2015-1-4-15-25

# Graphic and Functional Algorithms of Sequence of Tenses in English Grammar for the Effective Education and Automated Systems of Text Synthesis and Editing

**Ludmila Kozlova**
National Research University Higher School of Economics

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Ludmila Kozlova , National Research University Higher School of Economics, Kirpichnaya, 33, Moscow, Russian Federation, 105187. E-mail: lkozlova@hse.ru

**Nadejda Trubochkina**
National Research University Higher School of Economics

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Nadejda Trubochkina, National Research University Higher School of Economics, Tallinskaya, 34, Moscow, Russian Federation, 123458. E-mail: ntrubochkina@hse.ru

The article describes the optimal graphic language of presenting and studying English grammar using information technology. Among the studies on the use of graphics in teaching a foreign language, there are mostly descriptions of static objects. The authors propose to use a universal graphic language for describing processes. The authors suggest theoretical foundations of visualization of the English grammar rules using time-sequential conversion scale in the sequence of tenses transformation. The research question is the method of archiving knowledge of English grammar to simplify and speed up the memorization and to increase the volume of information memorized. To achieve this goal, the authors used a graphic algorithmization of the English grammar and visualization of grammar rules, as well as the comparative monitoring of the knowledge gained. As part of research, a series of experiments on the visualization of the rules of sequence of tenses were conducted in student groups. The research showed that a simple language of symbols facilitates and accelerates the memorization of English grammar. Systematic tabulation of grammar rules, where each verb tense gets its finished graphic image, becomes easy to understand and quick to memorize. The application of the presented approach is the following: effective linguistic education, local and global automatic synthesis system and text editing.

*Keywords:* visualization, optimal graphic language, interdisciplinary study, information technology, English grammar, essentially temporal processes

Visualization is a tool to represent regularities or patterns. It uses human visual system as an additional subsystem to a system of data mining, for example, perceived by a person in the study of any language. People begin to think of using another tool that is eyes. This approach (i.e., visualization) seems to be effective in various spheres of human activity: from programming in intelligent systems to learning a foreign language. Working on the English grammar, learners of all age have difficulties when studying some of its sections. For example, the conversion of a direct speech into an indirect one and the sequence of tenses, related to this, present great difficulties. The process of memorizing and gaining skills of specific



This article is published under the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

rules and practical application takes considerable time. In this article the previous research (Kozlova, Trubockina, 2014, pp. 223–232) is continued to develop schemes (images) that are easily absorbed by the human memory, because of its conciseness and imagery.

## Materials and Methods

The technique of presenting grammar material is very traditional in Russian methodical and scientific literature as well as in English (Capel, 2012, pp. 112–119; Cotton, 2010, pp. 154–155; Hastings, 2010, pp. 202–204; Kay, 2007, pp. 68–87, and others). In various textbooks issued by British publishers a consistent presentation of complex grammar rules is used. Besides, it is burdened by many nuances that are additional difficulties for students. This applies to the learning-aids, for example, special tables and graphs in this research for practical learning of English.

Higher School of Economics researchers develop and study various techniques in the field of English linguistics and effectiveness of teaching English (Velikaya, 2014, pp. 25–30). Their research also contributed to the study in question. After analyzing different methods of teaching the English grammar in the studies mentioned above, a very interesting and, in our opinion, the best way to learn English through the introduction of information technologies in linguistics is offered, i.e. visualization of English grammar rules and presentation of the most difficult sections with graphic algorithms. It should be noted that the graphic algorithms have been used for recording texts since ancient times.

### Graphic Languages of Communication

The first mention of a graphic language dates back to about 3200 BC (Sumerians in Mesopotamia). The Sumerians used the drawings – the words, the so-called pictograms (Dyakonov, 1990, pp. 3–685). That was also when the symbolic language of words-images appeared in China (Kondrashevskiy, 1998, p. 9). In the language there was a simple image of conventional notions of «horse, fish, sun, water, fire, rain, etc. » as the original semantic basis for each character in most cases. In the course of time, the image was transformed into hieroglyphic symbols. Word-pictures also turned into a special kind of writing – cuneiforms (Istoriya pisma, 2002, p. 23). The icons were used by Egyptians (3000 BC.). In the Egyptian hieroglyphic writing system words, sounds and letters are denoted by symbols (Petrovskiy, 1958, pp. 52–53). The Aztecs' writing icons depicted numbers: points were used for the numbers from 1 to 19, a flag – for the number of 20, a pen – for 400, a bag full of beans – for the number of 8000 (Talah, 2013, pp. 39–42). The semantic concepts of «who», «what» and «how much» were typical of graphic languages of communication in which there were very few signs of connections, actions and sequences.

### Visual Programming Languages

In addition to the visual (graphic) languages of communication, there are visual programming languages, in which the relationships between objects, actions, and their sequences are involved in the description processes, together with the objects on an equal footing (Johnston, 2004, p. 7). Visual programming languages appeared in the 20th century as an adjunct to the visualization of conventional programming languages. In 1984, Jaron Lanier published an article about a visual programming language (Jaron Lanier, http://www.well.com/user/jaron), which was followed by the birth of several visual programming languages, such as:

- «Dragon (Friendly Russian algorithmic language that provides visibility)» used in the rocket and space technology, which can be attributed to the language of diagrams or flowcharts (Zenkin, 1991, pp. 96–113);
- The basic elements of the language are states (shown by rectangles), which perform certain actions and transitions from state to state (lines). For each transition, a logical condition for the transition to the next step is assigned;
- «LD (Ladder Diagram)» – a graphic language for programming ladder diagrams (Parr, 2007, p. 34);
- «FBD (Function Block Diagram)» – graphic language to describe the functional block diagrams (Petrov, 2004, pp. 19–21, 48–64);
- «CFC (Continuous Flow Chart)» – graphic language created for the design of control systems with continuous technological processes;
- «LabVIEW» – a graphic language for programming working with non-PC devices (http://www.labview.ru/, 2015);
- «VisSim» – a graphic language for modeling dynamic systems and designing systems based on models with built-in microprocessors (Darnell, 1996, p. 14);
- «Scratch» – a visual object-oriented educational environment for students (Super Scratch Programming Adventure! Learn to Program, 2012, pp. 5–160);

### Visualization of Sound (Music) Information

There is very little information of the ancient notations. It is assumed that in ancient Babylon they used pictographic record; in Ancient Egypt syllable record was used (Brokgauz, Efron, 1890–1907). The first records of musical notation are ancient Greek

ones. They are the samples of the Letter notation. Liturgical monophony was recorded in neumes (IX c.), which did not specify the exact height and duration of sounds, but only a rough plan of melody directions. By the beginning of the XI century neumes were written on (horizontal) lines and between them. "Linear" modification allowed to register the pitch, but still did not determine rhythmic durations of the sound. Based on graphs of square notation the so-called modal (from Lat. Modus, i.e. measure) notation, the first in the history of rhythm, was developed at the end of the XII century. Modal notation was replaced by Mensural one that accurately determined not only the pitch intervals but also rhythmic duration. Prior to 1450 «black notation» (i.e. notes head painted in black) was used. Later «white notation» was gradually introduced, in which the heads of notes of long duration were not painted. In the second half of the XX century composers began to use a number of specific forms of records to reflect special effects of the sound – the sound masses, vibrato, and so forth. The modern five-line beat notation is the most common form of writing music today. One of the main elements of music notation is a line, in fact, the time-scale on which all other graphical elements are placed. So familiar to us musical notation is a music record in a kind of graphic language, where not only symbols (notes), but also the time-frequency rhythmic character of playing is taken into account (Dubinets, 1999, p. 23; Bershadskaya, 1988, p. 32). To describe a complex section of English grammar – the sequence of tenses, the advantage of the approach also based on the timeline was taken (see Tables 1–3).

## Research Context

This work is originated at the lessons of English grammar. It was performed at the junction of Information Technologies, English linguistics and methodology of education.

In 2013–2015 the Department of Foreign Languages at the NRU Higher School of Economics conducted an experiment to introduce methods of teaching English using the visualization of the English grammar rules. Within 2 years, a comparative monitoring of teaching English was carried out. All the students took the test before they were taught grammar with the help of the new visual tool and a similar test after that. The monitoring results are presented in Tables 1–3. The monitoring of research was carried out in 2013–2014 (302 students) and in 2014–2015 (310 students).

## Gradual and Parallel Perception of Information

People perceive information differently. At first, reading the rules of the English grammar, one reads a page of text sequentially word by word to better understand the meaning. It can take several minutes (sequential data input). Every time it is necessary to put this knowledge into practice, people read this information in their minds again. The more practice, the faster playback, but still the process remains very slow. Therefore, the traditional method of learning English can be optimized with respect to time while maintaining the quality. Easily formalized text rules should be easily replaced by pictures. If the pictures are binary (computer counting system, the text in a symbolic language), not only the human brain will perceive them faster. But the maximum possible formalization of the language on the computer will be possible. One of the main developers of this language Neil Fraser believes that the main purpose of it is "an attempt to climb to a higher level of abstraction, to deny programming caste and secrecy, to make it more natural and accessible to the widest possible range of people" (https://neil.fraser.name/news/2012/01/24/). The amount of information to store and playback is significantly less than that of textual information, where a block can be a letter, a number, a symbol or a text. So the time to understand and remember texts in a formal visual language is reduced significantly. In mathematical logic and computer science a formal language is a set of finite words in a finite alphabet. And if it is possible to reduce the number of symbols in the alphabet without loss of understanding of the transmitted information you can get acceleration of information perception in a computer as well as ease of understanding and remembering of information by a person.

## Research Methods

The authors suggested theoretical foundations of visualization of the English grammar rules using time-sequential conversion scale in the sequence of tenses transformation. The authors used a graphic algorithmization of the English grammar and visualization of grammar rules as a method of archiving knowledge to intensify teaching English. At the end of the research the comparative monitoring of the knowledge gained was conducted.

## Sequence of Tenses Visualization

Graphics based on the algorithm of the sequence of tenses have a clock-time model, shown in the following graph:

Horizontal lines in the timelines A and B correspond to the verb tenses (past, present and future).

Solid vertical lines delimit beat cycles in which there are initial ($f_i$, i = 1, ... n1) and transformed ($p_i$, i = 1 ... n2) linguistic forms. Inside tact cycles there are subbeats of initial ($t_i$, i = 1 ... n3) and transformed

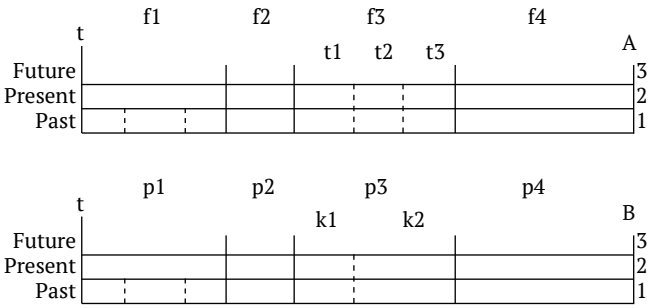



*Figure 1.* Basis of graphics algorithms of tenses of English grammar.

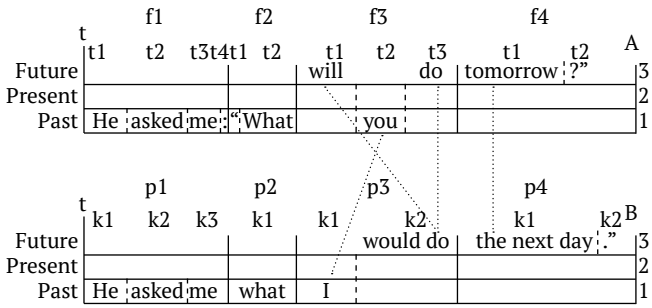



*Figure 2.* Example of graphic algorithms of sequence of tenses in English grammar.

($k_i$, i = 1 ... n4) cycles. Vertical dashed lines delimit subbeats. The initial sentence is placed on the timeline A, and the transformed one – on the timeline B.

The transformation of linguistic forms can be considered through the following example.

The original sentence:

A. He asked me: “What will you do tomorrow?” (1)

According to the rules of sequence of tenses, the transformed sentence will be as follows:

B. He asked me what I would do the next day (2)

When converting a direct speech into the reported one (retelling of direct speech) if the main clause is in the past tense, the following changes occur:

- the verb tense in the subordinate clause changes (in accordance with the rules of the sequence of tenses: Future Simple into Future-in-the-Past);
- the word order is direct (as in declarative sentence);
- pronouns change accordingly within the meaning of the utterance.

These sentences are placed on the timeline A and B (Fig. 2) and the conversion is analyzed.

The first beat of the transformed sentences p1, containing three subbeats differs from the first beat of the original sentence in lack of text constant “:” in the fourth subbeat (t4) of the first beat in the original sentence. The conversion of the first beat may be functionally represented as f1 (T1, t2, t3, t4) → p1v (T1, v t2v, t3). The subbeat, beginning with a capital letter, corresponds to the word with a capital letter. The third and fourth beats vary according to the rule: f3 f4 → p3 p4.

## The Models of Information Transformation. The Example of Converting Direct Speech into Reported Speech

In addition to standard text and sound patterns for the language study which explain the transformation of direct speech into reported one there are three more models of transformation related to applications of information technologies in linguistics. They are the following:

1. Graphic model (visual – the drawing of actions) (Fig. 2);
2. The mathematical model (Fig. 3);
3. The algorithmic model (different types of recording) (Fig. 4).

### *Graphic Model*

Graphic model, in fact, is a graphical representation of the mathematical and algorithmic models. However, unlike the latter, it is performed (memorized) not sequentially, analyzing each element of the model (cells in two tables of the mathematical model and algorithm blocks in the diagrams), but in parallel, i.e. immediately.

To understand the difference between gradual and parallel perception it is necessary to compare it with the gradual and parallel reception of information in computers.

For sequential administration, the information of one cell in the matrix is memorized at a time. The larger is the size of the information matrix, the more time is required for its memorizing and processing.

In parallel reception, the information from all the cells of the matrix is memorized at a time, regardless of its size.

For the second beat functional transformation is described as f2 («“»T2) → p2 (t2). The conversion algorithm of the third beat is as follows: f3 (t1, t2, t3) → p3 (k1, k2), where k1m = t2m-1, which means that the first subbeat of the transformed sentence has got a transformed linguistic form from the second subbeat of the third beat in the original sentence. The pronoun “you” becomes “I”. Forming a second subbeat the third beat occurs according to the following algorithm: k2 = t1vF-1→t3. This means that the new linguistic form in the second subbeat will be built from the converted first subbeat of original form and the linguistic form of the third subbeat. The algorithm t1vF-1 means that the auxiliary verb (v) in the future tense (F) will have a lower temporary rating, e.g., “will” is converted to “would” (Future-in-the-Past). The fourth beat is also a subject to change.

| A | | Timeline | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Past | Present | Future |
| f1 | t1 | He | | |
| | t2 | asked | | |
| | t3 | me | | |
| | t4 | : | | |
| f2 | t1 | “ | | |
| | t2 | What | | |
| f3 | t1 | | | will |
| | t2 | you | | |
| | t3 | | | do |
| f4 | t1 | | | tomorrow |
| | t2 | | | ?” |

→

| B | | Timeline | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Past | Present | Future |
| f1 | k1 | He | | |
| | k2 | asked | | |
| | k3 | me | | |
| | k4 | | | |
| f2 | k1 | | | |
| | k2 | | what | |
| f3 | k1 | | I | |
| | k2 | | | would |
| | k3 | | | do |
| f4 | k1 | | | the next day |
| | k2 | | | . |

*Figure 3.* Mathematical model of transformation of direct speech into indirect.

The adverbial modifier of time “tomorrow” in the first subbeat is replaced by an analogue (a) “the next day”, i.e., f4 (t1) → p4 (t1) a. Punctuation marks also change at the end of sentences (“?” → “.”). Thus, functional graphic recording of the algorithm (a compressed algorithm for computing transformation) for this example is as follows:

f1(T1,t2,t3,t4) f2(t1,T2) f3(t1,t2,t3) f4(t1) “?” →

p1(T1,t2,t3) p2(t2) p3($t2_{m^{-1}}$, $t1_{vF^{-1}}$&t3) p4(t1)a “.”

It should be noted that if the functional listing is a compressed general algorithm for computer editing systems, a graphical algorithm is an effective teaching aid in the study of the English language, because all rules are remembered “at a glance”.

*Mathematical Model*

The mathematical model of conversion of English direct speech into reported one can be considered as transformation of matrix A into matrix B (Fig. 3).

The tables show that it is not necessary to form a completely new matrix of reported speech. It is created from the matrix of direct speech changing the information in some cells according to the model. So only 5 of 33 cells of the matrix are changed. This is a very good efficacy in the formation of a new information image.

*Algorithmic Model (Algorithm Diagram)*

The algorithmic model (sequential) is shown in Figure 4. It is simple enough to write a script (conversion program) according to the model. Since the algorithmic model is written according to the mathematical one (using the language of algorithm diagrams), the formation of a new information image (reported speech based on direct speech) has the same efficiency as that of the mathematical model, i.e. (33–5) / 33 * 100% = 71.9%.

The efficiency (resource saving) is considered the percentage of the amount of unused iterations to the total number of iterations in the formation of an information image.

Since the subject of this article is a new method of teaching English using graphic models, mathematical and algorithmic models will not be further presented.

## Graphic Algorithms of Sequence of English Verb Tenses and Their Functional Listing

The reported speech in the English grammar is closely related to the sequence of tenses.

If the main clause has a verb in the Present tense, no change occurs.

*He says he will do it tomorrow (Future Simple).*
*He says that we read a lot (Present Simple).*
*He says he is trying to learn this (Present Continuous).*
*He says he has just met them (Present Perfect).*
*He says he met her yesterday (Past Simple).*
*He says he has been working here since childhood (Present Perfect Continuous).*

If the verb in the main clause is in the Past Simple or Past Continuous, then there are the following changes:

*He said they would come later.*
*He said he liked cats.*
*He said he was reading the book.*
*He said he had met Peter two days before.*
*He said he had been working there since childhood.*
In other words, this is as follows:

Future-in-the-Past
Past Simple—Past Simple, Past Continuous
Past Perfect; Past Perfect Continuous

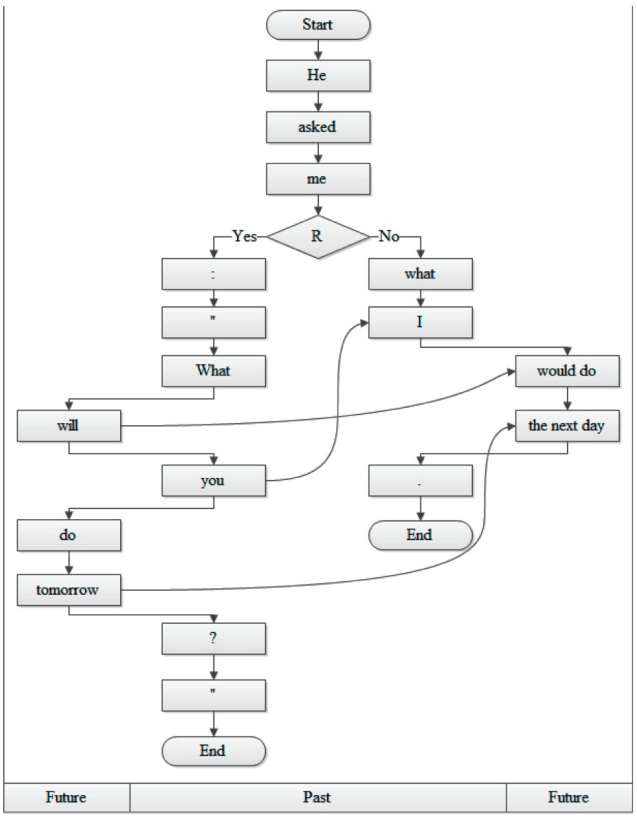



*Figure 4.* Algorithmic model (algorithm diagram) of direct speech conversion into reported speech.

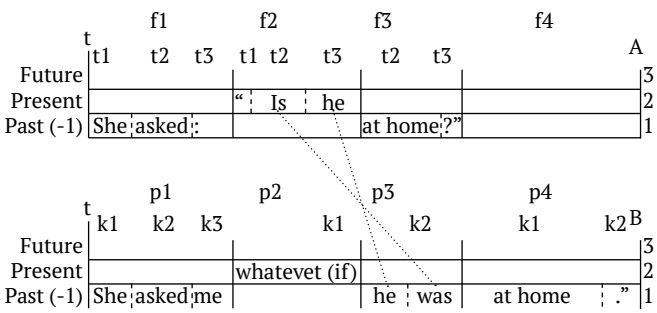



*Figure 5.* The graphic algorithm of sequence of English verb tenses in general questions.

Thus, the verb tense in the subordinate clause is amended as follows:

Future Simple — becomes Future-in-the-Past
Present Simple — Past Simple
Present Continuous — Past Continuous
Present Perfect Continuous — Past Perfect Continuous
Past Simple — Past Perfect
Conditionals — do not change.

In interrogative sentences some changes occur:
1-verb tense;
2-pronoun;
3-adverbial modifier of time;
4-adverbial modifier of place;
5-word order.

In general questions a subordinate clause is introduced by auxiliary words "if" or "whether" (Fig. 5).

A. She asked: "Is he at home?"
B. She asked me whether (if) he was at home.

Based on the above rules functional listing of graphic algorithm (compressed algorithm for computer transformation of general questions) would be as follows:

f1(T1,t2, ":") f2 f3(t1,t2,t3) f4 →
p1(T1,t2, "me") p2("whether|if") p3(k1=f2(t3) k2= f2(t2vb-1,) p4(k1=f3(t1) "."

where:
– "me", "whether or if", "." – Inserted linguistic constants;
– t1vb-1 – verb (vb) – the Present tense converted to the Past tense.

In special questions: see 5 and figure 2.

In imperative sentences a subordinate clause is introduced with the help of the Infinitive (positive or negative).

1. Positive infinitive (Fig. 6).
A. She told me: "Go to the kitchen."
B. She asked me to go to the kitchen.

The algorithm for computer transformation of an imperative sentence would be as follows:

f1 (T1, t2, t3, ":") f2 («"», T2, t3) f3 (".") →
p1 (T1, t2M, t3) p2 ("to"f2(t2),t3)) p3=f3

where ":", "." "", "", "to" are text constants;
t2M is upgraded linguistic form (transformation of "told" into "asked," ...).

2. Negative infinitive (Fig. 7).
A. Bob said: «Don't be late! »
B. Bob asked me not to be late.

The algorithm for computer transformation of an imperative sentence would be as follows:

f1(T1,t2,«:») f2 («"»,T2,t3) f3 (t1) f4=«."» →
p1(t1, t2M, «me») p2(«not», «to») p3=f3 p4=«.»

– «:», «"», «"»,«."» «to», «me», «not» are text constants;
– t2M is upgraded linguistic form (transformation of "said" into "asked," ...).

### Practical Application

The areas of practical application of the proposed approach are:

for functional algorithms:

- intelligent Internet (automated editing of English texts);
- automatic local systems of text editing;

for graphic algorithms:

- effective linguistic education.

## Results and Discussion

### Comparison of Basic and Graphic Language Methods of Teaching English

Table 1 shows the overall results in monitoring, where the quality of teaching (K) is determined by the number of excellent and good ratings of the test participants (marks 10 – 6) in relation to the total number of tested students before and after the introduction of the new technique:

$$K = \frac{\sum_{i=6}^{10} Ni}{N},$$

where Ni – is the number of marks equal to I score, N – total number of participants. Table 1 shows the overall results of the comparative monitoring in 2013–2015: 2013–2014 – basic course (BC); 2014 – 2015 – basic course using graphic language to explain the rules of English grammar (GL). Overall monitoring results are also given in Figure 8.

Table 1 presents the results of monitoring of two streams of students. In the first stream (302 students) a basic grammar course was taught, but in the second stream (310 students) a basic course with the use of graphic language was taught.

Analyzing the graphs, students and lectures can conclude about improving the quality of teaching English at the expense of increasing the excellent and good grades (the range of 10 to 7 points).

There was a second study of the analysis of changes in marks in the test with the introduction of graphic techniques in different groups of students included:

1. Students managers.
2. Students logistic managers.
3. Lecturers – students in the Center of Professional Advancement (CPC).
4. Free listeners (small groups).

Table 2 shows the results of the monitoring of the same students, but divided into professional (managers, logistitic managers, lectures students, free listeners) and time-groups (2013–2014, 2014–2015).

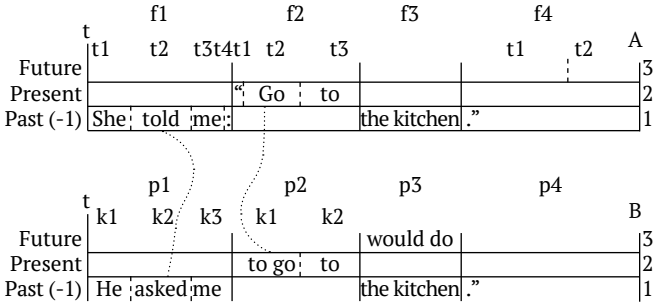



*Figure 6.* Graphic algorithm of sequence of verb tenses in the imperative sentence (Positive infinitive).

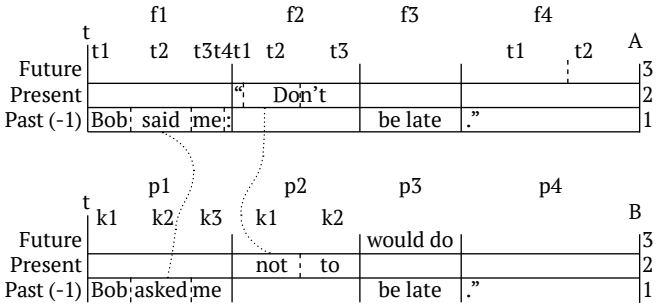



*Figure 7.* Graphic algorithm of sequence of verb tenses in the imperative sentence (Negative infinitive).

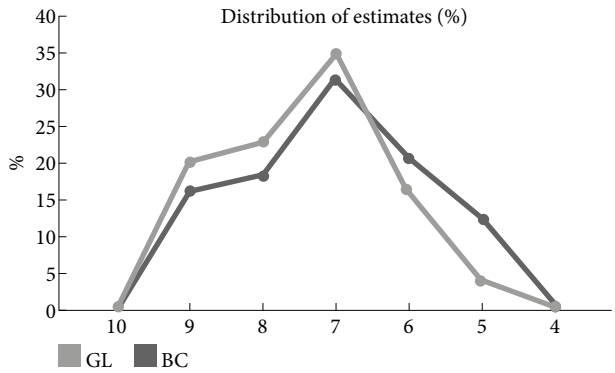



*Figure 8.* Total distribution of scores in percentage: BC – basic course GL – using graphic language. The horizontal axis 10 – 10 points, 9 – 9 points, etc.

Table 2, as well as Table 1, presents the improved results of the English grammar studying. The managers group (Figure 9) increased the relative number of scores 7 and 8. The logistics managers group (Figure 11) showed the same result. In groups of lectures (Figure 10), the trend was the same trend, but the scores increeased to 8 and 9.

Figures 9 to 12 pool information on the results of graphics algorithms and visualization rules introduction in sequence of English tenses teaching.

From the graphs in Figures 9–12 it can be a trend of general studies – an increase of excellent and good ratings (range 10–7 points), which manifests itself in different degrees in different groups of students.

Table 1
*Overall monitoring results in 2013–2015*

| | **Variables** | **Basic course (BC)** | | **Graphic Language (GL)** | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Total students tested** | N | 302 | | 310 | |
| Evaluation of students' tests | | | | | |
| | | Amount | % | Amount | % |
| Excellent (10) | N10 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0,3226 |
| Excellent (9) | N9 | 47 | 15,563 | 64 | 20,645 |
| Excellent (8 ) | N8 | 51 | 16,887 | 69 | 22,258 |
| Good (7 ) | N7 | 101 | 33,444 | 110 | 35,484 |
| Good (6 ) | N6 | 63 | 20,861 | 53 | 17,097 |
| Satisfactory (5) | N5 | 37 | 12,252 | 11 | 3,5484 |

Table 2
*Comparative analysis of the quality of English in methods of teaching English with the use of graphic language in different groups of students*

| | | N – number of students / number of marks: N4 – number of good and excellent marks (4–9)…N10 – number of excellent marks (10) | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | N | N4 | N5 | N6 | N7 | N8 | N9 | N10 |
| BC | Students managers 2013–2014 | 120 | 11 | 17 | 28 | 34 | 14 | 16 | 0 |
| | | 100% | 9,17 | 14,17 | 23,33 | 28,33 | 11,67 | 13,33 | 0,00 |
| GL | Students managers 2014–2015 | 128 | 8 | 15 | 22 | 42 | 18 | 23 | 0 |
| | | 100% | 6,25 | 11,72 | 17,19 | 32,81 | 14,06 | 17,97 | 0,00 |
| BC | Students logistic managers 2013–2014 | 105 | 8 | 12 | 24 | 42 | 9 | 10 | 0 |
| | | 100% | 7,62 | 11,43 | 22,86 | 40,00 | 8,57 | 9,52 | 0,00 |
| GL | Students logistic managers 2014–2015 | 109 | 6 | 11 | 15 | 48 | 15 | 13 | 1 |
| | | 100% | 5,50 | 10,09 | 13,76 | 44,04 | 13,76 | 11,93 | 0,92 |
| BC | Lecturers – students in the Center of Professional Advancement 2013–2014 | 49 | 6 | 10 | 8 | 10 | 8 | 7 | 0 |
| | | 100% | 12,24 | 20,41 | 16,33 | 20,41 | 16,33 | 14,29 | 0,00 |
| GL | Lecturers – students in the Center of Professional Advancement 2014–2015 | 53 | 3 | 5 | 7 | 18 | 11 | 9 | 0 |
| | | 100% | 5,66 | 9,43 | 13,21 | 33,96 | 20,75 | 16,98 | 0,00 |
| BC | Free listeners 2013–2014 | 28 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 13 | 12 | 0 |
| | | 100% | 0,00 | 0,00 | 3,57 | 7,14 | 46,43 | 42,86 | 0,00 |
| GL | Free listeners 2014–2015 | 20 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 9 | 9 | 1 |
| | | 100% | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 45 | 45 | 5 |

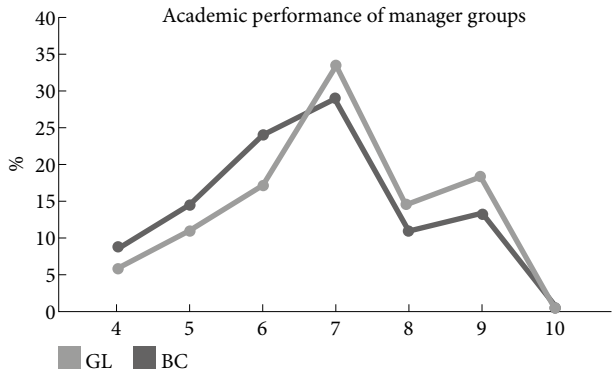



*Figure 9*. The distribution of scores (from 4 to 10 points) in groups of students-managers using basic techniques (BC) and a technique using the graphic language (GL).

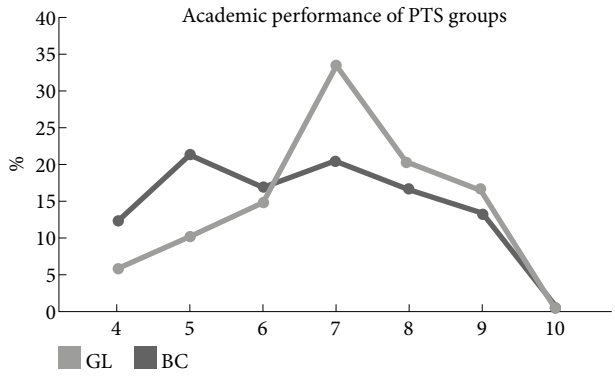



*Figure 10*. The distribution of scores (from 4 to 10 points) in groups of students logistic managers using basic techniques (BC) and a technique using the graphic language (GL).

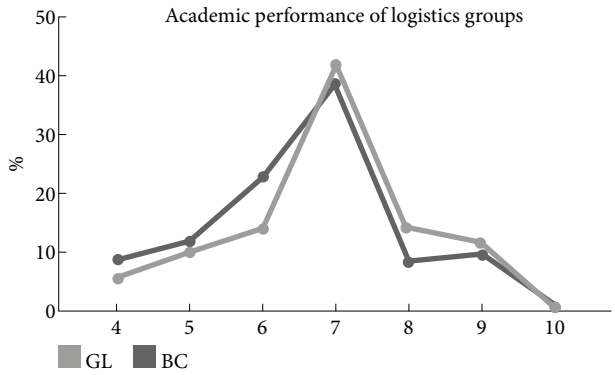



*Figure 11*. Distribution of ratings (from 4 to 10 points) in the group of lecturers – students in the Center of Professional Advancement using basic techniques (BC) and methods of using the graphic language (GL).

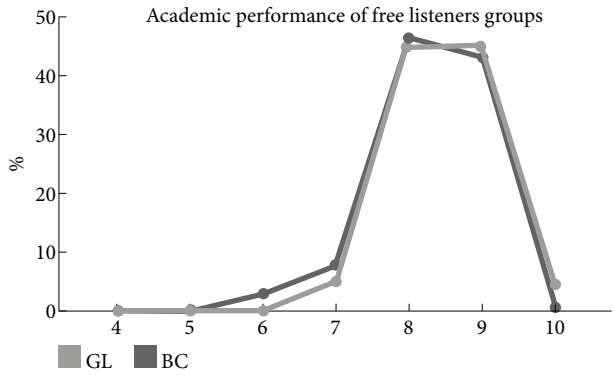



*Figure 12*. Distribution of ratings (from 4 to 10 points) in groups of free listeners using basic methods (BC) and a technique using the graphic language (GL).

An integrated assessment of quality indicators improvement (increased number of evaluations in the range of 7–10 points) for different types of students is presented in Table 3.

Figure 13 shows an integrated assessment the quality improvement in teaching English with the introduction of new techniques for different types of audiences.

Based on these graphs, the following conclusions can be drawn:

With the introduction of the graphic language, visualizing the rules of English grammar, the number of excellent and good ratings in the range of 7–10 points increased by an average of 3% in all types of groups:

1. groups of HSE students managers – by 2,88%;
2. groups of HSE students logistic managers – by 3,14%;
3. groups of HSE lecturers – students in the Center of Professional Advancement – by 5,2%;
4. groups of free listeners (small groups) – by 0,89%.

The results of the research show the effectiveness of the proposed methods of teaching and the relevance of the proposed new graphic language of English grammar.

## Conclusion

Thus, we can say that such a system of visualization of rules in English grammar has several obvious advantages:

- the human brain memorizes the image much more readily and quickly than a sequence of statements that explain the meaning of the rules;
- the process of understanding is simplified, thanks to a schematic representation;
- memorizing speeds up;

Table 3
*Integrated assessment of quality indicators improvement Q for different types of audiences*

| | I type of students | II type of students | III type of students | IV type of students |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Students managers 2014–2015 | Students logistic managers 2014–2015 | lecturers – students in the Center of Professional Advancement 2014–2015 | Free listeners 2014–2015 |
| Q | 2,88% | 3,14% | 5,20% | 0,89% |
| BP | 53,33% | 58,10% | 51,02% | 96,43% |
| GL | 64,84% | 70,64% | 71,70% | 100% |

– the time spent on mastering grammar material reduces in general;
– motivation increases;
– it becomes possible to quickly and efficiently learn the greater volume of grammar.

It should be noted that the synthesis of new thought patterns in the grammar is a sign of intellectual information technologies.

The method of studying English grammar has been designed using information technology. The time formation visualization of English has been developed and systematized and is presented in a tabular form. The theoretical foundations of English grammar rules visualization using time-sequential scales for conversion in the sentences (in case of sequence of tenses) are presented.

The developed method of studying the English grammar for students was tested in a group of the Intermediate level. It showed high efficiency of storing large amounts of information.

System of graphic algorithms can be used as:

- teaching aids for English classes;

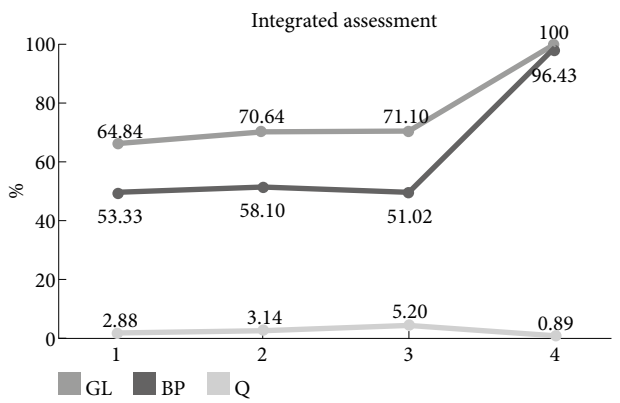



*Figure 13.* Integrated assessment of improvement of quality indicators Q in teaching English with the introduction of a new technique that uses the proposed graphic language for different types of audiences.

- an intermediate form for the transition to a very compact binary formalization for automated computer translation.

Based on the developed theory, the algorithms, formalized in the functional sequence are worked out. They are essentially logical records of algorithms for automated translation, synthesis and editing of English texts.

The technique with the introduction of a graphical language of English grammar learning was tested at the National Research University Higher School of Economics in 4 types of groups of students, on the samples of 302 and 310 students in 2013–2015. The technique showed its high efficiency in all types of groups, as evidenced by the results of monitoring.

## References

Bershadskaya, T. S. (1984). *Kurs teorii muzyiki* [The course of music theory]. Leningrad, USSR: M*uzyika.*

Bress, T. (2013). *Effective LabVIEW programming*. New York, NY: NTS Press.

Brokgauz, F. A., & Efron, I. A. (1890–1907). *Entsiklopedicheskiy slovar* [Thesaurus]. Retrieved from: http://www.infoliolib.info/sprav/brokgaus/

Capel, A., & Sharp, W. (2012). *Objective proficiency*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Cotton, D., Falvey, D., & Kent, S. (2010). *Language leader*: *Student's book.* Harlow, UK: Pearson.

Darnell, K. (1996). *Visual simulation with student VisSim*. Boston, MA: PWS Pub. Co.

Dubinets, E. A. (1999). *Znaki zvukov. O sovremennoy muzyikalnoy notatsii* [Signs of sounds. Modern musical notation]. Kiev, Ukraine: Gamaun.

Dyakonov, I. M. (1990). *Shumerskiy yazyik. Lingvisticheskiy entsiklopedicheskiy slovar* [Sumerian language. Linguistic thesaurus]. Moscow, USSR: Sovetskaya entsiklopediya.

Fraser, N. (2012). *Graphical languages*. Retrieved from https://neil.fraser.name/news/2012/01/24/https://

neil.fraser.name/news/2012/01/24/

Hastings, B., Umninska, M., & Chandler, D. (2010). *Longman exam activator*. Harlow, UK: Pearson.

*Istoriya pisma: Evolyutsiya pismennosti ot drevnego Egipta do nashih dney* [Writing history: Encyclopedia of writing from ancient Egypt to the present day]. (2002). Moscow, Russia: Eksmo.

Johnston, W. M., Hanna, J. R. P., & Millar, R. J. (2004). Advances in dataflow programming languages (PDF). *ACM Computing Surveys (CSUR)*, *36*(1), 1–34.

Kay, S., & Jones, V. (2007). *Inside out*: *Student's book.* Oxford, UK: MacMillan.

Kerr, F., & Jones, C. (2010). *Straightforward*: *Student's book.* Oxford, UK: MacMillan.

Kondrashevskiy, A. F. (1998). *Posobie po ieroglifike (pril. k uchebniku «Prakticheskiy kurs kitayskogo yazyika»)* [Workbook on hieroglyphics, application to the textbook "Practical course of Chinese language"]. Moscow, Russia: Muravey.

Kozlova, L. A., & Trubochkina, N. K. (2014). Optimal graphic language of the English grammar. In *Innovative information technologies. Part 1: Innovative information technologies in education* (pp. 223-232). Moscow, Russia: HSE.

Kozlova, L. A., & Trubochkina, N. K. (2014). Informacionnye tehnologii v anglijskoj lingvistike – Vizualizaciâ pravil grammatiki [Information technology in English – Imaging of grammar rules]. *Informacionnye Tehnologii*, *215*(7), 42–49.

Murphy, R. (2010). *English grammar in use*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Parr, E. (2007). *Programmiruemyie kontrolleryi: Rukovodstvo dlya inzhenera* [Programming controllers: Guidance for an engineer]. Moscow, Russia: BINOM. Laboratoriya znaniy.

Petrov, I. V. (2004). *Programmiruemyie kontrolleryi. Standartnyie yazyiki i priemyi prikladnogo proektirovaniya* [Programming controllers. Standard languages and techniques of applied design]. Moscow, Russia: SOLON-Press.

Petrovskiy, N. S. (1958). *Egipetskiy yazyik. Vvedenie v ieroglifiku, leksiku i ocherk grammatiki sredneegipetskogo yazyika* [Egyptian language. Introduction to hieroglyphics, vocabulary and essay on mid-Egyptian language]. Leningrad, USSR: LGU.

Project, L. (2012). *Super scratch programming adventure! Learn to program*. San Francisco, CA: No Starch Press.

Swan, M. (2009). *Practical English usage*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Talah, V. N., & Kuprienko, S. A. (2013). *Amerika pervonachalnaya. Istochniki po istorii mayya, naua (astekov) i inkov* [Original America. Sources on the history of the Maya, Aztecs and Incas]. Kiev, Ukraine: Vidavets KuprIEnko S.A.

Thompson, A. J., & Martinet, A. V. (2010). *A practical English grammar*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Yule, G. (2012). *Oxford practice grammar*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Velikaya, E. V. (2014). How to make teaching and assessment in ESP more efficient: Suggestions from university experience. *Professional and Academic English*, *44*, 25–30.

Volkova, I. A., & Rudenko, T. V. (1999). *Formalnye grammatiki i jasyki* [Formal grammar and languages]. Moscow, Russia: Moscow State University.

Zenkin, A. A. (1991). *Kognitivnaya kompyuternaya grafika* [Cognitive computer graphics]. Moscow, USSR: Nauka.

National Research University Higher School of Economics
Journal of Language & Education Volume 1, Issue 4, 2015

Lavrova, N. (2015). Semantic and Cognitive Structure of Emotion States Love, Lust, Infatuation, Passion. Journal of Language and Education, 1(4), 26-36. doi:10.17323/2411-7390-2015-1-4-26-36

# Semantic and Cognitive Structure of Emotion States *Love*, *Lust*, *Infatuation*, *Passion*

**Nataliya Lavrova**
Moscow State Pedagogical University

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Nataliya Lavrova, Moscow State Pedagogical University, Russia, 88 prospekt Vernadskogo, Moscow, Russia, 119571.
E-mail: lavruscha@gmail.com

Conceptualization of emotions, especially those which are neither universal nor elementary, is a contested area of cognitive linguistic research. The present paper investigated the semantic and conceptual structure of four emotion states of the thematic field 'romantic relationship': *love*, *lust*, *infatuation*, and *passion*. The specific questions asked in the paper are as follows. First, what are the similarities and dissimilarities between these emotion states? Second, in what way does the conceptualization presented in dictionaries depart from conceptualization that emerges through corpus investigation? Finally, which of the conceptual metaphors posited for emotion concepts by G. Lakoff and M. Johnson are most entrenched in the collective and individual consciousness of speakers of English? To answer these questions, the advantages of four methods were tapped into: introspection, definitional analysis, a native speaker survey and corpus study. Findings reveal that dictionary definitions of *love*, *lust*, *infatuation*, and *passion* offer an impoverished, if credible, insight into the conceptual structure of these emotions. Results are suggestive of some specific conceptual elements which should be taken account of in a classroom setting by language instructors and L2 learners and indicate which appropriate collocations are to be taken heed of by dictionary compilers.

*Keywords:* emotions, conceptual metaphor, semantic structure, corpus research

Emotions are complex human experiences that have aroused much interdisciplinary interest and debate, so much so that towards the end of the 20th century the term 'emotionology' emerged as referring to a set of beliefs, scenarios and cognitive models for understanding and expressing emotions. As Blount put it back in 1984, 'the past decade has witnessed … an efflorescence of interest in emotions' (Blount, 1984, p. 130). At the beginning of the new millennium, a flurry of scientific interest in feelings and emotions is gathering momentum, which is evidenced in recent publications on the subject of various emotion states (see below). This interest can be explained by the fact that 'the modern European concept of *love* is particularly important and that the emergence of this concept in Western folk philosophy constitutes a significant stage in the development of human ideas and human values' (Wierzbicka, 1992, p. 146). While much has been written on the putatively fundamental and universal emotion states – such as *interest*, *joy*, *surprise*, *sadness*, *anger*, *disgust*, *contempt*, *fear* (Ekman, 1980; Ungerer & Schmid, 2006; Lakoff & Johnson, 2003; Kövesces, 2006, etc.) as well as on love due to its cognitive salience and emotional significance to individuals world over, what has been off the radar of scientific research is a comparative analysis of love and some other – neither universal nor basic emotion states – such as *passion*, *infatuation*, *lust*. While *passion* and *infatuation* have been touched upon at least tangentially (Kövesces, 2006; Vukoja, 2014), lust has, to all intents and purposes, been neglected, because the issue has frequently been considered sensitive and unworthy of becoming the subject matter of serious investigation.

The following font conventions are used throughout the paper: italics are employed whenever the conceptual content of emotion states *per se* is the subject of investigation; single quotes are used



This article is published under the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

Table 1
*Metaphorical conceptualization of love and linguistic attestations*

| | |
|---|---|
| love is a journey | Look how far we've come. We are at a crossroads. It's been a long, bumpy road. |
| love is a physical force | I could feel the electricity between us. They gravitated to each other immediately. They lost their momentum. |
| love is a patient | They have a strong, healthy marriage. Their marriage is on the mend. It's a tired affair. |
| love is magic | She cast her spell over me. The magic is gone. I'm charmed by her. |
| love is war | She fought for him, but his mistress won out. He is slowly gaining ground with her. She is besieged by suitors. |
| love is a container | He has fallen in/out of love. Your love is empty. |
| love is a disease (madness) | I'm crazy about her. He's gone mad over her. She drives me out of my mind. |

when referring to the words that give access to this conceptual content; the unmarked usage indicates that emotion states themselves are the focus of analysis. The terms 'emotion', 'emotion state' and 'feeling' are used interchangeably, as it is outside the purview of the present paper to differentiate between these terms.

## Materials and Methods

### Literature Review

In his 1971 monograph *Love and hate: on the natural history of basic behaviour patterns*, Eibl-Eibesfeldt defines love as a general, emotional and personal bond between two or more people or 'the bond arising from identification with a particular group' (Eibl-Eibesfeldt, 1971, p. 6). One of the first fundamental cross-cultural investigations of various emotions and feelings was undertaken by Wierzbicka (1992). Although approximately two-thirds of the author's seminal work is devoted to emotions across cultures, *passion*, *lust* and *infatuation* are bypassed, while *love* is given a rather modest, though accurate and revealing treatment. According to Wierzbicka, who uses universal meta-language in explicating the semantic and conceptual structure of love, it can be glossed as follows:

*X is thinking of person Y*
*X feels something good toward Y*
*X wants to do something good for Y*

What immediately catches the eye is that in Wierzbicka's explication love is considered through the lens of what people feel, think, and how they behave. That is, the author does not make any direct or indirect claims as regards the conceptual structure of *love simpliciter*. This seems only natural, given the ethnopsychological and anthropological slant of Wierzbicka's monograph.

The primary aim of Wierzbicka's analysis is to compare the concept of English *love* with its putative equivalents in other languages, such as Ifaluk, Hawaiian, Tahitian and Samoan. The conclusion the author comes to is that, first, the concepts are only partially contiguous, but not identical and, second, that translating the concept of *love* into other languages presents greater or lesser difficulties, because something always remains backstage; hence, translation equivalence is, to all intents and purposes, unattainable.

A detailed explication of the conceptual structure of *love* is attested by Lakoff and Johnson (2003) in *Metaphors we live by*. By ascribing metaphor the status of a universal cognitive mechanism and by analyzing an extensive body of language data, the authors come up with a list of source domains in terms of which the concept of *love* (the target concept) is arguably structured. This list includes the following domains: **journey, physical force, patient, magic, war, container, disease (madness). Table 1** sums up metaphorical conceptualization of love and explicates linguistic attestations (examples) that are reflective of each conceptualization. All the conceptual metaphors for *love* as well as the examples thereof are Lakoff and Johnson's.

What seems odd and detracts from the credibility of the authors' claims is that in the majority of the attested examples the word 'love' rarely surfaces, which casts a shadow of doubt onto whether it is, in fact, the concept of *love* that is being explicated, and not some other concept, such as *passion*, *infatuation* or even *lust*. Many of the examples supplied for the love is a patient metaphor explicitly mention the

concept of *marriage*. The majority of the examples posited for the conceptual metaphors *love is war* and *love is a disease* can theoretically be explications of *passion* and *infatuation*. To get round this problem, while drawing examples from the corpus, only those stretches of discourse were analyzed that explicitly mention the concepts under investigation. Another problematic aspect with Lakoff and Johnson's analysis is that no sources of their sample or sample frame are mentioned: one can only speculate whether the examples were invented by the authors themselves relying on their linguistic intuition, whether any corpora or other sources of data were tapped into.

Ungerer and Schmid (2006) suggest analyzing emotion concepts such as *anger*, *fear*, *passion* and *lust* as scenarios. According to the authors, in comparison with the rest of the emotions (lust, passion and infatuation), love surpasses them all in terms of the sheer number of conceptual metaphors, two of the most salient of which are *love is a nutrient* and *love is magic*. Since many of the conceptual metaphors posited for *love* are shared with the concept of *joy*, it could tentatively be suggested that the notion of *joy* could be regarded as a semantico-cognitive component of *love*, although Ungerer and Schmid do not explicitly make this claim.

A number of other works have investigated different emotion states (e.g., Apresjan, 1997; Bamberg, 1997; Panasenko, 2012; Vukoja, 2014; Baider & Cislau, 2014). However, no work has been undertaken as regards a comparative analysis of the concepts *love*, *lust*, *infatuation*, and *passion* using an integrative approach and the advantages of the proposed methods. It is hoped that the findings of the research may not only add to the semantic and cognitive data amassed about the chosen emotion states, but that they might also help individuals to more clearly differentiate between these emotions and to decide which of the emotion states they prefer to be guided by.

## Methodology and Data Collection Tools

All in all, the study comprises four steps, each of which contributes to the understating of the emotion states under investigation. The first step in the analytical procedure was to supply an intuitive insight into the semantics of *love*, *lust*, *infatuation* and *passion*. This was done using the two different types of introspection – native-speaker and non-native speaker. The non-native-speaker intuition was explored relying on the present author's both intensive and extensive reading on these emotion concepts in the multiple reference sources mentioned at the end of the article as well as in numerous literary texts which either directly or implicitly touch upon these notions. With a view to canvassing native-speaker judgment, a questionnaire was devised in which all the emotion states are presented for analysis using some of the basic ontological criteria suggested by the scholars Whitehead (1917), Russel (1961) and Davidson (2005). These are the following criteria: duration, extension, intensity, spirituality, complexity, mutual compatibility, and intension. According to the above authors, any emotion state can be analyzed applying these criteria. The questionnaire was presented to a female native speaker affiliated with one of the colleges in Oxford, UK. The questionnaire (see Table 2) was sent to her via email with explicit instructions to fill in each of the six sections by putting an x into a pertinent column with the exception of sections 1 and 6. Section 1 is an open-ended question to which a short phrase or a word is required. Question 6 asks the respondent to connect those states which seem to be compatible; however, the speaker chose to type in a full answer, as this seems to be clearer. Although the total number of intuitive judgments does not seem to be extensive, according to Seliverstova (1988), the specific feature of linguistic intuitive judgment is that it is typically enough to work with one or two respondents with a degree in philology, which compensates for the possible inaccuracy of judgment of an average native speaker who may not be versed in philological matters.

Given that the aim of the present paper is to supply an all-round understanding of the semantic and cognitive structure of love and other emotions orthogonally connected with it, it goes without saying that lexicographical data cannot be bypassed in the procedure. To this end, one of the leading dictionaries on modern English was targeted – The Merriam-Webster Dictionary, which contains both linguistic and extralinguistic information. Other dictionaries were also consulted, such as the Macmillan Dictionary of English and the Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture. However, for lack of space, the present paper explicitly focuses on only one dictionary, given that the data from other dictionaries are convergent. Apart from that, the Merriam-Webster dictionary is based on an extensive corpus of naturally occurring data with a slight bias towards spoken speech. This lexicographical bias can be regarded as a blessing rather than a curse, since spoken language is a better reflection of subconscious, default and therefore most natural conceptualization of phenomena.

The final stage in the methodological procedure was the corpus research, for which the British National Corpus was selected. The advantages of corpus research cannot be overestimated, as 'corpus counts are objective and quantifiable, and computers are well suited to fast and accurate counting' (Schmitt, 2010, p. 67). In selecting the examples, the statistical method of **systematic sampling** was made use of – every tenth example was selected for the final sample. This ensures the credibility and objectivity of the final sample. To make the data

valid, the words *love* and *lust* were manually annotated for their lexico-grammatical category so that only nouns got selected for the final sample, since the other two emotion states are expressed by words belonging to the 'noun' category. The words *love* and *lust* have been annotated manually for the following two reasons: first, theoretically, only the nouns *love* and *lust* can be confused with their homophonic verbs and adjectives by virtue of coinciding in form. Second, it has been proved that automatic annotation does not always effectively differentiate between the various meanings of one and the same word, as a result of which confusion arises: thus, 'love' in the meaning of 'no points in tennis' does not have a bearing on the discussed emotion states, and yet it is given back by the BNC in response to the lemma *love* in the meaning of 'romantic relationship', possibly, because context does not make it 100 percent clear that it is tennis that is being discoursed about.

Both the questionnaire and the corpus analysis count as the experimental part of the research, which serve to check and either validate or disprove the more introspective part of the research comprised by the respondents' analysis and the definitional method.

The main **research question** is what specific source domains are conceptually borrowed by speakers of English in order to make sense of the more abstract target domains dealing with the chosen emotion states. The **hypothesis** of the research was that although the common denominator of *love*, *lust*, *infatuation*, and *passion* is that they are all conceptualized as containers, their 'behaviour' *within* a container is different, which is crucial to explicate in order to paint a more accurate picture of their conceptual nature.

The results of the analysis are statistically processed and finally presented in the table and graph format, which contain the following data: the most salient attributes in terms of which the emotion states tend to be conceptualized (Tables 3 to 6), the more concrete source domains subconsciously relied on by native speakers in order to make sense of the more abstract and intangible target domains (Fig. 1), the degree of entrenchment of each emotion (Fig. 2), and the container-like visualization of each emotion based on the obtained data (Fig. 3).

## Results and Discussion

### Introspective Data

The following questionnaire was given to the native speaker to complete.

The native-speaker intuition substantiated the non-native speaker insights. According to the informant, love is the most enduring state, with passion and lust following closely: lust, however, can be a momentary affair, unlike passion, which endures for at least a couple of days. Because passion is a facile feeling, its duration does not extend beyond the limit of a few months. In terms of intensity, two extremes can clearly be distinguished – with lust and passion tilting to the very intense end of the scale, and love and infatuation spanning the 5-to-10 scalar intensity. However, all the states can overlap in their intensity, which is manifest in the shared intensity space running from 8 to 10. In terms of complexity, love is the most complex feeling, with lust and passion being the simplest, and infatuation spanning the 3-to-5 scalar points. Passion and infatuation, however, overlap in point 3 on the scale, which means that they are both rather superficial feelings.

In terms of spirituality, love and lust share the *mind* and *body* parameters, with love affecting one more entity – spirit, which is in sync with love's complex and immaterial nature. As regards the words' extension, the informant believes that all the states can affect people; love and lust can also extend to animals. This extension, however, should be construed differently in each case: whereas love – when it affects animals – makes them more human-like and humane, as it were, lust – when it grips a human being – makes them more animal-like.

The mutual compatibility parameter has revealed that all the four states are inter-compatible – something that was not immediately apparent from the rest of the sources, which elicited converging evidence that lust is in stark contrast to the other states.

### Definitional Analysis

Conflating and juxtaposing data on *love*, *lust*, *infatuation*, and *passion* from the Merriam-Webster Dictionary, the following findings have been obtained.

Of all the meanings of *love*, the most relevant for the present analysis are the meaning of strong affection for another arising out of kinship or personal ties; attraction based on sexual desire; affection based on admiration, benevolence, or common interests; warm attachment, enthusiasm and unselfish loyal and benevolent concern for the good of another. The list of synonyms provided at the end of the dictionary entry reveals that *passion* is the pseudo-synonym of *love*, which is quite far removed from it, though. The etymology of the word *love* (Latin *lubēre*, *libēre* 'to please') shows that at the present stage of its semantic structure the meanings of its lexico-semantic variants are compatible with the semantic motivation of *love* and with the intuitive analysis provided at the beginning of the article.

For *passion*, of relevance are lexico-semantic variants that encompass the meaning of suffering; the state or capacity of being acted on by external agents or forces; an intense, driving, overmastering feeling or conviction; ardent affection; a strong liking or desire

Table 2
*Native-speaker contribution to the semantico-cognitive analysis of the emotion states love, lust, infatuation, passion*

| | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1. Duration | | | | | | | | |
| | For approximately how long can the state potentially last? | | | | | | | | |
| love | lifelong | | | | | | | | |
| lust | from a few moments to years | | | | | | | | |
| infatuation | days to months | | | | | | | | |
| passion | days to years | | | | | | | | |
| | 2. Intensity | | | | | | | | |
| | How intense is the state? Mark on a scale 1–10 | | | | | | | | |
| | not intense | | | | | | | | |
| love | | | | | | | | | |
| lust | | | | | | | | | |
| infatuation | | | | | | | | | |
| passion | | | | | | | | | |
| | 3. Complexity | | | | | | | | |
| | How complex is the state? Mark on a scale 1–10 | | | | | | | | |
| | simple | | | | | | | very complex | |
| love | | | | | | | | | x |
| lust | x | | | | | | | | |
| infatuation | | | x | x | x | | | | |
| passion | x | x | x | | | | | | |
| | 3. Complexity | | | | | | | | |
| | How complex is the state? Mark on a scale 1–10 | | | | | | | | |
| | simple | | | | | | | | |
| love | | | | | | | | | |
| lust | x | | | | | | | | |
| infatuation | | | x | x | x | | | | |
| passion | x | x | x | | | | | | |
| | 4. Spirituality | | | | | | | | |
| | Which does it tend to affect more? | | | | | | | | |
| | Mind | Body | Soul | Heart | other (please specify) | | | | |
| love | x | x | | | spirit | | | | |
| lust | x | x | x | x | | | | | |
| infatuation | x | | | | | | | | |
| passion | | | x | | | | | | |
| | 5. Extention | | | | | | | | |
| | What sort of entities does it affect? | | | | | | | | |
| | Body | Soul | Heart | other (please specify) | | | | | |
| love | x | x | | | | | | | |
| lust | x | x | | | | | | | |
| infatuation | x | | | | | | | | |

for or devotion to some activity, object, or concept. Of relevance are also three semantic features: *suffering*, *external agents or forces* and the ontological category of *emotions* it belongs to. The *suffering* component reveals that passion is not wholesome to individuals who are possessed by it: it creates spiritual or physical turmoil. This seems to be consonant with the non-native speaker intuition spelt out above. The fact that it is caused by external forces shows that an individual is not responsible for both the presence of passion and its repercussions: unlike love, passion is hard to control and it is unlikely to be volitionally cultivated by an individual, which is possible in the case of love.

All the meanings of *lust* and all the lexico-semantic variants seem to be of relevance. The quotation from W. Shakespeare – 'love comforteth, like sunshine after rain, but lust's effect is tempest after sun' – suggests that *lust* is opposed to love, although they are not treated by the dictionary as incompatible: in the synonyms section the word 'lustfulness' is given as 'love''s synonym. The sentential illustration 'He was motivated more by lust than love' indicates that 'love' and 'lust' may be thought of as synonym-like entities. This is because antonyms do not felicitously occur with the comparative structure 'more by…than', they fit more appropriately in the structure 'by…, not (by)…', as, for example, in the sentence *He was motivated by greed, not (by) charity*. Being close to passion, lust is defined as *unbridled carnal desire*. The key feature that supposedly holds together all the meanings is *pleasure* that is hard to resist. Like passion, lust is construed as coming from without, as an overwhelming force that threatens to subjugate, enslave and, possibly, do harm to its victim.

For infatuation, the meaning of *strong* and *unreasoning attachment*, especially to something unworthy of attachment, is particularly revealing. A suggestive semantic feature that was not mentioned in the intuitive understanding of this emotion is that it is directed at or caused by something unworthy of attachment. This feature is a direct consequence of the unreasoning behaviour that obtains when one is infatuated with somebody or something.

The comparative and contrastive analysis of the chosen emotion states has revealed that, on the whole, the intuitive (both non-native speaker and native speaker) understanding of the semantic and cognitive structure of *love*, *lust*, *passion*, *infatuation* is compatible with their dictionary treatment, although there are some components provided by the dictionary that were not part of the original understanding of some of the emotion states: in the case of *passion* it was not at all apparent that suffering is somehow integral to it; *lust* was not immediately linked with enthusiasm or ambition; *infatuation* did not seem to be characterized by lack of reason or primarily directed at objects not worthy of attachment.

**Corpus Data**

The corpus study has revealed that traditional dictionary definitions are impoverished in terms of some of the semantic and conceptual elements that are in fact associated with each state accessed through pertinent words. Below are the criterial grids (Tables 3, 4, 5, 6) which reflect in summary the results of the corpus research of the semantico-cognitive structure of *love*, *lust*, *passion*, *infatuation*. In the tables, the expressions in bold are indicative of some of the semantico-cognitive attributes which were not apparent from all the other types of analysis. The expressions in brackets are some of the recurrent phrases from the BNC. The corpus research is suggestive of some of the most frequent and entrenched collocations, which are typically given short shrift by dictionaries. Apparently, this is not a deliberate policy on the part of dictionary editors: lack of space, time, the awkwardness of updating a version of a dictionary on a regular basis and the sheer impossibility to keep track of the shifting conceptual parameters predispose dictionary compilers to opt for the safest choices, which, although being quite frequent and indispensable for L2 learners, may sound clichéd, overused and fail to indicate how the studied emotions are conceived of in reality – by native speakers of English. For 'love', most dictionaries highlight such expressions as 'true love', 'to fall in love', 'unrequited/ unconditional love', 'love at first sight'. Ironically, these expressions are not top of the list according to the corpus data, which strongly suggest that 'a sign of love', 'words of love', 'to declare one's love for smb.', 'the love of a human heart', 'everlasting love' are much more frequent and entrenched. For 'infatuation', these are such expressions as 'girlish/teenage infatuation', 'youthful infatuation', 'infatuation of old men', 'infantile infatuation', 'in the grip of infatuation', 'passing infatuation', 'blind infatuation', 'there is a great chasm between love and infatuation'. The word 'lust' attracts such attributes as 'casual', 'male', 'undying', and 'sinful', while the collocates 'unbridled', 'guilty', 'illicit', 'crime', 'overpowered', and 'frenzied' cluster around the word 'passion'.

Another contribution of the corpus research is that it clarifies the types of the evaluative connotation the emotions tend to have, and that it might be in flux: while the connotation for *lust* is clearly negative, this does not always hold true for *infatuation* and *passion*, both of which occasionally reveal a positive connotation. The corpus analysis also revealed that all the concepts share the meaning of "enthusiasm for smth.". The exclusive contribution of corpus research is the way the relevant notions tend to be conceptualized: passion and lust are construed as "heat" (or "hot"); *lust* and *infatuation* are conceptualized as a kind of disease; *passion* and *lust* also construed as "crime" and *love* – as "a container"

Table 3
*Criterial grid of semantic and conceptual structure of love*

| **Emotion state** | **love** |
|---|---|
| **Attributes (elements of semantic and conceptual structure)** | integral part of life (love life – 20%), requires capacity (a capacity for love – 15%), deep (depth of love – 15%), long-lasting (everlasting love – 8%), compatible with passion (the passion of love – 5%), **needs to be verbalized** (to declare one's love for smb. – 9%, a love song – 6%, love letters – 6%, words of love – 4%, a poem of love – 3%,), has **telltale symptoms** (a sign of love – 7%), **resides in the heart** (the love of a human heart – 2%) |
| **Lexico-semantic variants** | 1) Enthusiasm, desire, emotional attachment (love of truth/music/art)<br>2) Strong feeling of attraction for smb. or smth. (to fall in love with smb., to love the bacon/the radio)<br>3) Sexual act (to make love) |
| **Strongest collocational links** | love life, to fall in love, love of smth., my love (a form of address), to make love |
| **Overall evaluative connotation** | expressly positive |
| **Conceptualized as** | **container, physical entity (the depth of love, to fall in love, to give/show/smell love)** |

Table 4
*Criterial grid of semantic and conceptual structure of love*

| **Emotion state** | **lust** |
|---|---|
| **Attributes (elements of semantic and conceptual structure)** | not serious (casual lust – 12%), **mostly male** (male lust – 10%), strongly opposed to love (war between love and lust – 9%), **might be persistent** (undying lust – 7%), hard to control (to restrain one's lust – 6 %), bodily emanation (carny lust – 4%), one loses reason and vision (obsessive lust – 8%, to be wild with lust – 4%, blinded by lust – 4%), **negative scenario, consequences** (can end up in adultery – 9%, extramarital sex or unsought pregnancies – 13%) **sinful, bad agent** (the sin was lust – 8%, victim of the lust – 6%) |
| **Lexico-semantic variants** | 1) Enthusiasm (lust for novelty/power/a tan/life)<br>2) Strong carnal desire (mere lust and desire, an excitation of lust, lascivious lust) |
| **Strongest collocational links** | lust for smth., lust for life, blood lust, love or lust |
| **Overall evaluative connotation** | expressly negative |
| **Conceptualized as** | **crime, disease, heat** |

and "a physical entity". The percentile rank for each emotion has been rounded.

On the Euler diagram below (Figure 1) are plotted the source domains in terms of which each state is conceptualized according to the data obtained from the corpus.

Out of the 22,348 hits given back by the BNC in response to the entry 'love', approximately one third is constituted by nouns, although there are problematic cases to account for given that, due to the typology of the English language, nouns are not clearly differentiated from adjectives. In such cases, only unequivocal hits were taken into account. Out of the meager 460 hits returned for 'lust', a good 86 percent are constituted by nouns. There is a diachronic explanation for this result, which is that the verb 'to lust' was derived by the process of conversion, unlike in the case of the pair 'love' – 'to love', which existed side by side in Old English in the forms 'lufu' and 'lufian', respectively, and converged in the process of historical development of their phonetic

Table 5
*Criterial grid of semantic and conceptual structure of infatuation*

| **Emotion state** | **infatuation** |
|---|---|
| **Attributes (elements of semantic and conceptual structure)** | one might lose one's mind and vision (blind infatuation – 13%), facile (it is just infatuation – 11%, ridiculous infatuation – 11%), leads nowhere (to be led astray by infatuation – 7%, nothing would ever come of it – 6%), **affects the young and the old** (girlish infatuation – 8%, infantile infatuation – 8%, youthful infatuation – 7%, infatuation of old men – 6%, teenage-flavoured infatuation – 2%), **intense, but quick to disappear** (passing infatuation – 11%, will wear off – 4%, in the grip of infatuation – 4%), wrong, **opposed to love** (there is a great chasmbetween love and infatuation – 2%) |
| **Lexico-semantic variants** | 1) Enthusiasm (infatuation with multiculturalism/hightech/rap/for the well-proportioned figure)<br>2) Intense, but misplaced feeling of attraction for smn. or smth. (infatuation with Joan/him/her) |
| **Strongest collocational links** | passing infatuation |
| **Overall evaluative connotation** | mostly negative |
| **Conceptualized as** | **disease (to recover from infatuation, it is a sort of brain disease, unhealthy infatuation)** |

Table 6
*Criterial grid of semantic and conceptual structure of passion*

| **Emotion state** | **passion** |
|---|---|
| **Attributes (elements of semantic and conceptual structure)** | difficult to control (unbridled passion – 15%), against the law or immoral, may lead to a crime (illicit/ guilty passion – 14%, crime of passion – 32%), strong, powerful (to be overpowered by passion – 9%), short-lived (the passion of a moment – 14%), compatible with love (to love with a passion – 12%), **part of human fallen nature** (human passion instead of divine reason – 4%) |
| **Lexico-semantic variants** | 1) Enthusiasm (passion to fly/to travel/for acting/ football/ the truth<br>2) Carnal desire or sexual act (passion for a girl/for her, unbridled passion, to master one's passion, squeals of passion, sexual passion, the passion of sexual intercourse) 3) Strong emotional state (fits of passion, burst of passion, frenzied passion, to love with an ardent passion) |
| **Strongest collocational links** | crime of passion, real passion, to share a passion, a passion for smth |
| **Overall evaluative connotation** | negative |
| **Conceptualized as** | **heat (the heat of passion, the fire of passion, burning passion)**<br>**crime (illicit, guilty passion, crime of passion)** |

shape. The divergence between the sheer number of hits as regards *love* and *lust* indicates that love is a more salient and entrenched concept out of the two. In response to 'passion', the BNC returns 2,206 hits per one million words, all of which, as expected, are nouns, since conversion does not effectually operate on this lexeme. Only a hundred entries are found in response to 'infatuation', which never occurs as a verb, given that the noun form is regularly and productively derived from the verb 'to infatuate'. All told, the concept of 'love' seems to be a permanent presence in the collective consciousness of native speakers, followed by *passion*, *lust* and *infatuation*, of which the last state is the least entrenched. The comparative degree of entrenchment

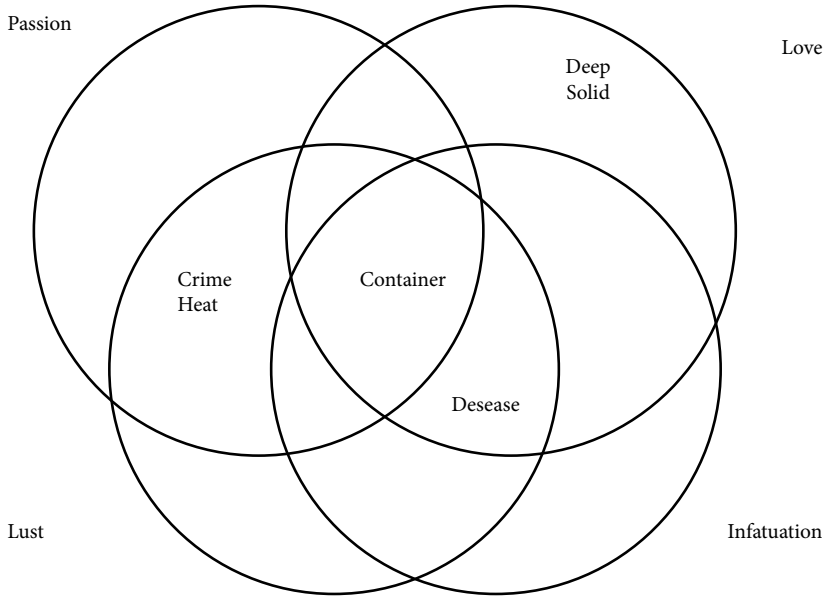



*Figure 1.* The source domains in terms of which love, lust, infatuation, and passion are conceptualized (on the basis of the data obtained from the BNC).

of the four emotion states is plotted on the bar chart below.

Since according to the cognitive tenet of embodied cognition all emotions are conceptualized as containers, it is possible to metaphorically place *love*, *lust*, *infatuation* and *passion* into a container and see what happens – both to the emotions and to the container itself. This procedure is licensed by the so-called '**implications**' of conceptual metaphors: the important consequence of any conceptual metaphor is that knowledge about the source-domain can be extrapolated to the target-domain, because some properties and characteristics of the former are inherited (borrowed) by the latter. Unlike *lust* and *passion*, *love* and *infatuation* are paired and contrasted in terms of the conceptual element *depth*: infatuation has turned out to be shallow, while love is posited to be deep. *Lust* and *passion* are paired in terms of the *heat* and hence *pressure* component: it is known from physics that when temperature increases within a confined space, pressure builds up. The marked difference between depth and intensity is that depth is directed down, while intensity can spread in all the four possible directions – upward, downward, left and right. Containers are usually enclosed from at least three sides, with the fourth – the lid – being optional, though usually necessary to keep whatever within the container in safety. However deep a container is, it has the bottom, and so love, when it figuratively reaches the bottom, stays there. Since intensity is characterized by a high and potentially mounting degree and since it is likely to spread in all the available directions, if there is no lid on the container, intensity (metonymically standing for *lust* and *passion*) will go over the top; if there is one, it will blow the lid off, or if the lid is too tight, the container is likely to burst.

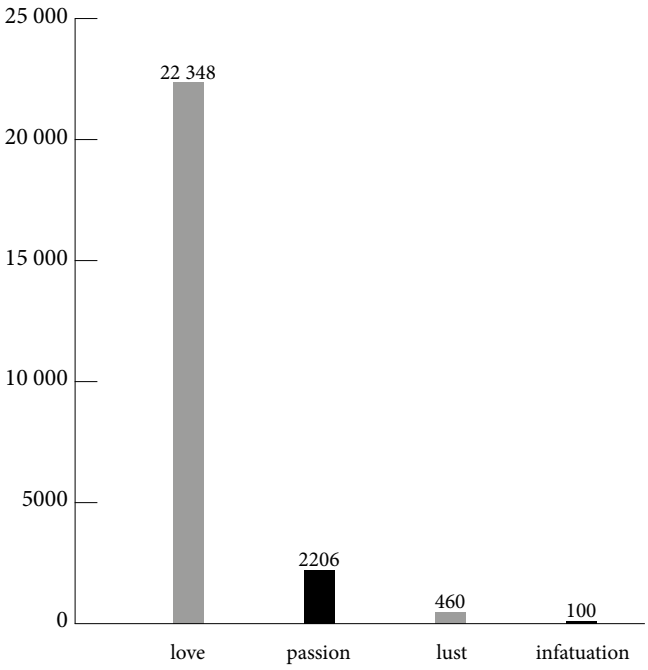



*Figure 2.* The degree of entrenchment of *love*, *lust*, *infatuation*, and *passion*.

The 'behaviour' of *infatuation* confined within the container is more difficult to pinpoint, partly because of the diverging evidence retrieved from the corpus and the native-speaker analysis. According to the native

speaker informant, infatuation is conceptually closer to love because it is characterized by the same potential intensity and is more complex than lust and passion. The corpus research, however, revealed that infatuation is a rather shallow state not likely to last for a very long time. Conflating all the evidence, it seems that infatuation is a rather harmless state and in this it partly resembles love. Unlike love, however, infatuation is volatile – rather than resting at the bottom of the container (as *love* would as it is solid and stable), it is likely to travel its entire inside, without, however, exerting much pressure on any of the four sides. Note that the word *volatile* is used without the negative overtones and simply suggests *the property of moving about as if by flight* (see the definition in the Merriam-Webster Dictionary). Figure 3 illustrates conceptualization and 'behaviour' of love, lust, infatuation, and passion.

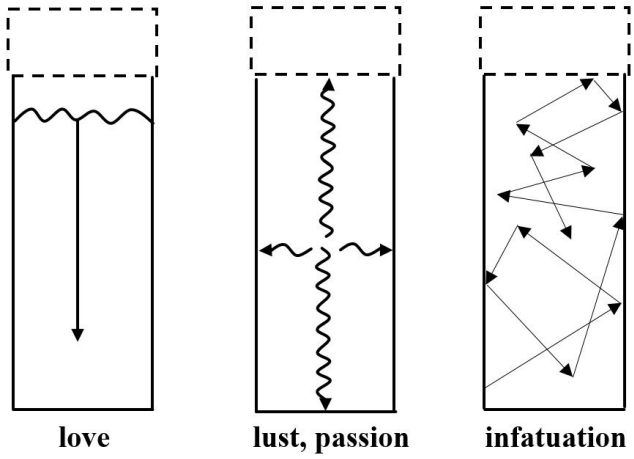



*Figure 3.* The 'container' conceptualization of love, lust, infatuation, and passion.

**Summing Up**

Overall, the results of the research into the semantico-cognitive structure of the emotion concepts *love*, *lust*, *infatuation*, *passion* can be summarized as follows.

First, although the concept of love turned out to be the most contested one out of the four – as it seems to combine *depth*, *stability*, *intensity*, *heat* and *pressure*, overall, positive connotations, and, therefore, depth and stability, prevail over the more pronounced negative connotations of *lust*, *passion* and *infatuation*, for which *instability*, *pressure*, *heat* and *intensity* are conceptually salient, while *depth* and *stability* do not surface at all. Second, it has been revealed that these emotion concepts are primarily dynamic entities, although love seems to be the most stable of all. Third, the corpus research has highlighted some of the associations with the chosen emotions. These associations are not necessarily registered by dictionaries, though they are part of native speakers' conceptualization. Thus, it is not reflected by the Merriam-Webster dictionary (or, indeed, other English dictionaries, such as the *Macmillan Dictionary of English* and *the Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture*) that lust is mostly thought of as a male attribute, that it might be persistent, that the consequences of indulging one's lust are likely to be negative. For *love*, it may not have been immediately apparent that it resides in the heart (rather than the mind or the soul), that it is so strong a feeling that it has telltale signs and needs to be verbalized or that it can be directed at oneself, unlike lust, passion or infatuation. Apparently, this information should be taken into account by dictionary compliers, as it enriches the purely linguistic meaning of each word. Fourth, the research has been indicative of the most typical and, therefore, strongest collocations for each emotion word, which is of practical, educational and methodological value, as it helps both L1 and L2 learners and language instructors: learners will know how to correctly apply the relevant emotion word in context; instructors will know which expressions should be taught first, as they are more typical. Fifth, out of the conceptual source domains posited for *love* by Lakoff and Johnson (1980), the ones that seem to be most salient for native speakers are 'container' and 'disease', although 'container' seems to take the upper hand. One source domain that is not explicitly mentioned by Lakoff and Johnson is that of a palpable 'physical entity (object)'. What they mention is the 'physical force' (gravitational, electromagnetic), which is different from a particular object. This divergence in findings may be due to the fact that within the framework of the present research only those stretches of discourse were analyzed that contain the word 'love'. As is mentioned at the beginning of the article, this was done with a view to enhancing the validity and credibility of the findings: the only safest way to ensure that it is the target emotion concept that is being investigated is to select only those stretches of discourse which mention the target concept explicitly. The 'warmth' and the 'heat' conceptual components posited for *love* by Wierzbicka (1992) in *Semantics, culture and cognition* and Kövecses (2006) in *Language, mind and culture* respectively, proved to be rather marginal, although the 'heat' component is quite pronounced for *lust*. The 'disease' component is shared by three emotion states – *love*, *lust* and *infatuation*, and seems to be marginal to passion, for which the 'heat' and the 'crime' conceptual elements are most entrenched.

## Conclusion

Research results have far-reaching pedagogical implications in that specific collocations with the names

of these emotion states should be primarily taught at intermediate and advanced stages of language learning and instruction rather than presented in isolation. This contextually-bound approach will make for a deeper conceptualization of these emotions and will help L2 learners to grasp the notions that stand behind them.

The findings of the research are provisional and could be enhanced and fine-tuned by further investigation of the semantic and cognitive structure of *love*, *lust*, *passion* and *infatuation* in the following ways. First, it would be of interest to see whether the concept of *love* is a unitary one, which is complex and contradictory, or whether it is more accurate to posit a 'fission' of the originally single concept into two or, possibly, more, just like Ungerer and Schmid (2006) predicted. A bi-polar nature of love calls for a separate investigation. Second, the method of literary authority could be tapped into by analyzing with its help in what way the concepts of *love*, *lust*, *infatuation*, and *passion* have been changing over the years, what entrenched conceptual metaphors – both generic and specific-level ones – are most salient for different authors, and what innovative metaphors are created by writers working within various literary canons. Third, the paper could be significantly extended and nuanced by amassing a larger sample through enlisting the help of more native speakers of English, by comparing the gender and age differences in conceptualizing different emotion states and by looking into the ways in which the nearly default and semi-automatic conceptualization differs from deep, discursive, philosophical essays on love and other emotion states. Finally, the questionnaire presented to prospective respondents could be enhanced considering the data obtained from the BNC by incorporating more parameters in terms of which emotion states can be analyzed, such as the age group each emotion tends to affect and the source domains that seem to be most fitting for the conceptualization of each emotion.

## References


American Bible Society. (1976). *Good news Bible*. Retrieved from https://www.bible.com/ru/versions/68-gnt-good-news-translation

Apresjan, V. (1997). Emotion metaphors and cross-linguistic conceptualization of emotions. *Cuadernos de Filologia Inglesa*, *612*, 179–195.

Bamberg, M. (1997). Language, concepts, and emotions: The role of language in the construction of emotions. *Language Sciences, 19(4)*, 309–340.

Blount, B. (1984). The language of emotions: An ontogenetic perspective. *Language Sciences, 6(1)*, 129–156.

Eibl-Eibesfeldt, I. (1971). *Love and hate: On the natural history of the basic behaviour patterns*. London, UK: Methuen.

Ekman, P. (1992). Facial expressions of emotion: New findings, new questions. *Psychological Science*, *3,* 34–38.

Gallie, G. B. (1956). Essentially contested concepts. *Proceedings of the Aristotelian Society, 51*, 167–198.

Gove, P. B. (Ed.). (2013). *Webster's third international dictionary for iOS 3.35 [electronic version].* London, UK: Paragon Software Group.

Kövecses, Z. (2006). *Language, mind and culture*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Lakoff, G., & Johnson, M. (2003). *Metaphors we live by*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Langacker, R. W. (2008). *Cognitive grammar: A basic introduction*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University.

Lutz, C. (1982). The domain of emotion words on Ifaluk. *American Ethnologist, 9(1),* 113–128.

Panasenko, N. (2012). Linguistic markers of emotional concept "love" in literary texts. *US-China Foreign Language, 10(4),* 1067–1084.

Schmitt, N. (2010). *Researching vocabulary. A vocabulary research manual*. London, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Seliverstova, O., & Suleimanova, O. (1988). Experiment in semantics. *News of Academy of Sciences. Series Literature and Language, LXVI(5),* 431–445.

Tissari, H. (2003). *Lovescapes: Changes in prototypical metaphors and cognitive sense since 1500*. Helsinki, Finland: Société Néophilologique.

Tissari, H. (2010). English words for emotions and their metaphors. In M. E. Winters, H. Tissari & K. Allan (Eds.), *Historical cognitive linguistics* (pp. 298–329). Berlin, Germany: Mouton de Gruyter.

Trim, R. (2010). Conceptual networking theory in metaphor evolution: Diachronic variations in models of love. In M. E. Winters, H. Tissari & K. Allan (Eds.), *Historical cognitive linguistics* (pp. 223–260). Berlin, Germany: Mouton de Gruyter.

Ungerer, F., & Schmid, H.-J. (2006). *An introduction to cognitive linguistics*. London, UK: Pearson, Longman.

Vukoja, V. (2014). Passion: A forgotten feeling. In F. H. Baider & G. Cislaru (Eds.), *Linguistic approaches to emotion in context* (pp. 39–70). Zagreb, Croatia: John Benjamins.

Wierzbicka, A. (1992). *Semantics, culture and cognition. Universal human concepts in culture-specific configurations*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

National Research University Higher School of Economics
Journal of Language & Education Volume 1, Issue 4, 2015

Popkova, E. (2015). The Backyard of EFL Teaching: Issues Behind L1 Prosodic Interference in Russian English. *Journal of Language and Education, 1*(4), 37-44. doi:10.17323/2411-7390-2015-1-4-37-44

# The Backyard of EFL Teaching: Issues behind L1 Prosodic Interference in Russian English

**Ekaterina Popkova**
National Research University Higher School of Economics

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Ekaterina Popkova, National Research University Higher School of Economics, pereulok Bolshoy Trekhsvyatitel`skiy, 3, Moscow, Russian Federation, 123022. E-mail: epopkova@hse.ru

Modern EFL teaching in Russia pays much attention to variations in the cultural schemata represented by students' L1 and the target language, as well as behavioral patterns of their speakers. However, teaching practitioners scarcely address certain issues of Russian L1 prosodic interference that cause attitudinal confusion on the part of native English speakers. The study explores the wrong pragmatic effects created in English due to the transfer of Russian intonation contours and the reasons behind the failure of Russian EFL teachers to address the issue. Specifically, it investigates English speakers' negative perceptions of Russian L1 intonation and examines Russian teachers' practices and beliefs with regard to the place of intonation in a language classroom. The paper draws on findings from recent studies on effects of Russian L1 prosodic features in English and the results obtained from a survey conducted by the author among 29 Russian EFL teachers. The paper argues that whereas L1 intonation interference seriously affects learners' cultural image, its role in EFL teaching is significantly undervalued as compared to that of grammar and vocabulary. It concludes by suggesting practical ways to facilitate intonation teaching in a Russian EFL classroom.

*Keywords:* prosodic interference, L1 interference, intonation, pragmatics, Russian English

Due to certain prosodic features, which are normally ignored in the process of English language teaching in Russia, it is not infrequent that learners, though demonstrating a high level proficiency in grammatical and lexical accuracy of the target language (English), still fail to produce the desired pragmatic effect on the listeners. Various researchers have addressed this issue (Crosby, 2013; Jenkins, 2007; Pavlenko, 2007; Pervesentseva, 2013; Proshina, 2010; Vishnevskaya, 2013), beginning with Leed (1965) who conducted a most comprehensive study of Russian intonation in English. Literature review and the author's own teaching practice have helped single out the most common prosodic interference features which are demonstrated by even proficient English speakers of Russian background. Contributing to attitudinal confusion on the part of native English speakers, these features are not generally addressed in the teaching process in educational institutions unless these specialize in translation studies and prepare professional interpreters and translators. The issue in question is connected with suprasegmental features of Russian English, specifically intonation contours, which seem to be absolutely similar in form in Russian and English, but differ in their distribution. And this is where L1 interference most readily comes into play: the functional discrepancy between the application of such contours in the two languages produces an undesirable pragmatic effect on the listeners and contributes to the negative image of Russian EFL learners in the eyes of the English-speaking community.

## Materials and Methods

### Russian L1 Prosodic Interference. Intonation as the Critical Element Revealing Attitudinal States

Intonation, as a suprasegmental feature of pronunciation, reveals itself through 'the meaningful use that speakers make of changes in their voice pitch' (Thornbury, 2011, p. 110). It is one of the most influential non-verbal aspects of language that, as Kelly (2011) wisely observes, '*we are very sensitive to, but mostly at an unconscious level*' (p. 86).

Being a prosodic feature of language, intonation does more than simply help to determine the meaning: it gives



This article is published under the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

clues about the speaker's communicative intention (Solomennik & Cherentsova, 2013) and his attitude to what he is saying (Mitrofanova, 2012; Thornbury, 2011). Crystal (2012) illustrates the attitudinal function of intonation, which he calls 'emotional', by a line from an old song which says 'it ain't what you say, it's the way you say it.' (p. 249). About 50 years ago Leed (1965) even went as far as to claim that 'misunderstandings due to intonational differences … may color one's attitude towards an entire nation or culture' (p. 62).

In light of the aforesaid, it seems logical that in case of L1 interference wrong application of intonation contours largely causes a misunderstanding of attitude or intent behind the utterance rather than of content (Mentcher in Crosby, 2013).

The role of intonation in interactive communication, therefore, cannot be underestimated: although it is non-verbal, it often determines the total impact of the utterance. This may explain why English speakers make a good deal of allowance for imperfect articulation of individual sounds, but are 'less able to make the same allowance for mistakenly used intonation' (Vishnevskaya, 2012, p. 226); the view supported by a wide range of studies (Kang in Kremenchugsky, 2013; Pervesentseva, 2013; Thornbury, 2013; etc).

## Transfer of L1 Intonation Contours

Research suggests that behind the negative attitude expressed by English speakers with regard to Russian intonation patterns lie peculiarities of prosodic features of the Russian language which are likely to be interpreted by English speakers not as linguistic differences but 'as directly revealing personality traits or at least emotional or attitudinal states' (Hughes, 2008, p. 38). This phenomenon is stipulated by the fact that the same intonation contours in different speech communities may 'differ in prototypical meanings assigned to intonation contours' (Pavlenko, 2007, p. 52). Thus, while being correct in their form, they serve different communicative purposes and may be wrongly applied in the situation (Ladd, 1996; Vishnevskaya, 2012). This means that mainly prosodic interference is caused by the difference not in form, but in the intonation function.

Moving on to the question of the types of prosodic features of Russian English, the article further presents an overview of certain intonation contours that following the same pattern in the two languages differ in meanings assigned and lead to the wrong pragmatic effect created by Russian EFL learners due to the transfer of their L1 intonation contour to the target language. Specific features of Russian intonation which play the major role in the issue of L1 interference will be highlighted subsequently with regard to, first, rising intonation contours, then level intonation contours, and falling ones.

## Rising Intonation Contours

I. General questions

How does L1 interference show in rising intonation contours? Basically, there are two main incorrect applications of the rising tone by Russian EFL learners. First, for the purpose of marking logical stress Russian EFL learners often use a sharp rise in the middle of a general question mirroring the corresponding L1 intonation contour. Compare the intonation patterns of the 2 utterances (an asterisk (*) in the examples below indicates accented words):

*English:* **Is this */your pen?** (Visson, 2005)

*Russian:* **Rech idet o *serje/znoj summe?** (Solomennik & Cherentsova, 2013)

This is not to say that English does not have logical stress. Rather, the English low-rising nuclear tone on the stressed word is gradual and not so sharp and abrupt as in Russian where it is much more marked (Aizlewood, 2013; Leed, 1965; Mitrofanova, 2012; Monk & Burak, 2001; Vishnevskaya, 2012). Research shows that such usage of the rising tone by Russians is perceived by native speakers of English as expressing disbelief, doubt, annoyance (Leed, 1965; Visson, 2005).

II. Special and alternative questions

Secondly, Russian speakers of English tend to pronounce special and alternative questions with a rising intonation (Monk & Burak, 2001; Proshina, 2010):

*Special question:* **Why did you */say that?**

*Alternative question:* **Do you want */coffee or */tea?**

Interestingly, it should be noted that this intonation pattern of special and alternative questions does not follow the basic Russian intonation model typical for this type of sentences. In the intonation paradigm of Russian presented by Solomennik and Cherentsova (2013, p. 12), the corresponding types of questions end with a falling intonation:

*Special questions:* **Kto *govori\t? Gde vy *rodili\s?**

*Alternative questions:* **Vy predpochitajete *gosti/nicu ili chastnuju *kvarti\ru?**

Undoubtedly, the reasons behind the application of the rising intonation pattern by Russian EFL learners in special and alternative questions are worth further investigation.

At the same time, it should be noted that while the typical Russian intonation used in English general and special questions is rated by native English speakers as sounding more arrogant, angry, and critical, no corresponding biases for Russian speakers' ratings of English accented speak was found. (Holden & Hogan, as cited in Philippot, Feldman, & Coats, 1999, p. 198).

### Level Intonation Contours

In case of transfer of Russian L1 level intonation contours, communication problems arise when the final pitch level is identical to the one in primary stress.

Whereas in Russian this intonation contour is frequent in semi-official announcements, lecture style, and conversational Russian, Leed (1965) points out that a final level pitch in English carries with it strong implication expressing complete lack of interest combined with annoyance and warns that the English speaker 'must not attach the same emotional connotation to this contour as he does in his own language' (p. 70). E.g.: **I don't *\care**.

### Falling Intonation Contours

I. Declarative sentences

Turning to the attitudinal confusion caused by the impact of application of Russian falling intonation contours, here the contrast in meaning between the two languages lies in the fact that the normal declarative sentence intonation in Russian is the intonation contour with a sharp fall on the stressed syllable and the low pitch on primary stress (Leed, 1965; Solomennik & Cherentsova, 2013):

*Russian:* **Pojezd sledujet do konechnoj *sta\ncii** (Solomennik & Cherentsova, 2013, p. 12).

Here, due to L1 interference, Russian speakers tend to apply the contour of the Russian low falling tone which is less gradual and less final than the corresponding English low falling nuclear tone (Vishnevskaya, 2012). This is similar to a much sharper rise used by Russian students on the stressed word in the middle of a general question than would be appropriate for English.

Such contours used for colorless statements in Russian sound striking to the English ear as being emotionally coloured and considered to be anything but neutral, most often even sounding annoyed. A most comprehensive comparison of falling tones combined with different pitches on primary stress is laid out in Leed's study (1965). Cf.:

*English (tired, probably disgusted):* **I want to go *\ home** (p. 64)

II. General questions

Apart from incorrect application of falling tones in declarative sentences, Russian learners frequently apply falling tones to general questions, impoliteness of which fact is emphasized by a few practitioners as well (Monk & Burak, 2001; Shoebottom, n.d.): Did you tell *\her?

### Effects of Russian L1 Interference in Intonation

As has been mentioned above, intonation features are unconscious, hard to detect, and not 'as accessible to direct cognitive intervention as the pronunciation of individual sounds or the manipulation of grammatical constructions or the learning of new vocabulary' (Underhill, 2005, p. 194).

Operating at the subconscious level, meanings of intonation patterns are felt intuitively by native speakers, but are completely ignored in the process of English language acquisition by native speakers of Russian who are not usually taught non-verbal aspects of language explicitly in an English classroom and, *ipso facto*, do not possess the knowledge of such. Indeed, in spite of the evident importance of intonation in communication, in Russia (as well as in many other non-English speaking countries) 'L2 learners, perennially concerned about pronunciation of vowels and consonants, are rarely aware of suprasegmental differences' (Pavlenko, 2007, p. 67).

At the same time, researchers have long pointed out inappropriateness of transferring Russian intonation to English utterances. According to many researchers (Holden & Hogan in Philippot, Feldman & Coats, 1999; Leed, 1965; Monk & Burak, 2001; Visson, 2005; etc.), Russian L1 prosodic interference produces a serious negative effect on the way Russian EFL learners are perceived by native speakers of English. For instance, back in 1965, Leed described 'Americans referring to "his typical bureaucratic tone of voice" with reference to Russian speakers who have no intention of conveying such an impression' (p. 64).

Since then little has changed. Indeed, most recent studies (Crosby, 2013; Jenkins, 2007; Pavlenko, 2007; Pervesentseva, 2013; Proshina, 2010; Vishnevskaya, 2012; etc.) have brought to life numerous examples of a rather negative attitude to Russian accents on the part of native speakers of English. A study by Jenkins (2007) revealed that English with Russian intonation was described 'in unremittingly negative terms' (p. 178), including such descriptions as '*harsh*', '*strong*', '*strange*', '*heavy*', '*sharp*', and '*aggressive*'. Pervesentseva (2013) adds to the list such descriptions as '*unfriendly*', '*rude*' or '*threatening*'.

Interestingly, Crosby (2013) observes that 'English speakers react negatively to Russian accents more often than Russian speakers react negatively to English accents' (p. 24).

### Intonation in an EFL Class in Russia: a Case Study. Methods

The methodological base of the research consists of a quantitative analysis of the results of an online survey on teacher beliefs which was conducted among 29 English language teachers in one of Russia's leading universities – the National Research University Higher School of Economics. The survey included questions asking the participants whose native language is Russian to rate a particular aspect of English teaching

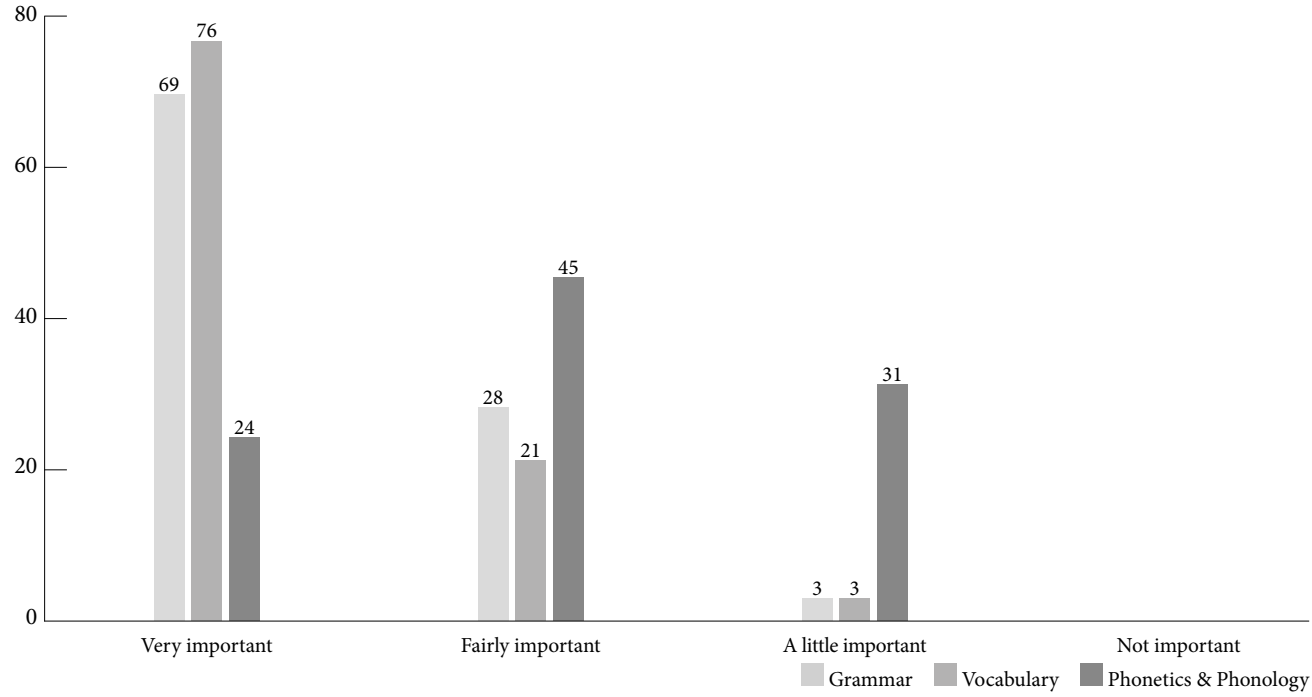



*Figure 1.* The place of intonation in EFL teaching.

(e.g. *How important for language teaching is each of the following: grammar, vocabulary, phonetics and phonology?*), provide specific data related to their everyday teaching practice (e.g. *In your teaching practice, how much possibility do you have to practice intonation contours?*), assess the importance of certain language features for successful mastery of language (e.g. *What is your point of view on importance of the following for the mastery of language: correct articulation of individual sounds, sentence stress, intonation contours, rhythm, aspects of connected speech?*), etc.

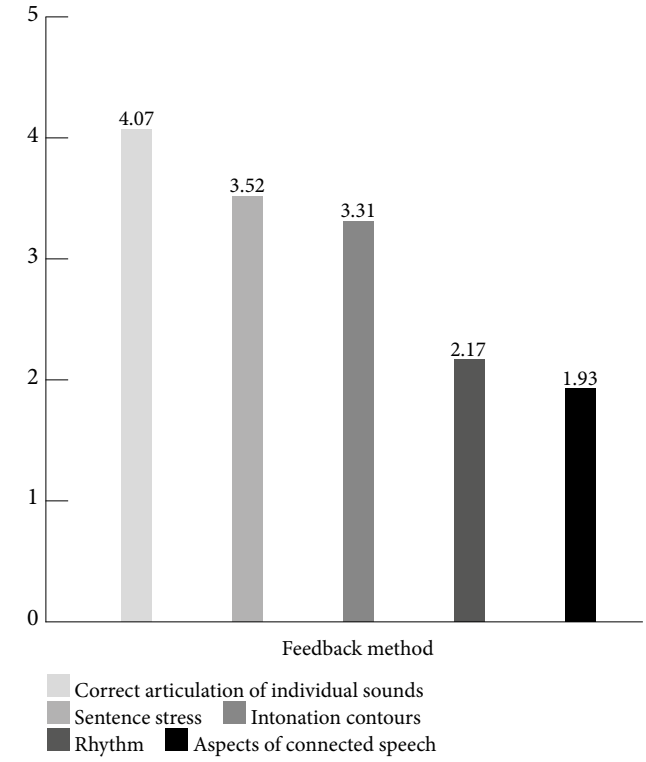



*Figure 2.* Relative importance of specific phonetic and phonological features for learning.

The results of the online questionnaire analysis were supplemented by the qualitative analysis of case study interviews conducted with a number of participants in order to clarify their answers or, where the comments generated questions beyond the questionnaire framework, to get a deeper understanding of their views on intonation in the system of language teaching. Thus, for instance, the interviewees were asked to explain their choice when prioritizing language features taught, or to clarify how and why, from their point of view, lack of accuracy in certain language forms can contribute to the negative perception of Russian EFL learners on the part of native speakers of English.

## Results

The study revealed that only 24% out of the 29 interviewees believed intonation to be really important for mastery of language (see Figure 1). About 31% considered it to be only a little important;

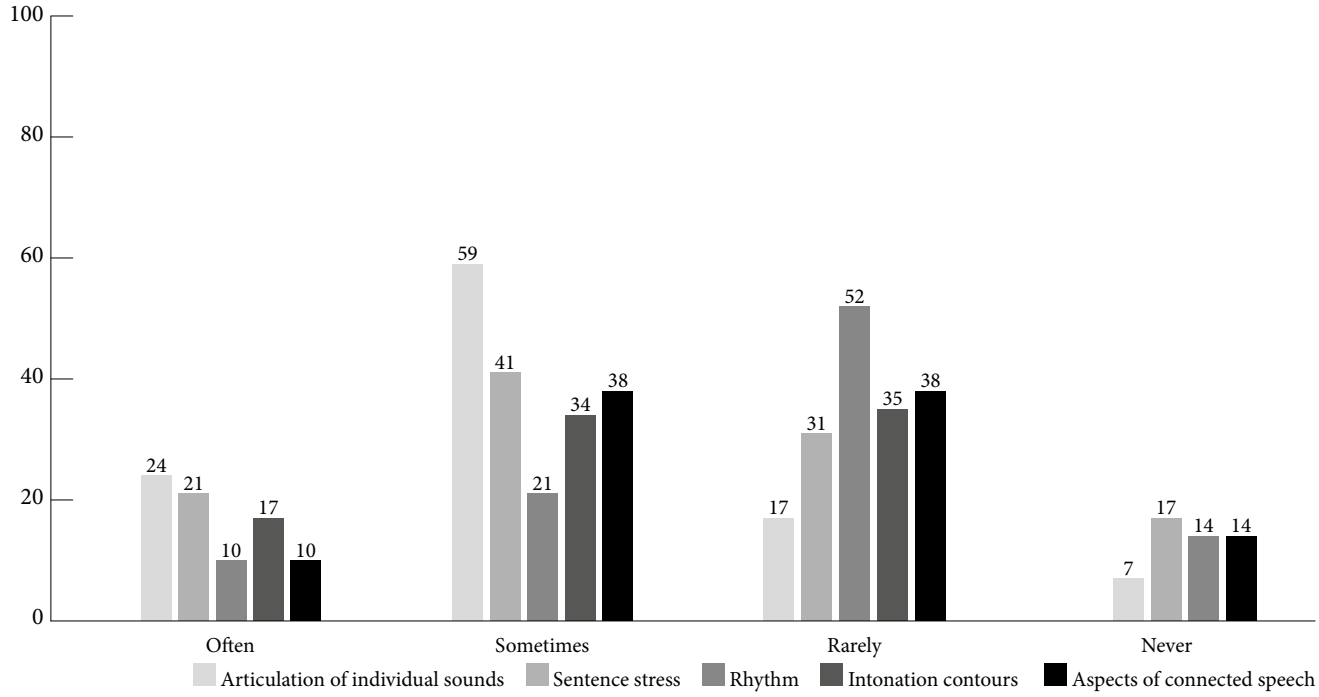



*Figure 3*. The amount of practice given to specific phonetic and phonological features.

top priority in teaching being given to vocabulary (76%) and grammar (68%).

Furthermore, when asked to rate (according to a 5-point scale) the importance of particular aspects of pronunciation for language learning, intonation again was not among the top popular answers (see Figure 2): the respondents gave top priority to correct articulation of individual sounds (the highest mean score of 4.07) and sentence stress (the mean score of 3.52), whereas the importance of intonation contours for the mastery of language was assigned the middle position having the mean score of 3.31; only rhythm and aspects of connected speech receiving lower scores of 2.17 and 1.93, respectively.

More detailed analysis shows that theoretical evaluations of the importance of the phonological aspects described are higher than the actual amount of practice allocated to teaching these in real life (see Figure 3).

Figure 3 shows that whereas theoretical significance of intonation for teaching was rated at about 66%, in practice only 15 teachers (about 52%) admitted dealing with intonation patterns in class; among them only 5 teachers (17% of the respondents) actually dealing with intonation on a regular basis ('*often*'), and 10 teachers (34%) practicing it only '*sometimes*'. These numbers stand in sharp contrast with the amount of attention regularly given to the practice of individual sounds, as was acknowledged by 83% of the respondents.

The fact that priority is given to the articulation of individual sounds, however, does not comply with the view that native speakers of English have of foreign accents. Thornbury (2013), for instance, states that native speakers 'frequently identify the non-native-like use of stress, rhythm, and intonation as being a greater bar to intelligibility, and a stronger marker of accent, than the way individual vowel and consonant sounds are pronounced' (p. 37). Likewise, Kang (2010) points out the significance of suprasegmental features for the listener's perception of an accent (Kang in Kremenchugsky, 2013).

Among the reasons for insufficient attention given to intonation teaching in class, many respondents mentioned the limited time allocated to English classes in a school curriculum; the fact acknowledged by 10% of the teachers interviewed. Besides, certain classes, e.g. classes which focus entirely on writing skills, simply exclude almost any possibility of providing students with sufficient, or even minimal, practice of intonation contours (as acknowledged by 7% of the respondents).

It should be noted that quite a few interviewees (59%) admitted that L1 intonation is the most frequent factor which reveals itself in Russian English (see Figure 4). Russian L1 intonation was observed in the target language even more often than wrong pronunciation of individual sounds (reported by 45% of the respondents) or transfer of L1 grammar structures and vocabulary (52% and 38% of the respondents, respectively).

In terms of the wrong pragmatic effect produced by L1 phonological features (see Figure 5), 34%

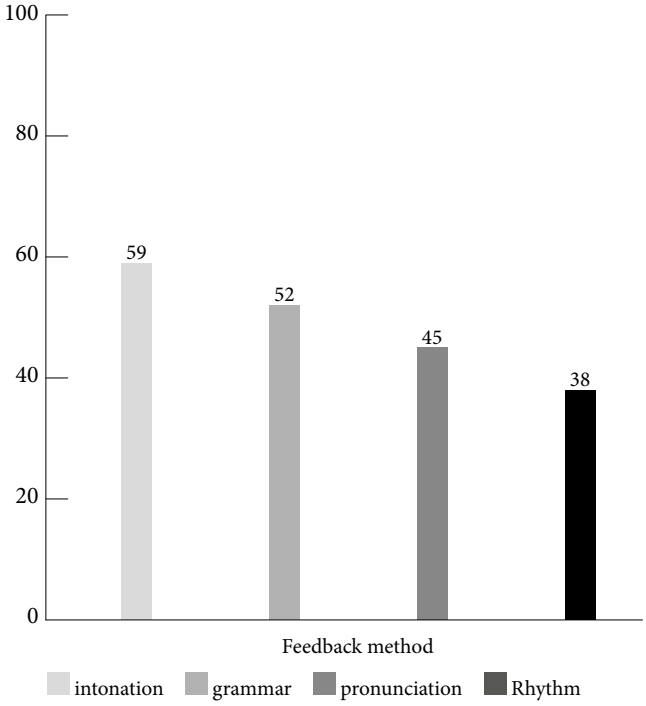



*Figure 4*. Features of L1 interference revealed in Russian English.

of the respondents are aware of the negative role Russian L1 prosodic interference may '*often*' play in communication with native English speakers; 34% considering it to be the issue only '*sometimes*'; 21% and 11% considering it likely to happen '*rarely*' or '*never*', respectively.

Among those who acknowledged the wrong effect produced by Russian L1 intonation in English, 4 participants (approx. 13% of the total number of the respondents) admitted that Russian L1 intonation was pointed out to them as an interfering feature during communication with native speakers. Two respondents mentioned being familiar with recent research on the matter, while the others found it difficult to provide any valid explanation for the view held and seemed to base their answer entirely on intuition.

## Discussion

In terms of students' exposure to intonation patterns in an EFL class, data analysis results go in line with other studies (Crosby, 2013; Pavlenko, 2007; Vishnevskaya, 2012) which have revealed that teachers of English mainly focus on studying grammar and vocabulary whereas prosodic features of the language do not receive proper attention. And even in those classes where pronunciation is explicitly taught, there is more focus on segmentals and little focus on intonation. On the other hand, the survey results look more optimistic than those obtained in the study by Pervesentseva (2013) where the author states that often 'intonation seems to be the last aspect that is taught to students if ever at all' (p. 152): on the whole, 52% of the respondents deal with intonation in class at least 'sometimes'. However, this relatively high number may be explained by the institutional affiliation

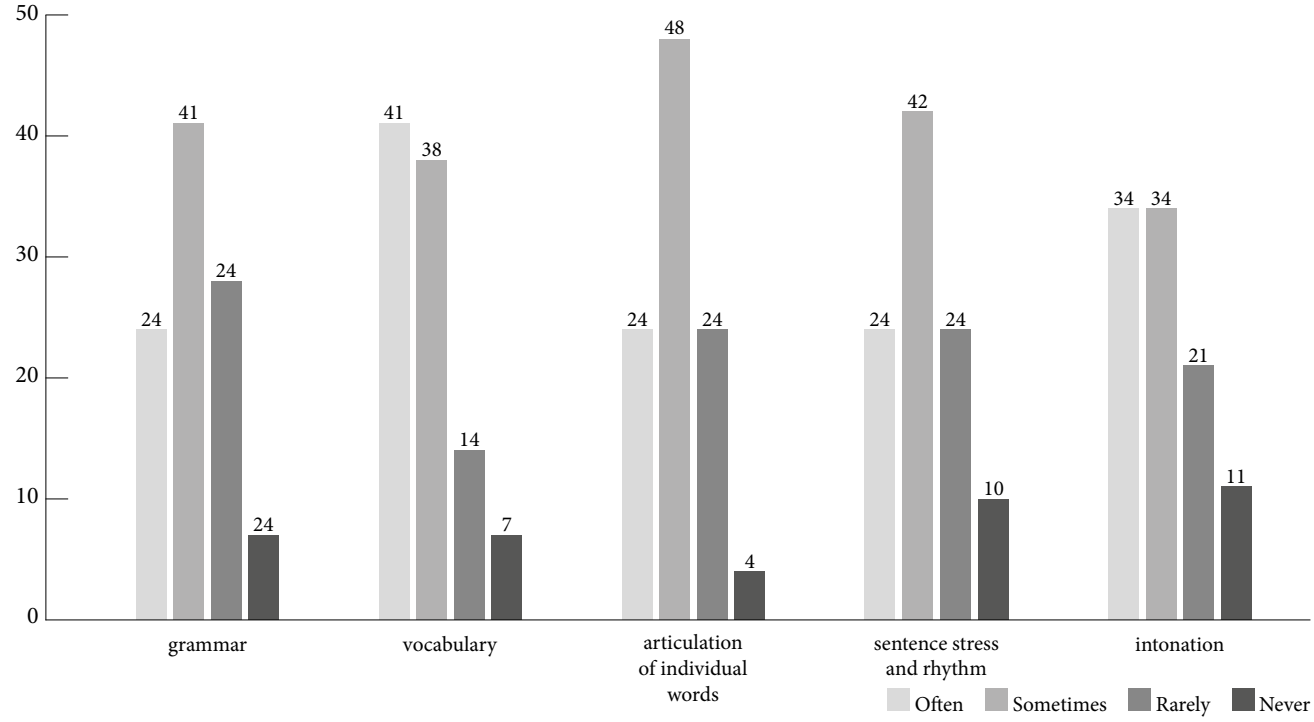



*Figure 5*. Perceptions by Russian teachers of the wrong pragmatic effect created by lack of accuracy in.

of the respondents who come from a prestigious university based in Moscow, have more exposure to communication with native speakers than many of their colleagues around the country, and thus are more familiar with the problem of prosodic interference. As for Russian EFL learners, they are, as a rule, totally unaware of the issues connected with the wrong usage of intonation contours. Moreover, examples of Russian L1 prosodic interference are often combined with a high level proficiency in grammatical and lexical accuracy of the target language, discrepancy between which in this case sounds particularly inappropriate.

One may wonder how it can happen that even proficient English speakers of Russian background fail to notice weaknesses in the effect their intonation produces. First, this may be explained by the illusive nature of intonation, whose effect is mainly perceived at an unconscious level and due to which intonation is 'not always easy to shift to the conscious mind for research or teaching purposes' (Mitrofanova, 2012, p. 282). Therefore, intonation mistakes persist until the very advanced levels of proficiency in English, with L1 intonation often becoming 'fossilized'. Vishnevskaya (2012), for instance, notes that suprasegmental characteristics of Russian English are 'more pronounced at later stages of language learning and are more difficult to overcome' (p. 233).

The most important reason for the neglect of prosody in an English classroom is, perhaps, the fact that in Russia non-native English teachers are prevalent, which, in its turn, is explained by a number of social and economic causes. The ultimate effect is that learners may unintentionally come across as rude, but teachers are not able to correct them, simply because they are unable to recognize non-target intonation and notice the wrong intonation contours themselves.

Admittedly, apart from cases when non-native teachers simply underestimate the significance of intonation patterns, the failure to address intonation teaching, where its importance is more or less realized, is also explained by institutional constraints mentioned above such as lack of time allocated by the institution for English classes and focus on certain skills, e.g. writing, which deprives the teacher of the opportunity to deal with intonation in greater depth if at all.

Nevertheless, Russian EFL learners, as well as their non-native speaking teachers, have to realize how heavily native-speaker perceptions are influenced by intonation alone and how serious consequences may be due to the misunderstanding caused by non-target-like intonation. Thus, according to Crosby (2013), at least one other common language background has been preferred in employment situations over Russian speakers of English. Much earlier, this fact was observed by Honey (1989) who emphasized a significant role played by accents in forming the often crucial first impressions at job interviews (Honey in Vishnevskaya, 2012, p. 235).

Another drawback leading to poor intonation teaching may be a method used. Thus, Mitrofanova's study (2012) suggests 'the usefulness of the top-down functional approach to developing English extended pitch sequences' (p. 290) rather than the generally used bottom-up approach.

Whatever the constraints to pronunciation teaching may be, caution should be made in an English classroom to make students avoid at least the most confusing Russian intonation patterns in English described above. Focusing on specific examples of Russian L1 prosodic interference may be more practical and realistic than exposing students to the whole variety of intonation contours available in English. In other words, English teachers should strive to reduce L1 prosodic interference that produces a negative pragmatic effect, whereas examples of interference that do not lead to misunderstanding of attitude or intent behind the utterance can, probably, be tolerated.

## Conclusion

One can easily see the importance of intonation in the creation of the 'right' attitude, which fact emphasizes the need to show learners how the choices they make with regard to intonation serve to determine the meaning of utterances. One cannot but agree with Harmer (2008) who points out that difficulty in acquiring intonation tunes 'does not mean that we should abandon intonation teaching altogether' (p. 250).

Obviously, intonation needs to be a feature of classroom language analysis and practice, especially now that technology provides new ways of teaching suprasegmental characteristics of speech. Noteworthy in this respect is speech visualization technology, among examples of which one can name, for instance, the *Say It: Pronunciation from Oxford application or CAN-8 VirtuaLab*, an innovative network-based software, both of which allow learners to compare their pronunciation and intonation with that of a native speaker through visualization of soundwave patterns on a computer screen.

Identified problems must not be neglected in English language teaching as their covert effect is more serious and far-reaching than it may seem at first sight, affecting even learners' employment opportunities. This means that English classrooms in Russian educational institutions should raise learners' awareness of identified linguistic problems

concerned with pragmatics and thus facilitate cross-cultural communication between Russian and English speakers.

## References


Aizlewood, R. (2013). *Routledge intensive Russian course*. London, UK: Routledge.

Crosby, C. F. (2013). *L1 influence on L2 intonation in Russian speakers of English* (Unpublished master's thesis), Portland State University, Portland, OR. Retrieved from http://pdxscholar.library.pdx.edu/open_access_etds/1070

Crystal, D. (2012). *The Cambridge encyclopedia of the English language* (2nd ed.). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Harmer, J. (2008). *The practice of English language teaching* (4th ed.). Harlow, UK: Pearson Education.

Hughes, R. (2008). *Spoken English, TESOL, and applied linguistics: Challenges for theory and practice*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Jenkins, J. (2007). *English as a lingua franca: Attitude and identity*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Kelly, G. (2011). *How to teach pronunciation*. Harlow, UK: Longman.

Kremenchugsky, Y. (2013). *The effect of listener background on the perception of foreign accent severity and intelligibility* (Unpublished master's thesis), William Paterson University, Wayne Township, NJ.

Ladd, D. R. (1996). *Intonational phonology*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Leed, R. L. (1965). A contrastive analysis of Russian and English intonation contours. *The Slavic and East European Journal*, *9*(1), 62–75.

Mitrofanova, Y. (2012). Raising EFL students' awareness of English intonation functioning. *Language Awareness, 21(3),* 279–291.

Monk, B., Burak, A. (2001). Russian speakers. In M. Swan & B. Smith (Eds.), *Learner English: A teacher's guide to interference and other problems* (2nd ed.). (pp. 145–161). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Pavlenko, A. (2007). *Emotions and multilingualism*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Pervesentseva, O. (2013). Intonation interference and its impact on effective communication between native/non-native speakers. In B. Cubrovic & T. Paunovic (Eds.), *Focus on English phonetics* (pp. 151–161). Newcastle upon Tyne, UK: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Philippot, P., Feldman, R. S., & Coats, E. J. (1999). *The social context of nonverbal behavior*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Proshina, Z. (2010). Slavic Englishes: Education or culture? In A. Kirkpatrick (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of world Englishes* (pp. 299–315). London, UK: Routledge.

Shoebottom, P. (n.d.). *Language differences: English – Russian*. Retrieved from http://esl.fis.edu/grammar/langdiff/russian.htm

Solomennik, A., & Cherentsova, A. (2013). A method for auditory evaluation of synthesized speech intonation. In M. Železný, I. Habernal & A. Ronzhin (Eds.), *Speech and computer: 15th International Conference* (pp. 9–16). Cham, Switzerland: Springer International Publishing.

Thornbury, S. (2011) *An A-Z of ELT*. Oxford, UK: Macmillan Education.

Thornbury, S. (2013). *How to teach speaking*. Harlow, UK: Longman.

Underhill, A. (2005). *Sound foundations: Learning and teaching pronunciation*. Oxford, UK: Macmillan.

Vishnevskaya, G. M. (2012). English pronunciation norms and the case of Russian English. In T. Paunović & B. Čubrović (Eds.), *Exploring English phonetics* (pp. 225–240). Newcastle upon Tyne, UK: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Visson, L. (2005). *Russkiye problemi v angliiskoy rechi: Slova i frazi v kontekste dvukh kultur* [Russian difficulties in English speech: Words and phrases in the context of two languages]. Moscow, Russia: R. Valent.

National Research University Higher School of Economics
Journal of Language & Education Volume 1, Issue 4, 2015

Shchemeleva, I. (2015). The Development of Stance-taking Strategies in L2 Students' Academic Essays: the Case of a content-based Russian-American Teleconference Course. J*ournal of Language and Education, 1*(4), 45-53. doi:10.17323/2411-7390-2015-1-4-45-53

# The Development of Stance-Taking Strategies in L2 Students' Academic Essays: the Case of a Content-Based Russian-American Teleconference Course

**Irina Shchemeleva**
National Research University Higher School of Economics

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Irina Shchemeleva, National Research University Higher School of Economics, Soyuza Pechatnikov, 16, St. Petersburg, Russian Federation, 190121. E-mail: ishemeliova@hse.ru

Due to internationalization of education, students in the majority of leading Russian universities are increasingly likely to use English as a medium of instruction. At the same time, they are not offered preparatory courses in English academic writing. As a result, students are able to develop their academic writing skills mainly while undertaking content-based courses. Recent research indicates that one of the major concerns for novice writers is to be able to express their stance. The key aim of the study is to show that implementing some methods of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) into a content-based course might improve students' ability to take a stance in their writing. The paper presents the analysis of 45 essays written in English by L2 novice writers during a teleconference course taught to a group of Russian and American students. The study employs a comparative linguistic analysis of some stance markers (pronoun 'I', reporting verbs, epistemic modal and evidential expressions) used in students' essays written at the beginning, in the middle, and at the end of the course. The results suggest that the students' ability to take a stance might be developed through the integration into the course of some elements of EAP teaching.

*Keywords:* authorial stance, English L2 essays, academic writing, teleconference

Today one of the top priorities of many universities all around the world has become the internationalization of education. Russia is not an exception here: students in the leading Russian universities are more and more exposed to English. Though it is not the main medium of instruction, some courses or even educational programmes are offered in English. At the same time, students taking such courses are very often not given any special training or assistance in English academic writing. In such a context they have to learn how to write in the process of writing.

The case study presented in this paper provides some ideas on how English academic writing skills might be developed through content-based courses. These ideas are not new and are well developed in the Writing Across Curriculum approach (see Russell, Lea, Parker, Stree, & Donahue, 2009). However, this approach is usually applied in English medium universities, unlike a university where the medium of instruction is Russian which is the research site of this study.

As is known, one of the most important characteristics of English written academic genres at university is the student's ability to express their views in academic argumentation. Writing an academic essay involves the process of taking a certain stance on a given topic or issue and supporting this stance. The present paper discusses the results of a linguistic analysis of stance markers in Russian students' essays written in English during a content-based course team-taught via teleconference to a group of American students from Connecticut College, USA and Russian students from the National Research University Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, Russia.



This article is published under the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

In linguistics, stance has been approached from a variety of perspectives. Very broadly it can be defined as "the ways in which speakers and writers encode opinions and assessments in the language they produce" (Gray & Biber, 2012, p. 15). Thus, it may cover different linguistic means. The present analysis will concentrate on those stance markers that present authorial position with respect to knowledge. Special attention is paid to such authorial stance markers as pronoun 'I', reporting verbs and verbs of argumentation and epistemic modals, adverbs and adjectives used for hedging and boosting.

It will be suggested that the ability to express writer's stance and hence, to construct supportive arguments in essays might be developed through the integration into the course of some elements of EAP teaching, such as explanation of some norms of Anglo-American academic discourse, analysis of essays written by English speaking classmates who had been previously taught how to write academic essays, and evaluation of discussion board posting.

## Materials and Methods

### Expressing Authorial Stance in Academic Texts

The concepts of stance and voice in academic writing have been studied from an array of linguistic viewpoints. Researchers use different terms, such as evidentiality, affect, hedging, evaluation, appraisal, voice and stance (see Guinda & Hyland, 2012). In this paper authorial stance is understood as "personal feelings, attitudes, value judgments, or assessments" (Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan, 1999, p. 966).

Identifying linguistic features associated with stance and voice has been also controversial (Petrić, 2010). Some studies consider the use of the 1st person singular pronoun, transitivity, hedges, modality and lexical choices as linguistic markers of stance and voice (Ivanič & Camps, 2001), others include self-mentions, hedges, boosters and attitudinal markers (Hyland, 2002, 2005); still others analyze various grammatical means such as stance adverbials, complement clauses, modals and semi-modals, etc. (Biber et al., 1999). Despite this difference in approaches, there seems to be an agreement that stance structures with a 1st person subject "are the most overt expressions of speaker/authorial stance" (Biber, 2006, p. 90). But besides presenting oneself through the use of 1st person pronouns, appropriate authorial stance is rhetorically constructed through such means as "tuning up or down one's commitment to assertions, acknowledging alternative perspectives, responding to anticipated counterarguments, endorsing or distancing oneself from others' views" (Lancaster, 2011). Therefore, the analysis includes reporting verbs and verbs of argumentation used to introduce sources of information and epistemic modal verbs, adverbs and adjectives used as 'hedges' — i.e., devices which withhold complete commitment to a proposition, allowing information to be presented as an opinion rather than fact (Hyland, 1998) and 'boosters,' — i.e., devices that allow writers to express their certainty in their claims (Hyland, 2005).

Studies in contrastive rhetoric have found that the ways authors present themselves in academic texts are culture-specific (Fløttum, 2009; Shchemeleva, 2015). That is especially true for the cultures displaying a strong national writing tradition. A few studies of the texts written by Russian authors in English indicate the general tendency of Russian authors to construct academic texts according to the rules of national (Russian) academic discourse (Yakhontova, 2002; Bain Butler, Trosclair, Zhou, & Wei, 2014). To better understand the context of the present study, a brief overview of the situation with teaching academic writing in Russia will be given in the next section.

### Developing Writing Skills at University Level in Russia

In the Soviet Russia, as well as in many other countries in Eastern Europe writing competence was not regarded as a key one and was not treated as a goal in teaching/learning (Harbord, 2010). Until very recently writing was rarely used in knowledge assessment at a university level. A key genre traditionally produced by university students was lecture note-taking or literature review notes. Written papers (often referred to as 'reports') aimed primarily at measuring how much a student had read in a subject and were limited to a summary of literature.

Though there has not been much research in the development of writing skills in the present day Russian universities, some studies show that very little has changed since the Soviet time. Although recently in higher education there has been a shift from the culture of oral assessment to the written exams, there has been no systematic teaching of writing. A small-scale research carried out in one of the Russian universities showed that the majority of genres Russian students are exposed to both at school and at university are 'reproductive' ones requiring students to write on a certain topic summarizing the content of different sources without analyzing, arguing or making their own judgments (e.g. 'referat', i.e. a written report on the subject, which ended up as a rendering of the previously read text, etc.) (Shchemeleva & Smirnova, 2014).

Owing to such state of affairs, Russian students' abilities to take a stance and construct supported arguments are underdeveloped. ''My students can't

argue'' is a recurrent complaint of many university professors in Russia. It might be inferred that if students experience difficulties with producing argumentative texts in L1, they will be very likely to have a lot of challenges in writing academic texts in educational contexts when English becomes the language of instruction and assessment is mediated through the academic essay.

**Case Study: The Net Generation Course**

In the fall of 2014, a teleconference course "The Net Generation: Russian and American Youth Cultures" that was aimed to develop language and cultural competence in Russian and American students was team-taught in real time. It included 17 Russian and 18 American students. It was the second course taught together with American partners; the first experimental one was launched in fall 2011 (for the course description see Lanoux, 2013). The idea was to teach a course on a topic of mutual interest to Russian and American students, and to give all of our students an opportunity to serve as native informants for their peers abroad. For this reason, youth culture was chosen as the course focus.

In the course of four months, students completed readings, viewed films, and contributed to an online discussion board before each class; they were also required to write three short essays, to complete a project, and to participate actively in class discussions. There were two meetings a week: the first was held via teleconference; for the second class, Russian and American students met separately at their home institutions.

"The Net Generation" was not a language course. It was based on the ideas of the Cultures and Languages Across the Curriculum movement that stresses the importance of functional communication above grammatical accuracy. So, the students were encouraged to express their opinion and participate in all kinds of discussions. Language inaccuracies did not affect their grade as long as the meaning remained clear. The course contained a substantial writing component: discussion board posts and essays.

**Interventions Carried out to Improve Essay Writing Skills During the Course**

A number of teaching interventions were integrated into the essay writing course to enhance students' writing development. These interventions focused on analyses of essays, reading essays written by peers and analyses of discussion board posts. Essay topics addressed such controversial issues as academic integrity, the cost of higher education, essentialist and non-essentialists notions of gender, etc. that demanded a clear positioning from students. Sometimes the above requirement was indicated in the assignment like below:

Assignment 1: The point of this essay is to *describe*, *analyze*, and *interpret* the material we have discussed in class, and *to make an argument that clearly articulates your views on the subject*.

The development of writing skills was not among the main goals of the course, but since Russian participants were neither familiar with the genre of English academic essay, nor trained in EAP, it was predicted that they would need some assistance in writing their texts. Therefore, before the first essay was written, the Russian students had been given explanations of some rules of the academic essay genre. After the essays had been submitted, it was decided not to grade them as there was a huge difference in the quality of writing between the two groups of the students. The difference was not between English L1 and L2 speakers, rather, it was between more experienced writers, i.e. those students who had been acquainted with the genre – mostly, American students, and novice writers, i.e. those for whom it was the first experience in writing an essay in English.

The essays were posted (unattributed and with students' permission) to the course Moodle site in order to give students an opportunity to compare how their peers abroad responded to the same set of questions. In fact, the students were asked to read all 32 essays. Then there was a short class discussion with Russian students devoted to essay writing. The students were asked two questions: (1) if they were able to identify essays written by Russian students and by American students; and (2) in what way (if any) the essays were different? Russian students had no difficulty telling which essays were written by American classmates, but besides the obvious fact that 'their English is much better', the following things were mentioned:

- they use the sources;
- they express their opinion and base the arguments on some evidence;
- in many cases they generalize (not only write about their own experience).

In fact, these were the main differences in the 2 groups of essays: Russian students very often tended to ignore other sources of information, express their claims without giving sufficient evidence and write about their own experience.

There was a similar 'analytical session' after the second essay had been written in which Russian students read excepts from each others' essays and analyzed some paragraphs from American peers' essays. During those class discussions and in individual tutorials students' attention was drawn to some characteristics of essay writing (structure, coherence, argumentation, reference to sources, etc.)

In classes Discussion Board posts were also regularly referred to. The students were encouraged not only to analyze what American students write, but also how they do it: how they express their opinion, how they develop the argument, provide evidence.

Formal essays and posts on a discussion board are two quite different genres as the former maintains a strong status hierarchy between an instructor and a student, while the latter is a semi-formal discussion initiated in the majority of cases by the instructor and sometimes – by students (Chandrasegaran, 2008). Still, both genres imply taking a certain stance on a given topic. The hypothesis was that analysis of discussion board posts might facilitate students' abilities of stancetaking.

The study employed both qualitative and quantitative approaches including frequency counts and discourse analysis of 45 essays written by Russian students. The corpus was subdivided into 3 sub-corpora: essay 1 (written at the beginning of the course), essay 2 (written in the middle) and essay 3 (written at the end). Each sub-corpus contained 15 essays, to compare and contrast the way the students used stance markers. The total word count is 38 751, with the average number of words per essay 918, 858 and 807, respectively. In conducting quantitative analysis, the corpus was searched for 1st person singular pronouns, reporting verbs, verbs of argumentation, epistemic modal verbs, adverbs and adjectives using AntConc 3.2.4w, a text analysis and concordance tool. After that, all instances of usage were examined in context in order to determine their pragmatic and rhetoric functions. At the final stage, the frequencies and functions of analyzed stance markers in essay 1, 2 and 3 were compared.

## Results and Discussion

### Pragmatic Functions of 1st Person Singular Pronouns

The total counts of 1st person singular pronoun 'I' and its associated forms ('me', 'my', 'mine') give us some general idea of how the students present themselves in the text. As can be seen from Table 1, the pronouns are quite often used, so it might seem that the students clearly express their stance in writing.

The frequency counts show that there is a decline in the number of 1st person singular pronouns from Essay 1 to Essay 3. To explain the reason of the reduction in frequency, we need to look at pragmatic functions of pronouns in the texts.

For the present study, the terminology of Fløttum (2009) who identified the cases when the author acts as a writer, an arguer, a researcher, and an evaluator is used. This classification has been successfully applied to the analyses of 1st person pronouns used in research articles (Fløttum, 2009; Shchemeleva, 2015). However, when used in the analysis of novice students' writing, these four categories could not cover all the cases of the 1st person singular pronoun usage. A number of cases have been found when the pronoun was used to refer to some personal experience of the writer:

(1) I've never encountered a problem of domestic violence and I do not even have examples of such accidents among my friends.

(2) Personally, I experienced not being able to continue a conversation with my friend from the Internet in the real life.

or to refer to knowledge (or the lack of knowledge) of the writer:

(3) I know that in some Russian universities, even teacher sees that student are cheating, he say nothing.

(4) Obviously, I do not know so much about the parents of CC students.

The identified categories are not watertight, and there are cases that might have different interpretations. The distribution of functions is presented in Table 2.

As can be seen, there has not been identified a single case when the writer is in the role of a researcher. A possible explanation to that might be that students do not consider writing an essay an activity implying research.

Another feature that should be mentioned is a rather big number of cases when students referred to their personal experience or their knowledge. Sometimes their essays looked more like fiction than academic writing. Students' attention was drawn to the fact that American peers tended to avoid such expressions as *Obviously I do not know so much about; I cannot remember such remarkable events; I have never thought about it; etc*. Nevertheless, it did not seem to have any results as the number of cases with reference to personal experience reduced by almost 5% in essay 2 (after the explanation), but then raised again making the difference between the first and third essays only 2.5%.

One more feature that distinguishes Russian students' essays is a high number of cases when the students acted as arguers. In essay 1 they comprise more than half of all cases. Moreover, very often arguments are quite strong:

(5) I *absolutely* agree with his point of view.

(6) I *do believe* that the name of generation *really* matters because …

(7) I *strongly believe* that it is immoral to raise children in such marriages.

Though such statements might be appropriate for academic texts, the problem is that very often the claims were neither supported by evidence nor referred to course readings or other sources.

Table 1
*Distribution of 1st person singular pronouns*

| | I | Me/my/mine | Total number | Per 1 essay |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Essay 1 | 170 | 43 | 213 | 14.2 |
| Essay 2 | 144 | 48 | 192 | 12.8 |
| Essay 3 | 116 | 45 | 161 | 10.7 |

Table 2
*Functions of 1st person pronouns*

| | Essay 1 | | Essay 2 | | Essay 3 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | % | | % | | % |
| Arguer | 110 | **51.6** | 85 | **44.3** | 63 | **39.1** |
| Writer | 44 | **20.7** | 49 | **25.5** | 40 | **24.8** |
| Personal experience | 40 | **18.8** | 27 | **14.1** | 26 | **16.2** |
| Reference to knowledge (lack of knowledge) | 10 | **4.7** | 23 | **12.0** | 17 | **10.6** |
| Evaluation | 9 | **4.2** | 8 | **4.1** | 15 | **9.3** |
| Total | 213 | | 192 | | 161 | |

One of the possible explanations for the overall reduction in frequency of 1st person singular pronouns might be that as soon as the students realized that all their claims should be based on some sources of information (not only on their personal experience and their knowledge), they started to make fewer claims, but these claims were supported by sources. To test this hypothesis, let us turn to the analysis of evidential markers, in particular, to verbs and expressions used to introduce sources of information.

**Verbs and Expressions Introducing Sources of Knowledge**

The importance to interpret and evaluate cited work in academic writing is universally acknowledged. The research on novice L2 writers' practices shows that for them learning to cite and evaluate previous literature appropriately is particularly challenging due to the complexity of skillful stance manipulation (for the review of the research on the topic see Sawaki, 2014). It has been found that L2 writers overuse quotation with no evaluation and rely on a restricted range of verbs, such as 'say' to introduce these quotes (Hyland, 2002, p. 116). Luzón in her analysis of the citation practices, names, among others, the following characteristics of L2 students' writing: excessive quotation, scarcity of summaries and paraphrases, patchwriting, limited range of reporting verbs, lack of evaluation (Luzón, 2015). The results of the analysis of reporting verbs and expressions used to acknowledge sources in Russian students' essays are consistent with these findings.

The comparison of different linguistic means used to mark the source of knowledge in essay 1 and 3 is presented in Table 3. The data show that even in essay 1 on average each student referred to 2.5 sources, which might seem appropriate, taking into consideration that the essays were short. In the majority of cases, though, the references are either parenthetical (examples (8), (9)) or without any interpretation or analysis of the sources (examples (10), (11)):

(8) The youth from countries where the process of globalization takes place (such as the USA and Russia) can share the same significant events, developments and go through the same experience.

(9) The consequence of this is a wide spread of single parent families. "*Single people live alone and proudly consider themselves families of one — more generous and civic-minded than so-called "greedy marrieds"* [Angier, 2013].

(10) *In his works he says* that we are the one who are responsible for our position in social structure.

(11) In the article "The changing American family" *it is written* that the nation birthrate is half what it was in 1960 [Angier, 2013].

The numbers in brackets in examples (8) and (9) point to the number of the source in the reference list. The analysis reveals that in essay 1 the sources are

Table 3
*Marking the source of knowledge*

| | Essay 1 | Essay 3 |
|---|---|---|
| Total number of references | 37 (2.5 per essay) | 46 (3.1 per essay) |
| Not introduced | 13 (35%) | 10 (21.7%) |
| Most common verbs and expressions | Say (4)<br>According to (4)<br>Mention (2)<br>Describe (3)<br>The definition was given by (2)<br>Write (2) | What I learnt from (6)<br>According to (5)<br>Write (3)<br>Show (3)<br>Support (2)<br>Describe (2) |
| Other verbs and expressions | Call<br>Represent<br>Raise an issue<br>The statement of sb.<br>The answer was given …<br>The quote given in…<br>The opinion of …<br>The definition was given by … | Demonstrate<br>Blame<br>Suppose<br>Declare<br>Reading sb's work I learnt …<br>The definition belongs to …<br>A definition from<br>From … we can understand<br>As I understood from …<br>Mean<br>Express<br>Analyze<br>Believe<br>As it was discussed in … |
| Number of different verbs and expressions | 14 | 20 |

not introduced in 35% of cases. In 40% of cases the students use verbs that have no evaluative meaning (say, write, call, mention, etc.), simply demonstrating that they are familiar with the sources.

The data shows that the total number of references slightly increased from essay 1 to essay 3, while the number of sources that were not introduced decreased from 35% to 21.7%. In essay 3 the students not only built their arguments on class readings and other sources more often than in essay 1, they also tried to evaluate and interpret the sources. In essay 3 there was a qualitative shift in verbs and expressions used to introduce the sources, with some of them having evaluative meaning:

(12) Anastasia Dmitruk in her video message that begins with the words "We will never be brothers" *blames* Russian people for inability to be free and independent.

**Hedges and Boosters**

To identify the degree of assertiveness in students' claims the use of hedges and boosters was analyzed. It has been found that in general hedges are not frequently used in the essays. The most common expressions (those that are used more than once) are presented in Table 4.

The analysis shows that there have been practically no changes in the use of hedges. And though there can be found some good examples of even clusters of hedges (13), the overall frequency has declined.

(13) I *may guess* that this *could* be *one* of the reasons of a different attitude towards cheating and work.

One of the possible reasons for such a low frequency of hedges might be the fact that we, instructors, have very often stressed the importance of presenting an argument, so the students might have had an impression that 'presenting an argument' means being absolutely sure in that argument. And though the students were encouraged not to be too categorical in their statements, to soften their claims, they seem to have achieved it not by increasing the frequency of hedges, but by decreasing the frequency of boosters.

It has been mentioned earlier that in essay 1 the claims that students made were in many cases very strong. Using the terminology of Hyland we might

Table 4
*Most commonly used hedges*

| | Essay 1 | Essay 2 | Essay 3 |
|---|---|---|---|
| Can | 23 | 13 | 19 |
| May | 11 | 14 | 15 |
| Seem | 8 | 6 | 8 |
| Probably | 8 | 4 | 1 |
| Kind of, sort of | 8 | 4 | 3 |
| Maybe | 6 | 7 | 4 |
| Might | | 7 | 2 |
| Could | 2 | 4 | 3 |
| Perhaps | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| Certain | 2 | 2 | |
| | 70 (5.1 per 1.000 words) | 63 (4.9 per 1.000 words) | 56 (4.6 per 1.000 words) |

even say that students 'over-boost their propositions' in an attempt to put forward arguments convincingly (Hyland, 2012):

(14) It is *absolutely obvious* that families have changed in recent times in both countries, but it is also *clear* that diversity of new types of families is due to socio-economic factors and gender differences.

Table 5 presents the frequency of the most common boosters found in students' essays.

The results show that though the frequency of boosters is rather high compared to that of hedges, the number of boosters used in essay 3 is much lower (by one third) than that in essay 1 and 2. It might suggest that students tried to soften their claims by being not very assertive.

Table 5
*Most commonly used boosters*

| | Essay 1 | Essay 2 | Essay 3 |
|---|---|---|---|
| Of course | 24 | 14 | 6 |
| Really | 16 | 25 | 11 |
| Should | 16 | 17 | 11 |
| Believe | 10 | 7 | 7 |
| the fact that | 10 | 6 | 6 |
| Absolutely | 8 | 4 | 2 |
| Always | 7 | 8 | 5 |
| Actually | 7 | 5 | 4 |
| Certainly | 4 | 1 | 1 |
| Obvious(ly) | 6 | 7 | |
| Never | 5 | 5 | 5 |
| Sure | 4 | 5 | 3 |
| No doubt, undoubtedly | 4 | 5 | 5 |
| Clear(ly) | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| Need | 3 | 2 | 3 |
| In fact | 3 | 2 | 4 |
| Must | 2 | 3 | 2 |

## Conclusion

The linguistic analysis of essays written by Russian students during the course identified slight changes in the way they take stance in writing. It has been shown that at the very beginning (essay 1) the students were very assertive in their claims and judgments, while in essay 3 their assertiveness declined and the claims sounded less categorical. In essay 3 students also relied more on class readings and other sources in their argumentation. And though development of Russian students' academic writing skills was not among the goals of the course, the fact that the students were constantly engaged in reading and evaluating texts

written by their peers abroad influenced to some extent their own writing. It might be suggested that when the students find themselves in an international context, with some students being more experienced in academic writing, they might learn not only from instructors, but also from their peers. Given limited experience gained from only one course, the conclusions are preliminary and should be explored further in future research.

The course evaluations of both Russian and American students identified critical thinking as a key learning outcome and, quite surprisingly, four Russian students mentioned that they acquired a new skill of essay writing:

"I also got a lot of wise pieces of advice about how to analyze, write essay properly and make my writing coherent" (from a student's course evaluation).

At the same time, "The net generation" course demonstrated that in university contexts where English is not the main medium of instruction novice L2 writers need special training or assistance in academic writing in English. In such a situation course instructors and academic program directors should consider the ways of implementing Writing Across Curriculum approach into the teaching.

## References


Angier, N. (2013, November). *The changing American family*. Retrieved from http://waysoffamily.tumblr.com/

Bain Butler, D., Trosclair, E., Zhou, Y., & Wei, M. (2014). Student and teacher perceptions of academic English writing in Russia. *The Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes, 2(2),* 203–227.

Biber, D. (2006). *University language: A corpus-based study of spoken and written registers*. Philadelphia, PA: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conrad, S., & Finegan, E. (1999). *The Longman grammar of spoken and written English*. London, UK: Longman.

Chandrasegaran, A. (2008). NNS students' arguments in English: Observations in formal and informal contexts. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *17,* 237–254.

Fløttum, K. (2009). Academic voices in the research article. In E. Suomela-Salmi & F. Dervin (Eds.), *Cross-linguistic and cross-cultural perspectives on academic discourse* (pp. 109–122). Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjamin Publishing Company.

Gray, B., & Biber, D. (2012). Current conceptions of stance. In K. Hyland & C. S. Guinda (Eds.), *Stance and voice in written academic genres* (pp. 15–33). London, UK: Palgrave.

Guinda, C. S., & Hyland, K. (2012). Introduction: A content-sensitive approach to stance and voice. In K. Hyland & C. S. Guinda (Eds.), *Stance and voice in written academic genres* (pp. 1–11). London, UK: Palgrave.

Harbord, J. (2010). Writing in Central and Eastern Europe: Stakeholders and directions in initiating change. *Across the Disciplines*, *7*. Retrieved from http://wac.colostate.edu/atd/articles/harbord2010.cfm

Hyland, K. (1998). *Hedging in scientific research articles*. Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Hyland, K. (2002). Activity and evaluation: Reporting practices in academic writing. In J. Flowerdew (Ed.), *Academic discourse* (pp. 115–131). London, UK: Longman.

Hyland, K. (2005). Stance and engagement: A model of interaction in academic discourse. *Discourse Studies*, *7*(2), 173–192.

Hyland, K. (2012). Undergraduate understandings: Stance and voice in final year reports. In K. Hyland & C. S. Guinda (Eds.), *Stance and voice in written academic genres* (pp. 134–150). London, UK: Palgrave.

Ivanič, R., & Camps, D. (2001). I am how I sound: Voice as representation in L2 writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *10*(1–2), 3–33.

Lancaster, Z. (2011). Interpersonal stance in L1 and L2 students' argumentative writing in economics: Implications for faculty development in WAC/WID programs. *Across the Disciplines*, *8*(4). Retrieved from http://wac.colostate.edu/atd/ell/lancaster.cfm

Lanoux, A. (2013). Teaching via teleconference: Lessons learned from an experimental course on Russian and American youth culture. *SRAS Newsletter*. Retrieved from http://www.sras.org/teaching_via_teleconference

Luzón, M. J. (2015). An analysis of the citation practices of undergraduate Spanish students. *Journal of Academic Writing*, *5*(1), 52–64.

Petrić, B. (2010). Students' conceptions of voice in academic writing. In R. Lorés-Sanz, P. Mur-Dueñas & E. Lafuente-Millán (Eds.), *Constructing interpersonality: Multiple perspectives on written academic discourse* (pp. 325–336). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Russell, D., Lea, M., Parker, J., Street, B., & Donahue, T. (2009). Exploring notions of genre in "Academic literacies" and "Writing across the curriculum": Approaches across countries and contexts. In C. Bazerman, A. Bonini & D. Figueiredo (Eds.), *Genre in a changing world* (pp. 395–423). Fort Collins, CO: WAC Clearinghouse.

Sawaki, T. (2014). On the function of stance-neutral

formulations: Apparent neutrality as a powerful stance constructing resource. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *16*, 81–92.

Shchemeleva, I., & Smirnova, N. (2014). Academic writing within a university settings: Challenges and perspectives. In *Proceedings of the 1st Conference on Academic Writing in Eastern Europe*. Timisoara, Romania.

Shchemeleva, I. (2015). The 'revealing' pronouns: The role of 1st person pronouns in defining authorial stance in English and Russian research articles in sociology. In M. Kavanagh & L. Robinson (Eds.), *The Janus moment in EAP: Revisiting the past and building the future. Proceedings of the 2013 BALEAP conference* (pp. 179–187). Reading, UK: Garnet Education.

Yakhontova, T. (2002). "Selling" or "telling"? The issue of cultural variation in research genres. In J. Flowerdew (Ed.), *Academic discourse* (pp. 216–232). London, UK: Longman.

National Research University Higher School of Economics
Journal of Language & Education Volume 1, Issue 4, 2015

Smirnova, N. (2015). Successful ESL Writing for Publication: The Role of Writers' Autonomy Linguistic Competence and L1/L2 Critical Reading Skills. *Journal of Language and Education, 1*(4), 54-62. doi:10.17323/2411-7390-2015-1-4-54-62

# Successful ESL Writing for Publication: The Role of Writers' Autonomy, Linguistic Competence and L1/L2 Critical Reading Skills

**Natalia Smirnova**
National Research University Higher School of Economics

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Natalia Smirnova, National Research University Higher School of Economics, Kantemirovskaya, 3A, St. Petersburg, Russian Federation, 194100.
E-mail: natas2002@yandex.ru

The main aim of the research is to examine professional L1 (Russian)/L2 (English) writing experiences among staff members of one Russian research-intensive university as well as to provide more insights into the universal pedagogies of professional writing. The empirical paper focuses on assessing writers' ability to reflect upon linguistic competence, independent L1/L2 writing skills and L1/L2 critical reading issues which help multilingual scholars position themselves as successful writers in L1 and L2. Text-based semi-structured interviews aimed at measuring self-assessed overall writers' autonomy in L1/L2, linguistic competence and critical reading skills in their L1/L2 writing experience were conducted. The key findings include L1/L2 writing features and support the idea that successful professional and autonomous writing seems to be closely related to a set of one's metalinguistic competences, defined in this paper as a critical reading competence, once a certain level of L2 proficiency has been achieved. The paper concludes with some pedagogical implications in the field of writing for publication.

*Keywords:* writing for publication, multilingual scholars, critical reading, autonomy, reflective writing strategy, English as lingua franca

'Publish or perish' pressure has been increasingly experienced by most researchers all over the world (see e.g. Lillis & Curry, 2010; Miller, Taylor & Bedeian, 2011). At the same time, writing for publication itself has become a separate field of studies. Various lines of research into this field suggest that there are a number of factors which can foster/hinder successful writing for publication in English among non-native scholars.

In 1990s, studies in the field were mostly related to the role of linguistic competence in English among non-native speakers (NNS) (writers), while a decade later, other metalinguistic competences and writing for publication practices came to the relevant research surface. Currently, such issues as access to resources, disparities in journals and pedagogies of professional writing have been addressed within the international academic community.

## Materials and Methods

### The Role of Linguistic Competence in Professional Writing

Earlier studies in the UK (Shaw, 1991) and USA contexts (Casanave & Hubbard, 1992; Jenkins, Jordan, & Weiland, 1993) focused on English language proficiency importance over metalinguistic factors and defined it as the key factor to success among NNS academic writers. Numerous studies have been carried out in the field of corpus linguistics and discourse analysis of professional writing (Swales, 1981, 1990, 2000, 2004; Jaroongkhongdach et al., 2012) and in the field of English as the lingua franca of the academic world (Jenkins, Cogo, & Dewey, 2011; Mauranen, 2011). These studies show that research articles in English-



This article is published under the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

medium journals by NNS have various features (e.g. author's stance, hedging/boosting, etc.).

According to more recent research, reader-friendliness of a paper appears to be more challenging goal for NNS writers who use English proficiently (Armstrong, 2011). However, what it takes to produce a text which is both coherent and cohesive is treated by writers differently. The present study relates this ability to one's metalinguistic skills such as recognizing research genres, article structure, and discipline-specific reasoning patterns.

Studies in local contexts of NNS scholars carried out in Japan (Gosden, 1995, 1996) and Hong Kong (Flowerdew, 1999a, 1999b) highlighted such difficulties for writers as the time involved in writing a paper in English, poor English vocabulary, inference of native language (L1) in the process of writing in English (L2). These findings suggest that the set of metalinguistic skills also include one's awareness of L1/L2 inference in two secondary discourses of research writing in their native and English languages.

This paper suggests that the set of developed metalinguistic competences might result in autonomous professional writing when a writer has reached a certain level of English language proficiency. Critical reading of publications ability in L1/L2 constitutes a set of the required metalinguistic competencies, and is important in an NNS writer's successful research writing endeavors.

**Access to Key Resources in Writing**

Apart from having good academic English skills and being aware of the L1/L2 inference, research conducted into the centre vs periphery scholars' experiences in the process of knowledge production revealed some crucial inequality issues (e.g. getting access to resources such as funding, research facilities, access to paid databases, English language itself which "belongs" to Anglophones) (Canagarajah, 1996, 2002; Curry & Lillis, 2004, 2010). Further research includes studies on center-periphery scholars' practices in 5 European countries (Curry & Lillis, 2010), Poland (Duszak & Lewkowicz, 2008), Venezuela (Salager-Meyer, 2008), Sudan (ElMalik & Nesi, 2008), Italy (Giannoni, 2008), Korea (Dong, 2009), Baltic sea region (Hogan-Brun et al., 2008). Findings from these studies also indicate that scholars' experiences vary across contexts and access to recourses influences their academic success (including writing for publication practices).

English is treated as lingua franca in the academic community though it "belongs" to Anglophone countries, and the language itself has become a resource and a means of accessing research data in the global scale. This fact means that NNS research writers should be aware of and have access to networking (including co-writing) with their foreign peers in the field, proofreading done by native speakers (NS) as well as English language proficiency which makes NNS scholars capable of reading/analyzing/critically interpreting the internationally published research in English. The broader and more permanent access to resources is, the more successful (Curry & Lillis, 2010) and, as a result, more independent writing for research purposes is.

**Disparities in Journals**

Along with the above-mentioned issues of the level of language proficiency, power relations and access to resources, a few studies focus on disparities in English-medium (seen as publication outlets). Flowerdew (2001, 2008) explored intelligibility of a researcher's local community along with issues of the English language proficiency. The findings indicate that the stronger a scholar's country research base is, the greater publication output is present in the global research scholarship. These findings also suggests that a researcher's integration into global research community implies drawing on the key research findings by international scholars and comparing/contrasting local research findings to the global ones. Still, journals might value local scholarship differently (and in some cases unequally) (Curry & Lillis, 2010).

Editing one's text is seen as another factor which influences writing for publication practices (Flowerdew, 2001; Gosden, 2003; Li, 2006; Belcher, 2007; Li & Flowerdew, 2007). The main findings are indicative of the fact that provision of editorial service (editing and polishing) is crucial for NNS writers. Their willingness to participate in a long process of paper revision is also seen to be important. Thus, fulfillment of all the editorial requirements for improving one's paper results in a greater publication output in English-medium journals of an NNS scholar.

**Pedagogies of Professional Writing: From Critical Reading to Autonomous Writing**

Research findings in the field of professional writing triggered development of various pedagogical models. Swales, Feak and Hixson (2000) developed a self-study guide which introduces rhetorical moves strategy for writing abstracts, introductions, and literature reviews. One more approach targets scholars' linguistic knowledge together with their knowledge about inequalities in access to resources and power relations in scholarly writing (Curry & Lillis, 2013). Yet, little attention has been given to the role of autonomous writing competence and its sub-skills in successful writing for publication.

The present paper, in addressing the issue of successful professional writing, suggests that one's linguistic competence and a set of metalinguistic competences lead not only to better writing skills but also to higher independence in an NNS researcher's process of writing. In other words, writers should be aware of and be able to independently work with their papers on the text level (linguistic competence) and produce reader-friendly manuscripts (i.e. demonstrate an ability to identify moves in a text, hedging, boosting, etc.). L2 professional writing researchers also should be able to apply different forms of feedback which encourage and facilitate the process of writing (Hyland & Hyland, 2006; Armstrong, 2011).

It seems that another approach to teaching research writing on the basis of developing of a certain type of the reading competence might be suggested and the set of metalinguistic competencies defined in this paper seem to be closely related to critical reading competence.

Critical reading can be broadly defined as one's ability to critically engage with a text and understand hidden assumptions and implications under its surface. Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) conclude that in most cases this critical competence includes the following abilities: to identify an argument and important relationships in a text, make data-based inferences and conclusions, and evaluate authority in a text. On the whole, many scholars and education specialists follow the definition and offer their interpretations of the concept for a particular academic setting and educational goals .

In order to measure one's critical reading ability defined as high-order cognitive skill (Burden & Byrd, 1994) a set of sub-skills and strategies are specified. For a good reader it is necessary to distinguish between facts and opinions and relevant from irrelevant claims and information. It is also critical to be able to determine if a statement is accurate, non-ambiguous and strong as well as to decide if a source is credible. Finally, critical reading means one's ability to identify assumptions and detect bias and logical fallacies.

It seems that critical reading competence with the context of higher education is commonly related to two domains. The first one is connected to non-discipline specific vs discipline-specific reading. The former means reading for understanding any text content, key ideas, assumptions and implications made by its author (Appendix 1) while the latter incorporates reading in a particular discipline, selecting proper sources and reading for developing one's research process (Appendix 1). These approaches, undertaken by subject teachers at a university, usually do not focus on the linguistic side of how the key elements of critical reading competence, are expressed in L2 writing by the NS author.

By contrast, the second domain of critical reading skills integration is related to the field of teaching English as second or other Language (TESOL) where teaching is primarily related to reading for understanding common (widely applied) linguistic framing of such issues as research results or literature review, as well as identifying academic vocabulary and academic grammar, text structure, and writer's opinion. It seems that this approach fails to take into account the content and relevance of a particular disciplinary text for the reading goals of a particular scholar who is learning the skill of writing his/her own research results in a particular field.

Critical reading serves two purposes which, in the field of teaching writing for publication, might be possibly integrated into one critical reading competence for discovering important information in a text and how it is expressed from a linguistic point of view, i.e. both at the linguistic level and at the metacognitive level. The developed reading competence might further foster more advanced research writing skills if reading into writing TESOL approaches are undertaken (see for example, http://qoo.by/2u2U).

The following section of the paper investigates the degree of development of research writing competence, which comprises three main components (writer's autonomy, linguistic competence and critical professional reading skills) among NNS writers.

**Research Methodology. Research Context**

The University is a leading University. Although it is a relatively young institution (only 20 years old), it has undergone a number of development stages from being a purely educational body to becoming a pioneering national research university. In 2013, the government launched a contest '5/100' and invited institutions to compete for additional government funding. The main aim of the initiative was to select five leading Universities across Russia which could become competitive in the international higher education market by the year 2020, and to provide them with substantial financial support so that they can join the world top ratings of Universities (see http://expert.ru/ural/2012/38/5-100-2020/).

Once the university was granted the status of a research center in 2007, all the staff members were strongly advised to publish their research papers in English in order to join the global academic community. Publication activity of its staff has also become the key criterion of the assessment of the effectiveness of the University and its employees. The University has been toughening employment policy requirements and scholars are increasingly expected to submit their findings to established and Scopus or Web of

Science indexed journals which are considered to be at the highest level of scientific research publishing hierarchy.

At the same time, most researchers, who have substantial experience in successfully publishing their papers in Russian, feel rather stressed. Issues that scholars commonly raise in everyday discussion include the following: lack of knowledge and skills of good academic writing in English for scientific purposes, 'too local' research design framework which does not contribute to the global research agenda, lack of academic literacy(ies), unawareness and fear of (or resistance to) the nature and laws of global academic community are just a few of the factors (reasons) which make publishing in English a great challenge to the NRU HSE scholars. Among the above-mentioned obstacles, critical reading of published L2 research in one's field is only occasionally rated by scholars as a core skill for successful witting in L2 and it seems that not all researchers are aware of its importance.

**Respondents**

This study was carried out within the NRU HSE, St. Petersburg. Sixteen scholars, who met the B2 English competence benchmark, and enrolled for attending modules in academic writing run by the Department of Foreign Languages, participated in the research. The respondents had different academic/research backgrounds and came from various disciplines (Sociology, Economics, Management, and Philosophy). The respondents are equally distributed across the four disciplines which allow making relevant compare/contrast analysis of interview results.

The majority of the respondents held a Russian PhD equivalent and had no experience of studying for a degree abroad. On the whole, they were active L1 writers who had more than eight published papers in Russian. All the researchers had little experience in L2 research writing (see Figure 1) and were novice writers.

**Research Methods. Data Collection**

Semi-structured Interviews

In accordance with the main aim, the following approach and methodology were used. A semi-structured interview was chosen in order to learn more about the NNS writers' experiences and related skills and it was administered to 16 faculty members at the university. The interview was carried out in English (which was the medium of instruction) and integrated in the course structure with an extra goal of promoting writers' self-reflection on their writing practices. An interview guide was developed with the aim to learn about scholars' writing for publication experiences, their writing autonomy, linguistic competence, and critical reading abilities both in L1 and L2. The reader-friendly text concept (Armstrong, 1986), writing feedback issue and the reading in the discipline competence became the basis for developing the guide.

The interview guide consisted of two main parts and four sections. The first one includes two sections with items relating to the positive/negative experiences of autonomous writing for publication in L1/L2 and questions about perceptions of one's linguistic competence in L2 and its role in successful writing up the research in English. The third section focuses on the writers' L1 critical reading strategies and practices.

The second part of interview questions (Section 4) were text-based (an English-medium research article from a particular field) and helped to learn about researchers' L2 writing and reading experience (including an ability to identify moves (Swales, 2000), an ability to reflect upon audience, purpose, style, text structure, hedging, positioning yourself as a writer in L2, using evidence vs. example).

Data analysis

The data from interviews was transcribed using MS Word application and coded in Excel in accordance with the key interview questions for its further analysis. For example, critical reading competence in L2 was coded as "Can do/ can't do" statements across such components as abilities in identifying moves in LR, hedging, boosters, writer's opinion, genre, arguments (reasoning thread), premises and

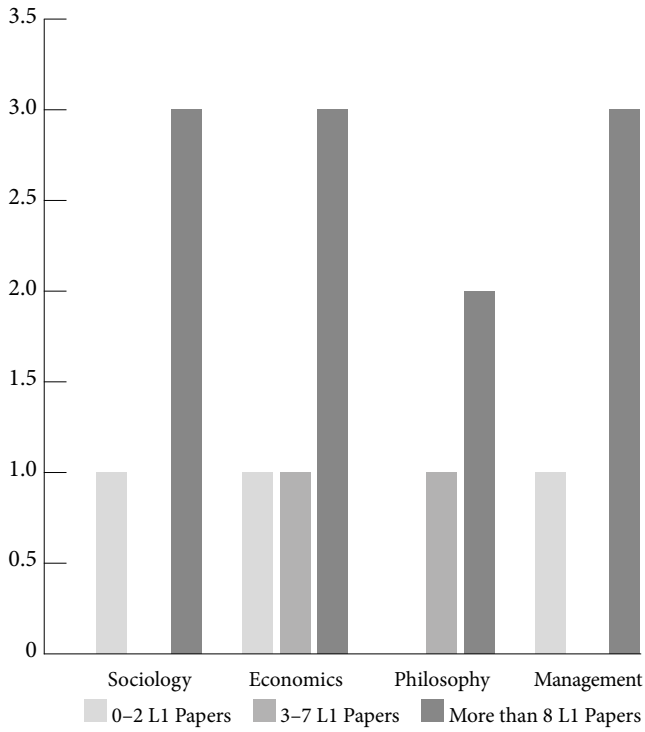



*Figure 1.* Number of L1 publications in each discipline.

conclusions, descriptions, background information, explanations, text relationships (cause-effect, sequence, chronological, problem-solution), data-based inferences and conclusions, thesis statement, evidence and examples.

## Results and Discussion

### Autonomy in Writing

Overall, the majority of scholars (12 people) confirmed their highly developed L1 writing skills as well as marked lack of independent L2 writing for publication skills. The results revealed some interesting local traditions in research writing in L1. Feedback in L1 writing is mostly related to formal editing of a text and meeting journal's publication requirements (paper structure, referencing style, etc.) rather than to revising the paper content. Independent writing in their native language was commonly explained by one's Russian language competence and experience in research writing in the course of study for their PhD. Postgraduate study and awareness of disciplinary thinking patterns helped the writers' to easily do referencing as well as making claims and assumptions in their Russian texts.

All the interviewees confirmed their experience in collaborative writing and its benefits in terms of time-efficiency and access to resources ("journal editor personal contacts", "a fee for publishing a text"). The majority of respondents proofread their papers themselves and rarely had their L1 text proofread by a peer as they saw no need in it ("do not fancy this idea", "feel insecure" or "do not trust"). Finding an appropriate outlet was marked as not a difficult one, and the only obstacle was "a substantial fee for publication" or "lack of close contacts with the editor".

By contrast, writing in L2 seems to be a far challenging task. All the interviewees said that they were not able to proofread their text in English, find a proper journal for publication. The majority of writers emphasized that following referencing requirements and developing key arguments are highly difficult ("I usually write "I think or we believe" to express my opinion). Collaborative writing was unknown experience for the writers and only two interviewees had a little experience in dealing with feedback provided by NS reviewers. The majority of the interviewees expressed their concerns with the lack of access to such resources as NS proofreading and subject specific critical reviewing of the paper content.

Only four interviewees mentioned the importance of knowing publishing strategies such as "how to find a journal", "how to deal with reviewers", and "personal attitude – fear and stress of being rejected" while the majority of respondents' answers (13 people) confirmed that that they needed to develop their writing skills in L2. On the whole, the results showed that the majority of respondents were experienced L1 (Russian) researchers and writers with very little experience in L2 writing for publication.

### Linguistic Competence

The linguistic competence interview section revealed that the majority of scholars "can write" and they "know English grammar and have good vocabulary knowledge". The majority of interviewees emphasized that professional vocabulary and writing in English in the discipline seemed to be difficult but they can produce a research text with a certain structure and a suggested title. The key concern expressed by the writers was that they did not know how to check if the research text met the required L2 writing standards and what these standards were (common comments were "I did not study for a degree abroad to know the writing requirements").

Overall, all of the interviewees stated that "it is the English language competence which makes you a successful writer" which is mostly the results of one's experience of studying for a research degree (which includes learning how to write up research results) in the UK or the USA. Despite good English language proficiency, the majority of respondents (14 scholars) stated that their texts did not look "native and polished" and were written in "Russian English".

### Critical Reading Skills

The interview results supported the idea that the writers have advanced L1 critical reading skills and are able to identify text structure, the way authors develop their arguments, signal about important claims, premises and conclusions. However, five interviewees stated that in some cases it was difficult to understand and identify in a Russian research text the writer's purpose ("hard to find the central claim", "messy ideas"). One interesting finding is related to citing practices of L1 writers. The majority of interviewees said that they could reference any research texts or monographs and no one treated referencing as a strategy for increasing their paper acceptance chances in a particular journal. One more interesting finding of the present study was that writers were not aware of hedging and boosting in their native language and did not treat them as important in their writing.

The set of interview text-based questions (an English–medium research article from one's field) helped to learn about the researchers' L2 reading experience and skills. The majority of the scholars (15 people) demonstrated their ability to reflect upon audience, define the purpose and the style of the paper. Descriptions, explanations and text relationships of

cause-effect, sequence, and chronological were also easily distinguished by the majority of interviewees. However, only two interviewees were able to identify moves in the Literature Review section. Only one scholar paid attention to the author's hedging and positioning and identified their linguistic framing.

However, a number of key challenges were identified. They included the identification of a writer's opinion and argumentation thread as well as a thesis statement in the paper (with a common comment "I understand all the words in the paragraph but I still can't see the point"). Finally, the majority of interviewees failed to evaluate authority in the given text. They also stated that it was hard to say if the works cited by the author were reliable and that they rarely referred to L2 texts when they wrote L1 research papers. One interviewee explained that "I draw on the substantial research base generated in Russia in my filed and why should I refer to any international research papers which are produced in a different country and research environment".

It seems that critical reading skills posed various levels of difficulty to the NNS writers and that the writers, despite their advanced L1 reading competence and substantial experience in L1 research and its writing, required support in developing their L2 critical skills of understanding a text both at the linguistic and metalinguistic levels. The interview results support the idea that autonomous L2 critical reading skills are required by scholars in order to be able to perceive/produce reader-friendly texts which mostly means to have syntactic awareness and metacognitive reading strategies (Nergis, 2013). In other words, it is suggested that autonomous L2 academic writers should master the whole range of critical reading competence components and as a result they will be able to recognize disciplinary genre and incorporate its patterns into their own L2 texts.

**L1 vs L2 Professional Writing**

Some interesting findings were revealed in relation to writing in a discipline. The writers in the fields of Sociology, Economics and Management shared very similar L1 vs L2 writing perceptions and attitudes and differed from writers in the field of Philosophy. Both Scholar A and Scholar B (an economist and philosopher, respectively) admitted it was their inability to understand/make hidden assumptions, clear logical reasoning, find/define bias rather than their English language competence which did not allow them to be autonomous writers. For example, Scholar A mentioned: "I know all the words in the sentence but I still cannot understand what he (author) means in this case." Both scholars stated that this difficulty did not allow them to write "high-quality papers".

Another finding was that L1 writing tradition was interfering with L2 writing style and approach. Scholar B responded: "It seems to me that I write in "Russian" English. I mean my papers look Russian and I do not know how to explain it". Scholar A expressed the same concern that he tended to write his L2 papers similarly to L1 style. The NS reviewers' feedback on his texts was mostly related to style rather than to linguistic choice. L1 writing is aimed at only specialists in a scholar's field and L1 articles seem to be very specialized and not for a general reader. It is "the job" of the reader to understand the text and hear the writer's voice.

The interview session also helped reveal some not only disciplinary conventions in professional writing but also differences in L1 and L2 professional writing (see Table 3). It is clear that Economics and Philosophy are two different fields of studies with their own research genres and styles. Of particular interest will be the differences within one discipline but in L1 and L2 discourses.

Scholar B's answers provide more insights into professional writing. A text title to a text in L1 serves to draw attention of the reader and is described as "provocative" while in L2 context it is rather formal. This feature is also reflected in the text structure. It is important both to follow the fixed structure of a text and a style of writing when you "play with the reader". Interestingly, the number of references in an L1 text will be quite fixed (ten references per page) while in L2 the writer should make a rational choice of when and what to refer to. L1 texts tend to be impersonal (no I/we) with the lots of hedges with the aim to give credit to the existing scholars' works and "not be arrogant". By contrast, though L2 texts are full of hedges they serve a different purpose and help the writer to provide some room for discussion.

Scholar A's answers also revealed a number of L1/L2 differences in writing for publication. The L2 title serves to draw the attention of the reader while L1 title is quite formal in its style. The text structure seems to be more comprehensive in an L2 article as it also includes the discussion section with the critical contribution to the field. Referencing patterns seem to be similar in both discourses as well as the impersonal style of writing. Hedging patterns are also very similar which might be explained by the fact that disciplinary writing in L1 has imported L2 writing genres in Economics (as well as in Sociology and Management).

The research findings showed similar results to the study by Armstrong (2011) and Hyland and Hyland (2006) that an ability to produce L2 reader-friendly texts is the next challenge after English language competence for NNS scholars. A particular focus should be made on developing an NNS writer ability to differentiate between L1 and L2 research discourses and be aware of general research writing standards as well as of particular disciplinary similarities/differences in research texts.

## Conclusion

The main aim of the research was to examine professional L1 /L2 writing competences among staff members of a university as well as to make some pedagogical suggestions in the field of NNS professional writing. The paper suggests that autonomous writing skills, linguistic competence and L2 critical reading competence should be developed to produce written texts of a particular genre in a particular discipline.

Overall, the research results show that the NNS scholars lack an ability to independently work with their papers on the text level (linguistic competence) and produce reader-friendly manuscripts (a set of metalinguistic competencies related to one's L2 critical reading skills of professional texts). L2 professional writing researchers also fail to apply different forms of L2 feedback though it is a key prerequisite which encourages and facilitates the process of writing (Hyland & Hyland, 2006; Armstrong, 2011). Finally, the interview results reveal that the writers are not always aware of and are not able to effectively use key resources for L2 high quality writing.

The paper suggests that poor L2 critical reading skills should be developed so that researchers will first learn to perceive a written text and later to produce written texts of a particular genre in a particular discipline. L2 writing competence is closely related to one's ability to critically engage with an academic text written not only in L2 but also in L1. As a result researchers are able to fully convey their research story in L2.

Although the study results seem to support the hypothesis of the importance of mastering autonomous writing skills, acquiring an advanced linguistic competence, and developing L2 critical reading skills for successful L2 writing for publication, a larger-scale research with a bigger sample needs to be conducted in order to have a better understanding of the positive impact of development of all the three components. It would also be necessary to incorporate a TESOL test method component in order to receive an objective measurement of one's linguistic, reading and writing competence and compare test results with the self-assessed writers' skills.

The research findings have implications for developing pedagogies of research writing which could be applied to TESOL and are relevant to the Russian geocultural setting (Velikaya, 2008). In particular, a teaching "writing for publication" model should include the development of a list of critical competencies with three sections. The first one should comprise independent writing skills and strategies such as applying feedback, revising and editing and choosing a publication outlet. The next section should incorporate a set of English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) knowledge and skills relevant within a researcher's field with particular disciplinary conventions in research writing. Finally, extended critical reading in L2, as a set of sub-skills (e.g. developing a thesis statement, argumentation thread, paragraphing, hedging, etc.) should be developed for a particular disciplinary discourse as well as skills of differentiating between L1 and L2 research discourses and their effective application in one's professional writing. The defined set of competencies might become the basis for creating a new reading into writing teaching framework and developing a self-study manual for NNS professional writers.

Overall, the research findings are important for a number of reasons. First, conducting the research within the Russian geo-cultural space seems to be challenging and provides more insights into the complex issue of professional academic writing in English. Second, the research provides more research data on L1 and L2 roles in professional writing within a parallel language environment and about the academic bilingualism among modern Russian scholars (Mezek, 2013).

## References

Armstrong, C. (1986). Reader-Based and writer-based perspectives in composition instruction. *Rhetoric Review*, *5*(1), 84–89.

Armstrong, T. (2011). Reader-Friendliness and feedback: German-L1 scholars' perceptions of writing for publication in English. *Journal of Academic Writing*, *1*(1), 153–164.

Belcher, D. D. (2007). Seeking acceptance in an English-only research world. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *16*(1), 1–22.

Burden, P., & Byrd, D. (1994). *Teaching; Effective teaching*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Canagarajah, A. S. (1996). ''Nondiscursive" requirements in academic publishing, material resources of periphery scholars, and the politics of knowledge production. *Written Communication*, *13*(4), 435–472.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2002). Multilingual writers and the academic community: Towards a critical relationship. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *1*(1), 29–44.

Casanave, C. P., & Hubbard, P. (1992). The writing assignments and writing problems of doctoral students: Faculty perceptions, pedagogical issues, and needed research. *English for Specific Purposes*, *11*(1), 33–49.

Curry, M. J., & Lillis, T. (2004). Multilingual scholars and the imperative to publish in English: Negotiating interests, demands, and rewards. *TESOL Quarterly*, *38*(4), 663–688.

Curry, M. J., & Lillis, T. (2013). *A scholar's guide to getting published in English. Practical choices, critical*

*strategies*. Clevedon, UK: Mutilingual Matters.

Dong, W. C. (2009). Science journal paper writing in an EFL context: The case of Korea. *English for Specific Purposes*, *28*, 230–239.

Duszak, A., & Lewkowicz, J. (2008). Publishing academic texts in English: A Polish perspective. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *7*(2), 108–120.

ElMalik, A. T., & Nesi, H. (2008). Publishing research in a second language: The case of Sudanese contributors to international medical journals. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *7*(2), 87–96.

Flowerdew, J. (1999a). Writing for scholarly publication in English: The case of Hong Kong. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *8*(2), 123–145.

Flowerdew, J. (1999b). Problems in writing for scholarly publication in English: The case of Hong Kong. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *8*(3), 243–264.

Flowerdew, J. (2001). Attitudes of journal editors to non-native speaker contributors. *TESOL Quarterly*, *35*(1), 121–150.

Flowerdew, J. (2008). Scholarly writers who use English as an additional language: What can Goffman's ''Stigma" tell us? *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *7*(1), 77–86.

Giannoni, D. S. (2008). Medical writing at the periphery: The case of Italian journal editorials. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *7*(2), pp. 97–107.

Gosden, H. (1995). Success in research article writing and revision: A social-constructionist perspective. *English for Specific Purposes*, *14*(1), 37–57.

Gosden, H. (1996). Verbal reports of Japanese novices' research writing practices in English. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *5*(2), 109–128.

Gosden, H. (2003). 'Why not give us the full story?': Functions of referees' comments in peer reviews of scientific research papers. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *2*(2), 87–101.

Jaroongkhongdach, W., Todd, R. W., Keyuravong, S., & Hall, D. (2012). Differences in quality between Thai and international research articles in ELT. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *11*(3), 194–209.

Hyland, K., Hyland, F. (Eds.). (2006). *Feedback in second language writing: Contexts and issues*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Jenkins, S., Jordan, M. K., & Weiland, P. O. (1993). The role in writing of graduate engineering education: A survey of faculty beliefs and practices. *English for Specific Purposes*, *12*(1), 51–67.

Jenkins, J., Cogo, A., & Dewey, M. (2011). Review of developments in research into English as a lingua franca. *Language Teaching*, *44*, 281–315.

Li, Y.-Y. (2006a). Negotiating knowledge contribution to multiple discourse communities: A doctoral student of computer science writing for publication. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *15*(3), 159–178.

Li, Y.-Y. (2006b). A doctoral student of physics writing for publication: A sociopolitically-oriented case study. *English for Specific Purposes*, *25*(4), 456–478.

Li, Y.-Y., & Flowerdew, J. (2007). Shaping Chinese novice scientists' manuscripts for publication. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *16*(2), 100–117.

Lillis, T., & Curry, M. J. (2010). *Academic writing in a global context*. London, UK: Routledge.

Lillis, T., Hewings, A., Vladimirou, D., & Curry, M. J. (2010). The geolinguistics of English as an academic lingua franca: Citation practices across English medium national and English medium international journals. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *20*(1), 111–135.

Mezek, S. (2013). Multilingual reading proficiency in an emerging parallel-language environment. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *12,* 166–179.

Miller, A., Taylor, S., & Bedeian, A. (2011). Publish or perish: Academic life as management faculty live it. *Career Development International*, *16*(5), 422–445.

Pascarella, E., & Terenzini, P. (1991). *How college affects students.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Salager-Meyer, F. (2008). Scientific publishing in developing countries: Challenges for the future. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *7*(2), 121–132.

Shaw, P. (1991). Science research students' composing processes. *English for Specific Purposes*, *10*(3), 189–206.

Swales, J. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Swales, J. (2004). *Research genres: Explorations and applications*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Swales, J., Feak, C., & Hixson, V. (2000) *English in today's research world: A writing guide*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.

Velikaya, E. (2008). Developing students' academic skills in a Russian context. In M. Krzanowski (Ed.), *Current Developments in English for Academic, Specific and Occupational Purposes* (pp. 267–273). Reading, UK: Garnet Education.

# Appendix 1

## Links to online resources detailing critical reading modes

*General critical reading ability is available at:*
http://www.criticalreading.com/critical_reading.htm,http://ctl.utsc.utoronto.ca/twc/sites/default/files/CriticalReading.pdf,http://www.writing.utoronto.ca/advice/reading-and-researching/critical-reading

*Non-discipline specific reading mode is available at:*
http://www.eecs.harvard.edu/~michaelm/postscripts/ReadPaper.pdf,http://www.skillsandethics.org/wp-content/uploads/2011/05/Reading-a-journal-article-2010.pdf,https://www.york.ac.uk/media/biology/documents/careers/critical_reading_handout.pdf

*Discipline-specific reading mode is available at:*

- reading in a particular discipline (http://faculty.ksu.edu.sa/77632/Documents/Critically%20Reading%20Journal%20Articles.pdf,http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/7722677,http://nursing.uthscsa.edu/crrp/content/intro.pdf
- selecting proper sources (http://qoo.by/2u32)
- reading for developing one's research process (http://www.planta.cn/forum/files_planta/critical_reading_making_sense_of_research_papers_in_life_sciences_and_medicine_205.pdf

National Research University Higher School of Economics
Journal of Language & Education Volume 1, Issue 4, 2015

Stognieva, O. (2015). Implementing Peer Assessment in a Russian University ESP Classroom. *Journal of Language and Education, 1*(4), 63-73. doi:10.17323/2411-7390-2015-1-4-63-73

# Implementing Peer Assessment in a Russian University ESP Classroom

**Olga Stognieva**
National Research University Higher School of Economics

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Olga Stognieva, National Research University Higher School of Economics, Kirpichnaya, 33, Moscow, Russian Federation, 115187.
E-mail: 2507794@mail.ru

In order to develop the skills and competences required in a professional environment, university students have to reflect on their own role in the learning process. The traditional methods of assessment do not assess reflective thinking, critical thinking, self-evaluation and peer evaluation. Peer assessment may be a way to solve this problem. In this paper, it is researched how peer assessment could be applied to higher education and the effect of using this form of assessment on the quality of learning. The methodology to investigate the effect of peer assessment as a part of the learning process includes literature observation, case study, developing protocols and marking criteria rules for peer assessment, examples of peer assessment strategies and activities. The results of the research demonstrate that peer assessment methods of either written or oral performance can trigger a deeper involvement of students both in the learning and in the assessment process, keep motivation up and develop some qualities essential for future professional life. Therefor peer assessment could be effectively integrated in the course of ESP at the Moscow Higher School of Economics.

*Keywords:* peer assessment strategies, marking criteria, evaluation methods, reflective practice

The main goal of professional higher education is to help students to become reflective practitioners who are able to critically evaluate their own professional practice (Schon, 1983; Falchikov, 2002; Davies, 2006). Students in real-life situations must be able to analyse information, apply their problem-solving skills and communication abilities, and to reflect on their own role in the learning process.

The traditional methods of testing in ESP classroom do not fit such goals as reflective thinking, critical thinking, self and peer evaluation (Dochy, Segers, & Sluijsmans, 1999). Assessment procedures should not only serve as a way to monitor the students' progress but also to reflect the tasks that students will encounter in the world beyond university. Therefore, the interest in alternative assessment practices is increasing globally. At the English Language Department for Economic and Mathematical Disciplines in the Higher School of Economics (HSE) in Moscow, Russia, there is a demand for time effective assessment techniques for evaluating the students studying English for Specific Purposes (ESP) at the faculty of Business Informatics. Interaction is a common feature of communication in everyday and professional lives and this needs to be reflected in the assessment procedures, or at least taken into consideration.

## Materials and Methods

### Research Questions

In this paper, the author argues that peer assessment can be effectively integrated in the teaching-learning process and bring significant benefits to students such as an improvement in their ability to direct their own learning, and their own performances and to become interdependent members of the professional and scholarly communities, which according to Schon (1983) emphasizes, the central role that peers play in providing structured opportunities for discussion and reflection.

It addresses the following research questions:

a) How could peer assessment be applied to ESP courses in HSE?
b) What is the effect of using this form of assessment on the quality of oral and written performance?



This article is published under the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

The rest of the paper has been organised in the following way: first, the theoretical grounding for peer assessment will be reviewed. Second, guidelines, rules and marking criteria for peer assessment will be presented and some examples of peer assessment strategies used at the Higher School of Economics will be provided. Third, the case study will be described, which verifies the effectiveness of peer assessment in teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP). The final section outlines the results of the study and makes suggestions for future educational practices in Russian universities.

**Definition of Peer Assessment**

This paper uses two mutually helpful definitions of peer assessments. First, Falchikov defines peer assessment as 'the process whereby groups of individuals rate their peers, who are students of equal status to one another' (Falchikov, 1995, p. 176). This process may or may not entail previous discussion or agreement over criteria. It may involve the use of rating instruments or checklists, which have been designed by others, before the peer assessment exercise, or they be designed by the user group to meet their particular needs. Second, peer assessment has also been suggested to be a way of evaluating the quality or success of either a person or a product by others (Topping et al., 2000). Therefore, peer assessment feeds self-assessment activities particularly through the cycle of receiving and giving feedback.

Students often undertake peer assessment in conjunction with formal self-assessment at university. They reflect on their own efforts, and enrich this reflection by exchanging feedback on their own and their peers' work.

Peer assessment can be a powerful meta-cognitive tool. Rogers (1969, p. 104) emphasises that 'we cannot teach another person directly; we can only facilitate their learning.' A person learns mostly only those things, which they are involved in. Peer assessment engages students in the learning process and develops their capacity to reflect on and critically evaluate their own learning and skill development. It supports the development of critical thinking, interpersonal and other skills, as well as enhancing understanding within the field of knowledge of a discipline. Peer and group assessment are also often undertaken at the same time. Normally, as in a business environment, the members of a group assess the performance of their peers in terms of their contribution to the group's overall work.

**Benefits of Peer Assessment**

Peer assessment is a powerful tool that contributes significantly to the learning process. The most important advantage of self-assessment and peer assessment is that it makes students realise that 'success or failure depends not on innate talent, luck or ability, but on practice, effort and using the right strategies. This is motivating and empowering' (Petty, 2009, p. 275).

Peer assessment has the following benefits:

- it engages students in the learning process and develops their ability to reflect on and evaluate their own learning and development of skills (Race, 2001)
- it can foster levels of responsibility among students for they must be fair and accurate with the judgement they make regarding their peers (Keaten & Richardson, 1993)
- it can develop reflective learners who take responsibility for their learning and develop lifelong learning skills (White, 2011)
- it helps to integrate knowledge and better understand required standards (Hanrahan & Isaacs, 2001)
- when structured marking schemes are used, peer assessment has an acceptably high level of validity and reliability (Sadler & Good, 2006)
- it can increase confidence (Topping et al., 2000)
- it encourages students to participate actively in tutorial activities (Divaharan & Atputhasamy, 2003)
- it can reduce the lecturer's assessment workload (Hernandez, 2010)
- with formalised peer assessment processes, students can become more active agents in assessment procedures. 'Students thus feel the ownership of the assessment (and learning) process rather than alienated or victimised by it' (Nulty, 2009, p. 3)

Despite the fact that many researchers have recognized peer assessment as a valuable tool for assessment and learning in education, it is underestimated in HSE. Peer assessment is not normal practice and peer assessment strategies are not widely applied in teaching practices at HSE (Zhavoronkova, 2014, p. 143). This paper is aimed at suggesting the ways of peer assessment strategies can be effectively integrated in the curriculum of the ESP courses at the Moscow Higher School of Economics.

This study on peer assessment was conducted at the Moscow Higher School of Economics, while teaching the Preparation for IELTS course to 24-second year students (aged 19–20) from the faculty of Business Informatics. The second year students were selected because they are likely to be searching for permanent work after university, and the skills presented in the intervention would be helpful for them to learn for their future workplace. As the students initially were not familiar with any peer assessment rules and procedures, at the pre-research stage it was

essential to explain them how it could be effectively assimilated in the learning process. That enables students to better understand assessment rules and procedures, and work towards improving their own performance.

### Developing Guidelines and Rules for Peer Assessment

For peer assessment to be effective in the classroom, it is important that students are made aware of the rules for giving feedback to their peers. This will help to create a learning environment based on trust and mutual respect. The teacher may wish to involve students in the process of creating the rules or devise the teacher's own set of rules. The teacher may offer the students to think of five rules that they believe are important for effective peer assessment and make them into a list. Then the students should compare their lists with a partner's and decide which suggestions are the best five from the two lists. The responses can then be used to develop a list of ground rules, which can be displayed in classrooms. A sample of peer feedback guidelines, as displayed in Figure 1, might be used as support to conduct the procedure of peer assessment if students have never done it before.

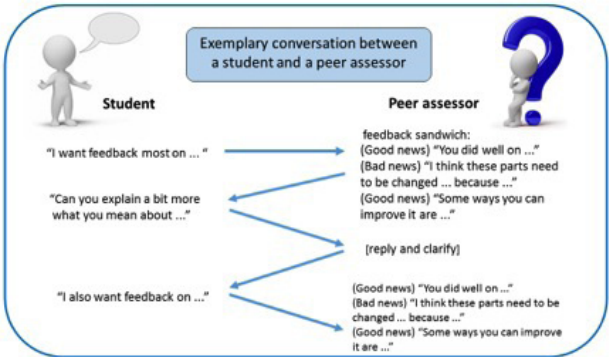



*Figure 1.* Sample of peer feedback guidelines.

### Examples of Peer Assessment Strategies Used in ESP Classes

In this section, some examples of peer assessment strategies, which are divided into three levels of difficulty, will be described. The activities mentioned in this section are adapted from White (2011), implemented in ESP classes at the Higher School of Economics for they are new for Russian ESP classes, and allow achieving the goals of this research. As peer assessment skills could be developed in the process of systematical tuition, all the activities have been practiced before the main part of the research was conducted in order to allow the students to acquire some peer assessment skills. It was designed to teach them three levels of peer assessment strategies and to contribute to the development of reflective thinking and deeper involvement of students both in the learning and in the assessment process.

In case the student has never encountered peer assessment strategies before, more simple tasks can be offered, like Feedback strips, PMI or Spoof assessment.

Feedback Strips: these are useful for oral presentations or demonstrations. They can be short and simple and more than one peer can provide the feedback. The name of the person being observed is written on the strip and the observer completes the prompts.

Name: .....
Today you did well on ...
One thing you could work on improving is ...
Next time you could try ...

*PMI:* this is another tool that can be used to help students to evaluate a piece of writing or presentation, which is a 'pluses, minuses and interesting' way of evaluating. It encourages students to look at the strengths and weaknesses of the presentation and to think about the evidence for their decisions.

| PLUS / MINUS / INTERESTING |
|---|
| P (+) plus |
| M (-) minus |
| I (?) Interesting |

*Figure 2.* PMI.

*Spoof Assessment* is a fun activity, which is used to teach students how to spot mistakes and correct them. It familiarises them with the marking criteria and prepares them for evaluating their own and others' work. The teacher pairs the students together and gives them a spoof piece of writing with some common errors to begin with. Students work on their own to find what is wrong with it, why it is wrong and how to do it correctly. Each student then explains the errors in their spoof work to their partner, followed by a discussion of why it is wrong.

Since students have been aware of the rules for giving feedback to their peers, they might be offered such activities as *Graphing progress*, *Snowballing*, *The group marking its members*.

*Graphing Student Progress* is an activity that should be done at regular intervals. The teacher asks students to chart their progress and learning. The graph could be constructed using data from class work, test results,

assessment marks or mini class quizzes. Students can then share their charts with the class, in small groups or in pairs. Students may give each other reasons and suggestions as to how they have improved and what goals they wish to achieve next. This task allows students to share their successes with each other, but also allows students to learn from one another through helpful suggestions and advice.

*Snowballing* is an activity that involves students collaborating to produce a group answer. They are organised into small groups and are given questions to answer, which they initially work on individually. Students then compare their answers, reasoning and methods. They discuss them and try to agree on the best answers and decide why they chose that response.

*The group marking its members* is one of the possible processes for formally assessing group work. The teacher assigns a mark to each group, then for students to assign an individual mark to each member of their group, based on the contribution they perceive each to have made to the group's work. A major contributor would receive a mark higher than the group mark and a lesser contributor would receive a lower mark. An average for each student can be generated from the range of marks their peers give them (Brown et al., 1997, p. 175).

At a more advanced level of development of peer assessment skills, students can be offered the *Testing learning*, *Peer composition* or Built in back-feedback strategies to follow.

*Testing Learning* is a pair or small group work to create the students' own questions or tests with a marking scale. The tests can then be shared with other students. Once completed the creators can mark the test and give feedback on how responses could be improved. A number of online sites, including Google docs, can be used by students to create multiple choice quizzes. Smart notebooks also have various interactive activities that can be used to assess learning, including multiple choice questions. A fun version of this is to get students to create a board game where they have to answer questions correctly to move forward. Alternatively, students can create flashcards to test their partner's knowledge.

*Built in back-feedback.* This activity is adapted from Assessment Toolkit of the University of New South Wales Australia (2015). In this activity, the teacher should give an active role to students being assessed by letting them respond to the assessment. For example, students engaged in an extended writing task anonymously exchange work for feedback on a few occasions during the drafting process. Rather than grading each other's work, each student assesses their peer's performance as a reviewer, and this contributes to the final grade of the student doing the peer reviewing. The teacher assesses the quality of feedback given, and this contributes to the group mark of the feedback-providers.

*Peer composition.* This activity (Ghaith, 2014) enables students to assist each other in generating ideas for writing and incorporating peer feedback in order to improve their written work. Firstly, students work individually on their topics, then they are joined into pairs and discuss their plans, taking notes of developed ideas. After that, they write the first paragraph of each composition together, making sure that they have a good start on their compositions (they finish the writing individually). Finally, the students proofread their partner's composition and make suggestions for better writing patterns.

**Case Study**

To explore the effect of peer assessment as a part of the learning process, a case study was conducted among the students, followed by a questionnaire.

The main framework of the methodology was originally inspired by Harvey (2015), but modified for the intervention in Russia.

Firstly, the students were offered to write a descriptive essay following the IELTS Writing Task 1, spending about 20 minutes on this task.

Here is a sample of the task: 'The bar chart at Figure 3 shows the percentage of students who passed their high school competency exams, by subject and gender, during the period 2010–2011. Summarise the information by selecting and reporting the main features, and make comparisons where relevant. Write at least 150 words' (the task is taken from http://www.ielts-exam.net).

At the second stage, the students were divided into small groups of six. In small groups, they were asked to develop marking criteria to use in peer assessing for a particular task and discuss them in general discussion, which took place between all the groups. As Race (2001) outlines, a staged in-class process for developing criteria encourages student engagement and a sense of ownership.

Marking criteria help students to decide whether their peers have achieved the goals of the task or not (White, 2011).

A successful marking criteria includes the following aspects:

- be limited in number so students are not overwhelmed by the scope of the task
- be supported, where necessary, by samples which make their meaning clear
- created with input from students so that they have greater understanding and ownership.

Table 1 indicates the criteria developed in the general discussion and accepted for peer assessment

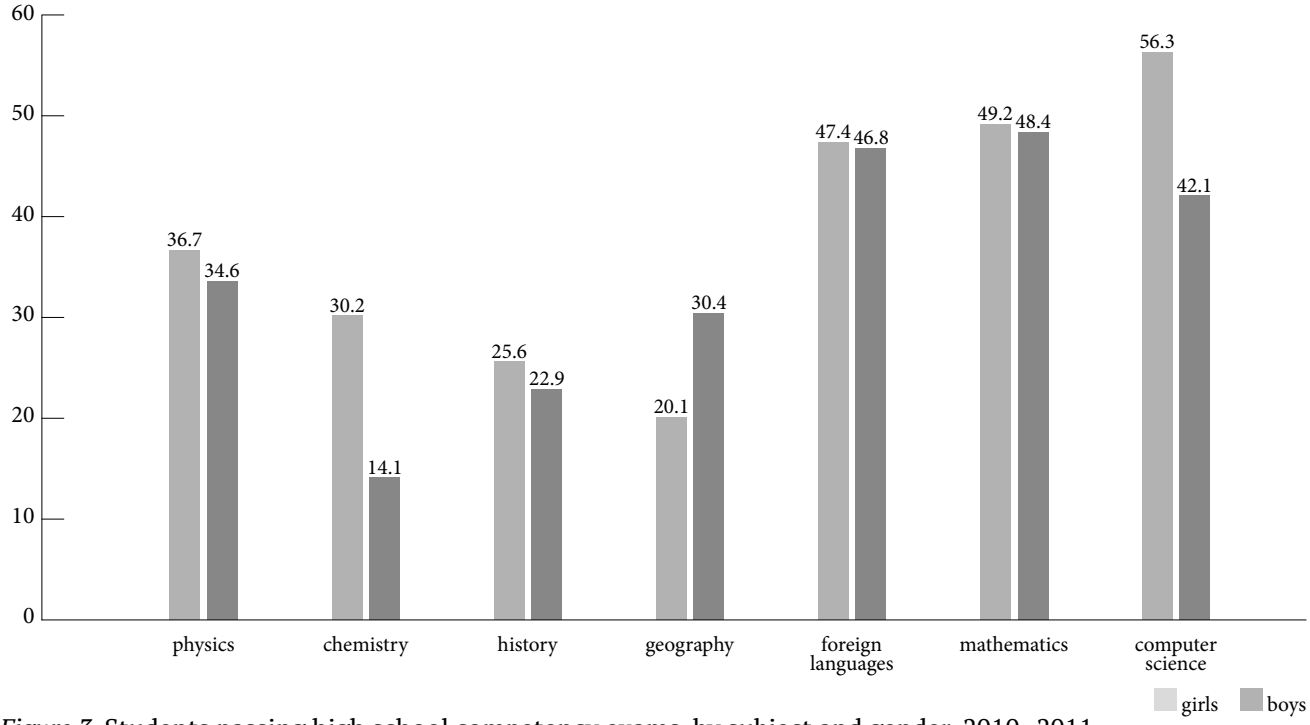



*Figure 3.* Students passing high school competency exams, by subject and gender, 2010–2011.

Table 1
*The criteria developed during the general discussion*

| Criterion | Essay 1 | Essay 2 | Essay 3 | Essay 4 | Essay 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1.The structure of the essay is clear and logically organised | | | | | |
| 2. The introductory sentence is rephrased (introduced in your own words) | | | | | |
| 3. The main key features are summarised | | | | | |
| 4. The main ideas are supported with detailed statistical information from the graph. | | | | | |
| 5. Each paragraph has a clear focus | | | | | |
| 6. An overview of the information is included | | | | | |
| 7. The choice of words and appropriateness of vocabulary | | | | | |
| 8. Grammar accuracy | | | | | |
| Average total numerical grade | | | | | |

of the essay. The choice of criteria was driven by the requirements for IELTS writing part 1.

The differentiation between the various levels of achievement was also discussed, first in small groups and then in general discussion between the groups and presented in Table 2.

Once the students constructed the criteria, they assessed five essays written by their peers according to the criteria they discussed. They assessed each criterion according to the scale 1, 2, 3.....10 with 4 as the lowest pass mark. This enables an average total numerical mark to be awarded, based on the overall criteria. The students were allowed to refer to IELTS Task 1 Writing band descriptors (public version) for more information.

At the fourth stage, the students provided more extended feedback in an oral form, based on how well the criteria are supported by evidence, as well as the style and presentation of the data and give feedback to assign a positive or negative judgment for each essay.

Table 2
*Differentiation between the various levels of achievement*

| Level of achievement | Limited (E) | Just passed (D) | Quite satisfactory (C) | Highly satisfactory (B) | Outstanding (A) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Grades | 1–2–3 | 4–5 | 6–7 | 8–9 | 10 |
| A brief description of the level of achievement | unrelated to the task | generally addresses the task; the format may be inappropriate in places | addresses the requirements of the task | covers all requirements of the task sufficiently | fully satisfies all the requirements |

After peer assessment the students were able to make changes in their assignment if they found their peers' advice valuable.

At the final stage, the teacher analysed all the feedback given and made some adjustments that they considered necessary.

Following their assignment, the students were asked to fill in a questionnaire, which provided information for further analysis.

They were asked the following questions:

1. How did you feel about being assessed by your group-mates?
2. Did you find that assessment made by your group mates was fair?
3. What did you gain from this activity?

## Results

Figure 4 shows student ratings in response to questions about their feelings while being assessed by their peers. The majority of the students (84%) evaluated the experience of being assessed by their peers positively; 16% were less positive about peer assessment, they either disagreed (8%) or strongly disagreed (8%).

75% of students claimed that the feedback they received was constructive and helpful, 13% remained neutral. The remaining 12% of students either disagreed (8%) or strongly disagreed (4%) in response to this statement.

About 70% of the students felt that their assessment of their peers was accurate. They also pointed out that peer assessment is a good method and fair. In general, Figure 5 demonstrates that there was a high level of agreement between the grades given by peers and those given by the teacher.

Figure 6 shows the students' rating in response to three additional questions concerning the qualities, which were developed in the peer review process.

Almost three quarters of the students (71%) pointed out that they developed better skills in assessing other students' essays, because they applied the criteria multiple times, and this process helped them better understand the requirements of the task and became more confident in assessing their peers.

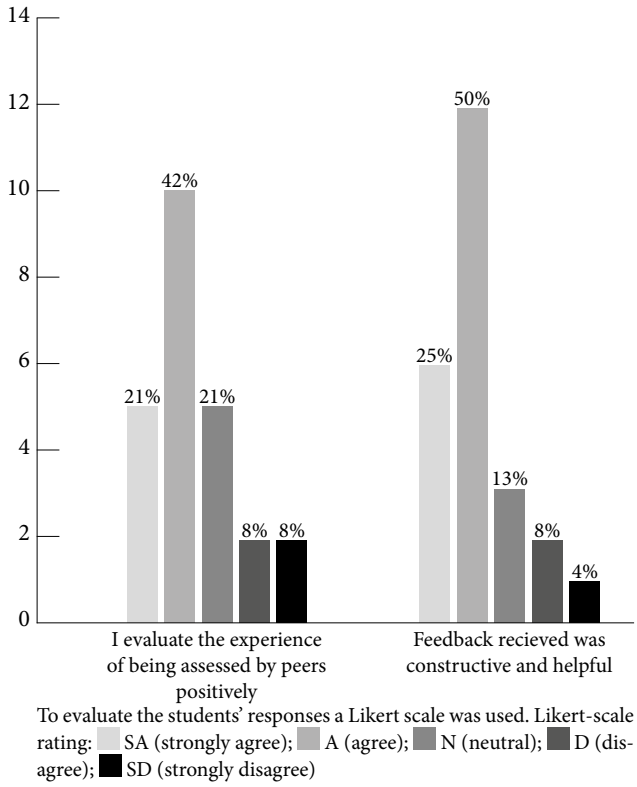



*Figure 4*. The students' answers on how they feel about being assessed by their peers.

75% of the students agreed that the collaborative development of criteria before the task helped them not only to better understand and remember the structure and other components of the essay, but also allowed them to learn a lot about their own work through analysing others. This demonstrates that their learning behaviour became more reflective.

83% of the students agreed that the quality of the task improved in the results of the peer assessment in terms of the developed criteria, and they found that the advice given at the stage of the extended feedback, based on how well criteria are supported by evidence,

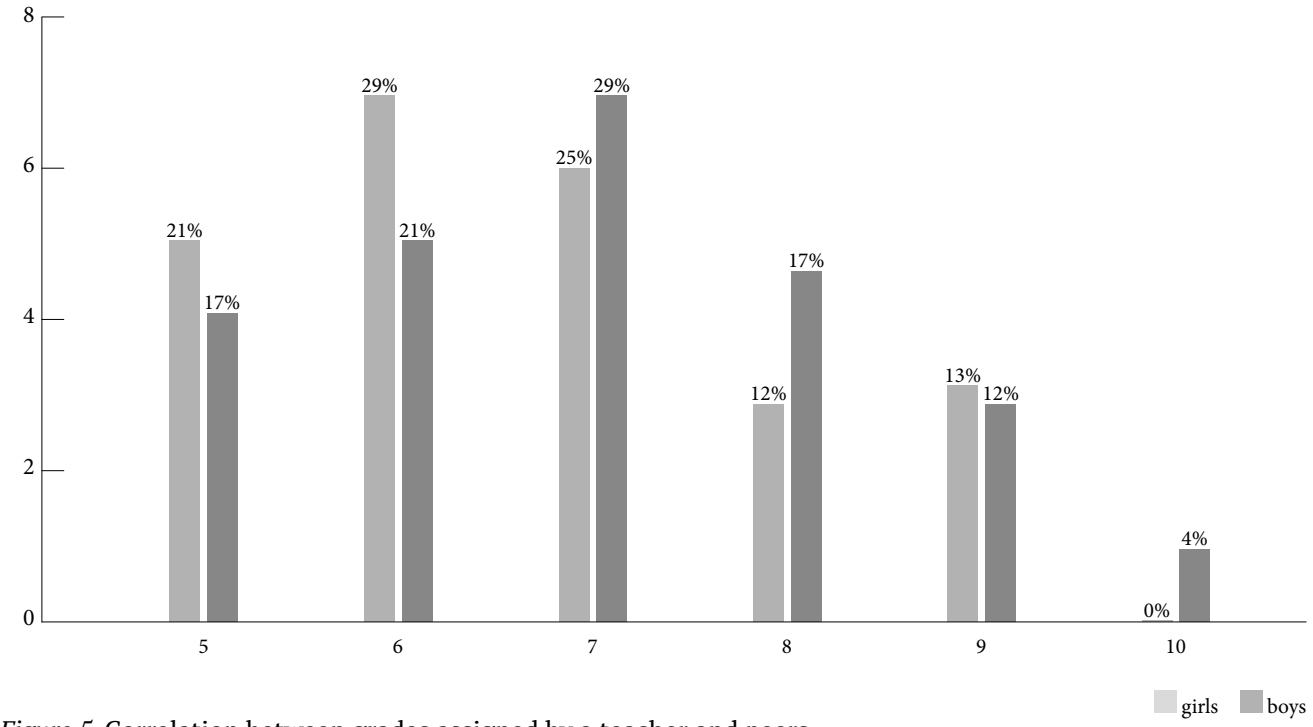



*Figure 5*. Correlation between grades assigned by a teacher and peers.

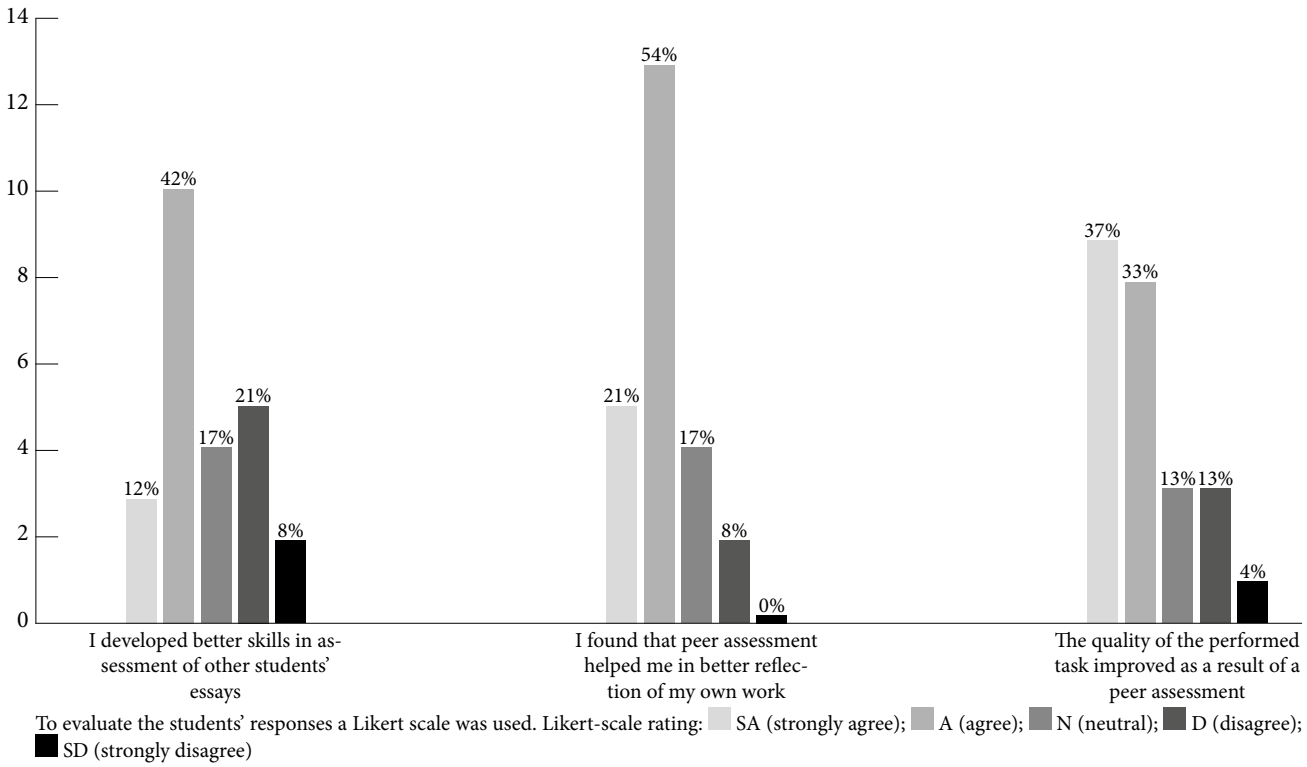



*Figure 6*. The students' answers on what they gained from peer assessment activity.

was very useful. They had improved in confidence and organisation of material. They displayed higher overall performances and significantly better attitudes to the peer assessment process than those students who were not engaged this way. With this exercise, students can reflect on their work early in an assessment process.

For better understanding of the changes and improvements made in the process of peer assessment,

an example of pre-peer assessment piece of writing (Essay 1) and after-peer assessment version (Essay 2) is provided.

**Essay 1**

*The bar chart gives information about* the results of students who *passed* their high school competency exams *from 2010 to 2011*.

*It can be notice* from the graph that girls and boys *got* the *same results* in Foreign Languages and Mathematics. Half of all male and female students passed *these* two subjects. *History is the exam which girls and boys did not good in as the results were worse than in other subjects, with 25.6% of girls and 22.9% of boys passing*. Male and female students *differ* in success in Chemistry, Geography and Computer Science. Girls attained a passing rate of 30.2 % in Chemistry, *when* only 14.1% of boys passed *it*. We can see from the bar chart that female attained a passing rate of approximately 56% in Computer Science but *the figure for boys is about 42.1%*.

*The results of boys in Geography was 10.3% higher that the result of girls* because only *20.1% of girls were succeed on the exam*.

In conclusion, both *genders were not bad* in Mathematics and *Foreign languages* as their results were quiet similar, *but equally poor results in History*. Boys *have better results* in Geography, whereas girls *have* better *results* in Chemistry and Computer Science.

**Essay 2**

*The following bar chart illustrates* the results of boys and girls who *were successful* in their high school competency exams *in the period from 2010 to 2011, by subject*.

*Firstly, it can be seen* from the graph that both girls and boys *attained similar rates* in Foreign Languages and Mathematics. *About* half of all male and female students passed *those* two subjects.

*On the other hand, both genders performed almost equally poorly in History, with 25.6% of girls and 22.9% of boys passing.*

Male and female students *differed* in *their* success in Chemistry, Geography, and Computer Science. Girls attained a passing rate of just over 30% in Chemistry, *whereas* only 14.1% of boys passed *that course*. In addition, female students also did better than boys in Computer Science; over 55% of girls passed the Computer Science competency exam, *but only 42.1% percent male students passed the test. Almost a third of all boys passed the Geography exam, whereas just over one-fifth of girls made a passing grade.*

In conclusion, *both male and female students did equally well in Foreign Languages* and Mathematics, *but did equally poorly in History*. Boys *got better grades than girls* in Geography, whereas girls *had* better *passing* rates in Chemistry and Computer Science.

After peer assessment intervention, some significant changes in the student's essay could be observed, for example, the changes in the choice of words, the structure of the essay, paragraphing, summarizing the key features, improvements in the use of grammar. All the changes were made according to the criteria, which have been introduced before the writing activity and in the focus of peer assessment procedure.

The level of the student's achievement significantly increased in the process of peer assessment as shown in the examples. For the original piece of writing (pre-peer assessment essay), the student attained 5 points out of 10. His essay generally addressed the task but the format, vocabulary and grammar were inappropriate in places. The after-peer assessment version fulfilled all requirements of the task sufficiently, so the student attained 9 points out of 10. This example demonstrates a positive effect of peer assessment as a part of the learning process.

## Discussion

The peer assessment intervention revealed that it could be a valuable instrument for students to improve the development of their critical abilities. The results of the case study demonstrate that of a sample group of students who followed this process, 80% reported it to be useful, and the majority stated that they started work on the assignment earlier than they would have otherwise. The students claimed that after their work had been assessed by their peers, they incorporated elements of the peer feedback into their essay. Students became more motivated and more involved in the learning and assessment process. They found the peer assessment to be sufficiently fair and accurate.

The findings of the study reported in this paper indicate four main benefits that the students participating in the peer review gained.

First, the feedback that students received from their peers was mainly constructive and helpful to them. Assessment in higher education should prepare students for making complex judgements about their own work and the work of others (Boud & Falchikov, 2004). This is a useful skill to learn whilst still at university, as these students will be faced with similar situations in their future workplaces, where they will have to work together in teams and support one another, whilst giving continuous feedback on performance levels.

Second, the students' self-assessment and critical assessment of other people improved, which helped them to gain a better personal evaluation of their work.

As Keaton et al. (1992) reported, peer assessment is a practice that can foster high levels of responsibility among students; the students must be fair and accurate with the judgments they make regarding their peers. Peer assessment also helped them to refine their approach to criticising other people and to frame their critique in a constructive way that would not invite animosity amongst their peers. It is also important that students learn how to self-analyse and have a more objective stance on their own work, as well as being receptive to changes that their peers or seniors might make to their work.

Third, it was noted that the students became more engaged with their learning and tried to avoid mistakes, as they were aware that they were being assessed and were eager to achieve good marks. Moreover, given that the students had the opportunity to observe one another's work and determine the quality of it, this may have inspired them to work harder, and become more competitive to attain better grades. Clarke, Timperley & Hattie (2003) emphasised that as students work to meet their own goals, they are much more focused and achieve success more quickly. This success builds their confidence and they are then much more willing to attempt more challenging targets. Due to the fact that the intervention was conducted in five stages, where the students' work was evaluated and discussed by 5 other students and constantly improved, the end quality of the students' essay was of a very high standard. Although this long process is not a realistic reproduction of a work cycle in a business, the aim of the exercise was to help the students practice their criticism to create a good resultant product (essay). The high standard of the essays after the criticisms was because the students had many opportunities to improve their work and discuss it with others.

Fourth, the intervention may have increased the cohesion between the class and the teacher, as the students had to work together and interact with the teacher (as an expert reviewer) as they evaluated each other's work. With the introduction of peer assessment the role of the teacher is evolving into a partnership with students to help them learn how to critically evaluate their own learning and thinking. Darling-Hammond (2005) indicated that self-critique can increase students' responsibility for their own learning and make the relationship between teacher and student more collaborative. Peer assessment helps in this endeavor.

The original general hypothesis stated that peer assessment methods of either written or oral performance could trigger a deeper involvement of students both in the learning and in the assessment process, keep motivation up and develop some qualities essential for future professional life. Thus, the intervention has found some evidence to support the hypothesis and contributes to an analysis of the peer assessment approach in teaching ESP in Russia. However, it should be noted that these peer assessment strategies are an effective learning tool only if they are properly and consistently used in a series of lessons over time, so that the students can become used to the process and understand their place in this process.

**Limitations**

There are potential limitations in this study, which could affect the interpretation of the data. The sample size is quite small (n=24) as the author of the research was working alone and it was not possible to find other teachers who were prepared to use the intervention. The sample size should be expanded by engaging other teachers who are ready to implement these peer assessment strategies as a part of their everyday practices for obtaining better results in teaching a foreign language. We are exploring these possibilities with our colleagues in the Higher School of Economics and data for larger sample sizes may be available as a result of this study in future. Therefore, this study does contribute to the growing database on peer review assessments in Russia.

There are two further limitations to the assessment process that the author attempted to account for in the research. First, as Falchikov (2003) noted, is that initially implementing the peer assessment may result in some resistance from students. This may be due to shyness and an unwillingness to criticise their friends, or a more general impression of the assessment as not useful or relevant to their future careers and practical skills. However, the initial resistance from the class was overcome by explaining the benefits to be gained from participating in the assessment process, carefully planning our activities and involving students in discussions about potential problems that we anticipated before they arose. The criteria against which achievement is to be judged should be clear and unambiguous. These may help to change students' attitudes and encourage them to participate positively in the exercise. Second, the reliability of the peer assessment results may be questioned, as some may say that the students are not qualified to mark other students' work. However, Falchikov and Goldfinch's (2000) research demonstrated that peer assessment can be as reliable as that of lecturers and lead to a higher degree of student motivation. Our research also demonstrated that there was a high level of agreement between the grades given by peers and those given by the teacher.

## Conclusion

In this paper, it is researched how peer assessment could be applied to higher education and the effect of using this form of assessment on the quality of learning. The author proposes a methodology to investigate the effect of peer assessment as a part of the learning process, while teaching the Preparation for IELTS course to the students from the faculty of Business Informatics at the Moscow Higher School of Economics. More specifically, the deliberate and systematic use of peer assessment practices through all levels of study help students to develop an understanding and appreciation of the judgments which other qualified professional peers would make of their work and which they learn to make of those peers and themselves. Peer assessment can be effectively integrated in the teaching-learning process and brings some benefits to students such as an improvement in their ability to direct their own learning and performances, be critical and evaluate oneself and other people.

Although the results presented here have demonstrated the efficiency of peer assessment strategies, it could be further developed in a number of ways. Peer assessment being a valuable tool for university education is not widely used in practice, so the future work should be in implementing the peer assessment strategies in the curriculum of the English Language Department for Economic and Mathematical Disciplines. The way in which these proposed strategies could be effectively integrated in future courses is through the introduction of a combination of self-assessment and peer assessment strategies for written or oral assignments, for this combination fosters reflection on the learning process. Secondly, it might be worthwhile to selectively repeat the study in the other faculties of the Higher School of Economics, but before that, it should be well adapted and modified to the needs of teachers and students, being supplied with descriptive instruction on the procedure for intervention.

## References


Boud, D., & Falchikov, N. (2004). Beyond formative and summative assessment: Developing a new agenda for assessment for lifelong learning. In *2nd Biannual Joint Northumbria/EARLI SIG Assessment Conference*. Bergen, Norway: University of Bergen.

British Council (2012). *IELTS Guide for teachers*. Retrieved from http://www.britishcouncil.it/sites/britishcouncil.it/files/ielts_guide_for_teachers_italy.pdf

Brown, G., Bull, J., & Pendlebury, M. (1997). *Assessing student learning in higher education*. London, UK: Routledge.

Clarke, S., Timperley, H., & Hattie, J. (2003). *Unlocking formative assessment: Practical strategies for enhancing students' learning in the primary and intermediate classroom*. Auckland, New Zealand: Hodder Moa Beckett.

Darling-Hammond, L., & Bransford, J. (Eds.). (2005). *Preparing teachers for a changing world: What teachers should learn and be able to do*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Davies, P. (2006). Peer assessment: Judging the quality of students' work by comments rather than marks. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, *4*(1), 69–82.

Divaharan, S., & Atputhasamy, L. (2003). Influence of peer assessment on the quality of cooperative learning: A pilot study. *REACT*, *22*(2), 103–113.

Dochy, F., Segers, M., & Sluijsmans, D. (1999). The use of self-, peer- and co-assessment in higher education. *Studies in Higher Education, 24*(3), 331–350.

Falchikov, N. (1994). *Learning from peer feedback marking: Student and teacher perspectives*. In H. C. Foot, C. J. Howe, A. Anderson, A. K. Tolmie & D. A. Warden (Eds.), *Group and interactive learning* (pp. 411–416). Southampton, UK: Computational Mechanics Publications.

Falchikov, N. (1995). Peer feedback marking: Developing peer assessment. *Innovations in Education and Training International*, *32*(2), 175–187.

Falchikov, N. (2003). Involving students in assessment. *Psychology Learning and Teaching*, *3*(2), 102–108.

Falchikov, N., & Goldfinch, J. (2000). Student peer assessment in higher education: A meta-analysis comparing peer and teacher marks. *Review of Educational Research, 70*(3), 287–323.

Ghaith, G. (2002). Using cooperative learning to facilitate alternative assessment. *English Teaching Forum*, *40*(3). Retrieved from http://americanenglish.state.gov/resources/english-teaching-forum-2002-volume-40-number-3

Hanrahan, S. J., & Isaacs, G. (2001). Assessing self- and peer-assessment: The students' views. *Higher Education Research and Development*, *20*(1), 53–70.

Harvey, J. (n.d.). *Signpost 10: How am I doing? Using peer reviews to improve assignments*. Retrieved from https://www.northumbria.ac.uk/static/5007/arpdf/cetlpdf/signpost10.pdf

Hernandez, R. (2010). *Benefits and challenges of using self and peer assessment UCD teaching and learning/resources*. Retrieved from http://www.ucd.ie/t4cms/UCDTLA0033.pdf

IELTS-Exam.net. (2014). *IELTS Writing Task 1 #123.* Retrieved from http://www.ielts-exam.net/academic_writing_samples_task_1/874/,%202015

Keaten, J. A., & Richardson, M. E. (1992). *A field investigation of peer assessment as a part of the student group grading process*. Paper presented at the Western Speech Communication Association Convention, Albuquerque, NM.

Nulty, D. (2008). *A guide to peer and self-assessment approaches and practice strategies for academics*. Brisbane, Australia: Griffith Institute for Higher Education, Griffith University. Retrieved from http://www.griffith.edu.au/__data/assets/pdf_file/0016/142108/GuidePeerSelfAssessment-Long.pdf

Petty, G. (2009). *Evidence-Based teaching: A practical approach*. Cheltenham, UK: Nelson Thornes Ltd.

Pond, K., UlHaq, R., & Wade, W. (1995). Peer review: A precursor to peer assessment. *Innovations in Education and Training International*, *32*(4), 314–323.

Race, P. (2001). *A briefing document on self, peer and group assessment*. Retrieved from www.ltsn.ac.uk/genericcentre

Rogers, C. R. (1969). *Freedom to learn: A view of what education might become*. Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill.

Sadler, P., & Good, E. (2006). The impact of self- and peer-grading on student learning. *Educational Assessment 11*(1), 1–31.

Schön, D. (1983). *The reflective practitioner. How professionals think in action*. New York, NY: Basic Books.

Topping, K., Smith, E., Swanson, I., & Elliot, A. (2000). Formative peer assessment of academic writing between postgraduate students. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, *25*(2) 150–169.

UNSW. (2015). *Assessment toolkit: Student peer assessment.* Retrieved from https://teaching.unsw.edu.au/printpdf/544

White, L. (2011). *Self-Assessment and peer-assessment. A leaflet on supporting independent learning*. Retrieved from http://assessmentfeedbackreportingfolio.weebly.com/uploads/4/0/2/8/40283179/self-assessment_and_peer_assessment.pdf

Zhavoronkova, A. R. (2014). Self-Assessment and peer feedback as useful practices in efficient foreign language acquisition. *The National Association of Scientists, Monthly Scientific Journal*, *5*(1), 143–147.

Talalakina, E. (2015). Fostering Positive Transfer through Metalinguistic Awareness: A Case for Parallel Instruction of Synonyms in L1 and L2. *Journal of Language and Education, 1*(4), 74-80. doi:10.17323/2411-7390-2015-1-4-74-80

# Fostering Positive Transfer through Metalinguistic Awareness: A Case for Parallel Instruction of Synonyms in L1 and L2

**Ekaterina Talalakina**
National Research University Higher School of Economics

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Ekaterina Talalakina, National Research University Higher School of Economics, B. Ordinka, 47/7, Moscow, Russian Federation, 115035.
E-mail: etalalakina@hse.ru

Numerous studies on transfer in language learning focus on the nature of transfer, its mechanisms, and its impact on language proficiency and literacy. The majority of implications for teaching methods concern interpretive skills such as reading, whereas the data on effective transfer strategies related to productive skills such as speaking are scarce. This study focuses on speech development based on metacognitive knowledge built into L1 (Russian) as a tool for fostering transfer regarding language universals into L2 (English). An intervention experiment involving elementary school students was based on parallel instruction of synonyms as explicit metalinguistic knowledge. The findings show that, in contrast to the control group, participants from the experiment group displayed a significantly higher gain in skills regarding synonyms in L2, even though metacognitive knowledge of the subject was presented in L1. The results of the study suggest that metalinguistic awareness can facilitate transfer and its instruction can be an effective teaching strategy in speech development in early childhood education.

*Keywords:* cross-language transfer, metalinguistic awareness, synonyms, primary education

Studies of language transfer (or cross-linguistic influence) have long proven that the belief about keeping L2 classes free from L1 due to its potential negative interference is ungrounded and outdated (Odlin, 1989; Gass & Selinker, 1993; Ringbom, 2007; Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008). Although 'the persuasiveness of certain types of errors has been among the most significant counterarguments against importance of transfer', such phenomenon as positive transfer should not be overlooked (Odlin, 1989, p. 3). Along the same lines, Corder (1993) stresses that 'the mother tongue comes into act as a heuristic tool in the discovery of the formal properties of the new language, facilitating especially the learning of those features which resemble features of the mother tongue' (p. 29). Thus, in defining positive transfer, the key role belongs to cross-linguistic similarities, which can be 'overwhelmingly facilitative' (Ringbom, 2007, p. 18). The objective of the present study is to examine a successful strategy of fostering positive transfer in L2 classroom.

Theoretical background of the study includes the analysis of such phenomena as cross-linguistic transfer in bilingual education, metalinguistic awareness in general, synonyms as language universals in particular, and teaching for transfer. The most significant studies concerning these concepts serve as underlying assumptions in the design of the present experimental classroom-based research. The experiment includes the analysis of teaching materials in Russian elementary education, the design of special materials for the intervention, the pre- and post-testing of participants (N=86) in intervention and control classes. The findings are discussed in terms of the impact of working with synonyms to facilitate transfer of metalinguistic knowledge and skills for the overall gain in L1 and L2 speech development.

## Materials and Methods

### Positive Transfer in L2 Classes

When it comes to methodology of L2 teaching, it is essential to recognize that 'one of the primary purposes of L1 use in the FL classroom is to facilitate positive transfer and the internalization of new



This article is published under the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

concepts' (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 217). Even though, according to Ringbom (2007), positive transfer occurs on item, system, and overall level within a natural bilingual environment as well as in formal schooling, both subconsciously and consciously, we are mostly interested in a mechanism of fostering positive transfer in a formal learning setting, which is closely related to literacy. In this case, as it is noted by Odlin (1989), 'the comparative success of literate bilinguals does not as clearly indicate the importance of language transfer in the sense of native language influence as it indicates the importance of transfer of training' (p. 134).

Transfer of training, defined by Odlin (1989) as 'influences on the production or comprehension of a second language that are due to the ways learners have been taught', raises the question of interdisciplinary nature of transfer in L2 classroom andcalls for establishing links between language, cognition, and learning. One of such links manifests itself in metalinguistic awareness, which unites the concepts of system level language transfer and transfer of training.

**Metalinguislic Awareness**

Jessner (2006) defines metalinguistic awareness as 'the ability to focus attention on language as an object in itself or to think abstractly about language and, consequently, to play with or manipulate language' (p. 42). In other works, metalinguistic awareness is also referred to as 'metalinguistic knowledge' or 'language awareness' (Jarvis &Pavlenko, 2008), 'linguistic awareness' (Odlin, 1989), and 'metalinguistic abilities' (Tunmer et al., 1988). Despite the differences in terminology, the key idea here is knowledge *about* the language as a system and the functions of its elements. For the purposes of the present study, it is assumed that all these terms are interchangeable.

Metalinguisitic awareness is gradually built in L1 in the early childhood (Allan, 1982) and developed in connection to first reading achievement (Tunmer et al., 1988), oral fluency, and bilingualism (Bialystok & Ryan, 1985), as well as formal L1 instruction (Zipke, 2008). Additionally, research by Boulware-Gooden et al. (2007) revealed that employing metacognitive strategies such as building semantic webs connecting parts of speech, synonyms, antonyms, and other related words (which can also qualify as a metalinguistic awareness strategy) enhances reading comprehension and vocabulary achievement in third-grade students of L1. Hence, becoming literate in L1 is closely connected to acquiring metalinguistic awareness, which can be potentially transferred not only into L2.

Transferability of metalinguistic skills from L1 to L2 is illustrated in studies by Royer and Carlo (1991), and Anton and Dicamilla (1999) related to a receptive skill of reading and a productive skill of speaking, respectively. Furthermore, in the study by Harrarte (1998), transfer into L3 was also tracked in testing Grade 5 and Grade 8 students on metalinguistic knowledge including synonymy. At the same time, Vygotsky (1934) pointed to a reverse transfer of metalinguistic awareness from L2 to L1:

It has been shown that a child's understanding of his native language is enhanced by learning a foreign one. The child becomes more conscious and deliberate in using words as tools of his thought and expressive means for his ideas. [ . . . ] The child's approach to language becomes more abstract and generalized' (p. 160).

This reinforces the idea of an early formation of metalinguistic skills in children, be it in L1 or L2.

**Synonyms as Language Universals**

The basic consideration of the link between language and cognition lends itself into a discussion of how word information is organized in the mind of an individual. It is generally acknowledged and verified through word association tests that there are two types of relations that connect words in the mind: syntagmatic and paradigmatic (Ringbom, 2007). Syntagmatic relations reflect the way words are used in speech within collocations and sentences, while paradigmatic relations show connections within semantic webs that group words according to the same topic, polysemy, synonymy, antonymy, etc. Both types of links refer to implicit knowledge, i.e. 'the knowledge that individuals may not be aware of but which researchers can infer from their systematic verbal performance' (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 118). Meanwhile, explicit knowledge assumes definitions and rules that individuals are aware of and capable of verbalizing on demand (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 118).

Accordingly, in case of synonymy, this linguistic concept is originally formed in the mind of an individual in the form of implicit knowledge as a mere reflection of reality. Fess (1938) stressed that 'indeed, the main reason why we have synonyms is a human one, that is, because both individuals and society are complex – made up of differing and sometimes conflicting elements, each calling for its own expression in words' (p. 347). Meanwhile, synonyms are an essential part of metalinguistic knowledge (explicit knowledge) both in L1 and L2. To illustrate, talking about L1 learning, Jessner (2006) highlights that 'when metalinguistic performance is considered from the output side, the emphasis is on producing synonymity and grammaticality judgments, pointing out ambiguity, locating errors, explaining word choice, etc.' (p. 52).

From L2 perspective, an interesting conclusion involving implicit and explicit knowledge of synonymy was made by Furnas as far back as in 1908:

The study of synonyms involves also a rigorous mental discipline and forces one to think in the foreign language, the much-desired goal of every language student. As another by-product might be mentioned a cultivation of feeling for the language. A native imbibes naturally a certain feeling for distinctions in words, but a foreigner must use all the stilts available in order to cultivate this feeling, so that here again we find the study of synonyms invaluable (p. 118).

The skill of synonyms recognition and use is beyond doubt in its value in L2 acquisition. As highlighted by Ringbom (2007), deeper involvement in manipulation of information leads to more effective learning. Along with that synonyms also play a key role in inferencing during reading and overcoming lexical insecurity expressed by repetitions during speaking (Jessner, 2006). Consequently, the understanding of their functions in the speech of others and the ability to replicate their proper use in one's own speech can serve as assign of L2 proficiency.

In the light of language transfer, one of the most important universalist assumptions is that there are categories applicable to the analysis of all languages (Odlin, 1989). Given the nature of synonymy as a linguistic phenomenon rooted in the mind of an individual (first subconsciously and then reinforced explicitly through formal schooling), synonyms can serve as language universals, metalinguistic knowledge of which can contribute to positive transfer between L1 and L2. In this case, we are dealing with both system-level transfer (transfer of knowledge about functions of language units) and transfer of training (transfer of skills related to the utilization of those language units in speech).

## Teaching for Transfer

Summarizing the facilitative transfer theories, Royer (1979) distinguishes between environmental and cognitive theories, arguing that the former provide more educational utility in terms of providing guidelines for instructional events. Indeed, the question of what learning conditions are more conducive of transfer is key in the pragmatic value of transfer research. One of the conceptual answers is provided by Perkins and Salomon (2012), who promote a motivational view of transfer by stressing the shift from a learning culture of demand to a learning culture of opportunity supported by expansive framing concept by Engle et al. (2012). When it comes to dual language education, Cummins (2005) singles out five major types of cross-language transfer: transfer of conceptual elements, transfer of metacognitive strategies, transfer of pragmatic aspects of language use, transfer of specific linguistic elements, transfer of phonological awareness (p. 3). To encourage a combination of various types of transfer the author suggests creating dual language teaching materials and inter-classes collaboration both carried out through multimedia. However, within the framework of this highly topical approach, a more specific question arises as to what exact teaching strategies can be used in the class-room?

Although interdependence theories in bilingual education have been tested several times to prove the connection between L1 and L2 literacy (Verhoeven, 1994; Cárdenas-Hagan, Carlson, & Pollard-Durodola, 2007), there is an evident gap in the literature on particular effective teaching methods to foster positive cross-linguistic transfer. Thus, the present study aims at testing a particular instructional strategy designed to foster positive transfer through parallel instruction of metalinguistic skills and builds on the following premises articulated in the previous research in the field of teaching for transfer: (1) 'metalinguistic knowledge and awareness of this knowledge play a crucial role in the development of individual multilingualism' (Jessner, 2008, p. 270); (2) cognitive development of children of 7 years of age and above allows working with metalinguistic skills including synonymy (Van Kleeck, 1982; Bialystok, 1986); (3) concurrent instruction of L1 and L2 in primary school has a positive effect on cross-linguistic transfer (Van der Leij, Bekebrede, & Kotterink, 2010).

## Study Design

This classroom-based study was conducted in two elementary schools in Moscow, Russia. The peculiarity of the educational setting in the chosen schools consists in the fact that, by the third grade, when the instruction of L2 (English, in this case) starts, students display a relatively homogenous mastery of L1 (Russian).

The hypothesis of the study was formulated as follows: under the conditions of parallel explicit instruction of synonyms in L1 and L2, students are able to display signs of positive transfer of training related to the use of synonyms in reading and speaking. Particular objectives of the study included the following: (1) to analyze the current curriculum in Russian (L1) and English (L2) in two schools in relation to the use of synonyms and building related metalinguistic knowledge; (2) to design learning materials taking into the consideration active vocabulary (vocabulary that appears in textbooks students use) in L1 and L2; (3) to conduct intervention experiment and assess its results.

### Learning Materials

The first task of the study deals with the analysis of learning materials third graders use in L1 and L2. Two elementary schools were chosen specifically because they differed in their choice of available textbooks in both languages. The textbooks were analyzed both in terms of quantitative and qualitative representation of synonyms. The quantitative analysis included the following parameters: (1) availability of language material suitable for special focus on synonyms (the number of synonyms in textbook vocabulary); (2) presence of special exercises concerning synonyms; (3) introduction of metalinguistic knowledge about synonyms (terminology, definitions, and functions). The qualitative analysis dealt with checking whether the synonym-related material meets elementary school standards (set by the Russian Ministry of Education) in terms of its level of difficulty, practical applicability, and representation adequacy (in regard to its creativity components, recycling components, and/or motivational components). Two Russian as L1 textbooks (RTs) and two EFL textbooks (ETs) under discussion were published in Russia and approved by the Russian Ministry of Education for the use in elementary schools.

The results of the textbook analyses yielded several important findings. Disparity between RTs and ETs concerning the representation of synonyms is striking: 87 and 62 synonymic chains in RTs, and 19 and 28 chains in ETs. Whereas this gap can be attributed to the natural difference in vocabulary volume in L1 and L2, the total absence of the exercises dealing with synonyms in L2 textbooks does not provide any reasonable explanation. A possible underlying factor might be an excessive focus on communicative nature of L2 exercises and thus the total absence of any synonyms-related tasks, although working with synonyms is not contradictory to a communicative approach to teaching and can even reinforce it (Chandler, 2008).

Despite the obvious disparity between RTs and ETs in terms of synonym representation, the results of the analyses allow the making of essential connections between L1 and L2 materials for use as a ground for positive transfer. First, RTs provide a fair amount of metalinguistic knowledge on synonymy and its practical applicability enforced through exercises. Second, the number of synonymic chains in ETs is sufficient to design similar exercises encouraging activation of metalinguistic knowledge acquired in L1. Building on those two findings, a system of exercises in Russian and English was designed and aimed at facilitating positive transfer of skills regarding recognition and the use of synonyms in L1 and L2.

### Subjects and Method

In each of the two chosen elementary schools, an experiment was conducted in two classes of third graders: an intervention class (IC) and a control class (CC). The number of 86 participants comprises the following: IC1 – 23, IC2 – 21, CC1 – 20, CC2 – 22. There were 4 instructors involved in implementing the experimental methodology into the classroom curricula: 2 teachers of Russian as L1 and two teachers of EFL.

At the beginning of the school year, the students of both intervention and control classes took a pre-test. The test consisted of three test questions on Russian synonyms and three test questions on English synonyms, while all instructions came in Russian. The three tasks were symmetric and dealt with the following issues: (Task 1) identifying the words similar in meaning by matching them (3 pairs in total), (Task 2) filling in two gaps in one sentence with words similar in meaning depending on their shades of meaning from the options given (2 pairs in total), (Task 3) correcting repetitions with the help of synonyms without options given (2 pairs in total). All pairs of synonyms were taken from the textbooks they used in the previous year. The results of the pre-test are shown in Table1.

The results of the pre-test demonstrate that the overwhelming majority of the third-graders are capable of recognizing synonyms both in L1 and L2. In L1 they can also easily find a matching word to avoid repetition from their own vocabulary without being given clues, whereas the same task in L2 turns out to be much more difficult. Yet, the hardest task in both languages is to fill in the gaps with appropriate synonyms according to their shades of meaning, even when the clues to choose fromare given. This last assignment requires an explicit activation of both syntagmatic and paradigmatic links of the word, which apparently is hard for third-graders without special training. At the same time, it is the skill of recognizing distinctions between synonyms and mastering their use in appropriate contexts that determines practical applicability of metalinguistic awareness.

## Results and Discussion

### Experiment

It was crucial to establish collaboration between L1 and L2 instructors so as to promote synchronization of syllabi. The instructors received a set of exercises to incorporate in their intervention classes, and these exercises were synchronized with the textbook they usedthroughout one school year. On average,

Table 1
*Results of the pre-test*

| L1 | Russian | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Tasks | Task 1 | | | | Task 2 | | | Task 3 | | |
| Number of correct items | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| Percentage of students in ICs | 0 | 11,4 | 34,1 | 54,5 | 22,7 | 63,7 | 13,6 | 0 | 22,7 | 77,3 |
| Percentage of students in CCs | 0 | 7,2 | 35,7 | 57,1 | 30,6 | 59,9 | 9,5 | 0 | 14,3 | 85,7 |
| L2 | English | | | | | | | | | |
| Tasks | Task 1 | | | | Task 2 | | | Task 3 | | |
| Number of correct items | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| Percentage of students in ICs | 4,5 | 45,2 | 38,6 | 11,7 | 68,2 | 29,5 | 2,3 | 6,8 | 70,4 | 22,8 |
| Percentage of students in CCs | 7,2 | 40,5 | 38 | 14,3 | 76,2 | 23,8 | 0 | 11,9 | 64,3 | 23,8 |

one exercise involving synonyms appeared in Russian and English class once per week. All metalinguistic knowledge regarding the definition and the functions of synonyms was explicitly transmitted by the instructor during Russian classes only, while during English classes, the students were expected to activate this knowledge on their own with the help of scaffolding questions from the teacher. Since third-graders being in their second year of learning English did not possess enough skills to discuss the language material (functions of synonyms) in English, the discussion was conducted in Russian, therefore making room for L1 use in the L2 class. Teachers were also advised to welcome any cross-linguistic comparisons coming from students involving examples from L1.

Taking into consideration the results of the textbook analyses and the data from the pre-test, a system of symmetric exercises in Russian and English was designed, utilizing the vocabulary from the class textbooks and focusing on creating an environment for nurturing language awareness. (On the procedural side, during a week when an exercise was first introduced in L1 class, a matching exercise was given in the L2 class. All instructions for the exercises in both languages were given in Russian.)

The types of exercises according to their learning outcomes included the following:

1. Initial systematization of background knowledge on synonyms.
A. Recognizing synonyms to certain words in the text (usually five simple sentences). Such exercises served as training for retelling.
B. Finding synonyms within a semantic web on a particular topic with further aim to describe some object. This exercise also allows drawing students' attention to other linguistic phenomena, such as antonyms and homonyms, and discussing their peculiarities.
C. Substituting the repeating words in a sentence with their synonyms from a word bank. This activity serves as a preparation to the study of synonym functions.
2. Introduction of terminology and metalinguistic knowledge.
A. Finding synonyms in the text and discussing the shades of meaning (connotation) that help distinguish between them.
B. Discussing examples that show limited interchangeability of synonyms due to register, dialect, or expressivity.
3. Developing the concept of synonyms through training.
A. Showing examples of the various functions of synonyms: specification, substitution, scaling, and/or euphemization.
B. Learning the skill of using synonyms for inferencing.
C. Discussion of combinability with other words to make collocations.
D. Using synonyms to explain the figurative meaning of words.
E. Recognizing territorial distinctions of synonyms (in case of English, American, and British).
4. Recycling the knowledge and skills on synonyms.
A. Checking text comprehension through synonyms.
B. Error correction using synonyms.
C. Retelling a text using synonyms.
D. Introducing new vocabulary using synonyms and semantic webs.
E. Fostering the use of synonyms (according to their functions) in one's own speech provided a necessity of accomplishing a particular task.
5. Discussing basic cross-linguistic semantic similarities.

A. Comparing and contrasting synonymic chains in Russian and English.
B. Keeping an open-ended diary-like bilingual dictionary of synonyms.

**Results of the Post-Test**

After a school year of being exposed to synonym-related exercises both in L1 and L2 classes, the students of the intervention classes were post-tested, along with students of control classes, who did not receive the training under discussion. The post-test consisted of the same type of tasks as the pre-test, differing in the language material involved. Post-test included synonymic chains from the third grade textbooks as opposed to the pre-test containing synonyms from the second grade materials. As a result, the level of difficulty was slightly higher, but both groups of the students were exposed to the same language material, but differed in training to accompany it. The results of the post-test are presented in Table 2.

The figures show an overall gain in knowledge related to synonyms in L1 in both groups of students, possibly due to the presence of material on synonymy in the L1 textbooks used throughout the school year. At the same time, the percentage of students fulfilling all tasks without mistakes demonstrates a higher increase in the intervention classes as opposed to comparison classes. Whereas in Russian an increase of 16% in ICs compared to null gain in CCs on Task 1 and Task 3 might not be that significant, an increase of 47,8% on Task 2 in ICs in contrast to 2,4% gain in CCs can serve as an indicator of the success of experimental methodology. However, the most important results were obtained concerning English: 33,9% gain on Task 1, 58,8% gain on Task 2, and 22,7% gain on Task 3 display evidence of positive transfer of training from L1 to L2 since metacognitive knowledge in the project was primarily built within L1 classes.

The study adds empirical evidence in favor of concurrent instruction of L1 and L2 and confirms the overall validity of metalinguistic skills training in primary school. As for particular strategy of working with synonyms, the results not only reinforced the idea that synonymy-related skills improve vocabulary comprehension and retention in L1 (Carr, 1985) and are crucial for L2 proficiency (Chandler, 2008), but can also serve as a vehicle for teaching for transfer. Implications of the study include the potential use of metalinguistic knowledge related to other language phenomena such as antonymy or polysemy as tools to foster cross-linguistic transfer, which can serve as subjects for future research. Hopefully, the results of this study will also encourage building bridges across the language curricula in elementary schools in other contexts.

## Conclusion

The study confirms the efficiency of Jessner's (2006) suggestion that 'in order to amalgamate all language subjects, including first and second languages, taught in a school or any other institution, it is necessary to establish a dialogue between the language teachers in order to arrive at a coordination of the aimed at creating linguistic awareness' (p. 131). Instructional strategies of metacognitive skills in L1, which, according to Osman, & Hannafin (1992), should be explicit for young and novice learners, have proved to be efficient when it comes to working with synonyms in elementary school. The strategy of parallel instruction also showed its effectiveness in

Table 2
*Results of the post-test*

| L1 | Russian | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Tasks | Task 1 | | | | Task 2 | | | Task 3 | | |
| Number of correct items | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| Percentage of students in ICs | 0 | 0 | 29,5 | 70,5 | 9 | 29,6 | 61,4 | 0 | 16 | 84 |
| Percentage of students in CCs | 0 | 4,8 | 40,4 | 54,8 | 33,3 | 54,8 | 11,9 | 0 | 16,7 | 83,3 |
| L2 | English | | | | | | | | | |
| Tasks | Task 1 | | | | Task 2 | | | Task 3 | | |
| Number of correct items | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| Percentage of students in ICs | 4,5 | 15,9 | 34 | 45,6 | 4,5 | 36,4 | 61,1 | 4,5 | 50 | 45,5 |
| Percentage of students in CCs | 11,9 | 47,7 | 28,5 | 11,9 | 83,3 | 16,7 | 0 | 33,4 | 47,6 | 19 |

terms of vocabulary acquisition and its application in fulfilling a communicative task.

## References


Allan, K. K. (1982). The development of young children's metalinguistic understanding of the word. *The Journal of Educational Research*, *76*(2), 89–93.

Antón, M., & DiCamilla, F. J. (1999). Socio-Cognitive functions of L1 collaborative interaction in the L2 classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, *83*(2), 233–247.

Bialystok, E. (1986). Factors in the growth of linguistic awareness. *Child Development*, *57*(2), 498–510.

Bialystok, E., & Ryan, E. B. (1985). Toward a definition of metalinguistic skill. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, *31*(3), 229–251.

Boulware-Gooden, R., Carreker, S., Thornhill, A., & Joshi, R. (2007). Instruction of metacognitive strategies enhances reading comprehension and vocabulary achievement of third-grade students. *The Reading Teacher*, *61*(1), 70–77.

Cárdenas-Hagan, E., Carlson, C. D., & Pollard-Durodola, S. D. (2007). The cross-linguistic transfer of early literacy skills: The role of initial L1 and L2 skills and language of instruction. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools*, *38*(3), 249–259.

Carr, E. M. (1985). The vocabulary overview guide: A metacognitive strategy to improve vocabulary comprehension and retention. *Journal of Reading*, *28,* 684–689.

Corder, S. P. (1993). A role for the mother tongue. In S. Glass & L. Selinker (Eds.), *Language Transfer in Language Learning* (Vol. 5, pp. 18-31). Philadelphia, PA: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Chandler, P. M. (2008). The appropriate teaching of vocabulary: What the research suggests. *Hispania*, *9*(1), 247–248.

Cummins, J. (2005). Teaching for cross-language transfer in dual language education: Possibilities and pitfalls. In *TESOL Symposium on dual language education: Teaching and learning two languages in the EFL setting* (pp. 1–18). Istanbul, Turkey: Boğaziçi University.

Engle, R. A., Lam, D. P., Meyer, X. S., & Nix, S. E. (2012). How does expansive framing promote transfer? Several proposed explanations and a research agenda for investigating them. *Educational Psychologist*, *47*(3), 215–231.

Fess, G. M. (1938). Teaching synonyms. *English Journal*, *27,* 347–349.

Furnas, E. (1908). The study of synonyms as an aid in the acquisition of a vocabulary. *The School Review*, *16*(2), 115–118.

Gass, S., & Selinker, L. (Eds.). (1993). *Language transfer in language learning*. Amsterdam, Netherlands: J. Benjamins Publishing Company.

Herrarte, D. L. (1998). Metalinguistic awareness and the learning of English as an L3. *Atlantis*, *20*(2), 69–79.

Jarvis, S., & Pavlenko, A. (2008). *Crosslinguistic influence in language and cognition.* Abingdon, UK: Routledge.

Jessner, U. (2008). A DST model of multilingualism and the role of metalinguistic awareness. *The Modern Language Journal*, *92*(2), 270–283.

Jessner, U. (2006). *Linguistic awareness in multilinguals: English as a third language*. Edinburgh, UK: Edinburgh University Press.

Odlin, T. (1989). *Language transfer: Cross-Linguistic influence in language learning*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Osman, M. E., & Hannafin, M. J. (1992). Metacognition research and theory: Analysis and implications for instructional design. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, *40*(2), 83–99.

Perkins, D. N., & Salomon, G. (2012). Knowledge to go: A motivational and dispositional view of transfer. *Educational Psychologist*, *47*(3), 248–258.

Ringbom, H. (2007). *Cross-Linguistic similarity in foreign language learning* (Vol. 21). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Royer, J. M. (1979). Theories of the transfer of learning. *Educational Psychologist*, *14*(1), 53–69.

Royer, J. M., & Carlo, M. S. (1991). Transfer of comprehension skills from native to second language. *Journal of Reading*, *34*(6), 450–455.

Tunmer, W. E., Herriman, M. L., & Nesdale, A. R. (1988). Metalinguistic abilities and beginning reading. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *23*, 134–158.

van der Leij, A., Bekebrede, J., & Kotterink, M. (2010). Acquiring reading and vocabulary in Dutch and English: The effect of concurrent instruction. *Reading and Writing*, *23*(3–4), 415–434.

van Kleeck, A. (1982). The emergence of linguistic awareness: A cognitive framework. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, *28*(2), 237–265.

Verhoeven, L. T. (1994). Transfer in bilingual development: The linguistic interdependence hypothesis revisited. *Language Learning, 44*(3), 381–415.

Vygotsky, L. (1934). 1986. *Thought and language.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Zipke, M. (2008). Teaching metalinguistic awareness and reading comprehension with riddles. *The Reading Teacher, 62*(2), 128–137.

National Research University Higher School of Economics
Journal of Language & Education Volume 1, Issue 4, 2015

Volkonskaya, M. (2015). External Influences on English: From its Beginnings to the Renaissance. D. Gary Miller. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2012. 252 pp. ISBN: 9780199654260. *Journal of Language and Education, 1*(4), 81-84. doi:10.17323/2411-7390-2015-1-4-81-84

# External Influences on English: From Its Beginnings to the Renaissance. D. Gary Miller. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2012. 252 pp. ISBN: 9780199654260

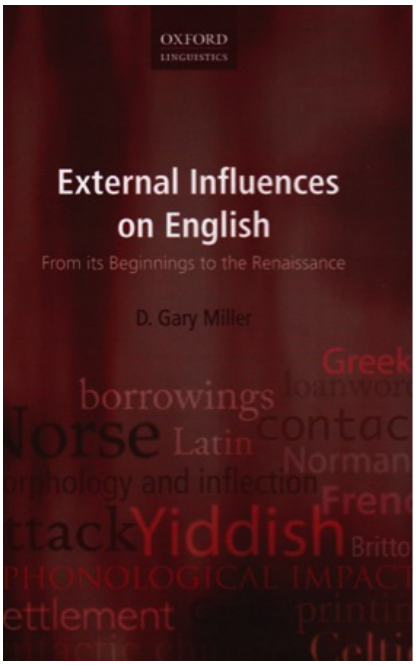
**Maria Volkonskaya**
National Research University Higher School of Economics

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Maria Volkonskaya, National Research University Higher School of Economics, M. Pionerskaya, 12, Moscow, Russian Federation, 115054.
E-mail: mvolkonskaya@hse.ru

It is commonly known that contact is a major factor that can influence the structure of the languages involved, yet there is still disagreement on the type of outcome produced by language contact. While sociolinguists assume that it leads to simplification, linguistic typologists believe that contact induces complexification. Trying to solve this puzzle, recent research (Trudgill, 2010a, 2010b, 2011) has shown that both schools of linguistics are, in fact, correct: the type of outcome depends on the contact scenario which has taken place. Peter Trudgill maintains that one needs to distinguish between adult second-language acquisition and continuing contact leading to child bilingualism. The former results in simplification, whereas the latter brings about complexification. This claim has become the starting point for D. Gary Miller's monograph.

As stated in the preface (p. x), throughout the book Miller employs the framework of Trudgill to analyze the history of English as a contact language, discussing its external influences and, thus, complementing the existing internal studies. Within this framework, the author's main focus is on "the constituent ingredients of contemporary English" (p. x) from its beginnings up to the end of the Renaissance. To this end, he examines the influence of Celtic, Latin and Greek (early and later), Scandinavian, and French on English lexis, phonology, morphology, and syntax, providing a variety of examples and detailed case studies to illustrate the point at issue. The eight chapters that follow are mostly organized chronologically.

In the introduction (Chapter 1) Miller situates English within the Indo-European and Germanic families. He briefly describes the main constituents of Germanic and Celtic, giving numerous examples of borrowings from North Germanic, Continental




Germanic, Insular and Continental Celtic into the English language. The majority of these loanwords, however, is relatively recent and often fulfills a terminological function, such as *fjord* (1674) from Norwegian (p. 5), *pumpernickel* (1738) and *shiksa* (1892) from German and Yiddish respectively (p. 7), or *banshee* (1771) from Irish (p. 11).

Chapter 2 reviews the Celtic, Roman, and Germanic background of English. Miller starts by discussing the genetic evidence for the pre-Celts, the subsequent Celtic settlement of the British Isles and its mark on place names and other loanwords in English. Next, several periods of contact with the Romans and the



This article is published under the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

influence of Latin both on the British Celts and the early Germanic tribes are mentioned, though the latter is described in detail in Chapter 4. In the following sections Miller discusses the arrival of the pre-English tribes in c. 5 and provides linguistic and archeological evidence for the survival of Celtic population in many areas around England after the Anglo-Saxon settlement. He argues that "the initial contacts between Celts and speakers of pre-Old English were based on equality" (p. 40), resulting in complexification. Miller claims that the two Old English paradigms of *to be*, *it*-clefts and the English aspect system are all examples of this development. The enslavement of Brittonic women by the invading Germanic tribes and the following language shift, on the other hand, led to simplification, as "in [slave] communities… children would not have been exposed to Brittonic but would have learned the imperfectly acquired (non-native) English from their mothers and/or the female slaves as their first language" (p. 40). According to Miller, these morphosyntactic simplifications became manifest in Middle English.

Chapter 3, entitled "English: The early period", provides a short overview of the main events of the external history of English from c. 6 to c. 10–11. Although this chapter somewhat overlaps with the previous one, its main focus is shifted towards Latin influences. Miller emphasizes the importance of Christianization for the English language, as it resulted both in the several layers of Christian borrowings and a revival of Roman culture, the Roman alphabet, and the use of Latin.

Continuing the previous discussion, Chapter 4 is a careful study of early English loanwords from Latin and Greek. This chapter falls into two parts. In the first part Miller discusses the dating of loanwords on the basis of their phonological shape and gives a brief outline of sound changes (a) from Latin to Romance and (b) from West Germanic to Old English. The second part of this chapter is a comprehensive chronological list of Old English borrowings arranged according to their sphere of use. However, one has to be careful when trying to narrow a loanword down to a particular period, and Miller puts considerable emphasis upon (re)borrowing, which "occurred over the course of a millennium" (p. 53), as in the case of, for instance, *sponge* (p. 68). This chapter ends with a succinct appendix offering an overview of Latin and pre-Old English sound changes.

Chapter 5 is dedicated to the Scandinavian legacy of the English language. It begins with a discussion of the history of Scandinavians in England, from the Viking raids in c.8 to complete assimilation to the English in c. 12. The account that follows traces Scandinavian influence on toponyms, the lexicon, phonology, morphology, and syntax. Norse-derived words have considerably enriched the English language, even though the types of contact between Scandinavians and the English seem to be different, depending on the area and period. Miller believes that the initial borrowings are the result of adult contact, whereas the later loans testify to bilingualism and code-switching (p. 106). The profound lexical influence also led to some phonological differences between southern and northeastern English; depalatalization of native palatals in the northeast is a case in point, for instance, native *church* and Danelaw *kirk(e)* (p. 121). As for the morphological influence, Miller attributes the following changes to Scandinavian-English contact: the borrowing of the pronoun *they*, the diffusion of the northern present participle *-and(e)*, and the generalization of nominal *-ing* to participles. Moreover, East Norse (in particular, early Jutland Danish) and English share a number of morphosyntactic innovations, such as noun plural and genitive singular *-(e)s*, phrasal genitive, reflexive *(-)self*, omission of the conjunction *that*, relative ellipsis, preposition stranding with pronominal *wh*-words, preposition stranded passives, adoption of V2 order in the north, and the shift from SOV to SVO. "The fact that Scandinavian and English were closely related provided for a higher degree of hybridization than occurs with more distantly related languages or dialects," concludes Miller (p. 147).

Chapter 6 examines French influence on English, which, according to Miller, was mostly lexical. He criticizes the traditional view that loanwords from Central French followed those from Norman French and agrees with William Rothwell's assertion (1996, 1998) that the division between these two periods is rather artificial (p. 150), for central and northern forms often coexist in one text. Furthermore, due to the imperfect learning of French, an insular variety, Anglo-French, appeared. Loans after the conquest easily fall into groups according to cultural domains (for instance, titles of nobility, law, government, religion) and reflect borrowing from a superstrate; however, "one must distinguish terms superimposed by the Norman conquerors… from the later borrowings that reflect cultural prestige" (p. 167). It is particularly noteworthy that Miller pays special attention to the literary and stylistic status of French words in English texts (pp. 162–164), a topic that rarely comes under careful scrutiny. The period of continued bilingualism was followed by the gradual decline and death of Anglo-French c. 1400, which correlates with "the increase (by double) of French suffixes in English hybrids" (p. 176). Therefore, English was left with a large number of derivational affixes. Whereas the morphological legacy of French is described in great detail (pp. 176–184), the discussion of French impact on English syntax is rather brief (pp. 185–187), as Miller believes that the influence is "very limited" (p. 185). The appendix to this chapter

presents an overview of major sound changes from Latin to French.

The title of Chapter 7, which deals with later Latin and Greek influences, is "Continuity and revival of classical learning". Therefore, the first part of this chapter is dedicated to the emergence of a liberal arts education, the works of influential Christian writers of c. 2–8, and the history of Latin in the Middle Ages, though the latter account slightly overlaps with the previous sections of the book. The second part of the chapter covers the Middle English period, the humanistic movement, and the Renaissance (c. 1300–1600) as the peak period for latinisms. A detailed survey of Latin and Greek influence on English word formation is offered towards the end of this chapter. All in all, Miller argues that the legacy of Greek and Latin is restricted only to the lexicon and word formation (pp. 219, 221–223).

The final chapter, "External linguistic input to English", summarizes the main argument of the book: 1) French borrowings reflect "a substratal situation in which English borrowed heavily from the dominant language" (p. 228). Furthermore, French, Latin and Greek influence is restricted to the lexicon and morphology; 2) the contact with Scandinavian was mixed, leading to a considerable number of loanwords, whereas the contact with Celtic was substratal. However, "for both, the major influence has been structural" (p. 232). Miller also raises some remaining problems and identifies areas that are understudied, such as the loss of gender in English, acknowledging the need for further research. He uses the last page to restate his key point, "A typical family tree of the Indo-European languages lists English on a terminal node in the Germanic subfamily, which is really relevant only for Old English. Syntactically, morphologically, and lexically, Modern English reflects multiple input languages" (p. 236).

Overall, Miller's account is quite consistent and systematic. As his book puts together the bulk of recent studies in etymology, linguistics, archeology, history, and genetics, one should acknowledge the mere body of scholarship that he takes into consideration while discussing a myriad of phonological, lexical, morphological and syntactical influences. Furthermore, far from being just a summary of previous research, the consistent application of Trudgill's theory of sociolinguistic typology even to some frequently disputed or obscure cases, as well as the sharp focus on external impact, make his work a notable contribution to current studies on English historical linguistics.

However, a book that has to tackle such a vast and complex subject is bound to contain a few irrelevant details. Occasionally, random associations, which are due to the sheer vastness of the topic, lead the author astray and confuse the reader, as the above-mentioned borrowings from Germanic and Celtic in Chapter 1 that fall beyond the time scale of the present study, or a rather redundant list of the Church Fathers in Chapter 8. There is also a slight degree of overlap in the chapters discussing classical background to English (Chapters 2, 3, 7).

On the other hand, while Miller's account is accurate and detailed, a few items are noticeably missing. For instance, one component that seems to be lacking from Chapter 2 is a discussion of possible Celtic influences on English phonology, though several studies have recently addressed this issue (Laker, 2009; Minkova, 2011). Another example is the case of Old English *cirica* from Greek *kuriakon*. Though Miller uses this loanword as an illustration a number of times (pp. 45, 81, 121), never does he mention the later form *cyrice* that was probably a learned reborrowing. Furthermore, whereas a number of Latin and French suffixes are being described in great detail, *-or* of agent-nouns is only mentioned in passing (p. 174). A final instance of such omissions occurs when Miller discusses the later Latin and Greek influence, which he believes to be lexical only, and overlooks the fact that some borrowings are not fully morphosyntactically integrated and preserve their original plurals (Nevalainen, 1999, p. 366).

Besides, Miller makes several claims that are quite controversial. He notes, for instance, that pre-Christian oral works, such as "Beowulf", were written down in c. 7/8 (p. 47). However, there is no consensus view on the issue in recent scholarship (Bjork & Obermeier, 1997, pp. 18–28). Kevin Kiernan (1996) in particular has argued for a late date for the poem, claiming that "the last poet of 'Beowulf' was the second scribe" (p. 278). Indeed, whether epic poetry could be among the first texts to be written down in Christian monasteries seems rather doubtful.

Miller also suggests that /a/ in such words as *man*, *bank*, *land*, is due to Scandinavian influence (pp. 119–120). However, Middle English dialect maps (see "MAN: *mon* type" in eLALME) clearly demonstrate that the /o/ vowel was restricted to the West Midlands, whereas the /a/ vowel was present outside the Scandinavian-English contact area, which does not support Miller's hypothesis.

The book is systematically structured, concise and quite easy to read. All chapters are divided into subsections according to the topic, and most of them have both introductions and conclusions; as a result, the text is not difficult to follow. The appendices are handy and to the point. On the other hand, the book could benefit from a more elaborate word index, divided into subsections to include not only Modern English, but also Old and Middle English words as well as those of Celtic, Latin, Greek, Scandinavian, and French origin.

To conclude, Miller's comprehensive account of external influences will make a highly useful resource for both academics and advanced students of the

history of the English language. Even though for the most part it requires a solid background in English historical linguistics, even interested laypersons have something to gain by leafing through this illuminating volume.

## References

Benskin, M., Laing, M., Karaiskos, V., & Williamson, K. (2013). *An electronic version of a linguistic atlas of late Mediaeval English*. Retrieved from http://www.lel.ed.ac.uk/ihd/elalme/elalme.html

Bjork, R. E., & Obermeier, A. (1997). Date, provenance, author, audience. In R. E. Bjork & J. D. Niles (Eds.), *A Beowulf handbook* (pp. 13-34). Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.

Kiernan, K. S. (1996). *Beowulf and the Beowulf manuscript*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.

Laker, S. (2009). An explanation for the early phonemicisation of a voice contrast in English fricatives. *English Language and Linguistics*, *13*(2), 213-226.

Minkova, D. (2011). Phonemically contrastive fricatives in Old English? *English Language and Linguistics, 15(1),* 31-59.

Nevalainen, T. (1999). Early modern English lexis and semantics. In R. Lass (Ed.), *The Cambridge history of the English language* (Vol. 3, pp. 332-458). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Trudgill, P. (2010a). Contact and sociolinguistic typology. In R. Hickey (Ed.), *The handbook of language contact* (pp. 299-319). Oxford, UK: John Wiley & Sons.

Trudgill, P. (2010b). *Investigations in sociohistorical linguistics: Stories of colonisation and contact*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Trudgill, P. (2011). A tale of two copulas: Language-Contact speculations on first-millennium England. *NOWELE*, 62/63, 285-320.

Rothwell, W. (1996). Playing 'follow my leader' in Anglo-Norman studies. *Journal of French Language Studies*, *6*(2), 177-210.

Rothwell, W. (1998). Arrivals and departures: The adoption of French terminology into middle English. *English Studies*, *79*(2), 144-165.

## Notes for contributors

1. Journal of Language and Education is an electronic journal of the National Research University Higher School of Economics (HSE), Russia.

2. In order to ensure a worldwide readership, all articles submitted to Journal of Language and Education must be written in English (either British or American, but not mixed up). All publications are free of charge, and can be accessed on the Web site of the HSE.

3. The double blind peer review of each manuscript is carried out in the normal manner via JLE submission and peer review system by the Guest Editor.

4. Each manuscript must be accompanied by a statement that it has not been published elsewhere and that it has not been submitted simultaneously for publication elsewhere.

5. The authors bear full responsibility for the content of the articles and the opinions expressed in them.

6. Articles submitted must be unpublished, and cannot be simultaneously submitted to other journals.

7. Manuscripts should be in MS Word format and conform to the formatting style of *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (APA) 6th Edition*.

8. Structure: the main manuscript document should be organized as follows:

   **(1) Title**

   **(2) List authors' full names** (first-name, middle-name, and last-name).

   **(3) Affiliations of authors** (department and institution).

   **(4) E-mails**

   **(5) Abstract:** The abstract shouldn't be less than 150 words but not more than 300 words. The keywords should be less than 10 (for guidelines regarding abstracts, please see the JLE's How to write a scientific abstract.

   **(6) Abbreviations:** Abbreviation should be used only for non standard and very long terms.

   **(7) Introduction:** The statement of the problem should be stated in the introduction in a clear and concise manner.

   **(8) Theoretical background**

   **(9) Research, Materials / Participants and Methods:** Materials and methods should be clearly presented to allow the reproduction of the experiments. All articles published in JLE must make strong empirical contributions.

   **(10) Results and discussion:** Results and discussion maybe combined into a single section. Results and discussion may also be presented separately if necessary.

   **(11) Conclusion**

   **(12) References**

**Note: JLE recommends 6000 or more word count, excluding title page, legends, and references.**

Please, do not hesitate to email us in case of any questions: jle@hse.ru

*Articles*

Agnieszka Dzięcioł-Pędich
ESP in Polish Tertiary Language Courses – in Search of Definition 6

Ludmila Kozlova, Nadejda Trubochkina
Graphic and Functional Algorithms of Sequence of Tenses in English Grammar for the Effective Education and Automated Systems of Text Synthesis and Editing 15

Nataliya Lavrova
Semantic and Cognitive Structure of Emotion States Love, Lust, Infatuation, Passion 26

Ekaterina Popkova
The Backyard of EFL Teaching: Issues Behind L1 Prosodic Interference in Russian English 37

Irina Shchemeleva
The Development of Stance-taking Strategies in L2 Students' Academic Essays: the case of a content-based Russian-American Teleconference Course 45

Natalia Smirnova
Successful ESL Writing for Publication: The Role of Writers' Autonomy, Linguistic Competence and L1/L2 Critical Reading Skills 54

Olga Stognieva
Implementing Peer Assessment in a Russian University ESP Classroom 63

Ekaterina Talalakina
Fostering Positive Transfer through Metalinguistic Awareness: A Case for Parallel Instruction of Synonyms in L1 and L2 74

*Reviews*

Maria Volkonskaya
External influences on English: From its Beginnings to the Renaissance. D. Gary Miller. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2012. 252 pp. ISBN: 9780199654260 81

Notes for contributors 85

**Website: https://jle.hse.ru**