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Editorial

Issue 2 of *Journal of Language and Education* presents a wide range of articles from around the world covering various topics in linguistics and practices of teaching the English language.

Evgeniya Bolshakova takes a look at language olympiads (language competitions). She explains what a language olympiad is and provides a comparative analysis of five major olympiads in the English language in Russia. The author also singles out the core skills that are assessed and concludes that such language competitions can be considered as a form of alternative assessment. They provide a variety of tests (multiple-choice, fill-in-the-gaps, matching) for pupils and encourage them to develop their logic and critical thinking. Such language competitions though are designed for pupils with a good command of language.

The paper by Elena Freydina is devoted to a study of the prosodic variation in spoken discourse with regard to an academic public presentation. The research conducted by the author was based on the analysis of 25 lectures delivered by British lecturers and recorded at the moment of their presentation. Both auditory and acoustic analyses were used to establish prosodic characteristics of the spoken academic discourse while factual information about selected samples of the discourse was obtained with the use of speech analysing computer programmes. Her findings include observations about the prosodic markers of an academic public presentation which show that the nature of rhetorical discourse and its character determine prosodic variability and fusion of phonetic styles.

Toni Hull deals with the experience of conducting a recertification course for in-service teachers of English in Moscow, Russia. She reveals the stages of the recertification course, its objectives (both implicit and explicit) and analyses extrinsic and intrinsic motivation of teachers to develop professionally. The author states that developing community of practice is a core element of teachers' professional development. She also stresses the importance of collaboration in preparation of group presentations. She argues that it is important for teachers to take the ownership of their professional development.

Natalia Koliadina offers a study of systematic feedback on students' academic essay writing. She provides results of research conducted among 1st-year students of the International College of Economics and Finance (ICEF) of the Higher School of Economics, Moscow. The experiment was based on student portfolio, record sheets, recorded interviews, and a survey. Her findings demonstrate that structured feedback has a positive effect on students' progress in the subject.

Monika Łodej investigates issues of reading accuracy in EFL students with a transparent L1 background and provides a case study. The experiment was conducted on fifteen 6th grade students with Polish as their mother tongue. In her research, she examines the significance of two variables – regularity and frequency in reading skills instruction and acquisition. The analysis showed that regularity is a more decisive factor in EFL accuracy, which is proved by a thorough analysis of research data. The article ends with suggested implications of the study.

Elena Nikulina considers semi-idioms which possess both terminological and metaphorical meaning. In her experiment, she uses a number of methods, such as synthesis and analysis, a method of phraseological identification, a method of contextual analysis, and a method of statistics. The results of the research conducted by the author showed how new associations and metaphors appear and overlap. While studying them, learners of English enlarge their vocabulary and deepen their knowledge, and researchers can 'develop universal features and trace the pattern of forming new meanings'.

Nasy Pfanner offers a study of teacher corrective oral feedback in an Elementary School in the USA. The author investigates different types of corrective oral feedback and determines which types of feedback lead to student repair and which do not. She shows that the attitude of various researchers to corrective oral feedback in the classroom is controversial. Since the experiment was limited to only one observation with one teacher in the classroom the question of consistency of corrective oral feedback was not answered. Pfanner concludes that in order to verify the success of corrective feedback in the classroom the experiment ought to be expanded, which will help the teacher to understand whether her findings are typical of real classroom feedback or not.

The paper "Self-Regulation Skills: Several Ways of Helping Students Develop Self-Regulated Learning" by Tatiana Baranovskaya presents a study done with the long held assumption that self-control, self-esteem, and motivational orientations of adult language learners are important factors in their language learning behavior. The empirical experiment showed that during the ESAP course students manifested strong relationships among self-control, self-esteem and motivational-orientations. The researcher addresses a new role for the study of identifying how self-control, self-esteem and motivation affected language awareness and the extent to which students 'self-regulation skills have changed.

This brief synopsis of the papers constituting Issue 2 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 2 Elena Velikaya
Editor of Issue 2 Prithvi Shrestha

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Olympiad in the English Language as a Form of Alternative Language Assessment

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Although a variety of the English language written olympiads (language competitions) exist, fairly little is known about how they are different from traditional forms of language assessment. In Russia, olympiads in the English language are now gaining currency because they provide an opportunity to reveal creative thinking and intellectual abilities of pupils. The present study examined major differences between language olympiads and traditional forms of language assessment. A comparison of five main olympiads in the English language in terms of their levels, assessed skills and task types is made and their distinctive features are outlined. The results of a testing of a new written olympiad of the Higher School of Economics "Vysshaya proba" (Highest Degree) in the English language are analyzed. A set of test items was developed for 120 secondary school pupils in Moscow to find out whether they can easily cope with non-traditional form of assessment, which is language olympiad. The results indicate that language competition as a form of alternative assessment may be introduced at schools to encourage better learning.

Keywords: language assessment, language olympiad, alternative assessment

Participation in school and regional olympiads in the English language is gaining currency among pupils, which indicates the growing recognition of this form of skills assessment. This may be explained in several ways. On the one hand, such language competitions make it possible to reveal and develop pupils' creative abilities, intellectual potential and unconventional approach to performing tasks. On the other hand, pupils with a diploma of a winner/prizewinner of the final stage of Russia's National Language Olympiad gain an advantage when they enter a university (Federal law of December, 29, 2012, p. 218), which encourages them to strive for good results.

Despite the fact that olympiads in the English language are varied in forms and content, nowadays there is little understanding of the differences between language olympiads and traditional forms of language assessment. In the present article an attempt is made to analyze major Russian olympiads in the English language from a perspective of alternative assessment in order to define skills being assessed, variety of task types being used and their level of difficulty. Apart from that, the results of a testing of a new olympiad in the English language "Vysshaya proba" (Highest Degree) developed by the researchers of the Higher School of Economics are described and analyzed.

Materials and Methods

McNamara (2006) who was one of the first to propose a notion of alternative approach to assessment, defines assessment as "any deliberate, sustained and explicit reflection by teachers (and by learners) on the qualities of a learner's work can be thought of as a kind of assessment" (p. 343). In other words, assessment can be considered a reflection of instructional objectives. It is noted that in an era of educational reform educators prefer alternative forms of assessment (portfolios, open-ended questions, computer simulations) to traditional multiple tests (multiple choice, fill-in-the-gaps, matching)

(Dietel, Herman, and Knuth, 1991). Compared with traditional assessment, the alternative one "takes into consideration the learning of each student, as well as each student's cultural background and level of knowledge" (Chirimbu, 2013, p. 93).

As stated by Brown and Hudson (1998), there is no unique definition of alternative assessment and no common view on the characteristics of alternative assessment has been identified. However, by combining viewpoints of several researchers, they have come up with a list of positive characteristics for alternative assessments. Thus, alternative assessments are said to be those that:

1. "require students to perform, create, produce, or do something;
2. use real-world contexts or simulations;
3. are nonintrusive in that they extend the day-to-day classroom activities;
4. allow students to be assessed on what they normally do in class every day;
5. use tasks that represent meaningful instructional activities;
6. focus on processes as well as products;
7. tap into higher level thinking and problem-solving skills;
8. provide information about both the strengths and weaknesses of students;
9. are multiculturally sensitive when properly administered;
10. ensure that people, not machines, do the scoring, using human judgment;
11. encourage open disclosure of standards and rating criteria; and
12. call upon teachers to perform new instructional and assessment roles" (Brown, Hudson, 1998, pp. 654–655).

While traditional assessment puts more emphasis on indirect and standardized tests, alternative assessment involves higher level of students' cognitive skills and makes them create or produce something. At the same time alternative assessment involves tasks on activities that are familiar to students and are process-oriented, which may imply that it involves a more advanced and individual approach to solving educational tasks.

According to Coombe and Hubley (2009), alternative assessment provides alternatives to traditional testing as it "does not intrude on regular classroom activities, reflects the curriculum that is actually being implemented in the classroom… and provides multiple indices that can be used to gauge student progress" (Coombe, Hubley, 2009, p. 44). Stating that alternative assessment is continual, authentic and classroom-based form of testing, Coombe and Hubley name self-assessment, portfolio-assessment, student-designed tests, projects and presentations among typical forms of alternative assessment. However, among the forms of alternative assessment, such as debates, projects, think-alouds, checklists, progress cards (Tsagari, 2004), no form of language olympiad is mentioned. Therefore, this warrants research into this form of alternative assessment.

The study was designed to answer the following research questions: How easily will students cope with unconventional tasks in a language olympiad? What difficulties will they encounter? The researcher assumes that secondary school pupils, being largely exposed to a variety of language olympiads, will show high results and perform most of the tasks with ease. However, the researcher assumes that logical thinking and phonetic skills may be most problematic with students.

What is Language Olympiad?

By language olympiad (language competition) the researcher implies a written form of alternative language assessment which aims at evaluating secondary school pupils' knowledge in the English language. The English language olympiads in Russia are held at several levels: locally, regionally and nationally. Such competitions not only allow monitoring the efficiency of the English language instruction at schools but also assist in selecting the best university entrants.

Although there exists a variety of olympiads in the English language, not all of them assess the same skills. Within the framework of the present article, the researcher focused on the analysis of five major regional competitions in the English language:

- Hertsen language olympiad of pupils;
- Inter-regional "Eurasian Linguistic Olympiad";
- "Pokori Vorobyevy gory" language olympiad;
- Saint-Petersburg State University language olympiad;
- "Lomonosov" competition in the English language.

The choice of language olympiads being analyzed is based on the following criteria: a) a language olympiad is included in the national check list of language competitions b) it is approved by the Russian Council for Pupils' Olympiads; and c) task items are intended for revealing creative and intellectual abilities of pupils in the field of a foreign (English) language, and not in the field of pure linguistics.

The five language competitions were compared in terms of the area where they take place (local, trans-regional, national), the number of stages for pupils to take (remote and/or in person), the grades of secondary school pupils allowed to take part in a competition (a typical Russian secondary school covers pupils aged 12 to 17 years old and comprises grade 5 to grade 11), and a variety of task types. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 1.

Table 1
The comparison of five major Russian olympiads in the English language

	Hertsen	Eurasian	Pokori Vorobyevy gory	Saint-Petersburg	Lomonosov
Area	trans-regional	trans-regional	trans-regional	trans-regional	trans-regional
Number of stages	2 (elimination (remote) and final (in-person)	2 (elimination (remote) and final (in-person)	2 (elimination (remote) and final (in-person)	2 (elimination (remote) and final (in-person)	2 (elimination (remote) and final (in-person)
Grades	8–11	7–11	5–9, 10–11	10–11	10–11
Variety of task types	Tasks test all types of language skills but are conventional	Tasks are unconventional and cover a wide range of problematic areas.	Most of the tasks are varied and unconventional, but are uniform in content.	Tasks are unconventional and cover a wide range of problematic areas.	Tasks are unconventional and cover a wide range of problematic areas.

According to Table 1, it can be inferred that all language olympiads under consideration comply with certain standards. Firstly, they are all trans-regional which means that they assess pupils in all major Russian regions. Secondly, they are normally comprised of two stages (elimination and final): the elimination stage is usually held online while the final stage is an in-person testing. As for the grades, these olympiads are designed mainly for the pupils of grade 9 to grade 11. Finally, the task types are generally varied and unconventional, covering a wide range of problematic areas. Thus, these are the guidelines that the researcher took into account while considering the format of a new language olympiad "Vysshaya proba" which will be discussed further in the article.

In spite of the fact that all language competitions under discussion are approved by the Russian Council for Pupils' Olympiads, they do not assess the same skills in the same format. In order to find out what differences they have in terms of assessed skills, the task types of each language olympiad were analyzed. The findings are presented in Table 2. The first column depicts a list of skills which were derived from the assessment tasks. A "+" at the intersection of a skill and an olympiad indicates that an olympiad includes a task designed to assess this skill.

The results of the analysis indicate that the tasks in language olympiads are designed to assess a wide range of pupils' skills. Knowledge of lexical and grammatical forms of words, an ability to identify appropriate collocations, reading for gist and writing an essay on a particular topic are core skills that are assessed in language olympiads. They may be selected for several reasons. First and foremost, these skills make the base of almost any international English language exam. Secondly, the tested skills cover the areas of grammar and vocabulary, reading and writing, which allows administrators to see pupils' performance in a complex set of skills. However, the tasks aimed at assessing pronunciation skills, logical thinking and awareness of idiomatic expressions are not widely used or are not used at all. These skills may be under-assessed because they are more advanced and require a higher level of cognitive skills, which makes them challenging to complete even for the most proficient pupils. More than that, the universities responsible for designing language olympiads want to select their "target" entrants who can cope with the tasks that are close to a university student level and ensure that the entrant is able to manage the future university programme.

Participants

In September 2014, a group of language teaching methodology specialists of the Higher School of Economics was set a task of designing a new olympiad "Vysshaya proba" (Highest Degree) in the English language for Russian pupils. In two months the tasks were developed and then tested on 120 pupils of Moscow secondary schools. The participants were selected according to several principles. First of all, they had to give their informed consent, saying they voluntarily agree to take part in the approbation. Besides, the pupils had expressed particular interest in testing the olympiad. Apart from that, pupils of these schools are potential entrants of the Higher School of Economics. The tests of "Vysshaya proba" took place in four schools, two of which were specialized in the English language teaching and learning and two of which were 'ordinary' schools with no emphasis on studying particular subjects. The test version of this language competition was designed

Table 2
The comparison of assessed skills in 5 trans-regional olympiads in the English language

A skills checked	Hertsen	Eurasian	Pokori Vorobyevy gory	Saint-Petersburg	Lomo-nosov
ability to identify sound-letter correlations		+			
ability to put correct stress in a word		+			
ability to identify similar pronunciation patterns of words		+			
ability to form verbal forms of words		+			
ability to put appropriate punctuation marks		+			
ability to select correct lexical and grammatical form of a word	+	+	+	+	+
ability to find grammatical and lexical errors in a sentence		+		+	+
ability to identify an appropriate collocation	+	+	+	+	+
reading for detail		+	+		+
reading for gist	+		+	+	+
ability to select synonyms and antonyms to given words		+			
ability to identify evocative nuances of text fragments		+		+	
ability to define whether statements to the text are true, false or not given	+	+		+	
awareness of national features of the English speaking countries		+	+	+/-	
ability to write an essay on a particular topic	+	+	+	+	+

for 9th graders, 10th graders and 11th graders separately. The testees were allowed to use the Internet while accomplishing tasks as the first stage of any language olympiad is on-line based elimination test.

Material: a test

A test included tasks aimed at assessing pupils' skills in phonetics, grammar, collocations, reading, logical thinking and awareness of cultural characteristics of the English speaking countries. A test was divided into three sections: "Grammar and Vocabulary", "Reading and Logical thinking" and "Cultural awareness". An example of each section will be provided below.

The first section "Grammar and Vocabulary" consisted of a number of task items designed to assess pupils' knowledge in the fields of phonetics, collocations and idioms, grammar rules and error identification.

E.g. (Grade 10)

Read a text and decide which idiom (1, 2, 3) best fits the sentence in bold.

From the very moment of Business School graduation, Mary has been dreaming about establishing her own company. She filled in all the necessary documents, chose the location, and even consulted a designer to arrange her office. ***She is obsessed with her idea.***

1) she has a bee in her bonnet
2) she is biding her time
3) she bites off more than she can chew

The second section **"Reading and Logical thinking"** was comprised of the tasks that assessed pupils' ability to read for gist and for detail as well as it tested their logical thinking and argumentation skills.

E.g. (Grade 11)

Read a sentence and decide whether it contains logical fallacy or not. If it does, choose a fallacy type from the list below.

You either did knock the glass over, or you did not. Which is it?

A No logical mistakes
B False Dilemma (Giving two choices when actuality there could be more choices possible)
C Red Herring (Introducing a topic not related to the subject at hand)
D Appeal to the Popular (Urging the hearer to accept a position because a majority of people hold to it)
E Cause and Effect (assuming that the effect is related to a cause because the events occur together)
F Fallacy of Division (Assuming that what is true of the whole is true for the parts)
G Attacking the individual instead of the argument
H Weak Analogy

The final part "Cultural awareness" tested pupils' awareness of conventions, cultural habits, and knowledge of the famous people of the English speaking countries.

E.g. (Grade 9)

Read a short text and decide what person from the list this is.

____ is an American singer who revolutionized American pop music and became an idol for millions of people all over the world in the 1950s and 1960s.

A Edward the Confessor
B Rudyard Kipling
C Charles Dickens
D Elvis Presley
E Arthur Conan Doyle
F Emily Bronte
G Sean Connery
H William the Conqueror
I Michael Jackson
J Tom Hanks
K Henry VIII
L Jack London

Depending on a grade, a test could be comprised of a varied number of tasks. For 'ordinary' secondary schools which do not specialize in any subject a test included a minimum of task items, while in the schools specialized in the English language teaching and learning a test could consist of a maximum of task items assessing a wider range of skills. Moreover, timing for different grades was different. For pupils studying in 'ordinary' secondary schools a test lasted for 45 minutes while in the 'specialized' ones it could take up to 90 minutes.

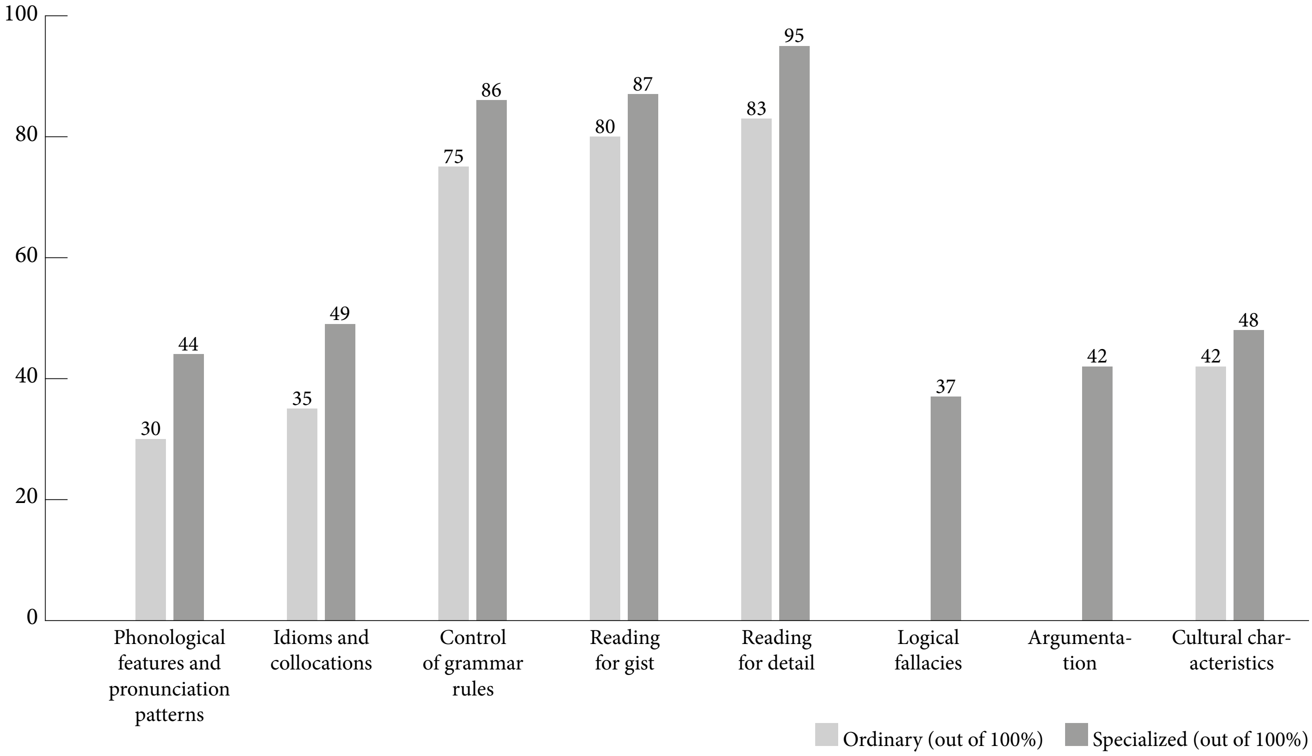
Results and Discussion

Generally, the pupils of both "ordinary" and "specialized" schools demonstrated good results at the testing of a language olympiad "Vysshaya proba" (Highest Degree), which correlates with the assumption of the first research question. In "ordinary" schools pupils did well in "Grammar and Vocabulary" section but failed at tasks that assessed logical thinking and argumentation. As for "specialized" schools, the pupils showed good control of grammar rules and argumentation skills. However, the results of vocabulary and cultural awareness parts indicated poor knowledge of collocations, idioms and cultural characteristics of the English speaking countries. The results of the test are summarised in Table 3.

The results have also indicated that pupils were not ready to cope with phonetic tasks, which supports the assumption that teachers do not place emphasis on revising phonological features and pronunciation patterns of words on higher stages of the English language acquisition. Apart from that, the tasks designed to assess logical thinking turned out to be the most challenging ones. The researcher assumes that it may be explained due to the lack of practice and absence of the tasks that drill this skill in modern English textbooks used at schools. However, knowledge of grammar rules and reading skills were found to be well developed. These two components (grammar and reading) along with writing and speaking form the basis of the Unified State Exam in the English language aimed at assessing 11th graders' performance in English. It is taken at the end of a school year, its results equalling an entrance exam in English at a university.

The results of the approbation also demonstrate that pupils who are encouraged to develop their critical thinking and problem-solving skills have almost no problems with lower-level tasks. Apart from that, it turned out that pupils with average results demonstrate high potential and an ability to make progress. A new language olympiad, designed as a form of alternative assessment, displays both strengths and weaknesses of pupils and may help to eliminate the latter. As for the second research question, the findings reveal that the main difficulties that the students encountered were connected with insufficient experience of dealing with unconventional tasks and, surprisingly, lack of time. In short questionnaires distributed right after the test the pupils were asked to share their

Table 3
The results of a testing



impressions. The majority said they needed another 15–20 minutes to complete the tasks successfully.

Conclusion

An olympiad in the English language may be considered a form of alternative assessment for several reasons. Firstly, it allows varying traditional classroom tests (multiple-choice, fill-in-the-gaps, matching), thus introducing unconventional approaches to solving educational tasks. Secondly, it may encourage teachers to pay more attention to the development of critical thinking and logical skills which may be applied in various school subjects. Finally, the use of language competitions in the English language in the classroom may help to train potential participants of local, trans-regional or national language olympiads. The expedience of exploiting language olympiads in the classroom should be considered by administrators and teachers as this form of alternative assessment can be implemented with both average pupils with poor knowledge of the subject to ignite their potential and with proficient learners to further develop their skills. This study would have been enhanced with more research data on the essence of language olympiads, the concept of which is not widely spread in other countries of the world. It would also be valuable to invite schools in other regions of Russia to participate in the testing in order to see how the results would differ in the centre of Russia and in the outlying regions.

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Prosodic Variation in Academic Public Presentations

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The article reports on a study of the prosodic characteristics of academic public presentations. Prosodic variation is analysed with regard to the social and cultural context which is significant for the adequate description of discourse prosody. The paper draws on the findings made in the course of the analysis (auditory and acoustic) of presentations delivered by British lecturers. The article contains an overview of contextual factors and discourse strategies used in academic presentations. Special focus is given to prosodic variations in spoken discourse determined by the extralinguistic context. The author argues that that the choice of prosodic means depends on a variety of contextual parameters: speaker-audience relationships (reflected in the tenor of discourse), the speaker's rhetorical competence, method of delivery, rhetorical tradition and others. The observations made in the paper may be useful to develop expertise in the delivery of academic public presentations which is an important aspect of EFL teachers' professional training.

Keywords: prosodic variation, contextual factors, discourse strategies, style, prosodic markers

The search for an adequate description of the prosody of the academic public presentation involves the analysis of the nature of rhetorical discourse and the extralinguistic context including the speech situation and the broader social, cultural and institutional context. This paper is an attempt to combine the study of contextual factors, rhetorical properties and prosodic characteristics of public speeches and to establish correlations between them.

This approach is based on the theoretical assumption that language cannot be considered in isolation from meaning and should be considered within sociocultural context in which it occurs (Halliday, 1978; Paltridge, 2012). It is highly relevant in the study of spoken discourse. Following Brazil (1997, p. 26), "As analysts we cannot hope to make sense of a speaker's behaviour unless we are willing to take into account very much more than is vested with the comparative objectivity of a transcribed text". It should be noted that we must consider both the immediate speech situation ("the here and now" of the utterance, "the local context") and the "broad context" (the social and cultural background).

The studies of spoken academic discourse generally focus on some particular linguistic features: the discourse structure and lexico-grammatical characteristics (Biber, Connor and Upton, 2007), pragmatic and sociolinguistic aspects (Hyland, 2009), rhetorical features (Swales, 2004). The study which drew on the data from undergraduate lectures (Nesi, 2001) looked at the relationship between lexical density and speed of the speech. But on the whole, the prosodic aspect of academic public presentation is seldom included in the analysis despite the fact that it is an essential component of spoken discourse, rhetorical discourse in particular.

The key issue of this research is to describe the prosodic characteristics of the academic presentation with regard to its rhetorical status and sociocultural context and establish the sources of prosodic variation.

Materials and Methods

The observations presented in this article were made in the course of the research based on the analysis of the academic public presentations delivered by British lecturers (15 men and 10 women) and audio-recorded at the moment of their presentation (25 lectures).

The topics of the lectures were related to the spheres of education, linguistics, cross-cultural communication, foreign language teaching, social and cultural problems.

Both auditory (perception) analysis and acoustic analysis were used to establish prosodic characteristics of the spoken academic discourse. Auditory analysis was aimed at recording the "auditory impression" of the speech segments and providing their auditory transcription. The objective of the acoustic analysis (Speech Analyzer (v.3.0.1) was to provide measurements of the prosodic parameters: pitch, duration and intensity. Auditory transcription and the data obtained in the course of acoustic analysis of the selected samples made it possible to single out the general tendencies in prosodic variation.

The approach used in this research consisted in combining the analysis of prosodic features and the analysis of contextual factors. This approach leads to an insightful analysis of prosodic variation in spoken discourse and to the understanding of discourse complexity.

Results and Discussion

There were three steps in the analysis: 1) context analysis (study and description of contextual factors); 2) description of typical prosodic features; 3) interpretation of the relationship between contextual factors and prosodic features in functional terms.

Contextual Factors

Phonetic research related to "speaking styles", or "phonetic styles" generally focuses on the analysis of prosodic variation brought about by such factors as the goal of the discourse, the degree of formality, and the form of communication (monologue/dialogue). Wichmann bases the analysis of speaking styles on the following parameters: monologue vs. dialogue, public vs. private, goal–oriented *vs.* unconstrained, scripted vs. unscripted, rehearsed vs. spontaneous (Wichmann, 2000, p. 22). The key problem here is that in each particular case all these and other factors do not act in isolation, but in complex interaction. As a result, the prosodic realisation of the discourse may vary considerably within the same genre.

Looking at the extralinguistic context of the academic public speech (lecture), we can single out a number of factors, the influence of which on prosody has a rather contradictory character. In academic public presentations the choice of prosodic means depends on a variety of contextual parameters. The most obvious among them are these: the speech event is a public monologue, it is goal-oriented. The goal is to inform, instruct, educate, which involves certain communicative pressure. However, rhetorical discourse is tailored as a two-sided interaction aimed at cooperation between the speaker and the audience. In other words, it is audience centered, which often results in friendly, informal interactions. In fact, in the dynamics of discourse the character of the speaker – hearers (audience) relationship reflected in the tenor is of crucial importance in terms of its influence on prosody variation.

The method of delivery chosen by the speaker may also affect the prosodic realisation: manuscript reading, extemporaneous speaking, impromptu method of delivery, memorized method. Basically, prosodic manifestations of the factors related to "mode" (prepared/spontaneous, scripted/ unscripted, monologue/dialogue) are determined by the specific features of rhetorical discourse and are often heterogeneous. Thus, the effect of spontaneity may be deliberately planned by the speaker to maintain contact and make the interaction effective. A lecture is an oral text, but it is generally based on a written text (script), intended for vocal delivery. Such texts characterised as "written to be spoken" are widely used in public presentations. Admittedly, the lecture is a monologue, but elements of dialogue are sometimes incorporated because interactions with the audience and feedback are very common in rhetorical discourse.

Another important factor to consider is described in rhetoric in terms of rhetorical ethos. In other words, it is the broad social and cultural context, rhetorical tradition. British rhetorical tradition is characterised by audience oriented discourse; the speaker avoids being dogmatic; he uses irony, self-irony, respects the personal space of the listeners. In the Russian tradition, lecturers generally tend to be more dogmatic and imposing. As regards spoken academic discourse, the institutional culture and the tradition of the particular university are to be taken into account.

Social variability of intonation is also to be considered. Special focus in this research is given to such factors reflected in the prosodic characteristics of rhetorical discourse as the professional status of the speaker, speaker-audience relationships and the individual style of the speaker. It is generally acknowledged that profession as one of the components of social status affects speech behaviour, and intonation in particular. The lecturer belongs to the group of the so-called "highly verbal" professions which is reflected in the vocal qualities and intonation repertoire. It is also relevant that the teacher or university lecturer represents the authority role which implies a certain amount of discourse control.

It follows from this brief overview of the contextual factors that determine the variation of discourse prosody in academic public presentations that the analysis should include the local (situational) context, the broad social and cultural context and the dynamic factors which emerge in the process of the social interaction of discourse participants. These factors regulate the choice of language means, prosodic means in particular, that the speaker makes. The speaker chooses from the speech repertoire what is appropriate. Coupland (2007) compares a speech repertoire to a closet containing a specified number of clothing items. In this conception, speakers select items from their individual clothing (or speech) repertoires. They do that either to match particular situations they find themselves in (situational conformity – dressing 'to fit in'), or to deviate to some extent from normative expectations (initiative style – dressing 'to be different') (Coupland, 2007, p. 83).

Considering that public speaking involves both stereotype and creativity, it is necessary to look at the individual style of the speaker as another source of prosodic variation.

Speaker's Strategies and Their Prosodic Realisation

The contextual factors outlined above in their combination are reflected in the variations of the prosodic characteristics which can be grouped into those related to the goals of educational discourse (instructing, informing) and those related to the sphere of speaker-audience interaction. Correspondingly, the strategies used by the speaker include those aimed at conveying information and interaction strategies aimed at maintaining contact with the listeners (Bloch & Freydina, 2011, p. 183).

The first group of strategies intended to implement the educational goals of discourse imply active involvement of both the speaker and the audience in the process of communication. A high information potential of the utterance is achieved by a number of prosodic devices (intonation techniques): accentuation in pre-nuclear patterns, increased length of pauses (especially when unexpected information is conveyed), prosodic contrasts and others. The examples below illustrate the use of these intonation techniques:

1. *It is a ➘ genuinely 'popular \genre||* (lecture "Thriller as a Literary Genre").

This is the main thesis of the lecture. The material in the thesis which has a high information potential is in broad focus. The whole utterance is perceived as carrying new information.

It should be noted that within the act of argumentation the dominant position of the thesis may be created by means of prosodic contrasts. The phrases preceding and following the thesis are often realized as Low Key information (low pitch level, narrow pitch range, fast tempo, reduced loudness), while the thesis is pronounced as High Key information (high pitch level, broad pitch range, slow tempo, increased loudness). As a result, the material in the thesis acquires greater prosodic prominence.

2. *In the ➘ written 'language of the \world|| the ➝ English of \print| ➘ standard 'English e\ xists|| ➘ standard 'written \English|||* (lecture "The Future of English").

The character of accentuation (word-by-word accentuation) demonstrates that the speaker conveys important information. This device is also associated with "rhetorical pressure".

3. *Nearly half occur once|||Always|||* (lecture "Attraction of Words").
Prose|||is supposed to be the simplest thing|| (lecture "Stylistics").

Increased duration of pauses between phrases or intonation groups is frequently used when the information is not only new and important, but also unexpected. Prolonged stop of phonation creates anticipation.

4. *Personally| I've always taught literature the ↑ old way||* (lecture "Thriller as a Literary Genre").

The use of Accidental Rise (marked increase of pitch level) emphasises the semantic value of a particular lexical unit. These intonation techniques are often combined. Prosodic prominence of the key elements contributes to forming the information structure of the text and ultimately to getting the information across to the listeners.

The crucial factor in any public speech is the ability of the speaker to build rapport with the audience, to establish and maintain contact and to monitor the reaction of the listeners. Numerous interaction strategies are aimed at expressing the speaker's attitude, facilitating the perception of the speech and maintaining contact.

Two intonation techniques used to implement these strategies are illustrated below.

The first is a high proportion of Fall-Rises on discourse markers in the initial position, adverbs in particular. According to Brazil (1997), "the Fall-Rises used as a referring tone serves to insinuate a measure of generalised intimacy and solidarity into the speaker/hearer relationship – a kind of verbal hand-on your shoulder gesture" (p. 79). In lectures it is a signal of the informal and friendly tenor of discourse.

∨Admittedly| it's hardly a new idea|(lecture "New Developments in Higher Education")

And ∨personally| I am very delighted with it| (lecture "Cambridge")

Another tendency is that the intonation groups which actualise interaction strategies are contrasted prosodically and perceived as rhetorical signals. Low Key is often used:

And the question is now what happens to a language| when it comes to be used in that kind of way| and the first thing that happens| and this is not always a palatable point| be prepared to be upset||| The first thing that happens| (lecture "The Future of English")

Discourse strategies and prosodic devices (intonation techniques) that actualise them are presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Discourse strategies and intonation techniques in academic public presentations

Discourse strategies	Intonation devices
Informational Strategies	
Conveying new information	Word-by-word accentuation Broad focus position Contrastive prosody of the utterance
Conveying important unexpected facts	Narrow focus Accidental Rise Change of tempo, lengthening of pauses inside the utterance
Comparing facts, objects, phenomena	Contrastive use of nuclear tone
Interaction Strategies	
Expressing the speaker's attitude	Prosodic prominence of textual units with emotional and modal connotations
Structuring the information and optimizing its perception by the listeners	Prosodic prominence of discourse markers Fall-Rise on the adverbs in initial position Emphatic pauses
Maintaining contact	Contrast of prosodic parameters: tempo, loudness and pitch level Low Key on contact devices and discourse markers

Prosodic Markers of Style in Academic Public Speech

The next step of the research consisted in giving a description of typical (pervasive) prosodic features. The data obtained in the course of perception and acoustic analysis demonstrated marked prosodic variations. The explanation of this phenomenon is based upon the analysis of contextual factors and rhetorical characteristics of the academic presentations outlined in 3.1. There can be traced prosodic features associated with the sphere of educational discourse and those that are associated with conversational tenor of discourse. It results from the fact that lectures tend to be organized as an "enlarged conversation" of the speaker and the listeners and are often rather informal.

It will be wrong to assume that the public speech can be identified with everyday conversation. In rhetorical discourse, the speaker controls speech behaviour and resorts to conversational style deliberately using it as a means of building rapport with the audience.

The overall impression is that of the "fusion" of speaking styles which is reflected in heterogeneity of prosodic characteristics (Freydina, 2012, p. 309). The prosodic markers typical of educational rhetorical discourse include the following features: marked variation of pitch ranges (form narrow to wide), frequent use of such terminal tones as High Fall, Fall-Rise, Rise-Fall-Rise, slow tempo, varied length of pauses, frequent use of emphatic pauses. The markers of informal conversational discourse include: narrow ranges, frequent use of Low Fall, Low Rise, Mid-Level Tone, faster tempo, shorter pauses, presence of hesitation pauses.

It should be noted that conversational tenor is typical of introductions, illustrative examples, commentaries, stories and jokes which are often used in rhetorical discourse. The amount of such fragments depends on the degree of formality, the subject matter and the individual style of the speaker. Since humour and irony are typical of the British tradition of public speaking (Collins, 2012; Fox, 2004), such conversational fragments are often observed:

I'm sorry to be lecturing at the time of day| when all decent people| should be fast asleep on a halfday||. I can tell you| it's my habit to sleep at this time||. But I am standing up| and it's difficult to sleep standing up||. But if you nod off| I shall understand very well||| (lecture"Thriller as a Literary Genre")

One of the prosodic markers that is generally associated with conversational style is hesitation pause. Admittedly, one would not expect this type of pause to be used in a public speech. It is argued that too many hesitation pauses can spoil the effect of the speech as they may be perceived as a marker of the speaker's uncertainty and lack of confidence. Besides, pausing in the wrong place can change the meaning or make the message unclear. Contrary to these recommendations of specialists in public speaking, the research demonstrated a considerable number of hesitation pauses (both silent and filled) in academic public presentations.

The use of hesitation pauses in lectures is determined by the fact that they can perform a variety of functions: they may be used for speech planning (self-repair, finding appropriate wording), they may reflect the physiological and psychological state of the speaker, they may serve as a contact device. In academic public presentations, hesitation pauses may serve as signals of informal, friendly and spontaneous tenor of discourse.

It should be mentioned here that to identify the function of the hesitation pause one must rely on the context of the speech as well as the competence and individual style of the speaker:

I mean different meanings of words| different words| er | spellings of words|| (self-correction). (lecture "Attraction of Words")

But prose| is not| it's the most difficult to| er | reproduce|| You haven't got poetic license|| You've got to|er|do justice| to the author's intent|| (lack of rhetorical competence).(lecture "Stylistics")

And| er|in fact| common observation| if you look around people who read| good fiction| shows you| that they are not better people| than people who read bad fiction|| (signal of informal interaction). (lecture"Thriller as a Literary Genre")

Another variable that serves a marker of style is tempo. Slow tempo is used to convey important information; it also indicates a high degree of rhetorical pressure. Faster tempo is used in conversational fragments (illustrative examples and anecdotes). On the whole, a marked variation of tempo contributes to making the discourse dynamic and, ultimately, contributes to its effectiveness.

Pitch parameters also serve as markers of "the fusion of styles". The most important are the character of the terminal tone and variations of pitch range. Cruttenden (1997) made the following observation about the stylistic aspect of nuclear tones:

of the four tones which are most typical of sentence non-final intonation groups (Low Rise, High Rise, Fall-Rise and Mid-Level), two (Low Rise and Fall-Rise) are more typical of formal styles. Of the two typical of informal styles, High Rise is the particularly 'casual one' whereas Mid-Level, while being a common non-final tone in conversation, is also common in the speeches of politicians who pride themselves on possessing the common touch (Cruttenden, 1997, p. 128).

In the lecture, the terminal tones associated with formal discourse are traced alongside with those that are associated with informal interaction which makes it difficult to identify and describe the intonation patterns typical of this genre of discourse.

In some fragments, pitch characteristics are similar to those in spontaneous discourse: narrow pitch range, prevalence of Mid-Level Tones and Low Falls, Mid and Low Level Tones in pre-nuclear parts of the intonation groups.

I used to have a box by the door| and instead of throwing away all my junk mail without opening it|I used to put it into the box| so it could go into the corpus||. Language of the e-mails||. We've got a small e-mail corpus|||. (lecture "Attraction of words")

Outside the context of the public speech, such fragments could be perceived as parts of spontaneous monologue; however, they are integral components of the present-day academic presentation.

Some of the markers of style heterogeneity and prosodic variability are presented in Table 2.

It is clearly evident that the traditional prosodic markers of academic style predominate. But my primary concern here was to show that the description of the prosodic features of the lecture cannot be restricted to a fixed set of prosodic parameters. Such an inventory of prosodic features is not sufficient and does not reflect the discourse complexity. The nature of rhetorical discourse and its dynamic character determine extensive prosodic variability.

Prosodic Markers of Individual Style

Another source of prosodic variation in the academic public presentation is the individual style of the speaker. It is generally acknowledged that one of the most important aspects of good public speaking is the personality the speaker projects. On the one hand, public speech is guided and restricted by the rhetorical tradition with rules prescribed for each step of public speaking. On the other hand, each public presentation is a unique "rhetorical event", which reflects the personality of the speaker and the persona he projects.

The markers of the speaker's identity in academic discourse are a reflection of a complex set of factors: physiological and psychological, social (age, gender,

Table 2
Prosodic markers of style

Prosodic features	Academic style	Conversational style
Key	Greatly varied, mostly high and medium	Low, medium
Pitch ranges	Greatly varied, mostly broad and medium	Medium, narrow
Terminal tones	High Falls, Mid Falls, Fall-Rises, compound tones	Mid Level Tones, Low Falls, Fall-Rises
Pre-nuclear patterns (Heads)	High Level Head, Falling Head, Stepping Head, Sliding Head	Low Level Head, Mid Level Head, Falling Head
Segmentation	Medium and long intonation groups	Varied length of intonation groups with a high proportion of short intonation groups
Rate of speech	Average, decreasing on important parts of utterance	Fast
Pauses	Syntactic pauses, medium and long: emphatic and rhetorical pauses	Considerable number of hesitation pauses (filled and unfilled)

social and educational background), the level of professional competence (academic, rhetorical), attitude to the subject of the presentation (interested/ uninterested, involved/ uninvolved) and attitude to the audience. Under the influence of these factors, the individual speech repertoire is formed.

Admittedly, phonetic means contributes to creating the personal style of the speaker. The comparative analysis of text samples from the corpus of research showed that the following prosodic parameters can serve as indicators of individual style: the degree of variability of pitch ranges, preference of particular intonation patterns in final and non-final positions, variability of tempo, rhythmic organisation, frequency of emphatic, rhetorical and hesitation pauses, and variability of loudness. Vocal qualities are also relevant: voice timbre, voice qualities, tone of voice and voice modulations

On the whole, the individual style is a unique combination of segmental, suprasegmental, paralinguistic features.

Conclusion

The results of the research presented in this article demonstrate the dimension of prosodic variations in academic public presentations. Studying discourse prosody with regard to the sociocultural context enables the analyst to get some interesting insights concerning both the use of language, prosodic means in particular, and social and cultural parameters of speech interaction: participants of discourse, their relationship, social and cultural values, and rhetorical tradition.

The complexity of academic spoken discourse is reflected in extensive prosodic variation. In both academic spoken and written interactions, academic and conversational styles may intermingle with each other. The prosodic markers of this heterogeneity are the character of text segmentation, marked variation of tempo, the character of pauses and pitch parameters. It should be noted that marked prosodic variation contributes to making the public presentation more dynamic and expressive. Thus, it contributes to the effectiveness of rhetorical discourse.

Admittedly, expertise in the delivery of academic public presentations is an important aspect of the professional training of EFL teachers. The observations made here are relevant in terms of teaching the skills of public speaking to Russian learners of English and developing the understanding of the specific features of the present day academic presentation.

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Professional Development, Motivation, and Community in a Moscow In-Service Recertification Course

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Between September 2010 and May 2013, the author conducted six cycles of an 8-week recertification course for in-service English teachers in Moscow, Russia. The course syllabus was built on developing a community of practice, as a motivating factor in teacher development. The community was fostered both during in-person meeting time and online participant interaction. While the participants' objectives were varied, the overarching goal of the course – beyond knowledge and skill building – was to engender a sense of ownership among the participants, both of the course itself and of their own continuing professional development. This was realized in both small incremental ways, such as launching a new discussion online, and in bolder, farther-reaching ways, such as organizing a mini-conference for a local school district.

Keywords: professional development, motivation, exploratory practice, community of practice, collaboration

What is the objective of in-service professional development for EFL teachers? And who determines it? The Ministry of Education in establishing standards for professional development workshops and courses? The agencies that contract with the ministry to provide trainers, facilities, and content? The trainers who deliver the workshops and courses? Or teachers themselves?

The answer is all of the above, though too often teachers are forgotten as active agents in their own professional development (Casteel & Ballantyne, 2010; Wichadee, 2011). For three years, between September 2010 and May 2013, the author facilitated a recertification course, held twice a year, on behalf of the Moscow Institute of Open Education, using a curriculum known as "Shaping the Way We Teach English." The syllabus had been designed by a previous facilitator, and over the years the author redesigned it to better suit the needs and interests of the participants. While the official objectives of the course did not vary semester to semester, the professional development objectives of the participants themselves were as varied as the number of the teachers enrolled. Some of the objectives included: please an administrator, receive a certificate, find inspiration, re-energize a lagging career, learn new ideas for the classroom, network with colleagues, increase language fluency – just to name a few. Many of these were realized, in large part, by greater interactions among the group and a sense of ownership of the course itself.

Materials and Methods

The course

As outlined in the syllabus, the course used a constructivist, inquiry-based approach. As such, the participants created the course's outcomes through their shared experience, built on an open exchange of questions and answers. The syllabus was designed to give participants the opportunity to observe different classroom practices, to reflect on their own practice, and to share their ideas for adapting techniques and materials to their own context. While attendance at the eight weekly classes was expected, equally important was participation on the course Ning (an online social media platform tailored to the needs of the course). The final qualifying project for each participant was a group presentation, made not only to the course participants, but also to the other Moscow teachers at an open session at the American Center.

Table 1 shows a sample of the course syllabus used.

Professional Development

Few would argue against the importance of professional development for teachers. Day's (1999) summary of the essential features of professional development is frequently cited:

> Professional development consists of all natural learning experiences and those conscious and planned activities which are intended to be of direct or indirect benefit to the individual, group or school and which contribute, through these, to the quality of education in the classroom. It is the process by which, alone and with others, teachers review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purposes of teaching; and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills and emotional intelligence essential to good professional thinking, planning and practice with children, young people, and colleagues through each phase of their teaching lives (p. 18).

Expanding on this definition, Hayes (2014) writes that continuing professional development is "a multi-faceted, lifelong experience, which can take place inside or outside the workplace and which often moves beyond the professional and into the realm of a teacher's personal life too" (p. 5).

With any professional development opportunity, it is the challenge of both the facilitator and the participant to make the most of the time and resources allotted so that the course contributes meaningfully to the "multi-faceted" whole of a teacher's life.

When first encountering the Shaping syllabus, many teachers balked, doubting they would have the time (and perhaps the inclination) to be engaged in the various assignments. Online communities were familiar to some, and completely foreign to others. Reflection on individual practice was one thing; to share with others they had just met quite another. A group presentation in an unknown setting to an unknown audience, barely six weeks into the course, was simply implausible. To the extent that participants warmed to these tasks and indeed excelled at them, the course was successful, both collectively and individually.

Online Community of Practice

In all incarnations of the Shaping course, it had an online component. As the syllabus evolved, the class Ning became an increasingly essential feature, fulfilling various functions, from a tool for materials delivery to a site for community building. With just eight weeks allotted to the course, and ambitious objectives, building community outside of the classroom was critical.

This feature of the course was developed with the principles of community of practice in mind. In a community of practice, people with a shared profession or values come together to share knowledge and experience and to grow personally and professionally. Indeed, exploring the concept of community of practice was a core activity in the first class session. The objective was to consider the community of practice as the intersection of learning, social participation, and identity – both individual and communal identity (Wenger, McDermott, & Snyder, 2002). First, together the class reviewed the three characteristics of community of practice: the domain (i.e. shared interests), the community, the practice. The participants then investigated the similarities and the differences in their worlds. Table 2 shows an example activity for building community of practice.

In-class discussion, pair-work, and group-work were central in building the Shaping community, but equally essential was the online component. While it is impossible to force any group to build a community of practice using an online platform, when an online community component is successfully fostered, it can be extremely effective in its ability "to represent content, scaffold processes, and shift the user's social context" (Hoadley, 2012, p. 299).

The Shaping Ning (see Figure 1) was the area in which participants expressed their widest range of engagement. At one extreme was the participant who logged in once a week, made the required contribution, and then disappeared till the next required visit. At the other end of the spectrum was the participant who logged in daily, commented frequently on other participants' posts, uploaded photos and videos, and shared additional readings and websites relevant to the week's topic. Happily, the latter type of participation frequently occurred, and these highly engaged individuals transformed the "social context" of the class for themselves and for their fellow participants. As one participant wrote, "the main aim of the course is to inspire teachers and it is very important for us not to keep our knowledge to ourselves, but rather to share our ideas with our colleagues" (Chistova, G., personal communication, February 2015).

Results and Discussion

Exploratory Teaching Project

In the second year, a new element was introduced to the course syllabus, the exploratory teaching project (ETP), adapted from the principles of exploratory practice. Like its cousin action research, exploratory practice engages teachers in reflection about classroom practice. Unlike action research, the end goal is not necessarily problem-solving or change, but rather providing teachers with the opportunity to develop

Table 1
Sample course syllabus

Shaping the Way We Teach English in Russia
ИЯ-10 МИОО
Dates
Toni Hull, Senior English Language Fellow
sponsored by the U.S. Embassy, English Language Office
mobile: email:
our Ning site: http://shapingthewayinmoscow.ning.com/

	Date	School xx (16.00–18.00)	American Center (16.00–18.00)
1	date 1	Introduction	
2	date 2	Reflective Teaching	
3	date 3	Pairwork/Groupwork	
4	date 4	Authentic Materials/Tasks	
5	date 5	Contextualizing Language	
6	date 6	Metacognitive Awareness	
P	date	→→→	Presentations – Group 1
7	date 7	Integrated Skills	
P	date	→→→	Presentations – Group 2
8	date 8	Critical and Creative Thinking	

Course description & objectives:
The course uses a constructivist, inquiry-based approach to give participants the opportunity to observe different classroom practices, to reflect on their own practice, and to share their ideas for adapting techniques and materials to their own context.

During class sessions, we will:
- discuss ideas introduced in the weekly reading
- review a variety of techniques, activities, and materials
- experiment with various online sites and tools

Out-of-class work will include:
- reading articles related to the weekly topic
- exchanging views and information on the class Ning
- keeping a weekly blog reporting on progress on individual exploratory teaching projects (ETP)
- giving feedback to other course members on their exploratory teaching projects (ETP)
- experimenting with other Web 2.0 and IT tools
- preparing and then presenting group presentations at the American Center on assigned Wednesdays

Requirements:

Weekly sessions:	regular attendance and active participation (maximum: 3 absences)
Reading:	one article per week, read before the assigned session
Online:	weekly participation in Ning activities + other Web 2.0 activities
Exploratory teaching:	-weekly blog on progress on individual exploratory teaching projects (ETP) -feedback to course members on their exploratory teaching projects (ETP)
Group presentation:	15–30-minute teaching-technique presentation at the American Center

Table 2
Activity to identify “the domain” in the Shaping community of practice

Part I:

- On your own, take a few minutes to think about yourself – your teaching self and your personal self. Do you imagine it is very similar to others’? Very different? Somewhere in between on the continuum?
- Make a mark on the continuum below for each category, and note down a few words about an example.

MY SCHOOL very similar ______________________________very different
EXAMPLE:____

MY CLASSROOM very similar ___________________________very different
EXAMPLE:____

MY TEACHING very similar ______________________________very different
EXAMPLE:____

MY PERSONAL LIFE very similar ________________________very different
EXAMPLE:____

Part II:

- In a group, share your self-assessment and discuss similarities, differences.

Part III:

- In your group, agree on 2–3 of the most interesting (unexpected, important, unusual) similarities and differences.
- One person in the group should be ready to briefly (in 1 minute) share your list.

“their own understandings of language classroom life” (Allwright, 2005, p. 353). Exploratory practice has the virtue of requiring neither academic research nor data collection, a significant advantage in an 8-week course.

While not widely utilized worldwide, exploratory practice has had successful application in professional development projects for teachers in municipal schools in Brazil. Miller and Bannell (1998) write that among the teachers they have worked with,

> some have also changed their professional self-image – from seeing themselves as ‘having a job’ to viewing themselves as professionals. Most importantly, they have gone from seeing teacher-research as something hard to carry out and alien to their pedagogic practice to adopting an investigative stance which they can enjoy and sustain by doing what they normally do, i.e. using their familiar narrative accounts of classroom practice and their familiar pedagogic activities as investigative tools (para. 20).

There was neither time nor expectation that change would be enacted; during the course the goal was observation, reflection, understanding, and perhaps – time permitting – an adjustment in the question to explore the question more deeply and gain deeper understanding (see examples in Table 3).

Though the ETP began as an in-class activity, it continued as a community of practice assignment. Participants began a blog on the Shaping Ning, described the question they had decided to explore, and then shared their observations and – if they achieved it – their understanding. The assignment also required

Figure 1. Screenshot of the Shaping the Way in Moscow Ning.

Table 3
Introducing the Exploratory Teaching Project

Developing your Exploratory Teaching Project
Step 1 – Identify a question about your classroom teaching
Step 2 – Refine your thinking about that question
Step 3 – Finalize your question to focus upon
Step 4 – Find appropriate classroom procedures to explore it
Step 5 – Adapt them to the particular question you want to explore
Step 6 – Use them in class
Step 7 – Interpret the outcomes
Step 8 – Decide on their implications and repeat steps 4–8

Getting started
Frame your ETP idea as a "research question"
e.g. Is our new textbook providing enough xxx practice?
e.g. Why do some students like xxx, and others don't?
e.g. If I were to start xxx-ing, would it improve zzz?
e.g. Why are students having so much difficulty with xxx?
e.g. If I increase xxx, will students do better on their quizzes?

List 3 things that are happening in your teaching/your classroom that you would like to understand better

1. ____________________
2. ____________________
3. ____________________

(adapted from Allwright, 2005)

participants to read and comment on each other's ETP blogs. When participants were engaged with each other's ETP, they contributed to the overall objectives of the community of practice as well as those of the ETP. Dar and Gieve (2013) found in their work with exploratory practice that "it is a common experience of EP practitioners that the act of mutual, collaborative engagement in seeking shared understanding also has the effect of generating a more productive, less antagonistic, communal working environment as well as a better understood one" (p. 20). About working with other participants, one teacher wrote that the course succeeded by "bringing out the best teaching skills in everyone who longed for the opportunity." This participant felt she "could learn to be self-sufficient, more interactive, and more effective in team work" (Soloveva, O., personal communication, February 2015). The ETP project was successful in direct proportion to the time given to it by the participants, but at its best, it supported the Shaping participants in their growing sense of community, and ultimately in the group work required for the final project.

The Group Presentation and Motivation

At the beginning of every course, a good deal of time was spent trying to convince the participants that the group presentation was feasible. Their concerns were understandable. Most had never done a peer-to-peer presentation outside of their schools, and, admittedly, the assignment (see Table 4) was just barely realizable in the short period of time given.

In spite of the inevitable resistance this project met every semester, it proved, for many, to be the most gratifying part of the course, perhaps because it was so challenging. Success with this project rested on the course's ability to tap into the participants' source of motivation.

Much is written about student motivation in language learning. Less discussed, but equally essential, is teacher motivation, an elusive quality that is challenged daily by obtuse administrators, argumentative parents, mountains of paperwork (both of the physical and online variety), and unmotivated students (Erkaya, 2013; Hastings, 2012; Kassabgy, Boraie, & Schmidt, 2010). In his extensive work on motivation and language learning, Dörnyei has remarked on the crucial role that the teacher's own motivation plays in learning achievement (Dörnyei, 2003; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010). How teacher motivation worked in this project is explained below.

One objective of the Shaping course – more implicit than explicit – was to generate enthusiasm for continuing professional development among the participants, with the expectation that a more positive attitude to professional development increases one's motivation, with the desired effect on student learning (Kubanyiova, 2006). The ultimate test of this intention was the final project, the group presentation.

Extrinsic motivation was initially the primary driving force. This was a non-negotiable assignment, upon which successful completion of the course rested. Participants were given time to warm to the assignment during the first weeks of the course, as groups were formed and members began to discuss ideas. Not incidentally, earlier in the course the participants had read an article about the differencess between cooperation and collaboration. According to Kozar (2010) "cooperation can be achieved if all participants do their assigned parts separately and bring their results to the table; collaboration, in contrast, implies direct interaction among individuals to produce a product and involves negotiations, discussions, and accommodating others' perspectives" (p. 17). In class, discussion about this article focused on classroom application with group work. Several weeks later, Shaping participants had the opportunity to experience the essence of collaboration as they worked together on their own group presentations.

A shift to intrinsic motivation was observed when group members realized the task was feasible, their ideas were valid, and that success was attainable. The desire for a certificate did not diminish, but the desire for personal and professional actualization was equally potent, and this carried through to the presentation itself. As one Shaping teacher wrote, "Maybe not everything was good in our group or in my particular part, but it is a real challenge to perform in front of our teacher and our colleagues. When in our classrooms something goes wrong, it is only we who know it. But there in front of this experienced audience it was both difficult and really useful. This real-life experience helped us get over ourselves" (Ilyina, T., personal communication, March 2013). For many the collaborative element of the project was critical to the sense of achievement. "Group presentations were a great help at creating a foundation of successful teamwork," wrote one participant. "This is a skill we all need in our professional lives" (Denisov, I., personal communication, February 2015).

Table 4
Presentation assignment

Objective: Participants, working in groups of 2, 3, or 4, demonstrate a classroom activity while practicing making presentations to colleagues in a professional development context

- WHAT: a 15–30-minute presentation of a classroom activity that focuses on using
  - o Authentic Materials & Tasks (not taken from a coursebook)

  and
  - o Pairwork/Groupwork
- WHO:
  - o presentations should be made in groups of 2, 3, or 4 (you create your own group)
  - o depending on how many there are in your group, divide the tasks so everyone has an active role during the presentation (e.g. 1 person explains context, 1 person "teaches", 1 person monitors group work); all should be involved in the planning
- HOW:
  - o briefly explain the context in which you would use the activity (student level, stage in a lesson/unit; overall class objectives, etc.)
  - o then "teach" the activity to the audience/participants; that is, you take the role of teacher(s); audience members take the role of students
- audience will consist of fellow members of this course, your invited guests (colleagues, family, etc.) plus regular attendees of the T2T Workshop series

Conclusion

As all teachers know, what works perfectly with one group of learners may be only modestly successful with another group. This certainly was true with the Shaping course. In the spirit of exploratory practice, the author aimed to understand why certain features were successful in engaging participants during one course cycle, and another time they were not.

The most fully engaged group, in class and in the online community of practice, was the one that had been invited to join the Shaping Ning two weeks before the start of the class. During those two weeks they shared introductions, family photos, personal anecdotes, and professional concerns, the number one being their anxiety about fulfilling the objectives of the course with this new tool, the Ning. By the time classes actually began, this group was truly a community of practice, their primary shared interests the course itself and the success of the participants, individually as well as collectively.

In-service professional development benefits when participants are invested in a shared outcome, not just individual certificates. At its best, the Shaping course succeeded by providing a variety of ways that participants could reflect on their own teaching, share their experience with colleagues, and challenge their professional identity. The Ning provided the convenience of an online outlet, where participants could choose how involved they wanted to be, from wherever they had internet access, at whatever hour of the day or night. The final presentation was, to some degree, the opposite of the Ning. Full participation, in a very public and interactive way, was required and non-negotiable. These two components complemented each other, and made it possible to achieve a great deal in a very short period of time.

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Teachers' Written Feedback: Does the Delivery Method Matter?

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Responding to student writing, which is a widely researched area, is still one of the most challenging parts of the EAP (English for Academic Purposes) teacher's job. Little attention has been given to analyzing the role of *systematic feedback* on students' improvement of writing at the university. The paper reports on the results of a small-scale action research conducted among first-year undergraduate students, which explored the effect of record sheets, used as a tool to track student progress in writing argumentative essays. Apart from student portfolios and record sheets, the 8-week study used other methods of data collection that included recorded semi-structured interviews and a survey. Findings show that providing consistently structured (praise and criticism) selective (global and local) feedback to students has a positive effect both on the teacher and on student perception of feedback and, generally, their achievements in developing writing skills. The study may motivate EAP practitioners to change their current classroom practices and seek more effective ways of responding to student writing.

Keywords: feedback to student writing, record sheets, consistent feedback, tracking student progress at university, EAP

Feedback on students' academic development plays an important role in helping them adjust to university life. For instance, feedback on students' writing allows them to see how others perceive their work and to learn about the nature of the university education, about the "role of writing in learning, about their identity as students, [and] about their competence as writers" (Hyland, 2006, p. 102).

While responding to student writing is a widely researched area, and both teachers and students feel that teacher written feedback should be an integral part of the writing process (Ferris, 2001; Hyland, & Hyland, 2001; Montgomery, 2007), it is still one of the most time-consuming and challenging parts of the English for Academic Purposes (EAP) teacher's job.

Previous research suggests that there are "different and legitimate ways to respond to student writing that may vary across students, teachers and specific contexts" (Ferris, 2007, p. 175); however, little attention has been given to analyzing the role of *systematic feedback* on students' improvement of writing. In this article, *systematic feedback*, is defined as a regular commentary on students' written assignments, provided in a consistent way, to "express a teacher's stance and beliefs about writing and negotiating a relationship with learners" (Hyland, 2001, p. 186).

From both theoretical and practical points of view, it is important to understand whether tracking students' progress in writing helps to "create a supportive teaching environment" (Hyland, p. 186) and serves the purposes of motivating and helping students to develop their writing skills. This study was based on several assumptions: feedback should follow relevant assessment criteria (Ferris, 2007); comments should highlight students' strengths and items/areas that need improvement (e.g. Hyland, 2001; Treglia, 2008); feedback should be both content-focused and form-focused (Bitchener, 2008; Ferris, 2001, 2007; Hyland, 2001) and be tailored to the needs and progress of individual students; it should address the students' reactions to these comments (Treglia, 2008) and "find the correct balance between *intervention* (helpful) and *appropriation* (harmful)" (Ferris, p. 167). With this in mind, the primary aim of this research was to explore whether record sheets, context-specific forms used to provide regular systematic feedback, help develop students' essay writing skills.

Materials and Methods

Many studies on feedback in second language writing suggest that it is a "crucial means of encouraging students' learning and writing" (Leki, 2006, as cited in Poverchjuc 2011, p. 144; see also Black & William, 1998; Hyland & Hyland, 2006), while at the same time, responding to student writing is one of the most challenging tasks that writing instructors have to face.

The extent to which students benefit from feedback has been debated since Truscott (1996) questioned the effectiveness of grammar correction, by which he meant "correction of grammatical errors for the purpose of improving a student's ability to write accurately" (p. 329) and suggested that the practice should be abandoned in favour of other aspects of writing, such as "organization and logical development of arguments" (p. 356). While that study was limited to discussing corrective feedback on grammar, a more balanced approach that incorporates content-focused and form-focused or global and local feedback (Bitchener, 2007; Connors & Lunsford, 1993; Ferris, 2006, 2007; Montgomery, 2007), has been widely adopted since then. However, empirical studies have shown that teachers primarily "address local issues of grammar and mechanics, which might suggest to students that they should prioritize local errors" (e.g. Montgomery, 2007). In her seminal paper, "Preparing teachers to respond to student writing", Ferris (2007) argues that the balance between content-focused and language-focused feedback should be found and that it should be selective, in other words, it should focus on a limited number of items, as the goal of motivating students to improve their writing and become autonomous learners is more important than fixing particular problems.

Students' reaction to teacher comments is another controversial issue. The students may not understand and, hence, fail to make good use of feedback provided to them (Hyland & Hyland, 2006 , as reviewed in Poverjuc, 2011, p. 144; see also Price, O'Donnovan & Rust, 2007). Research also shows that their understanding of the teacher comment might be affected by different factors, such as the wording (directive vs. mitigated), functions (praise, criticism, and suggestion) and delivery method (cyber-tutoring, face-to-face conferencing, written commentary: marginal or end/cover memo) of the feedback (Ferris, 2007; Hyland & Hyland, 2001; Treglia, 2008). For example, too much criticism may affect students' self-confidence and motivation (e.g. Connors & Lunsford, 1993). At the same time, students find commentary providing "some acknowledgment of their writing, [offering] specific suggestions, and [giving] them choices" being most helpful (see, e.g., Treglia, p. 105). Moreover, teachers do not have to mitigate their critical remarks, but should be aware that "comments that combine praise with constructive criticism are an effective tool to provide students with the confidence and motivation they need to actively engage in the [learning] process" (Treglia, p. 130). Hyland and Hyland (2001) argue that teachers make decisions when responding to student writing, which are based on a "desire to negotiate interactions that recognize both the learner's struggle to make meaning ..... and the fragile intimacy of teacher-student relationship" (p. 192).

While this literature review provides theoretical support for teachers providing feedback on student writing, it also points to the possible reasons why feedback may fail to be a successful tool in improving student writing. However, apart from several studies that mention interactive cover sheets/cover memos or end notes as a method of feedback delivery, little research has been done on providing consistently structured feedback to students and its effect on student perception of their achievements in developing their writing skills.

Research Context

The International College of Economics and Finance (ICEF) is a double degree BSc programme, where English is used as a medium of instruction. EAP classes are aimed at supporting the ICEF students as they adjust to their studies, so they can make considerable progress in their academic development as future economists. The EAP writing course is taught to first year students, aged 16–17, whose level is B2 or higher on the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) scale. Student performance is assessed formatively through weekly home assignments (essays and other writing tasks) and summatively through a midterm and a final exam, International English Language Testing System (IELTS).

Although there is no official policy, the EAP teachers are expected to provide feedback on both local (grammar, vocabulary and mechanics) and global issues (content and organisation). Students usually complete only one draft, on which they are given feedback; essay revisions are rare, so the feedback they get is more like feedforward to their future essays.

The study was designed to answer the following research questions: Will the use of record sheets as a tool of tracking feedback help develop students' writing skills. If so, how?

Participants

Although most students submitted their essays during the first semester, only a few students did that regularly and observed the deadlines; so, for the purposes of the project, it was decided to keep it small and, out of thirty students, a group of 10 students was chosen, those who were willing to participate. The study's intervention took place over one semester. The students wrote an in-class 40-minute diagnostic IELTS-type essay at the end of the first semester. The essays were assessed by independent English teachers, i.e. not the students' teachers; the students were informed of the final results.

Data Collection Tools

The data for the study comprised ten student portfolios of at least six essays, with feedback, that the students submitted during 8 weeks in the second semester and the essay they wrote at the end of the first semester. All the essays that students wrote during the second semester were formatively assessed. The deadlines for essay submission (one essay per week) were set, which the students were expected to meet. The students had four hours of EAP classes per week, which included a two-hour writing component.

Besides the teacher feedback samples taken from the essays in student portfolios, data were collected from the feedback record sheets (Appendix 1), which were completed for each student on a weekly basis. The record sheets were adapted from a tool developed at the University of East Anglia, and their design incorporated best practices for responding to student feedback. The record sheets stated features of academic writing as well as summary of level of student writing skills development as praise or criticism e.g. Done well, Needing work (week 1), Continuing to do well from week 1, Now doing well, Now needing work (week 2). Unlike cover sheets, which are in use at some universities, record sheets helped to track the students' progress over two months and were supposed to give the teacher a balanced view of the progress the students made, and at the same time reinforced the classes as made it possible for the teacher to refer to the students' essays and provide generic feedback. The record sheet information replicated the one students received as an endnote, a short comment written at the end of the essay, which summarized in the form of praise and criticism (Done well, Improvement needed) and were based on the marginal and in-text comments made in the essay . The initial plan was to use record sheets in oral feedback sessions with the students, but the interviews showed that some students preferred written feedback to oral feedback, so the endnote was chosen for the students to see the summary of the main things they did well and things they needed to improve, and left the record sheets to the teacher, making quick references to them while talking to the students during office hours.

By the beginning of the second semester, the students had been introduced to the basic concepts and features of writing, such as academic style, coherence and cohesion, paragraphing, references, hedging, as well as the criteria on which their essays had been assessed, namely, Task response, Coherence and cohesion, Lexical resource, Grammatical range and accuracy, which sometimes included referencing to sources. Making students aware of these criteria was important in order to provide feedback that would " help them progress toward meeting the standards" (Ferris, p. 170). In the second semester, several features of writing were reviewed, the choice of which was based on the formative essay assessment. Student essays informed the teacher about the specific things that needed to be reviewed in the areas of content (addressing the topic, relevance of information), organization (thesis statements, cohesive device), accuracy (passive forms, conditionals, relative clauses, subject-verb agreement) and mechanics (punctuation in relative clauses, referencing). In the feedback, a selective, rather than comprehensive approach was taken by focusing on two to four most significant feedback points in the essay, such as the quality of thesis statement and how it was developed in the main body, or, the use of topical vocabulary, rather than addressing every single problem.

Data Analysis Tools

In the study's second week, a semi-structured interview was conducted with each participant receiving feedback from the students on their attitude towards classroom practices. The students were asked to evaluate their progress in writing in the last two months, answer six questions and explain their choices. These questions (Appendix 2) asked students which of the listed activities (self-evaluation; peer evaluation; analysis of model texts; written feedback from peers; oral feedback from peers; written feedback from the teacher; oral feedback from the teacher) they found most and least useful. They were also asked whether they understood the assessment criteria and could identify the areas they needed to improve most in their writing.

In week four, the students were invited to participate in a survey (Appendix 3), which was aimed at collecting data on their perceptions of teacher feedback, which had been provided in written (marginal or in text) and oral formats. The survey included closed items; the students could add comments on the questions and their answers. The survey questions addressed topics such as: how they felt when they finished writing an essay; whether they read all of the written comments or just some of them; how they felt after reading the teacher's after reading the teacher's comments; which feedback method they preferred and why. The answers and comments were categorized according to recurring themes and then analysed.

Results

Submission Rate

On a general note, essay submission increased – 8 students out of 10 met the deadlines and completed at least one essay per week, which could be the result of setting the deadlines for essay submission. If the students failed to submit their essay on time, they could not get feedback from the teacher the following week or participate in class discussions and other activities, e.g. self-evaluation and peer evaluation. Having a system in place and doing things consistently seemed to motivate both the students and the teacher.

Student Perception of own Progress and Needs: Interview

The results of the interview showed that the students were enthusiastic about receiving timely feedback and asked many questions not so much about the grades, but about particular items in the feedback.

Table 1 shows that eight students out of ten evaluated their progress in writing (Q1) as Good or Very Good; only two of them thought that they made Fair progress – those students had actually submitted the smallest number of essays during the period under consideration. All the students found written feedback from the teacher (WF(T)) to be most useful; Five chose self-evaluation (SE), analysis of model texts (AMT) and oral feedback from the teacher (OF(T)) to be equally important (Q2). Among the four criteria areas they needed to improve Lexical resource (LR) and Grammatical range (GR) accounted for eight and five respectively. Four students mentioned Coherence and Cohesion (CC) as their improvement area; only two mentioned Task response (TR) as an area they thought they needed to improve, which did not always correspond to what the results of the diagnostic test showed (Q3, Q4).

Surprisingly, some students preferred written feedback to oral feedback. Below is an example of part of the interview, in which the student explains his preference :

T: Which of the listed activities do you find most useful?

S: The most useful for me is self-evaluation and, of course, written feedback from the teacher...

T: Why?

S: Mmm.... because you can understand what you did wrong and then deal with it.

T: Can you explain why you find self-evaluation useful?

S: Well, I think it's the most important because if you can't understand it, you can't attain your goal.

T: And oral feedback?

S: I have a good short-term memory. I need to see it (feedback) written to remember it later.....

It is not clear whether the student would choose written feedback only because he thinks he has a bad long-term memory. According to some studies, learners may have "cultural or social inhibition about engaging informally with authority figures, such as teachers, let alone questioning them" (Hyland & Hyland, 2006, p. 83), which might be the case with Russian students.

Student Perception of Feedback: Survey

The results of the Survey showed that the majority of students (78%) felt optimistic after they finished writing an essay; 22% felt they could do better. All students reported that they read all the comments

Table 1
Results of interviews on student perceptions and preferences

	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10
Q1	Fair	Good	Very good	Good	Very good	Good	Good	Fair	Very good	Very good
Q2	WF(T) SE	WF (T) OF(T) MT	WF(T) SE PE	WF(T) PE OF(P)	WF(T) AMT	WF(T) SE	WF(T) AMT OF(T)	WF(T) OFS OF (T)	WF(T) SE OFT	WF(T) MT
Q3	Y N	Y Y	Y Y	Y N	Y Y	Y Y	Y Y	Y Y	Y Y	N Y
Q4	LR	GR	GR	LR	LR	TA GR	LR CC	CC	TA	TA CC

in the feedback. 75% students felt that they were encouraged after reading the comments.

When asked about the methods of feedback they prefer (see Figure 3), the majority of the students mentioned feedback on grammar (89%) and a short commentary (90%) at the end of the essay, endnote. 67 per cent of the students expected the teacher to give feedback on content / ideas, which is nearly twice as many as those who chose feedback on organization and mechanics. Surprisingly, vocabulary was chosen by only 44 per cent of the students. Contrary to popular belief, students preferred that the teacher wrote a moderate number of comments to writing a lot of or very few comments.

The study also provided evidence that feedback to student writing should not be limited to justifying the grade only and that the teacher's comments evolved from standard phrases taken from the essay marking criteria and descriptors to more personalised comments that would be 'a response to a person rather than to a script' in other words, 'construct a context that relates feedback to specific learners' (Hyland & Hyland, 2006, p. 206, 213). This became clear from the survey, the interview and the conversations during office hours. Below are some examples from the survey open comments:

> "I do not think that the number of comments is important. I would prefer every helpful piece of information that you give to me in comments. If there is less information, I can ask you about it."

> "I think you should emphasise our weaknesses, but also tell us about our strengths in order to show some good tendencies".

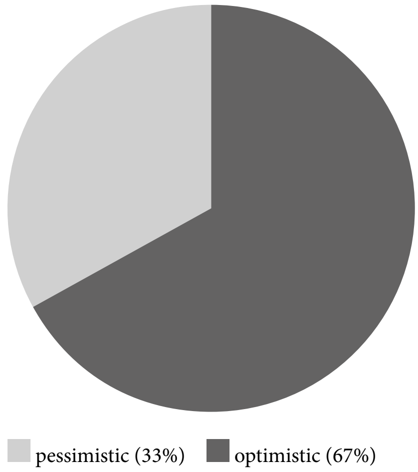

Figure 2. Student perception of teacher feedback.

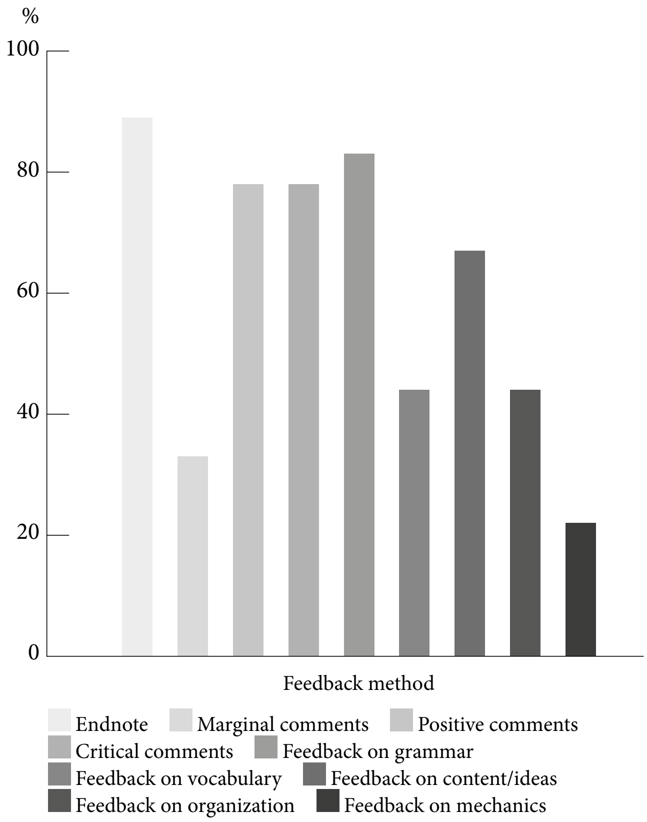

Figure 3. Student preferences of feedback methods.

Discussion

The results of this study may suggest that responding to student writing in a systematic way may have a positive influence on the students. Firstly, if properly organised, it helps to shape students' expectations and track their achievements. Many students seem to think that addressing local errors (grammar and mechanics) is the most important part of writing classes. Nevertheless, it does not follow that teachers should not change their own and their students' practices and expectations, as, for example, the emphasis on local issues may suggest to students that they should prioritize local errors. Secondly, keeping a record of student progress, in the long run, is likely to result in limiting the feedback to the most important issues, which could benefit the students, because they are more likely to have a positive perception of the teacher feedback and to respond to the feedback they get, which facilitates the process of their writing skills development. Thirdly, there is widespread opinion among EFL educators in Russia that students can benefit from extensive feedback. The study showed that the students seem to prefer moderate number of comments, which would combine praise and criticism. More research is needed in order to understand how both types of comments affect individual students as they have the "potential to construct the kinds of relationships which could either facilitate or undermine a student's writing development" (Hyland & Hyland, 2001, p. 207).

Finally, while it is useful to have a bank of phrases and use them appropriately in teacher feedback comments, teacher comments should go beyond simple decisions to address form or content or to praise mechanics or criticize organization. EAP instructors need to provide helpful advice and, at the same time, negotiate interpersonal relationship that will facilitate its development (p. 208) as "thoughtful feedback tailored to the needs of an individual student and his/her evolving text and writing is a gift, and perhaps the most important thing a writing instructor can do for his/her students" (Ferris, p. 169).

Conclusion

"Response to student writing is extremely challenging to do well, and it takes considerable reflection and experience" (Ferris, p. 179). Further research is necessary into the role of feedback on teaching and learning and methods of its delivery to students. It is important to encourage students to be responsible and to develop a sense of ownership over their writing. Even though they may not be highly proficient in English, they are mature enough to engage in a dialogue about their writing with their instructors. The teacher should be aware that combining criticism with praise can be an effective tool to provide students with the confidence and motivation they need to actively engage in the writing process (Treglia, 2008). One of the ways to achieve this is through a systematic and constructive dialogue with their students and using different tools to monitor students' progress, which has a role to play in the process.

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Appendix 1

Record sheet (example)*
Student (name)______________________

	Features of Academic Writing	Notes	Action Plan
WEEK 1			
Done well			
Needing work			
Needing work			
WEEK 2			
Continuing to do well from week 1			
Needing work from week 1			
Now doing well			
Now needing work			
WEEK 3			
Now doing well			
Now needing work			
Needing work from week 2			

Appendix 2

Questionnaire April 9, 2014

1. How would you evaluate your progress in writing during the past months?
Excellent Very good Good Fair Poor

2. Which of these activities do you find most useful? Explain.
o Self-evaluation
o Peer evaluation
o Analysis of model texts
o Written feedback from your peers
o Oral feedback from your peers
o Written feedback from your teacher
o Oral feedback from the teacher

3. Do you understand writing assessment criteria/ rubrics/descriptors?

4. Which of the four criteria areas for your essays do you think you need to improve most?

5. What goals do you currently have to improve your essays? Explain.

6. How are you going to achieve these goals?

7. Comments

Appendix 3

Quick survey (May)

1. How do you feel when you finish writing an essay?
- ☐ I am optimistic about having done a good job.
- ☐ I usually feel I could have done better.

2. When I return your essay, do you read all of the written comments or just some of them?
- ☐ All of them
- ☐ Most of them
- ☐ Some of them
- ☐ None of them

3. How do you usually feel after reading my comments?
- ☐ Encouraged
- ☐ Same as before
- ☐ Discouraged

4. Which feedback method do you prefer?

Please choose ALL the options that reflect your answer.
- ☐ Endnote (my short commentary at the end of your essay)
- ☐ Marginal comments (e.g. sp – spelling, s-v – s-v agreement., ss – sent structure, ww – wrong word)
- ☐ Positive comments
- ☐ Critical comments
- ☐ Feedback on grammar
- ☐ Feedback on vocabulary
- ☐ Feedback on content/ideas
- ☐ Feedback on organisation
- ☐ Feedback on mechanics (e.g. punctuation)

5. Do you prefer that I write.....

Please explain the reason for your preference.
- ☐ a lot of comments?
- ☐ a moderate number of comments?
- ☐ very few comments?

6. Thank you!

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Reading Accuracy in EFL Students with a Transparent L1 Background – a Case Study from Poland

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Research indicates that L2 reading competence is influenced by L1 reading ability, L2 proficiency, and L2 decoding competence. The present study investigates the significance of two variables, regularity and frequency, in relation to English as a Foreign Language (EFL) reading accuracy in students with a transparent L1. Fifteen 6th grade students in their sixth year of regular instruction in English took part in this study. Their mother tongue is Polish whereas English is their foreign language; thus, their language competence in L1 and L2 differs substantially. The research design followed Glusko (1979), Plaut (1996), and Wang and Koda (2007). There are four sets of real words. Two features of real words are manipulated for regularity and frequency. The study reveals that both conditions of script, regularity and transparency, affect reading accuracy in EFL students. However, the dimension of regularity is a stronger predicator of accuracy than the frequency with which the students encounter a word. From the pedagogical perspective, the collected data supports the use of structured reading instructions in the EFL classroom in order to restrain negative transfer of L1 to L2 reading strategies.

Keywords: EFL, reading, accuracy, regularity, transparency

The EU strategic plan for education (2010) recognizes the need for EU citizens to speak a foreign language. This document does not only aim to protect the Member States' local languages, but also points to the thriving role of English as a lingua franca. The European Unions' statistical unit, EUROSTAT, reported in 2013 that eighty-three percent of primary or lower secondary students and ninety-four percent of upper secondary students learn English as a foreign language. Seidlhofer et al. (2006) observe that "at the beginning of the 21st century, the significance of a certain command of English is closely comparable to that of reading and writing at the time of industrialization in Europe"(p. 3).

In the light of the above figures and trends, different modes and models in language teaching and learning are tested. In the field of education, a growing popularity of Early Language Learning (ELL) and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) can be observed in almost all member states. ELL has been defined as "systematic awareness-raising or exposure to more than one language taking place in an early childhood education and care setting in a pre-primary school context" (European Commission, 2011, p. 6). This translates into instructional exposure in a foreign language at the pre-primary level of education. The benefits of ELL are seen in the development of early awareness of multilingualism and cultural identity. Following the implementation of ELL, CLIL (European Commission, 2012) becomes the model for further language education. CLIL aims to develop the language of instruction (L2) and subject knowledge simultaneously. This in turn, complements the EU policy to build on intercultural knowledge and communication, while at the same time developing multilingual attitudes and interests. To sum up, English as a foreign or second language has developed to set educational goals within the EU language policy.

Learning to Read

From the standpoint of language education, reading is the core of all learning. Olson et al. (2009) note that "reading is a unique human activity that is strongly dependent on the environment, typically through universal and formal reading instructions in modern societies" (p. 215). Environmental factors are liable to changes resulting from educational policy, favoured teaching methods, and current approaches to reading, both in the learner's first and foreign language. However, the biological factors involved in reading (e.g. universal and language specific) stem from the brain anatomy and are not influenced by societal changes. This "biological machinery of reading" (Grigorenko & Naples, 2009, p. 135) is robust and rarely dysfunctional. There can be individual differences observed in speed, accuracy and comprehension, but the ultimate goal of being literate is eventually achieved. Delayed development of reading skills might result from individual cognitive restraints, for example: dyslexia, dyspraxia or Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD). However, when these are diagnosed early and accommodated for, it is possible for the individual to be fully included in a literate society.

The architecture of reading increases in density when one reads in a foreign script. Alderson (1986) pointed that "a reading ability is often all that is *needed* by learners of English as a Foreign Language"(p. 1). EFL learners when instructed in a formal setting make use of word based books, are evaluated and tested in writing/print, and are enrolled into CLIL classes where skilled reading makes the curriculum fully accessible. Reading is thus a springboard to school education, community relations, and the job market, as well as one's cultural heritage.

L1 Reading

Reading competence is a unitary skill. Definitions of the core construct of reading competence emphasize the importance of decoding, text-meaning constriction (comprehension), assimilation of what is read with prior knowledge, and having a purpose for reading. The ability of decoding, that is quick symbol-sound mapping, lies at the bottom of the construct. The relative ease of reading acquisition in one's first language over a second language is due to the fact that L1 reading can be built on the well-established language system the reader has acquired prior to literacy instruction (Perfetti & Dunlap, 2008). Forming symbol-sound correspondences in L1 reading is based solely on prior practice with the sounds of the language. By the time the child is confronted with print, they already have a well-developed phonological awareness of sound-meaning relations. Sound-meaning paring of words plays a critical role in reading development, despite the fact that these relations appear to be arbitrary (Fromkin at al., 2014, p. 34): the same sounds can stand for different meanings, as in the case of homonyms (e.g. *bear* and *bare*). Therefore, with development of reading ability, the sound-meaning unit is supplemented by orthography and stored in the mental lexicon for further retrieval.

Reading Phases

Research suggests that children progress through several developmental stages in acquiring word recognition ability (Ehri, 1995; Frith, 1985; Frith el al., 2000). Frith's (1985) three-phase theory of reading acquisition assumes that the development of reading is characterized by three consecutive stages: logographic, alphabetic, and orthographic. In the logographic stage a reader recognizes familiar words by analysing salient graphic features of the words that serve as clues (e.g. while reading the STOP road sign). On the other hand, in the alphabetic phase the reader adapts the knowledge of sound-symbol mappings to read words. Here, readers employ an acquired analytic skill to decode a given word grapheme by grapheme. At this level of word recognition, both letter order and phonological factors play an important role. This differs from the orthographic stage, in which the reader operates on words, analysing them without employing phonological conversion. The operations are based on the reader's awareness of a word's division into syllables and larger meaningful chunks. Spencer (2010) points to the second phase as "the only one that requires a connection to phonological processes, and [where] deficits at this point are seen as being very detrimental to the successful acquisition of decoding strategies"(p. 520).

Ehri (1995) extended Frith's taxonomy to a four – phase model: pre-alphabetic, partial alphabetic, full alphabetic and consolidated alphabetic. In the pre-alphabetic phase a student reads out words, retrieving their sound from auditory-visual memory or guessing words from context. The partial-alphabetic phrase (called sight word reading) is built on a student's ability to recognize boundary letters together with context to access a word's phonology. The full-alphabetic phase is characterized by forming skilled sound-symbol connections to decode both known and unknown words. In the consolidated-alphabetic phase a reader consolidates his/her knowledge of bigger phoneme-grapheme blends (word chunks) that reoccur in different words to speed up the process of reading. Ehri (1995) suggests that words may be read in several different ways depending on the reader's knowledge of the writing system. Proficient word recognition involves using the letter sequence and spelling patterns to recognize words visually without applying phonological codes (consolidated-alphabetic phase). Fluent and accurate word recognition is achieved by utilizing reading strategies that belong to different phases depending on the purpose and context of reading.

Although the interpretations of the phases vary, the models are developmentally congruent (see

Table 1). It is to be noted that Ehri's model recognizes the role of sight word reading which emerges in the partial-alphabetic phase. Readers learn how to form partial connections between selected letters in a written word and the sounds they represent.

L2 Reading

Reading competence is referred to as a general power (West, 1926) which is not confined to one language and therefore transferable. However, studies on L2 (Koda, 2004) reveal that "when reading in an unfamiliar language, even accomplished readers commonly function like novices, exhibiting many of the same problems as unskilled readers" (p. 20). From the developmental perspective, there are three main variables in L2 language competence: L1 reading ability, L2 proficiency (Alderson, 1984), and L2 decoding competence (Gough & Tunmer, 1986).

Decoding competence is measured by the ability to obtain words' sounds and meanings and to extract phonological information. Research (Wade-Woolley & Siegel, 1997) revealed that L2 readers decode phonological information in a second language by applying the rules and structures of their first language. The reading strategy they select therefore plays a vital role in L2 reading. This transfer of reading strategy is found to be successful when L1 and L2 share the same orthographic properties (e.g. both are transparent and fine-grain sized). When the languages differ significantly with respect to their transparency and granularity, the transfer of reading skills is no longer positive. Applying grapheme-to-phoneme strategy used in a transparent L1 (Italian, Spanish, Polish) to reading in an opaque L2 (English) results in phonetic reading and is an example of a negative transfer of language skills.

From the perspective of EFL/ESL instruction, reading is as a 'psycholinguistic-guessing-game' (Goodman, 1973), and this is currently the most widely applied reading technique in the classroom. Birch (2007, p. 8) points out that

> many learners learn to read English without much direct instructions in decoding or rerecording letters. They learn unconsciously by themselves the relationship between letters and sounds and can successfully generalize this information to apply it to new words they are confronted with.

It can be inferred that since EFL reading draws from a student's L1 linguistic intuition and does not follow developmental reading trajectories, reading phases (Ehri's model) are not consecutively followed. Readers apply the strategy which they identify as either accessible or/and functional. Thus, EFL readers possess different levels of reading comprehension, accuracy and speed.

Table 1
Two models of reading development (after Bielby, 1999, p. 14)

Age	Frith (1985)	Ehri (1995)
3–5 (?) years	logographic phase	pre-alphabetic phase
partial-alphabetic phase		
5–7 (?) years	alphabetic phase	full alphabetic phase
7–9 (?) years	orthographic phase	consolidated alphabetic phase

The basic prerequisite for accurate and fluent reading is the development of firm sound-meaning associations. These relations are formed during the pre-reading phase and build on the mental lexicon. The mental lexicon, which stores words' representations at their auditory, semantic and orthographic level, mediates in reading. In L1 language acquisition, it takes four to five years of forming connections between words and their meanings to build the lexicon. In contrast, in L2 language learning, this phase is either omitted or develops alongside sound-symbol recognition. It should be noted that word-based books are used with students at the early level of schooling. EFL teachers, if not native speakers, instruct students in both L1 and L2 which also limits access to the L2 as a spoken language. Furthermore, students are tested in a pen and paper format, as it allows for easy and reliable scoring of the test results.

Research on L2 learning provides evidence for the significant role of word frequency, regularity and length in reading in non-transparent scripts (Glusko, 1979; Plaut et al., 1996; Wang & Koda, 2007; Spencer, 2010). The studies show that students read high-frequency words faster and more accurately than low-frequency words and regular words more accurately than exception words. In addition, the difference in accuracy of regular and exception words is more evident in low-frequency words than in high-frequency words. Spencer (2010) posits that "as transparency increases across languages, so the influence of word frequency may be expected to decline" (p. 538).

Materials and Methods

The intent of this study is to identify reading accuracy in a selected group of Polish EFL learners. The proposed research hypotheses address the relations between reading accuracy in English and a word's frequencies and regularities. Three research hypotheses were proposed to investigate the significance of the influence of a word's regularity and frequency on reading accuracy in EFL among students with a transparent L1. **Hypothesis one:** EFL students with a transparent L1 will read regular (R) words more accurately than exception (E) words. **Hypothesis two:** EFL students with a transparent L1 will read high-frequency (HF) words more accurately than low-frequency (LF) words. **Hypothesis three:** The difference in performance between regular and exception words will be greater than the difference in performance between high frequency and low frequency words.

Participants

There were 15 subjects in the study. They were 6th grade primary school students, in their sixth year of regular instruction in English. Their mother tongue was Polish, whereas English was their foreign language; thus, their language competence in L1 and L2 differed substantially. The participants were 13 years old when the data was collected. Their estimated level of English was between A1 and A2 according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2001). The informants were chosen randomly from the 6th graders recruited from three different primary schools. Oral consent was obtained from the students and an explanation of the aim of study was provided.

Materials and Procedure

The design follows Glusko (1979), Plaut (1996), and Wang and Koda (2007). There are four sets of real words. Two features of the real words are manipulated for regularity and frequency. As a result, there are four experimental conditions: high-frequency regular words HFR (e.g. *get*, *dark*,), high-frequency exception words HFE (e.g. *are*, *break*), low-frequency regular LFR (e.g. choose, soon), and low-frequency exception words LFE (e.g. *said*, *broad*). There are 20 items in each of the four sets. The words selected for each category were adapted from the list used in the research by Glusko (1979), Plaut (1996), and Wang and Koda (2007). The phonetic pronunciation of words suggested by Wells (2008) served as a model for classification of the words as correct or incorrect. Familiarity ratings of the words from frequency category were obtained from three experienced EFL teachers who taught the classes from which the participants in this study were recruited. The teachers were asked to mark each word with a value from 1 to 5. A 5-point scale was employed by the researcher to rate the familiarity of the words. Words in the frequency range between 4.0-5.0 formed the high frequency group, while words between 1.9-3.9 constituted the low frequency group. Students were tested during individual sessions. The list of words for the accuracy measure was presented to the participants on printed test sheets. They were asked to read the words out clearly and distinctly. Their responses were voice recorded for further analysis.

Results

The total population (N=15) was analysed with the use of descriptive statistics, where mean, standard deviation and range of scores on each measure were given. This gave a general profile of the group. In addition, the t-test was used to determine whether the difference between two independent means was statistically significant. Table 2 provides descriptive statistics for the group of EFL learners with means, standard deviations and range of scores.

Hypothesis one. The distribution of mean and standard deviation, in reference to the dimension of regularity shows that the researched group reads (R) regular words (MA=23.27, SD=5.36) more accurately than (E) exception words (MA=10.93, SD=4.35). The data also reveals that reading accuracy for high frequency regular words (MA=12.73, SD=2.84) is greater than for high frequency exception words (MA=8.00, SD=2.67). Consequently, reading accuracy for low frequency regular words (MA=10.53, SD=3.25) is greater than for low frequency exception words (MA=2.93, SD=2.13). The difference between the accuracy of reading regular words (MA=23.27, SD=5.36) and exception words (MA=10.93, SD=4.35) was statistically significant (dif=12.34, t=6.453, df=13, p=0.000). Therefore, there is insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis which states that EFL students with a transparent L1 will read regular (R) words more accurately than exception (E) words.

Hypothesis two. When the dimension of frequency is analysed, the data reveals that students read high frequency words (MA=20.73, SD=5.09) more accurately than low frequency words (MA=13.47, SD=5.03). Reading accuracy for high frequency regular words (MA=12.73, SD=2.84) is greater than for low frequency regular words (MA=10.53, SD=3.25). Similarly, high frequency exception words (MA=8.00, SD=2.67) are read more accurately than low frequency exception words (MA=2.93, SD=2.12). The difference between accuracy of reading high frequency words (MA=20.73, SD=5.09) and low frequency words (MA=13.47, SD=5.03) was statistically significant (dif=7.27, t=3.800, df=13, p=0.002). Therefore, there is insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis which states that EFL students with a transparent L1 will read high-frequency (HF) words more accurately than low-frequency (LF) words.

Hypothesis three. The difference in performance between reading accuracy for high and low frequency words (MA=7.27, SD=3.79) is greater than between

Table 2
Means, standard deviations and range on reading accuracy measure in English

	R	E	LF	HF	HF-LF	R-E	HFR	HFE	LFR	LFE
MA	23,27	10,93	13,47	20,73	7,27	12,33	12.73	8.00	10.53	2.93
SD	5,36	4,35	5,03	5,09	3,79	2,73	2.84	2.67	3.25	2.12
MIN	11	4	4	11	1	7	7	4	4	0
MAX	32	21	24	29	15	16	16	13	16	8

* R (regular words), E (exception words), LF (low frequency words), HF (high frequency words), HFR (high frequency regular words), HFE (high frequency exception words), LFR (low frequency regular words), LFE (low frequency exception words)

regular and exception words (MA=12.33, SD=2.73). Since the difference is statistically significant (dif=6.06, t=2.646, df=13, p=0.020) and is greater for H-L frequency words than for R-E words, there is sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis. Interestingly, low frequency regular words (MA=10.53, SD=3.25) are read more accurately than high frequency exception words (MA=8.00, SD=2.67).

Discussion and Conclusion

The study revealed that students with a transparent L1 read regular words more accurately than exception words, which is in agreement with other reported studies. This significant difference might be indicative of the role of L1 reading strategy in reading EFL. Students with a transparent L1, in this case Polish, transfer a grapheme-phoneme reading strategy to English. This technique is successful when applied to reading regular words, but unsuccessful when used with exception words. Considering the fact that the dominant EFL reading instruction technique in Polish schools resembles 'a psycholinguistic guessing game', this is the student's natural choice.

In addition, the study points to the significant value of word frequency in reading accuracy. The students tested were more accurate when reading high frequency words than low frequency words. This depicts the value of quantitative exposure to a lexical item. If a word is encountered numerous times, it allows for a greater chance of the learner acquiring its correct pronunciation. With increased exposure, the word is more likely to enter the 'sight word category' and to undergo restructuring if the initial pattern is incorrect. Although both conditions, regularity and frequency, were significant in reference to the accuracy of EFL reading, regularity influenced the reading outcome to a greater extent than frequency.

The role of regularity as a decisive factor in EFL reading accuracy is supported by the data obtained from computing the difference between H-L and R-E words. In sum, students read words from regular-exception groups more accurately than from high-low frequency groups. Interestingly, the S.D. in regular-exception groups was lower than in the high-low frequency group. This reflects the more unitary influence of regularity over frequency in reading accuracy. In the same vein, the students committed fewer errors in reading low frequency regular words than in reading high frequency exception words.

From the pedagogical perspective, the data collected support the need for the implementation of structured reading directions in the EFL classroom, instead of relying on a student's 'linguistic intuition'. Reading instructions should incorporate and stress a whole word reading strategy for use alongside grapheme-phoneme matching. Due to the fact that EFL students enter the EFL linguistic environment with no or limited knowledge of the phonological structure of the language, teaching programs should postulate overlearning. Overlearning means practicing a word beyond the initial point of mastery in order to automatize word retrieval. To prevent students from committing pronunciation errors, newly introduced words should be presented to students orally first so that they are able to form sound-meaning associations. When a firm sound-meaning relation is established, the graphical form of a word can be introduced. This sequence of the presentation of words might yield progress in reading accuracy (Rathvon, 2008, p. 197; Levy et al., 2013, p. 284).

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English Phraseology: Integration with Terminology Science

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The article is devoted to the study of English semi-idioms (a term suggested by A. Kunin), units with both terminological and metaphorical meanings. These units were studied from different angles but here their dual nature is viewed through the possibility of providing an experiment. The paper shows how a linguistic experiment can reveal not only the meaning of some unit, but the peoples' attitude towards the use of these phrases, their individual level of understanding, interpreting and realising. As cognition is very important in the understanding of semantics, as well as a new perspective in the study of phraseology, a synergetic approach as well as a cognitive one is becoming one of the ways to scrutinising the nature of terminological phraseological units. The paper focuses on the possible ways of showing that terms can develop metaphorical meanings though sometimes people have no ideas of the etymology of some units. An experiment to show the dual nature of such units as terminological phraseologisms was provided on the bases of a specially created questionnaire. The result of the experiment proved that some terms can acquire new metaphorical meanings and function in the language and speech as phraseological units. The results of the experiment as well as various references to the matter of the study – semi-idioms – may turn to be useful in language studies, learning English as a second language, investigating English Terminology and Phraseology.

Keywords: semi-idioms, terminological phraseological units, metaphor, meaning, experiment

It is well-known that the very term *phraseology* was suggested by Charles Bally who studied French Stylistics and regarded phraseology as a part of this science. Since his book "Precis de stylistique" (1905) was published and translated into various languages, a lot of research on phraseological units has been conducted.

In the Russian school of thoughts Academician V. Vinogradov described Phraseology in his book "The Russian Language" (1974). After that phraseological units were studied from the point of view of their semantics, structure, and complexity. Kunin (1970) wrote, " a phraseological unit is a stable combination of words with a fully or partially figurative meaning" (p. 210).

At the end of the 90s, cognitive study appeared. This new study actually is an interdisciplinary study of how the human perceives the process of learning and how the words are learned in the process of cognition. So, as a result, Phraseology became a new focus for those linguists who were keen on cognitive approaches. As Nacicsione (2010) puts it in her book, "Use of metaphor has been recognised as part and parcel of cognition, a revealing cognitive mechanism" (p. 17).

This paper is aimed at showing some modern approach in both English Terminology and English Phraseology as some units with a special meaning may undergo specific changes: they acquire a new metaphorical meaning and start to function in the language as phraseological units. The first linguist who pointed out some features of these dual units was Prof. A. Kunin (Russia, Moscow) who compiled the first English-Russian Phraseological Dictionary (1984) where along with phraseological units and phraseomatic units, the so-called semi-idioms were included and described. As Kunin put it in the preface of the dictionary, "semi-idioms have both literal and transferred meaning, the first meaning being usually terminological or professional and the second transferred" (Kunin, 1984, p. 14). The examples of these semi-idioms are as follows: *a chain reaction* –

a chemical term and an idiom meaning a chain of quarrels, or *to sail too close to the wind* – a nautical term and an idiom meaning "to risk". There are many more examples of semi-idioms and I intend to reveal their nature by showing the results of the study and experiment provided on the basis of such units. In other words, a synergistic nature of the units under study is an object of the research.

It should be mentioned here that a term system does not

> merely reflect a field of knowledge or activity but represents the theory behind it, so that two or more theories appear and present simultaneously in one and the same sphere (for example, in physics and linguistics). More than that, terminology is integrative: sometimes the terms of some sciences may function in various terminological systems, or even penetrate into the language for general Purposes (LGP) (Lejcik & Nikulina, 2004, p. 14).

In case with semi-idioms a quite complicated process can be observed: the sphere of LSP (Language for Specific purpose) penetrates into LGP (Language for General Purposes) but being "modified" into the units with a metaphorical meaning.

Materials and Methods

The results of the research presented in this article come from the experiment provided in the USA with the help of interviews of people of different age, social status and gender. The experiment was based on the hypothesis that native speakers can not state for sure that one and the same word-combination can be both a term (a word with a special meaning and that is used in a special context) and an idiom. Along with the experiment, a number of other methods were used, such as synthesis and analysis, a method of phraseological identification, a method of contextual analysis as some contexts from literary works were used as well. It was very important to apply a method of statistics.

The results of the research show that the nature of the so-called semi-idioms, or terminological phraseological units (Nikulina, 2005, p. 3) is really complicated, and is worth being studied from various points of view. There were several steps in the analysis: firstly, a questionnaire was compiled which included some 33 semi-idioms taken at random from about 20 dictionaries, and a space to put a tick, whether this unit is a term, an idiom, or both; secondly, each participant had to put a word or phrase associated with a unit; thirdly, a method of statistical analysis was used.

Results and Discussion

A Questionnaire

According to Seliverstova, to the number of sciences, in which we use the experiment, there are primarily physics, chemistry, biology, and linguistics (Seliverstova, 1988, p. 432). An experiment in linguistics originates from the published works of Professor L. C. Shcherba, in 1933. Seliverstova and her students developed the theory of linguistic experiment, which is based on the method of verification of specific hypotheses by involving native speakers. Seliverstova indicated that, for the study of language "there should be a detailed system of quality views that would be the conceptual apparatus of the description…; language semantics is intended to reveal the picture of the world, reflected in the language" (Seliverstova, 1988, p. 431).

To solve the task of the so-called "identifying the semi-idiom", a questionnaire was developed, including 33 phrases, the sources of which was the terminology of military sphere, sports, physics, chemistry, botany and marine terms, terms of art and mathematics. In experiment teachers and students at the University of South Arkansas, North Dakota, Wisconsin, and Maryland (USA) took part. It is noteworthy that all semi-idioms and their definitions checked in various terminological and phraseological dictionaries so that for the author there was no doubt that the units under study have got both a terminological and metaphorical meaning.

The Participants' Work

A person who got the questionnaire had some 45 minutes to fill in the table. It was quite important to put the nationality, age, gender and occupation; the guidelines given in the questionnaire were as follows:

Read the word-combinations below. First, put any word that comes as an association with the word combination, then mark (x) in the appropriate column whether you consider the unit a term of some sphere of knowledge (chemistry, sports, culture, art, a military term, a nautical term, etc.) or just an idiom, or both.

So initially the table looked like this:

To prove that all the units which were selected for the analysis have both direct, literary, and indirect, metaphorical meaning here are some definitions from special dictionaries:

acid test: method of proving the worth, truth, etc. of something. (…) From chemistry. The original acid test was the testing of gold with nitric acid. If it was genuine and pure, it was unaffected; if false or mixed with other metals, these would corrode (Bloomsberry Dictionary of Idioms, 1990, p. 1), or:

dark horse: coll a person or thing whose true character or worth is unknown but may be better than is thought (...) referring to a horse in a race, whose ability to win races is unknown (Longman Dictionary of Idioms, 1992, p. 169),

or:

sail close to the wind: to break a rule of acceptable behaviour etc. (...) [Literary, in a sailing boat, to sail as nearly straight into the wind as possible] (The Wordsworth Dictionary of Idioms, 1996, p. 422).

So as it is shown, all the semi-idioms used for the analysis have a synergetic , dual nature: being initially a term, they may undergo some specific process of metaphorisation, thus acquiring a metaphorical meaning.

Mathematical Approach

One of the most important stages of the research was to count the answers and to analyse them from the point of view of statistics. Some observations were made as a lot of respondents just put down the phrase "?don't know" or just left the line not marked; there were commentaries, like "no sense" put to *hardy annual* and *also ran*, though the first one is claimed to be a medical term and the second one is from racing. Here are some diagrams that show the results of the experiment:

Table 1
Questionnaire (shortened)

Word-combination	Association	Term	Idiom
1. Acid test			
2.Bear testimony			
3. By and large			
4.Common denominator			
5. Dark horse			
6. End product			
7.Inferiority complex			
8. Horse and horse			
9. Quantum jump			
10. Sail close to the wind			

As it comes from this diagram, the most well-known semi-idioms turned to be *a dark horse*, *also ran* and *neck or nothing*, a terminological phraseological unit *win by a neck* was mostly stated as an idiom, though

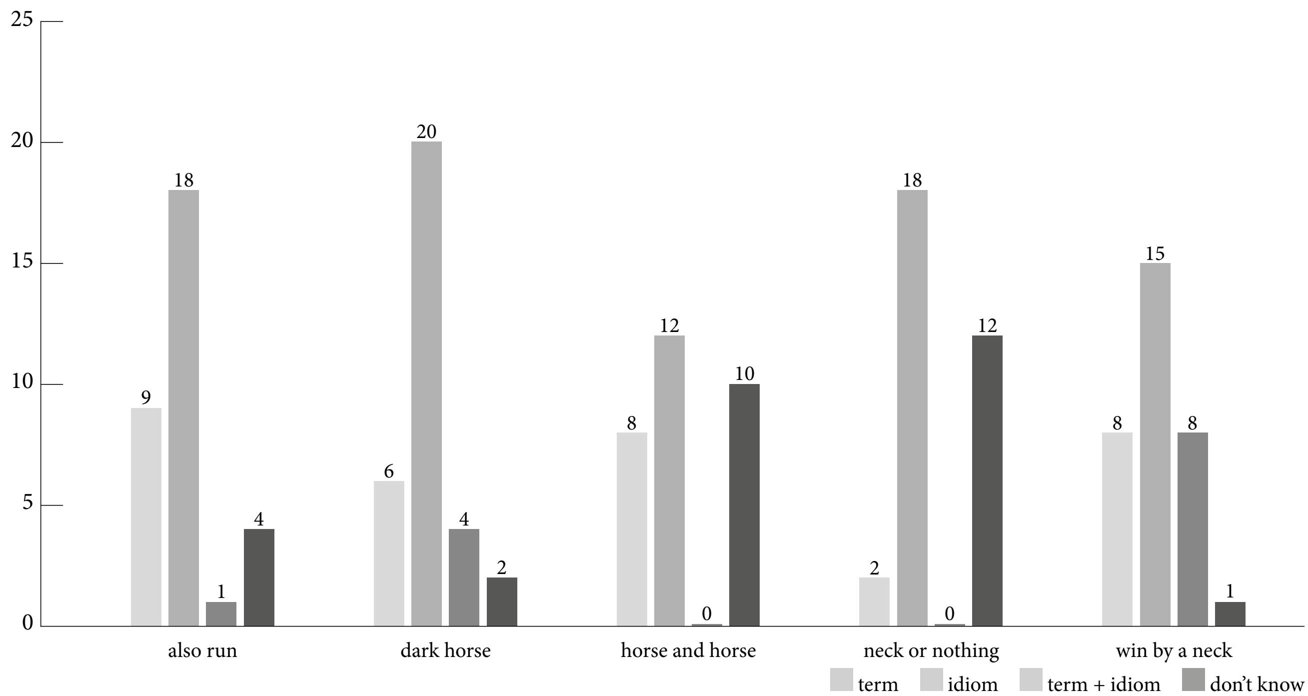

Figure 1. Analysis of the semi-idioms originated from sports.

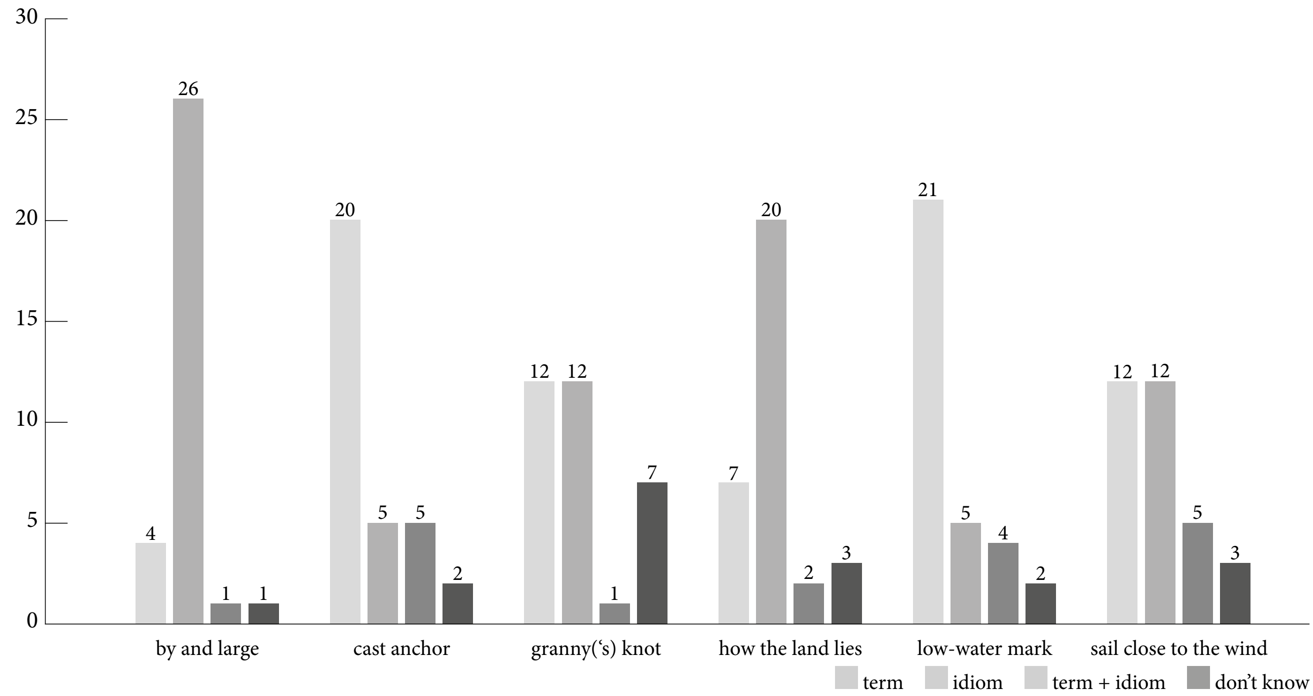

Figure 2. Analysis of the semi-idioms originated from marine terms.

an association came as "*racing*'. Once again it shows the dual form of the unit, though, probably not yet realised, or with the so-called "darkened semantics".

In Figure 2, the most important moment is that the semi-idiom *by and large* is marked as an idiom, though it is a nautical term, still used in various works, both literary and publicistic. To prove that dual nature of some units here are the contexts from fiction. Examples:

drop/cast/come (to) anchor

terminological use: On their way out, Garrett grabbed a raincoat from a peg near the door... "Give me a minute to drop the anchor," he said, "so we can eat without having to check the boat every few minutes." (N. Sparks, Message in a Bottle)

phraseological use: He came to anchor on the bed, and for a while sat picking at the coverlet in silence. (P. G. Wodehouse, "Right Ho, Jeeves!");

So the first context is from a book where the owner of the boat knew a lot of marine terms and he uses the complex term "drop the anchor" in its direct, terminological meaning; the second contexts suggests the metaphorical usage as the main character just settles on the bed, preparing to sleep.

As it is clearly seen from the figure, the word-combination cast (drop) anchor" was mostly recognised as a term and only five people stated this combination as an idiom or term+idiom.

However, the whole experiment just shows how people comprehend some idioms immediately: the units may not only originate from terms, but function as terms in the terminological sphere. As Kovecses puts in his book, "metaphor plays a role in human thought, understanding, and reasoning and, beyond that, in the creation of our social, cultural, and psychological reality" (Kovecses, 2009, p. xiii).

Conclusion

The results of the research presented in this article show clearly that one of the prospective ways to study linguistic phenomena is to study them in a combined way: semantics of some units may broaden and give way to some new meanings which, in their turn, would develop further and further combinations. On the other hand, it is important to underline that all registers are overlapping, they can disperse in various spheres giving way to such complicated units as semi-idioms. To study them is not only to enlarge one's vocabulary or to deepen one's knowledge, it is an opportunity to expose the laws of forming new words and phrases, to find universal features and to be able to trace the pattern of forming new meanings. A good tool to learn more about the language as well as cognition is to provide an experiment, to compare the results and to find out some peculiarities. It is also important the work of our brain to realise how the new associations and metaphors appear and overlap.

When conducting a linguistic experiment it becomes possible to explore the issue of inference – getting some output in the process of information processing, that is, to explore the terminological phraseological units from the cognitive point of view. Phraseology is the sphere for a more profound study and there are a lot of approaches to reveal the complicated nature of phraseological units. One of them was presented in the paper and the experiment contributes to a better understanding of our metaphorical competence. The perspective of studying the semantic peculiarities of semi-idioms is quite challenging and it may give way to new discoveries in the sphere of terminology and phraseology, their core and periphery.

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Teacher Corrective Oral Feedback in the Classroom

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The article reports on a study of teacher corrective oral feedback in Iris Becker Elementary School, a public school serving pupils from kindergarten-5th grade in Dearborn, Michigan. Some researchers claim that teacher corrective oral feedback is beneficial to L2 learning while others discard its merit. This study is an attempt to explore this topic further with young learners. The method used in the study included one classroom observation. The participants included one mainstream classroom teacher and about 25 students. The results show high teacher corrective oral feedback.

Keywords: corrective feedback, error treatment, oral feedback, English as Second Language, second language acquisition

The benefits of teacher corrective oral feedback are controversial. While some researchers (Aljaafreh and Lantolf, 1994, Higgs and Clifford, 1982, Bley-Vroman, 1994, Hammerly, 1987, Chaudron, 1988, White, 1991, Schwartz, 1993, DeKeyser, 1994, Schmidt, 1990, Lyster and Panova, 2002) point out the positive effects of teacher corrective oral feedbacks in the classroom, other researchers (Hendrickson, 1978, Larsen-Freeman 2000, Lightbown, 1991, Lightbown and Spada, 1993 and 2006, Doughty and Varela, 1998) doubt them. Han (2002) believes that depending on how it is used, it could be beneficial. Or as Lochtman (2002) puts it, the importance of teacher corrective oral feedback is much discussed.

There are many pupils who struggle with learning and it is common practice for teachers to give corrective oral feedbacks. The purpose of this study is to investigate the different types of corrective oral feedback and determine which types lead to student repair and which types do not lead to student repair. Unlike previous studies that have investigated laboratory like settings, this study examined real school settings. Results obtained in this experiment can help educators make better decisions regarding the use of corrective oral feedback. Ultimately, the goal is to help pupils learn better.

Materials and Methods

Corrective feedback (CF) is defined as "any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner utterance" (Lyster & Panova, 2002, p. 574). The notion that learners may need negative evidence such as error feedback or explicit instruction has presently lead to the eminence of CF studies in English as a Second Language (ESL) and other L2 education contexts (Lyster & Panova, 2002, p. 573). The reasons for studying CF include claims about the significance of negative feedback in grown-ups (Ellis, 2004, p. 236). According to Doughty and Williams (1998) the role of CF in the process of learning a foreign language is still much debated (Lochtman, 2002, p. 272) and opinions on the purpose of CF can be very mixed or split (Han, 2002, p. 1).

Researchers such as Hendrickson (1978) and Larsen-Freeman (1981) made the following claims about errors and corrections: 1) errors are a natural result of the communication development skills, 2) correction distracts the learner's attention from the communicative task, 3) correction forces the learner to focus on the form instead of the meaning and 4) correction activates the learner's affective filter, which blocks learning. These assumptions lead teachers to ignore errors in classrooms (Han, 2002, p. 2). A study by Doughty (1994) on CF found that the teacher gave approximately half of the feedback to students' incorrect utterances (Lyster & Panova, 2002, p. 576). Theoretically speaking, corrective feedback is capable of advancing the learning process, but that is not always true in practice (Han, 2002, p. 9). Doughty and Varela (1998), Lightbown (1991), Lightbown and Spada (1990) and White (1991) considered CF as having little importance in the classroom. Some research showed that early form-focused instruction might make it harder rather than easier for learners to discover the underlying structure of the target language and it has been suggested that form-focused instruction and CF can lead only to temporary and/or superficial changes in learner performance (Lightbown & Spada, 1993, p. 206).

Researchers such as Higgs and Clifford (1982) and Hammerly (1987) argued that L2 learners exposed to natural language acquisition or communicative language teaching without error correction and form focus will eventually stop learning. Some SLA researchers, such as Bley-Vroman (1986), White (1991) and Schwartz (1993) considered CF to be necessary for second language learning. Dekeyser (1994) and Schmidt (1994) regarded CF as an essential element of explicit teaching that tries to make the learner be aware of the formal features of the input and help them see the difference between these features and those in their own interlanguage. Chaudron (1988) claimed that for most learners, CF may be the most successful source of improvement in target language development (Han, 2002, p. 7). Swain (1995) stated, "An additional effect of CF may be the enhancement of learners' metalinguistic awareness" (Lyster & Panova, 2002, p. 574). Han (2002) acknowledged CF as especially indispensable in classroom SLA (p. 24). Evidence from previous studies showed that CF seems to advance learning (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1974, p. 466).

Corrective feedback is classified into six types: 1) explicit correction, 2) recasts, 3) clarification requests, 4) metalinguistic feedback or clues (as stated in Gibbons, 2006, p. 52), 5) elicitation, and 6) repetition of error (Lyster & Panova, 2002, p. 576), all of which were the focus of this research. While most corrective oral feedback does fall into the above categories they do not cover all types of oral feedback.

1. Explicit Correction: It refers to the explicit provision of the correct form and generally is needed for treating learning problems that are categorized as error (Han, 2002, p. 14). As the teacher provides the correct form, he/she clearly indicates that what the student had said was incorrect. Carroll and Swain (1974 cited in Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1974, p. 466) demonstrated that learners who received explicit correction overall are superior on experimental assignments than the learners who received implicit feedback. Example of explicit correction:

S: The day . . . tomorrow. (lexical error)

T: Yes. No, the day before yesterday. (explicit correction) (Lyster & Panova, 2002, p. 584).

2. Recasts: Recast involve the teacher's reformulation of student's entire speech or some of it without the error (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 46). Long (1996) defined recasts as implicit CF that reformulates/builds an incorrect/incomplete speech clearly, parallel to the type of recasts used by caregivers in a child's first language acquisition (Lyster & Panova, 2002, p. 582). Recasts also include translations in response to a student's use of the L1 (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 47). Recasts are by and large implicit and are not presented by such phrases "You mean," "Use this word," and "You should say." Some recasts focus on one word, however, some combine the grammatical or lexical modification as part of discourse. Recasts do not promote immediate learner repair (Lyster & Panova, 2002, p. 577). Example of Recast:

S: . . . I looking for my pen.

T: You are looking for your pen. (Lyster & Panova, 2002, p. 575).

3. Clarification Requests: based on Spada and Fröhlich (1995) clarification requests indicate to students that their speech has been misjudged by the teacher or that the speech is somehow incorrect and needs a reiteration or a reformulation. Clarification requests can deal with problems in either understanding or accuracy, or both (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 47) and often seek clarification of the meaning as well (Lyster & Panova, 2002, p. 583).

S: I want practice today, today. (grammatical error)

T: I'm sorry? (clarification request) (Lyster & Panova, 2002, p. 583).

4. Metalinguistic Feedback or Clues: In this type of feedback, the teacher asks questions or offers comments or information connected to the formation of the student's utterance without supplementing the correct form. For example, the teacher may say, "Do we say it like that?" "That's not how you say it in French," and "Is it feminine?"

S: *Euhm, le, le éléphant. Le éléphant gronde.* "Uhm, the, the elephant. The elephant growls."

(multiple errors)

T: *Est-ce qu'on dit le éléphant?* "Do we say the elephant?"

(de Gortari & Tedick, 1998, p. 2).

5. Elicitation: It concerns with the methods that teachers use to acquire the correct form out of the student. There are three methods of elicitation: the teacher 1) allows for "fill in the blank," stops and allows the learner to finish the teacher's speech i.e., "No, not that. It's a . . . ", 2) invites an open question "How do we say X in French?", and 3) requires a reformulation of the incorrect speech (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 48). Elicitation is further illustrated in the example below:

T: OK. Did you like it?
S: Yes, yes, I like it.
T: Yes, I . . .?
S: Yes, I liked it.
T: Yes, I liked it. (Lyster & Panova, 2002, p. 575).

6. Repetition of Errors: It refers to the teacher's reiteration without connection to the student's incorrect speech. For the most part, teachers adapt their articulation to emphasize the mistake (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 48). For example, the teacher repeats the error below:

S: Le . . . le girafe? (gender error) "The...the giraffe?"
T: Le girafe? "The giraffe?"
(de Gortari & Tedick, 1998, p. 2)

Table 1
MEAP results

		Iris Becker	State Average
Reading:	Grade 3	97%	86%
	Grade 4	71%	85%
	Grade 5	86%	82%
Writing:	Grade 3	74%	57%
	Grade 4	45%	45%
	Grade 5	60%	59%
Math:	Grade 3	97%	90%
	Grade 4	93%	86%
	Grade 5	94%	74%

Table 2
Ethnicity

	Iris Becker	State Average
White	99%	70%
African American	<1%	20%

Table 3
Eligibility for free or reduced-price lunch

Iris Becker	State Average
85%	37%

Source: MI Dept. of Education, 2007-2008

In a study by Lyster and Panova (2002) with a database of 1,716 student turns and 1,641 teacher turns the feedback types used were distributed as follows: 1) explicit correction 2%, 2) recasts roughly 77%, 3) clarification requests 11%, 4) metalinguistic feedback or clues 5%, 5) elicitation 4%, and 6) repetition of error 1% (p. 586). Similarly, Scott (2008), a University of Auckland graduate with a double major in English and Linguistics and contributing writer of Suite101.com, an interactive online magazine on 400 subjects for over 10 years wrote, "In a normal one hour lesson, a teacher will approximately use 55% recast feedback, 14% elicitation feedback, 11% clarification feedback, 8% metalinguistic feedback, 7% explicit correction, and 5% repetition feedback."

Lyster and Ranta (1997) reasoned that metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, clarification requests, and repetition allow more learner participation than recasts and explicit correction do (Lyster & Panova, 2002, p. 577). Scott (2008) stated that recasts and explicit correction do not lead to repair because they already provide correct forms to learners.

Research Methodology

This study includes a classroom observation to determine which types lead to student repair and which types do not lead to student repair. This method was chosen because it offered an opportunity to see first-hand interaction between teachers and students during a regular lesson.

Student Body

To better understand the student body, their academic strength and social economic status the students': 1) Michigan Educational Assessment Program (MEAP) results (scale: % at or above proficient), 2) ethnicity, and 3) eligibility for free or reduced-price lunch is compared to the state average.

Observation Procedure

During the observation the class was working on the story of *Brothers and Sisters* by Ellen B. Senisi. The teacher discussed the story with the students, walked around the classroom, asked many questions and the students actively participated by raising hands to give answers. Some students participated more than others, but the teacher also asked the students who did not raise their hands to participate. Overall, the class had an active discussion of *Brothers and Sisters* and all students were involved (see table below). The observer sat in the back of the classroom, took notes and recorded the teaching on a cassette player. The students were not bothered nor paid any attention to the observer. The teacher had a good classroom management and there was no disciplinary problem. Later in the evening, the recording was transcribed and compared to the notes taken.

Table 4
Iris Becker Elementary School Observation

	feedback types	student response	teacher feedback	context
1	--- (I didn't hear)	xxx (unintelligible)	families helping one another	discussing Brothers and Sisters
2	non-corrective repetition, acknowledgement	pictures of brothers and sisters	you see pictures of brothers, yes	discussing what is in the book
3	non-corrective repetition, acknowledgement	they look like they are mad at each other	okay, they look like they're mad at each other	discussing pictures of children who don't seem happy
4	non-corrective repetition, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback/clues	they look like they are having fun	they look like they are having fun, what are they doing	discussing various pictures where the children play together
5	clarification requests	it looks like it's the mom	how can you tell this is the mom	discussing page 129
6	non-corrective repetition, acknowledgement	they help	they help one another, okay	discussing what brothers and sisters do
7	clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback/clues	her mom is having a baby	how can you tell her mom has a baby	discussing page 130
8	non-corrective repetition, recasts	the same baby is growing older	oh, this is the same baby growing older and older	discussing a baby that gets older
9	recasts	it doesn't matter how old you are, you have to help and share	huh, this is all about sharing and helping	discussing page 133
10	non-corrective repetition	they are different families taking care of one another	uh ha, they are different families	discussing the different families in the book
11	non-corrective repetition, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback/clues	they go from newborn, to a toddler to teenager	wow, they grow from newborn, to a toddler to teenager, what's a newborn	discussing the different stages of a person's life

	feedback types	student response	teacher feedback	context
12	recasts	it's a baby that just born or couple of days old	so well say just to about probably to six weeks	describing the term "newborn"
13	clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback/clues	it's a timeline	why are we using a timeline	teacher and para-professionals put a timeline on the board with pictures of people from newborn to senior citizens
14	recasts, metalinguistic feedback/clues	it showing from baby and what happens	it's showing a chronology of age from how we go from newborn until we get older	discussing the timeline of a person's life
15	non-corrective repetition	photos	they're photographs	talking about the types of pictures in the book
16	recasts, acknowledgement	I think they are real	alright, the pictures are of real people	discussing the types of photographs
17	recasts	true narratives about a lot of things	these are just vignettes of lots of things	talking about the different families in the photos
18	elicitation	people get mad but not forever	so do you think we are talking about the same persons, sometimes they don't get along, but you are not mad forever, because you are families	discussing how some families get mad at each other
19	recasts, elicitation	you take care of brothers and sisters	you should take care of them, now who takes care of whom	discussing the role of brothers and sisters
20	clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback/clues	mom takes care of the baby if he cries	is it only moms job to take care of the baby	discussing the role of brothers and sisters
21	recasts	sometimes brothers and sisters	sometimes it's the job of brothers and sisters or	discussing the role of brothers and sisters
22	acknowledgement	dads	okay	
23	non-corrective repetition	the older takes care of the younger	the older takes care of the younger	discussing the role of brothers and sisters
24	clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback/clues	twins mean they are alike	what do you mean alike, how are they alike, in which way	discussing the meaning of the word twin

	feedback types	student response	teacher feedback	context
25	recasts	same hair	they have the same hair cut	discussing similarities of twins
26	recasts	they are born at the same time	born at the same time, when you are twins you are born at the same time, you don't have the same hair color, but if they look alike they are identical twins	discussing that identical twins are born at the same time
27	explicit correction	but they don't do the same things	no, they don't have to do the same things	discussing that identical twins don't have to do the same things
28	recasts	I have friends, they are identical twins and I can't tell them apart	it's hard to tell identical twins apart	discussing how identical twins look similar
29	acknowledgement	they can have different hair cuts	that's one way	discussing how to distinguish identical twins
30	acknowledgement	have name tags	that's an idea	discussing how to distinguish identical twins
31	acknowledgement	have different clothes	that would help	discussing how to distinguish identical twins
32	recasts	bracelets	oh name bracelets	discussing how to distinguish identical twins
33	recasts	birthmarks	oh, birthmarks, even though they are twins some of them may have birthmarks and some of them may not, but unless it is visible on the face or something	discussing how to distinguish identical twins
34	non-corrective repetition, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback/clues	adopted	adopted, I was hoping someone would pick up this word, what does it mean	discussing adopted children
35	recasts	my mom has this baby, she took it to the foster house and someone came and took the baby	so they adopted the baby, they make it their own	discussing adopted children

	feedback types	student response	teacher feedback	context
36	recasts	you can't get a baby then you adopt	yeah, there are a lot of reasons why people adopt a baby, some people can't have a baby or some people would like to have more babies then they decide to adopt, most of the times people can't have babies and would love to have a baby, there are lots of people who are orphans, who don't have a home because their pass away or whatever, they need a home	discussing adopted children
37	acknowledgement, clarification requests, elicitation	if you're adopted and people ask if you are brother and sister you say yeah	yeah, but legally what does the word become, are you born from the same mom and dad	discussing adoption
38	clarification requests	how do they fit	what do you mean	
39	clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback	how do they fit in the house	which house, the orphanage, it's usually a huge place and they can take a lot of them	discussing orphanage
40	clarification requests	unintelligible	these are adopted how can you tell	
41	acknowledgement, non-corrective repetition	it's under the picture	right, it's under the picture	noticing the wording under the pictures
42	explicit correction	can a child go where he wants to go	no, if the child is not an adult, it's up to the agency and the people involved only when you are an adult, this is when you are 18 and older can you say where you want to go, that is an interesting question	discussing a child's legal rights
43	elicitation	newborn	what kind of a word is that, thinking grammar	discussing vocabulary
44	clarification requests	a compound word	compound word, why is this a compound word	discussing grammar
45	metalinguistic feedback	more than one word	it has "new" and "born" put together	discussing grammar

	feedback types	student response	teacher feedback	context
46	explicit correction, elicitation	a toddler	a toddler is a bit older, what comes after a newborn	discussing age chronology
47	metalinguistic feedback, elicitation	the baby	how old do you think is a baby, a baby goes about six weeks to a year and a half, 6–8 months	discussing age chronology
48	non-corrective repetition	to make them laugh	to make them laugh	discussing how it is fun to have a baby
49	acknowledgement, recasts	you can grab them and hug them	right you can hug them, but you have to be gentle and careful	discussing how it is fun to have a baby
50	clarification requests	she pays attention to the baby	does that mean she loves you less	discussing how a mother spend more time with the baby
51	non-corrective repetition, clarification requests	they're wearing different bracelets	oh they are wearing different bracelets, why do you think that they are wearing different bracelets	discussing page 135
52	metalinguistic feedback	younger	oh, the older takes care of the younger, that's not old, older like you having a younger brother or sister	discussing the younger and older person
53	non-corrective repetition, elicitation	the big sister is taking care of the little sister	taking care of the little sister, how old do you think the sister is, what age	discussing the role of brothers and sisters
54	recasts	it's hard to be younger because your bigger sister can do more things	so this is about younger and older	discussing the younger and older person
55	clarification requests	it's like a bumblebee	does it mean that he is like an animal	trying to get the meaning of the word "pest"
56	non-corrective repetition	it's like bothering him	yes, it's annoying, he bothers him, he bothers him	discussing the problems with brother and sisters
57	non-corrective repetition	she's mean with me	mean with you	talk about a child whose sister annoys him
58	non-corrective repetition, recast	fight	they fight, they argue, they get mad at one another	discuss how even adults fight

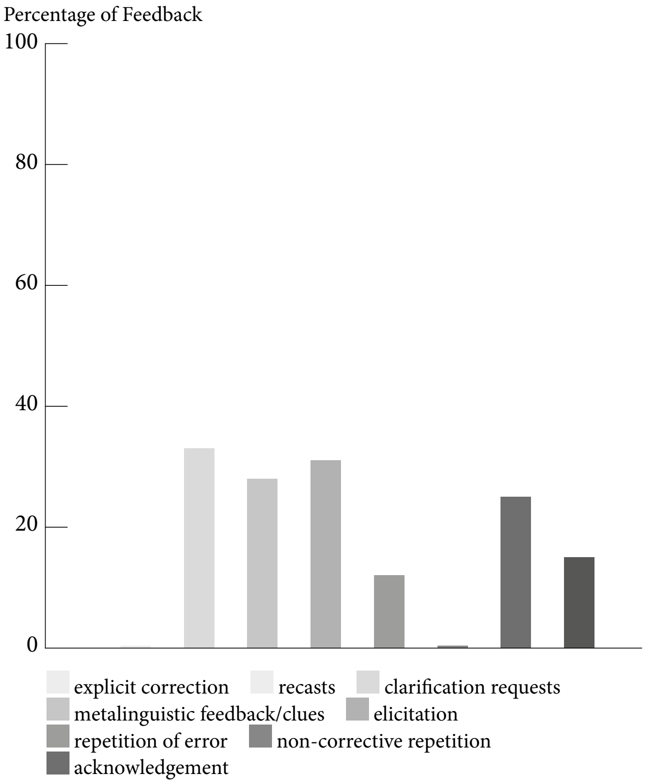

Figure 1. 58 Teacher Corrective Oral Fedback.
Note: Explicit correction has 0.05 % and is too small to show up on the graph.

Results

Some types of feedback were classified as *acknowledgement*, where the teacher acknowledges what the student has said and as *non-corrective* repetition, where the teacher simply repeated what was correctly stated (Gibbons, 2006, p. 52). Some of the feedback falls into more than one category i.e., number 6 is both *non-corrective repetition* and *acknowledgement*. It was considered whether to categorize some feedback as *elaboration*, where according to Gibbons, the student is encouraged to go into detail with what he/she has said, but it was decided not to because they could fall more into the category of clarification requests.

The findings from the data show that there were 58 teacher oral feedback points in approximately one hour of observation, equaling to almost 1 feedback point per minute. The breakdown of the types of feedback is as follows (see Figure 1 above): 3 explicit correction, 20 recasts, 16 clarification requests, 18 metalinguistic feedback or clues, 7 elicitation (all were "invite an open question method" and none were "fill in the blank" or "requires a reformulation of the incorrect speech"), 0 repetition of error, 15 non-corrective repetition and 11 acknowledgement. Although there were only 58 feedback points produced by the teacher, the breakdown shows 90 feedback points because some feedback was classified as more than one category. There were similarities between these findings and that of previous research (e.g., Lyster and Panova, 2002; Scott, 2008; Esmaeili, 2014), namely, recasts made up the highest percentage with 34%.

Limitation

The data collection was limited to one observation with one teacher in one classroom, thus making it impossible to draw a conclusion to the second and third research questions: what kinds of corrective oral feedback lead to student repair and what kinds of corrective oral feedback do not lead to student repair. The corrective oral feedback in this classroom was made regarding content, not language. Therefore, to compare these data with the data of previous research where the data were collected from language classes would be problematic.

Discussion

It would be valuable to replicate and expand this study in a longitudinal research. Longitudinal research is necessary to see the consistency of the corrective oral feedback. Lightbown (2000) stated that to verify the success of CF in learners' interlanguage progress, researchers need to display that any effect is durable (Sheen, 2004, p. 266). This research could be expanded to include observations in schools with higher social economic status and with various student populations. Previous CF studies have not been investigated in the real school context, but rather in the context of a laboratory setting with NS-NNS dyads, for example, Carroll and Swain (1993), Leeman (2003), Long et al. (1998) which is unlike a classroom setting (Sheen, 2004, pp. 267–268). Such research could help to understand whether these findings are typical of classroom feedback or if they are similar to other classroom teacher feedback regardless of the social economic status and racial background.

The findings of this research on teacher corrective oral feedback are only a scratch of the surface and we are still far from comprehension of how feedback plays a role in the L2 learning process (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994, p. 466).

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Self-Regulation Skills: Several Ways of Helping Students Develop Self-Regulated Learning

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Empirical research supports the long held assumption that self-control, self-esteem, and motivational orientations of adult language learners are important factors in their language learning behavior. However, precisely these variables influence the language learning process has yet to be investigated. The goal of this paper is to examine the role of how self-control, self-esteem and motivational orientations influence the English language learning process. Recent methodological advances and various theoretical frameworks that have guided the present research are considered in this paper. A special "bidirectional course" turning on teacher-learner interaction was designed - a communicative course which promoted learner autonomy. The results indicate that active involvement in learning, monitoring motivation, self-control and self–esteem are positively related to learning outcomes, demonstrating that the acquisition of self-regulation skills have a positive impact on the learning of English.

Keywords: motivation self-regulated learning, self-control, self-esteem

Self-regulation skills have long been the subject of research among educators, psychologists and sociologists. It is well-known that effective learning involves planning, goal-setting, progress monitoring and adapting if necessary. All these skills can be learnt, and by teaching them to students their learning can significantly improve. The aforementioned skills are closely related to the affective and self-regulatory variables of self-control, self-esteem and motivation. Without sufficient motivation, self-control and self-esteem, even those of exceptional ability cannot accomplish long-term goals, with an appropriate curriculum and effective teaching, alone, incapable of ensuring student achievement. To date, relatively little research has been directed toward the question of whether these skills can be developed over time. Therefore, the aim of this paper was to investigate self-control, self-esteem and motivational orientations of adult learners at different language proficiency levels to understand how language learning behavior is influenced by these self-regulation skills. Motivation, self-regulation and self-esteem are key variables that may help increase and sustain second language learning.

Not all English language courses achieve the development in students of self-control, self-esteem and motivation. Within the ESOL field, further investigation into how to develop special training courses is still required. To address this oversight, a special bidirectional communicative course was designed - a student-oriented course which promoted learners' self-regulatory behavior. After reviewing the literature relevant to this research, a description of how the present study was carried out is provided followed by an interpretation of the results.

Materials and Methods

English as a Foreign Language studies have firmly established that theoretical approaches which focus on student self-control and motivation are of vital importance. They essentially include two major features in the processes of teaching and learning English. The first is that some teachers feel it vital to assert their dominant power in the classroom. In other words, they feel they need to be absolutely certain with regard to what to do in the classroom and how to deal with student behavior in every context. In contrast, other teachers have identified three important issues in education: 'The first is motivation, the second one is motivation and the third is motivation' (Swales, 2000). Certainly all teachers would agree that motivation is a significant factor in effective linguistic performance, which is considered the target of teaching a foreign language.

Motivation is considered to refer to self-confidence, enthusiasm, and the desire to understand and develop skills. It also stimulates behavior. The question arises as to whether motivation can be learnt and taught; that is, whether it is, at least in part, the responsibility of educators.

Empirical research in psychology indicates that there are two general types of motivation: extrinsic and intrinsic. Extrinsic motivation is a consequence of "external rewards and pressures" (Brown et al., 1998, p. 16). In other words, students learn due to external rewards like grades or prizes from parents or the desire to study abroad. In contrast, intrinsic motivation is dependent on personal goals and interests. In this case, students want to learn due to their natural interests and satisfaction. Intrinsic motivation can be enhanced by interesting materials offered by the teacher. In general, extrinsic motivation is "the-need-to-learn" while intrinsic motivation is "the-want-to-learn" (Mezei, 2008). Motivation is closely related to self-control. It is generally believed that control is closely related to issues of discipline and punishment. As far as self-control is concerned, many teachers are accustomed to feeling it important to be dominant in the classroom in order to cope with "situations" that arise. Controlling is a classroom management technique that enables teachers to effectively manage their classes - especially large ones. Much attention has recently been paid to the fact that many teachers, tired of classroom dominance, have decided to switch roles with their students. Specifically, they are creating learning conditions whereby the students, themselves, assume a dominant role in learning English, with the teacher empowering them in the capacity of "language facilitator". In realizing that revolutionary "role-reversal", it is vitally important to help students develop self-control, which in turn may lead to self-regulated learning.

Self-regulated learning refers to the processes by which students attempt to monitor and control their own learning. There are many different models of self-regulated learning that propose different constructs and processes. However, these models do, in fact, share some basic assumptions about learning and regulation (Mezei, 2008).

According to Gabriella Mezei (2008), the most important models are the following three. "The first model considers learners as active constructive participants in the learning process. The second supposes that learners can potentially monitor, control, and regulate certain aspects of their own cognition, motivation, and behavior. The third general assumption that is made in these models of self-regulated learning is the goal. All models of regulation assume that there is some type against which comparisons are made in order to assess whether the process should continue as is or if some type of change is necessary. That is a general example for learning which assumes that individuals can set standards or goals to strive for in their learning, monitor their progress toward these goals, and then adapt and regulate their cognition, motivation, and behavior in order to reach their goals" (Mezei, 2008).

This paper follows the third model as it is clear that self-regulated learning is initiated by motivation. In this paper, self-regulated learning is treated as an active, constructive process whereby learners set goals for their learning and then attempt to monitor, regulate, and control them, guided and constrained by their own goals. The course presented in this paper was specifically designed to help learners self-regulate their learning, with the result that, different aspects of motivation were observed to have developed.

Learners can use different strategies to help them remember, understand, reason, and solve problems. Much work is devoted to the learning of these strategies, which students can use in academic contexts to comprehend text, to learn from lectures, to take notes, to solve math problems, and to write papers. In addition, considerable research has centered on strategies that learners can use to plan, monitor, and control their own learning process, indicating that the stronger the motivation is, the better the learning results are. Different motivational orientations refer to different types of motivation. Critically, an orientation on "the process" and on "the result" correspond to intrinsic motivation, whereas orientation on "teachers' assessment" and on "avoiding failure" are related to extrinsic motivation. In general, good self-regulating learners use a number of different strategies to control their cognition in ways that help them reach their goals.

Motivation includes the various strategies that individuals can use to try to control and regulate their own motivation and emotions. This can include strategies for boosting their self-confidence such as positive self-talk ("I know I can do this task") as well as strategies for trying to control their interest (e.g., making the task more interesting by making use of interesting materials, texts, cases).

Self-control is a "learning determinant" since it is closely related to motivation and involves learners' abilities to acquire the second language.

Especially important are actual attempts to control motivational beliefs and emotions. This could involve increasing or decreasing effort on a task, as well as persisting on a task or giving up. Not only does motivation boost self-control, but self-control influences motivation as well. Help-seeking behavior is another important self-regulatory behavior. Good self-regulators usually adjust their effort levels to the task and their goals.

Such factors as self-esteem, self-control and motivation that can influence the development of self-regulation provide a solid foundation for self-regulated learning. Self-regulated learning is also time-consuming and quite difficult for some students. It is important that students are motivated to be self-regulating. Research of Paul R. Pintrich (1999) on the role of motivation in self-regulated learning has suggested three important generalizations about the relationships among motivation, self-control, self-esteem and self-regulated learning. First, students must feel self-efficacious or confident that they can do the tasks. If they feel they can accomplish the academic tasks, then they are much more likely to use various self-regulation strategies. Second, students must be interested in and value the educational tasks. Finally, students who are focused on goals of learning, understanding, and self-improvement are much more likely to be self-regulating than students who are pursuing other goals such as trying to look smarter than others or trying not to look stupid.

The research shows that motivation and self-control are closely related to self-esteem. Only when you can control your cognition can you assess it. Students must assess not only their performance but also their abilities to fulfill different tasks. Self-control helps in planning the action, foreseeing it and assessing it. All told, self-regulated learning is an important aspect of learning and achievement in academic contexts. Students who are self-regulating are much more likely to be successful in school; they want to learn more and achieve higher levels of performance.

Self-control, self-esteem and self-regulated learning cannot develop on the basis of “trial and error”. There are models and strategies which help students to become self-regulated learners. Most models of self-regulating strategies include three general types of strategies: planning, controlling and assessing, and regulating (see, for example, Corno, 1986; Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1986, 1988.) Although these three types of strategies are highly related conceptually (Pintrich et al., 1999) and (e.g., Pintrich, 1989; Pintrich et al., 1993) and seem to be highly correlated empirically, they can be discussed separately as follows.

Planning activities include setting goals for studying, for example, skimming a text before reading, generating questions before reading a text, and doing a task analysis of the problem. These activities seem to help the learner plan and control their use of cognitive strategies and also seem to activate aspects of prior knowledge, making the organization and comprehension of the material much easier.

Controlling and assessing of one’s thinking and academic behavior is an essential aspect of self-regulated learning. In order to be self-regulating, there must be some goal or standard against which comparisons are made in order to guide controlling and assessing. Weinstein and Mayer (1986) understand cognitive activities as partly the monitoring of comprehension, where students check their understanding against some self-set goal. Self-controlling and self-assessing include the tracking of attention while reading a text or listening to a lecture, self-testing through the use of questions about the text material to check for understanding, monitoring comprehension of a lecture and using test-taking strategies in examination situations.

Regulation strategies are closely tied to self-controlling and self-assessing strategies. As students monitor their learning and performance against some goal or criterion, this monitoring process suggests the need for regulation processes to bring behavior back in line with the goal. Self-control in its final part is always partly self-esteem. Self-esteem in its turn develops on the basis of self-control and at the same time it motivates the latter. It is clear that self-control and self-esteem can exist only together, influencing each other. If we consider reading, it is necessary for learners to ask themselves questions as they read in order to monitor their comprehension, and then go back and reread a portion of the text because this rereading is a regulatory strategy. Another type of self-regulatory strategy for reading occurs when a student slows the pace of their reading when confronted with more difficult or less familiar text. Of course, reviewing any aspect of course material that a student does not remember or understand that well while studying for an examination reflects a general self-regulatory strategy. During a test, skipping questions and returning to them later is another strategy that students can use to regulate their reading. All these strategies are assumed by this research to improve learning by helping students correct their studying behavior and repair deficits in their understanding.

Self-regulated learning is a process that assists students in managing their thoughts, behaviors, and emotions in order to successfully navigate their learning experiences. This process occurs when a student’s purposeful actions and processes are directed towards the acquisition of information or skills. Generally, models of self-regulated learning are separated into phases. There is one model which discusses three distinct phases: forethought and planning, performance monitoring, and reflections on performance (Pintrich & Zusho, 2002; Zimmerman, 2000). We based our research on this model. During the *forethought and planning* phase, students analyze the learning task and set specific goals toward completing that task. When students learn unfamiliar topics, however, they may not know the best ways to approach the task or what goals might be the most appropriate. Students are instructed on effective approaches in difficult cases.

Next, in the *performance monitoring* phase, students employ strategies to make progress on the learning task and monitor the effectiveness of those strategies as well as their motivation for continuing progress toward the goals of the task.

In the final *reflection on performance* phase, students evaluate their performance on the learning task with respect to the effectiveness of the strategies that they chose. During this stage, students also manage their emotions about the outcomes of the learning experience. These self-reflections then influence students' future planning and goals, initiating the cycle to begin again (Pintrich & Zusho, 2002; Zimmerman, 2000).

Key studies that have been selected for this research are relevant to the topic of this paper; they problematize the main issues, help to build an argument and likely enable people to understand the topic of this paper. The study follows the approach of self-regulated learning which is methodologically relevant to this paper.

The present experiment was specifically designed to answer this study's research question: whether self-control, motivation and self-esteem influence the course of learning English.

60 first-year students attending the Higher School of Economics in Moscow, Russian Federation participated in this experiment. Their level of language proficiency ranged from A2 to B2 according to the Common European Framework of Reference. The procedure, which employed a classic pre-/post- test sequence, involved three stages. The first stage consisted of a "pre-test" aimed at establishing participants' self-regulatory skill baseline. The second stage of the experiment consisted of a "special" English training course aimed at promoting the development of self-regulatory skills in students. The third stage consisted of a "post-test" of self-regulatory skills necessary for skill level comparison before and after the training course.

In the first stage of the experiment, a questionnaire was administered to ascertain the students' baseline self-control, self-esteem and motivation levels. A small subset of this research focuses on self-control.

Table 1
Self-control

Students	Levels of self-control			
	I	II	III	IV
Number	-	30	15	15

According to (Zimneya, 1989), there are four levels of self-control in the learning of a foreign language. At the first level, the student who makes a mistake doesn't hear it. At the second level, the student doesn't correct his mistake himself but does so if the teacher shows him his mistake. At the third level, the student either makes no mistakes or corrects his mistakes himself. Lastly, at the fourth level, the student makes no mistakes.

In the pre-test phase of the experiment, students were asked to produce three oral and three written texts. The information we obtained is extremely useful for analyzing not only levels of self-control but also the learning characteristics of students as they potentially influence such individual characteristics as motivation and self-esteem (see Table 1).

The second pre-test subset focuses on motivation. The students completed a test in which they were asked about their interests and motivational orientations. They were given four response options to the following question: Which aspect of the foreign language learning process is most important to you? (a) the process of learning, (b) the result of learning, (c) the teacher's assessment, (d) avoiding failure.

The results of the experiment showed that the predominant orientation was on the result and avoidance of failure (refer to Table 2).

The third subset focused on self-esteem. At this stage of the experiment the students were administered the questionnaire. The results obtained, listed in Table 3, were used to determine students' self-esteem (Osnitskiy, 1986).

According to the information given in Table 3, we observed that 32% of the students relied on their own self-esteem while 25% thought that the marks they get correspond to their actual results. Most students (46%) reported that their skills are adequately assessed, and, most important to students (32%) is the way in which they assess their work themselves.

Having carried out these sets of experiments, a syllabus for the 1st year students was designed. We did not focus solely on the development of the four traditional language skills, but instead concentrated on the implementation of competence-based teaching - the second stage of the experiment.

This specially-designed course was simply titled "English" and was described as an intermediate-level English for Special Academic Purposes (ESAP) course.

Table 2
Number of Students by Motivational Orientation

Number of students	Motivational orientations
16	Process
12	Result
14	Assessment of the teacher
18	The avoidance of failure

The course, which spanned two terms, consisted of 96 reading hours.

In planning the course we had to deal with several problems. One of the biggest was that not all pupils in Russian schools pass the Unified State Exam in English, and, consequently, are not equal in terms of general knowledge. For this reason, they were subdivided into two groups according English proficiency level. To assess students' proficiency levels, the Oxford placement test was employed. In addition, students with different levels of self-control and self-esteem were in the same group. We therefore had to consider motivational aspects as well.

The course syllabus had been set in advance, independently of taking it and before students enrolled the course. The aim of the course was to enable students to develop competence in "English for Special Academic Purposes" and to raise their awareness of the possible role of English in their current and future learning and life. More specifically, the course was designed to enable an understanding of the role of English in modern life, to develop competence in using English in academic and professional environments, and to develop students' ability to monitor the effectiveness of their use of English (2). Our course had units devoted to General English and English for Economics (ESAP). By studying General English, students are meant to develop the four traditional language skills. The ESAP units provided students with Economics vocabulary, helping students to understand the language of specialty.

To achieve good academic results, a communicative integrated course was developed. It was based on cognitive aspects which favored comprehension and production of academic texts in the field of Economics. The students practiced speaking skills throughout the course. They were taught to give opinions and draw conclusions from selectede texts. The students were taught to write essays related to Economics, to plan their ideas and structure them, to read Economics journal articles in such a way as to identify the most newsworthy information (Swales, 2000). Students' auditory skills were developed by having them listen to different recordings. The students were asked to take notes in order to infer the meaning of unknown words from their context and to identify key words and main ideas stated in the text. Finally, reading was practiced through working on various types of texts in order to recognize connectors to distinguish relevant information and to identify general concepts.

Units devoted to Economics themes provided students with a wide range of vocabulary relevant to

Table 3
Results Used to Determine Students' Self-esteem

Questions	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV
Comparing the marks you get with your self-esteem, what do you do?				
- Agree	6	5	6	8
- Don't agree insisting on your own opinion	4	6	7	7
- Don't pay attention to these marks	5	4	2	-
When are you satisfied?				
- Being overestimated	5	4	3	2
- Being underestimated	10	11	12	13
- Being estimated adequately				
Who do you think can estimate you better?				
- The teacher	9	8	6	3
- You yourself	6	7	8	9
- Your friends			1	3
What is more important for you?				
- The way you assess yourself	8	7	9	8
- The way other people assess you	7	8	6	7

their future professional interests (Gilbert Maceda, 1991).

As far as Academic English is concerned, students were required to produce several assignments using Academic English. The most evident skills students to acquire were scanning, skimming, finding information, finding evidence to support claims in essays, interviewing, analyzing questionnaires, doing surveys and evaluating evidence. The aforementioned skills were new to the students, and it is clear from our results that more emphasis should be placed on them.

Results

Pre-Test

For the "pre-test", the students were subdivided into four subgroups according to their level of self-control. The fourth group consisted of 15 students with "developed self-control", 8 students with a motivational orientation on "result", and 6 with a motivational orientation on "avoiding failure". 10 students appeared to have self-esteem oriented on "teachers' assessment", with the marks they get corresponding to their real results. Five students relied on their self-esteem, and one demonstrated a motivational orientation on the process.

The 3rd group consisted of 15 students with the 3rd level of self-control and 10 students with motivational orientation on teacher's assessment. Furthermore, 5 had motivational orientation on avoiding failure, 9 students think that their teacher can estimate them better, and 6 think that their own estimation is the most important.

The 2nd group consisted of 15 students with the 2nd level of self-control and 8 students oriented on the process. Moreover, 4 were oriented on the teachers' assessment, 3 on avoiding the failure, 5 with no regard for the teachers' assessment, and 10 who always agree with the teachers' assessment.

The 1st group consisted of 15 students with the 2nd level of self-control. 7 students were orientated on the process, 4 on avoiding the failure, and 4 on the result.

There were no students with the 1st level of self-control.

According to the results we obtained, it became clear that the relationship between self-control and self-esteem and motivational orientations is significant (r = 0.78, p; r = 0.65, p).

High levels of self-control correspond to the motivational orientations on "Result", or to the development of adequate self-esteem. In contrast, low-levels of self-control correspond to the motivational orientation on teacher's assessment; that is, to inadequate levels of self-esteem (r = 0.76, p; r = 0.79, p).

Post-Test

At the conclusion of the ESAP course the "post-test", consisting of the same battery of tests as in the "pre-test", was administered. The obtained results are shown in Table 4.

The results of this phase of the experiment show that, although the number of students in the 2nd group decreased by 10 students, the number increased in the 3rd group by 5 students and in the 4th group by 5 students.

As shown in Table 5, the results of the experiment show that the predominant orientation on "Result" increased by 16 students, the orientation on "the process" decreased by four students, the orientation on "teacher's assessment" decreased by four students, and the orientation on "avoidance of failure" decreased by eight students.

The results obtained in Table 6 show that the number of students who like being overestimated decreased by 7, and the number of students who rely on the teacher's assessment decreased by 8. The number of students who rely on the way they assess themselves increased by 7.

Considering the results of the "pre-test" and "post-test", we are tempted to postulate that, in accordance with our initial assumption, those students with a high-level of self-control showed better communicative competence.

The ESAP course was based on a functional and interactive perspective on the nature of the English language. It sought to teach language in relation

Table 4
Self-control

Students	Levels of self-control			
	I	II	III	IV
	-	20	20	20

Table 5
Number of Students by Motivational Orientation

Number of students	Motivational orientations
12	Process
28	Result
10	Teacher's assessment
10	The avoidance of failure

Table 6.
Self-esteem

Questions	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV
Comparing the marks you get with your self-esteem, what do you do?				
- Agree	4	3	4	4
- Don't agree insisting on your own opinion	9	10	11	1
- Don't pay attention to these marks	1	2	-	-
When are you satisfied?				
- Being overestimated	3	3	1	-
- Being underestimated	-	-	-	-
- Being estimated adequately	12	12	14	15
Who do you think can estimate your better?				
- The teacher	7	5	4	2
- You yourself	8	10	11	13
- Your friends	-	-	-	-
What is more important for you?				
- The way you assess yourself	8	9	10	12
- The way other people assess you	7	6	5	3

to the social contexts in which it is used. In this case, students were required to learn academic English, which was believed to be of use to students' professional development. Students were required to produce several assignments using Academic English at the end of the course consisting of oral presentations and written tasks. There are two reasons why competence-based language education was used. The first is that competence-based language education is an excellent method for validating the achievement of basic skills. The second is that competency-based language education, well-executed, practically ensures a correlation among self-control, self-esteem, and motivational orientations ($r = 58$, $p < 0.1$).

All in all, the experiment showed that during the ESAP course students manifested strong relationships among self-control, self-esteem and motivational-orientations. However, those students with low marks on the results of the test did not pass the course with the same results as the students with good marks. Their results were lower. Clearly, students with better communicative competence obtained, on average, the best results on the final test. Nevertheless, a correlation between students with low marks as well as good marks and their motivational orientations, self-control and self-esteem has also been found ($r = 67$, $p < 0.1$).

Research shows that self-regulated students are more engaged in their learning, are more self-motivated and can positively influence their academic behavior and educational goals.

Discussion and Conclusion

Theoretical assumptions that self-control, self-esteem and motivation affect students' learning behavior have been supported by empirical research. The goal of this paper was to determine whether the variables of self-control, motivation and self-esteem are in any way related to the development of students' communicative competence. The reviewed studies also provide implications for future work. Students' ability to actively engage with the learning material, for example, setting appropriate goals, accurately monitoring their understanding and work, are critical competencies that should be a central aim within the education sector as a whole (OESD, PISA leaning for Tomorrow's World). Despite the importance of these processes, teachers rarely pay attention to them, with the result that they are not integrated into the high school foreign language classroom. However, the above-mentioned studies and the one herein presented provide ample evidence that self-control, motivation and self-esteem tend to elevate student communicative competence.

In sum, the results of our study indicate that self-regulation skills were developed during the specially designed English training course and positively influenced students' language acquisition in the investigated context. The study identified how self-control, self-esteem and motivation affected language awareness and the extent to which students 'self-regulation skills changed. Going forward, it would be interesting to explore how good self-regulators adjust their effort levels in light of language task difficulty and personal learning goals. And when pushed to the limit, we are also curious to know what patterns of task persistence and abandonment might be observed as a function of learner self-regulation.

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Appendix A

Mathematical Statistics

The coefficient of correlation according to Spirent /SRANK; SYSTEM/360 SSP-III; IBM

With the help of these programs the correlation between 2 vectors taking into account n-cases was checked/ the cases for each variable ranged from 1 to n /. It was necessary to calculate the differences of ranges.

$$[(D = \sum_{i-1}^{n} (A)]_i - B_i)$$

A_i – is the 1st vector of ranges, B_i – is the 2nd vector of ranges, n – the number of ranges.

Then the correlation multiplier is calculated:

$$T_a = \sum \frac{t^2 - t}{12}$$

For variable A

$$T_b = \sum \frac{t^2 - t}{12}$$

For variable B

Then the correlation coefficient is:

$$r_S = 1 - \frac{6D}{n^3 - n}, \; T_a \text{ or } T_b = 0$$

$$r_S = \frac{x + y - D}{2\sqrt{xy}}, \; T_a \text{ or } T_b = 0$$

Where

$$x = \frac{n^3 - n}{12} - T_a$$

$$y = \frac{n^3 - n}{12} - T_b$$

Meaningfulness $r_S = t = r_S \sqrt{\frac{n-2}{1 - r_S^2}}$

The calculations were carried out according to “Mathematical Statistics”, Moscow, Dlin, Higher School, 1975, pp. 128-150.

Adequacy of all results was calculated according to CHISQ/System/ 360, Scientific Subroutine Package, Ver. III IBM (126).

x^2 was calculated according to “Mathematical Methods in Social Sciences, P. Lazarfeld and N. Henry, 1973, Moscow, Progress (349).

The degrees of freedom are:

$$d \bullet f = (n-1)(m-1)$$

The following sums were calculated:

$$T_i = \sum_{j=1}^{m} A_{ij} \; , \; i = 1, n$$

$$T_i = \sum_{i=1}^{m} A_{ij} \; , \; i = 1, m$$

$$GT = \sum_{i=1}^{n} T_i$$

x^2 is calculated for 2 cases:

1. $x^2 = \dfrac{GT(\dfrac{\frac{1}{2}A_{22}}{A_{11}A_{12}} - \dfrac{\frac{A_{12}A_{21}}{GT}}{2})}{(A_{11}+A_{12})(A_{21}+A_{22})(A_{11}+A_{11})(A_{12}+A_{22})}$ for table 2x2

2. $x^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n}\sum_{j=1}^{n} \dfrac{(A_{ij} - E_{ij})}{E_{ij}}$, for the tables larger 2 in size $E_{i,j} = \dfrac{T_i T_j}{GT}$

The number got with the help of this equation corresponds to the validity coefficient of the data discussed in the research is equal to or more 95% /$P \leqslant 0.05$/.

Chupryna, O. (2015). The Last Word on Words. Lectures on English Lexicology. Morozova Nataliya. Moscow: University book, 2010. 178 p. ISBN 978-5-91304-152-4. *Journal of Language and Education, 1*(2), 65. doi:10.17323/2411-7390-2015-1-2-65

The Last Word on Words. Lectures on English Lexicology. Morozova Nataliya. Moscow: University Book, 2010. 178 p. ISBN 978-5-91304-152-4

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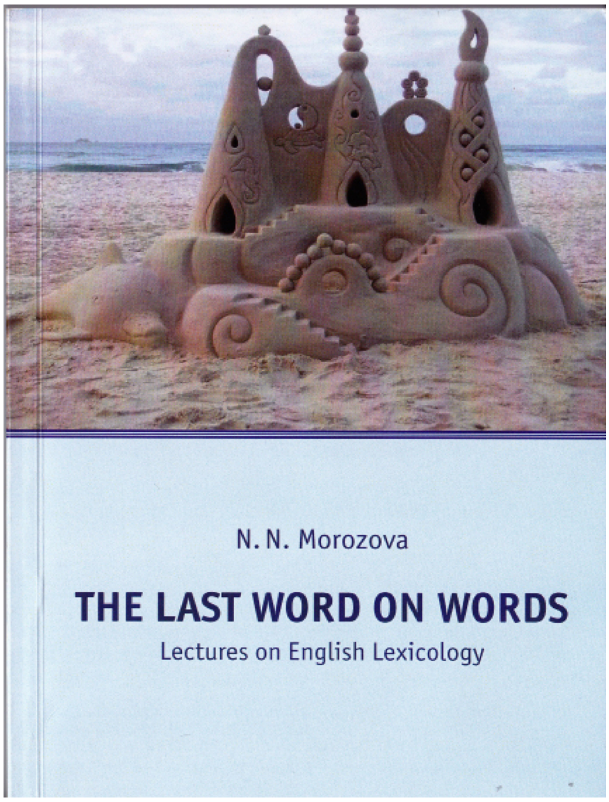
The book under review is based upon the course of lectures delivered by the author for a number of years. It is an information-packed and up-to-date survey of the problems crucial to the understanding of what the modern English lexis is. It has a remarkable advantage over other books on English lexicology available now because its structure and the way the main issues are discussed fit in with the modern paradigm of linguistic knowledge.

Unlike most books on lexicology, "The Last Word On Words" does not begin with the notions of the linguistic sign and kinds of linguistic meaning, but introduces the readers to the pragmatic function of language and describes it in terms of idiolect, dialect and discourse. It stresses the importance of lexicology knowledge for efficient communication and helps students understand the link between language as a sign system and speech as the ocean of various language occurrences.

Everything that is dealt with in the book is well structured and its parts go well together. The book comprises fourteen lectures which fall into seven parts which cover different subjects in English lexicology. The content is presented concisely. There are no tedious explanations. The text relies on clear examples to highlight the issues described. Each part is supplied with a list of suggested reading which contains additional resources including Internet resources.

I particularly appreciate the part devoted to metaphor and metonymy. It is an informative step-by-step approach to revealing both cognitive and linguistic nature of these phenomena. Explanation is lucid and there are brilliant examples borrowed from various types of contemporary discourse.



Overall, the book is well thought-out and usefully organized, with a highly readable presentation and carefully chosen examples to introduce and illustrate the major concepts. No doubt, it is of great benefit to students of the English language.

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