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Editorial

Welcome to the first issue of the Journal of Language and Education (JLE) – the journal that focuses on original high-quality research in the realm of linguistic science, encompassing facilitation of the theoretical foundations. The Journal is intended as a fine-drawn forum for practitioners and researchers to share scientific debates about the significance and replicability of linguistic and education phenomena, to identify new issues and to shape future directions for research. The articles range from research-based work to personal experience of implementing a language course. The journal addresses academics and professionals interested in innovations in phonetics, lexis, grammar, interdisciplinary linguistic studies and theory and practice of teaching languages. The editorial team has put significant effort into this venture that keeps linguistics interconnected with other disciplines and brings together such thematic areas as psycholinguistics, communication gap, language and speech, mental health treatment, and cognitive processes.

The opening article “Investigating the Gap between L2 Grammar Textbooks and Authentic Speech: Corpus-Based Comparisons of Reported Speech” by Kevin Cancellaro is devoted to Corpus Linguistics (CL) and its applications for second language acquisition (SLA) in the recent years. CL can be used in many ways when developing language materials, from using collocations to assist in vocabulary learning to expanding the list of grammatical patterns that are taught through analysis of spoken and written texts. The proposed research examines new corpora and revised textbooks to measure the degree of change that has occurred since 2007, thereby seeking to replicate the results of a more general review on the same topic done by Khojasteh and Shakrpour (2014).

The paper “EST for EMI: The Problem-Based Learning Approach to Domain-Specific Fluency” by Sharon Hannigan states that inadequate English

proficiency on the part of the students, the teacher, or both can greatly diminish the likelihood of EMI course success. The author focuses on four modules each consisting of three weeks (one week = two classes of 1.5 hours or more), with each module organized around a “big” problem in science or technology. The research suggests that Problem-Based Learning (PBL) approaches to language education should be based on the acquisition of general competences thought vital for in the 21st century.

Tatiana Skopintseva’s paper “Looking for an EIL Pronunciation Standard: A Literature Review and Classroom Experience from the Russian L1 Perspective” establishes the identification of language units essential to the intelligibility of communication of non-native English speakers (NNESs) in international settings, or English as an international language (EIL) communication. The paper focuses on the extensive research and classroom data related to NNES (Russian) and NES (Standard British and Standard American) pronunciation and identified key segmental and suprasegmental elements crucial for intelligibility, in terms of both rhetorical and sociocultural competence of NNES oral performance in EIL communication in academic settings.

In “Language, Task and Situation: Authenticity in the Classroom” Ken Beatty studies the use of authenticity in language classrooms in terms of language, task, and situation. All the findings in this article further our understanding of teachers’ awareness of authenticity and suggest ways to incorporate authentic language, tasks, and situations to enhance classroom learning. The overview of definitions revealed a need for further research into the notions of authenticity and any discussion with a concern for the learners’ needs and how we can best address those needs.

Elena Velikaya examines topical issues for a particular teacher professional development context in a university in Moscow. She explains the need for

teacher training seminars as a need for new teaching skills and looks at various areas of teacher development at university level, such as teaching portfolio, collaboration, teacher study groups, workshops, and research seminars some of which are not widely spread in the Russian context. She provides teachers' needs analysis as a result of a survey in which her colleagues participated. The author concludes making suggestions on how to make professional teacher development a continuous process.

In her article "On the Conceptual Basis of the English Adjectival Category" Marina Antonova investigates issues of the cognitive foundation of English adjectives that denote mental characteristics of human beings. The overview of previous research shows that the category of adjectives denoting mental properties is structured by image schematic and metaphorical cognitive models. The obtained results open fascinating perspectives for further research on the analysis of deep conceptual structures underlying the semantics of English adjectives

In "Russian Students' Associative View of Germans," Vasiliy Glushak looks at issues arising from the semantic forms of the association field 'German' in the linguistic consciousness of Russian students. The author shows how to systematize Russian stereotypical ideas of Germans through a word association experiment and to determine how stable these ideas are in the consciousness of today's speakers (the last decade of the 20th and the first years of

the 21st century). The obtained figures and results reflected that Germans as a nation are predominantly positively or neutrally perceived in current Russian student society.

The review "Current Trends in the Development of Psycholinguistics in Russia" by Valeria Aivazova considers the variety of functions of a given language in society, its close relationship with communication, and a person's mental activity all conspire to determine the very flexible interaction of linguistics with corresponding social and psychological sciences. The author interpreted complex correlations between speech and consciousness as well as between a language and cognition; reflected the clues for the notion of asymmetry in the analysis of subtler phenomena such as self-presentation of the speaking subject, speech mask, and virtual identity.

We really appreciate all the authors' contribution and would like to thank them for the quality papers they submitted to Issue 1 of Volume 1. As our readers observe the scenes representative of the various approaches, issues, and practices, they will notice that the scholars use a number of practical, tried-and-true techniques that can actually be applied.

We hope to continue promoting the publication of well-written, intelligent syntheses of topics with broad appeal: it is intended that new scholars from areas not frequently part of the English language science discourse will find a place.

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Investigating the Gap between L2 Grammar Textbooks and Authentic Speech: Corpus-Based Comparisons of Reported Speech

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Corpus Linguistics (CL) has made significant inroads into the field of second language acquisition (SLA) and pedagogy. As more corpora have become available, researchers and teachers alike have begun to realize the importance of empirically testing ideas that have long been taken for granted and accepted as fact. This is especially true for grammar textbooks written for second language (L2) learners. Do the textbooks that are being used reflect real world grammatical usage? The current study is the first of two in which three corpora were used to examine real world usage of reported speech (RS) as compared to typical presentations of RS in popular L2 grammar U.S. textbooks as they existed in and up to the year 2007. Results show that indirect reported speech (IRS), direct reported speech (DRS) and alternative forms of RS constructions in combination are not only frequent in spoken English but also dependent on register and context. Further, simplifying RS explanations in terms of backshifting with the use of a past tense main reporting verb may be providing inaccurate information to L2 learners of American English. Results generally support, with some exceptions, the findings in previous studies which employed corpus-based analysis to study the relevance of EFL/ESL textbooks (Al-Wossabi, 2014; Barbieri & Eckhardt, 2007; Khojasteh & Shahrpour, 2014; Šegedin, 2008). A forthcoming study will examine new corpora and revised textbooks to measure the degree of change that has occurred since 2007, thereby seeking to replicate the results of a more general review on the same topic done by Khojasteh and Shahrpour (2014).

Keywords: Corpus Linguistics, second language acquisition, indirect reported speech, direct reported speech, alternative forms of reported speech, backshifting, corpus-based analysis

There has been a lot of interest in Corpus Linguistics (CL) and its applications for second language acquisition (SLA) in recent years, and many studies have recommended using corpus-based findings to provide accurate content for prescriptive English grammar textbooks (Biber & Reppen, 2002; Conrad, 1999; 2000; Carter & McCarthy, 1995; Frazier, 2003; Harwood, 2005; Kennedy, 2002; Lawson, 2001; Romer, 2010). Once thought of as only the domain of those interested in purely linguistic investigation, it is now seen as a useful tool for language teachers and SLA researchers for examining exactly how the language works in the real world. For language teachers in particular, this strand of research has

important implications. CL can be used in many ways when developing language materials, from using collocations to assist in vocabulary learning to expanding the list of grammatical constructions that are taught through analysis of spoken and written texts. Many teachers of English as a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL) have long noticed the gap between the material that they see in many textbooks and what is actually used by the English speaking populace. CL can be incorporated into English language teaching material development as well as in the classroom, and there has been increasing acknowledgment that this is not only desirable but necessary. Using CL to gather empirical evidence

about construction frequency, register, and discourse context, ESL/EFL materials developers and teachers can then incorporate this important information into the classroom or textbook. Many programs across the country basically leave it up to the learner to decipher colloquial constructions and the contexts in which they are found because these constructions are almost never presented in language teaching materials.

Materials and Methods

One area where this is evident is with textbooks meant to teach grammar to second language (L2) learners. Several researchers have compared grammar descriptions that are presented in textbooks with real world language use (Al-Wossabi, 2014; Barbieri and Eckhardt, 2007; Biber and Reppen, 2002; Carter, 1998; Eckhardt, 2001; Frazier, 2003; Gilmore, 2004; Khojasteh & Shahrpour, 2014; Šegedin, 2008) and, all have noted that there is a large gap between the explanations and descriptions in textbooks and real world language use. They attribute this to several factors: 1) textbook material is not taken from empirical data about language use but rely on writer's intuition; 2) textbooks present grammatical constructions as equally generalizable and of equal communicative importance; 3) information concerning pragmatics, discourse context and register is ignored; 4) textbooks are based on written norms; 5) textbooks simplify the grammar for pedagogical purposes (Barbieri and Eckhardt, 2007; Biber and Reppen, 2002; Carter and McCarthy, 1995; Lawson, 2001). While simplifying grammar for pedagogical purposes is a worthy goal, the balance of simplification must be weighed against the difficulties students will have when confronted with real-world language use.

For one grammatical construction in particular, Reported Speech (RS), the weaknesses in instruction materials listed above can have a large effect on the ability of an L2 learner to acquire this construction in an accurate and natural way. The RS construction as it is described in most grammar textbooks is very complex and one that all learners find difficult to master. The first step in this process requires a student to understand how to use "question word", "yes/no", "that" and "command" noun clauses for which various changes occur depending on which is used. RS constructions are special types of noun clauses. Some types of RS, the types that are emphasized in many textbooks, require further changes such as backshifting and pronoun substitution. This adds complexity to an already complex construction. It is not the case that the RS construction is a rare one that can be ignored in any program of grammar study; on the contrary, it is very common in both written and spoken language. If

language teachers and students are required to spend the extensive time and effort needed to master RS, the grammar rules presented in textbooks should be based on empirical evidence about how RS is actually used in real world language.

An examination of five grammar textbooks (Bland, 1996; Eastwood, 1999; Elbaum, 2001; Fuchs and Bonner, 1995; Thewlis, 2001) and one textbook written for English language teachers (Parrot, 2000), which were in common use in 2007, show that there are some weaknesses in the presentation of RS and little or no consensus about a standard for teaching this construction. All the books focus on Indirect Reported Speech (IRS) and offer little instruction about the usage and possible forms of Direct Reported Speech (DRS). IRS is reported as being the spoken version of DRS. Verbs used to introduce RS are presented in the past tense, implying very strongly that the past tense is the preferred tense for this construction. Changing sentences from DRS to IRS by backshifting and pronoun change in for all forms of statements, and questions with IRS is the main focus, with command forms using the infinitive construction. Grammar Dimensions, one of the most popular textbooks for ESL learners describes reported speech in this way after briefly defining DRS and IRS:

Because we are describing something that has already occurred (speaking or thinking), we need to change the time frame of the verb phrases that we are reporting. (Thewlis, 2007, p. 402)

Parrot (2000), in his textbook for English teachers, supplies examples that are all in the past tense, without mentioning the various possible permutations that can occur for both DRS and IRS in different registers and contexts. Three textbooks mention that backshifting is not necessary when the main reporting verb is in the present, but offer no further information about when the reporting verb should be used in the present. None of the textbooks offer information about differing uses in pragmatic, discourse or register contexts. Alternative DRS constructions such as "to be like", "to be all" and "go" are not covered. The teachers instruction textbook does mention that DRS and IRS are both used in spoken English but offers the following assessment of alternative forms:

Learners may also come across common, very informal equivalents to said (*which we would very rarely need to teach*). (Parrot, 2001, p. 225) (Italics are mine).

It is odd, to say the least, that while admitting that alternative forms are common, Parrot implies that they should be taught only rarely. Several studies have employed CL to investigate the apparent gap between RS in real and textbook contexts (Al-Wossabi, 2014; Barbieri, 2005a; Barbieri, 2005b; Barbieri & Eckhardt, 2007; Blyth, Recktenwald and Wang, 1999; Eckardt,

2001; Gilmore, 2004; Khojasteh & Shakrpour, 2014; Šegedin, 2008). In the seminal study on this topic, Barbieri and Eckhardt (2007) examined both IRS and DRS in different registers and modes and came to some general conclusions which are worth briefly restating here.

1. It is not necessary or desirable to teach RS as a transformation mechanism from DRS to IRS.
2. IRS should be taught in conjunction with samples of newspaper writing, since it is much more frequent in newspaper writing than in casual conversation.
3. DRS should be taught in the context of casual conversation.
4. For IRS, teach past-past tense sequences but introduce other widely used sequences.
5. For less widely used sequences like past-present or present-present, point out discourse functions.
6. For DRS, teach the *say*, but also introduce alternatives like “to be like” and explain how they are different and the contexts in which they are used.

This study also raised the question of register and the alternative DRS “to be like” as they relate to the age of the speakers. This issue was not investigated, but it was generally stated that “to be like” appears to be expanding its influence in American English but is still restricted to speakers under the age of 40. In addition to this, the study did not examine the precise role that narrative discourse plays when using DRS in any form. Al-Wossabi (2014) comes to a similar conclusion in a study that targeted only EFL learners and focused on comparing only two sources: Oxford Pocket English Grammar (OPEG) and Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English (LGSWE), a grammar book based on corpus findings but does not itself directly examine corpora. Šegedin (2008) finds a similar pattern with EFL textbooks being used in Croatia in elementary and secondary schools. In order to ascertain whether the suggestions and results above merit further study and to shed light on register and DRS narrative discourse variations as they appear in real speech,

the current study examined three spoken corpora taken from transcripts of the TV shows *Friends* (909,000 words), *Frazier* (990,000 words) and from interviews (290,000 words) with jazz musicians from the documentary, *Jazz*. The age of the speakers varies from 20’s-30’s, late 30’s- 50’s and 60’s to 80’s respectively. Corpora were examined using Textstat.

Research Questions

1. How are IRS and DRS used in spoken English?
2. How common are alternative RS constructions? How are they used? (to be like, to be all, to go)
3. Are there register/context differences in usage of different RS constructions?

Results

In Table 1, we see the totals from the occurrences of the verbs *say* and *tell* in present tense and past tense for the three corpora (See Figure 1). The past tense main reporting verb *said* showed the highest frequency for all three corpora for IRS, although *say* was also used fairly frequently when compared to *said*. The jazz corpora showed nearly equal usage of both *said* and *say* as the main reporting verb, with *Frazier* and *Friends* showing about half and a third difference in usage between the two. The past tense reporting verb *told* was less frequently used than *said* in IRS in all three corpora. The present tense form shows a surprisingly high frequency, especially for the *Friend’s* corpora. An examination of the data showed that this was due to the extremely high frequency of the construction ‘Don’t tell me’ + embedded ‘that’ NP.

In most cases, the frequency of both verbs in both tenses was lower for DRS than for IRS especially for *said* (See Figure 2) and dramatically in the case of DRS *told* and *tell*. Interestingly, DRS *say* was as frequent as IRS *say* in the *Jazz* and *Friends* corpora and half as frequent as the *Frazier* corpus. Perhaps most interesting was the extremely high frequency of DRS *said* in the *Jazz* corpus. This corpus was a collection of interviews and, unlike the other two corpora, most

Table 1
IRS and DRS Totals for Say, Said, Tell and Told

	IRS	IRS	IRS	IRS	DRS	DRS	DRS	DRS
	TotSAID	TotSAY	TotTOLD	TotTELL	TotSAID	TotSAY	TotTOLD	TotTELL
<i>Frazier</i>	241	152	189	192	83	65	10	8
<i>Friends</i>	253	90	153	237	101	89	8	8
<i>Jazz</i>	85	72	30	42	514	95	14	10

Table 2
Alternative DRS Totals

	DRS be like	DRS be all	DRS go
Frazier	6	0	0
Friends	95	22	5
Jazz	22	2	0

of the speakers talked for long periods with very little turn taking. DRS *said* seems to be a feature of narrative discourse and not as commonly used in rapid turn taking style dialogues like those in the other corpora.

Alternative DRS constructions (See Figure 3) were used with the most frequency in the Friends corpus with *to be like* being the most frequent. While this confirms the idea that Alternative DRS forms are a feature of younger speakers, it also shows that this construction may be expanding in American English. The *to be like* construction was also used in the jazz corpus, whose participants were in the 60's to 80's age range. The DRS *go* was infrequent in all cases.

Another interesting finding was that of tense variation combinations between the main reporting IRS verb and the embedded verb (See Figure 4). For IRS, one rule that is constantly emphasized is that if the main reporting verb is in the past, the embedded clause's verb must be backshifted except for special cases. Although not mentioned often, as explained

above in the review of grammar textbooks, if the main reporting verb is in the present tense, no backshifting should take place. For IRS *Said*, this seems to be supported somewhat - but not completely - by the data. But for IRS *say*, it appears that this rule is not as reliable as once thought. In the Jazz corpus, instances of present-past combinations, which should really occur in IRS, outnumber the "correct" form of present-present. In the Frazier corpus, the same violation occurred at a fairly high 46 instances compared to 106 instances of the "correct" form. While the "still true" rule accounts for much of the data for IRS *said*, no such rule accounts for the present-past combination for IRS *say*, which seems to be showing properties of DRS where tense is free because the speech is quoted exactly.

Discussion and Conclusion

Several of the findings in this study contradict the suggestions of Barbieri and Eckhardt (2007), specifically the first three. The first suggestion, that it is not necessary or desirable to teach RS as a transformation mechanism from DRS to IRS, is not supported because of the frequency of both in spoken American English. The basic rule of DRS present tense to IRS past tense backshifting should be modified but not eliminated altogether, as this skill seems to be necessary in real world speech. The most common tense combinations

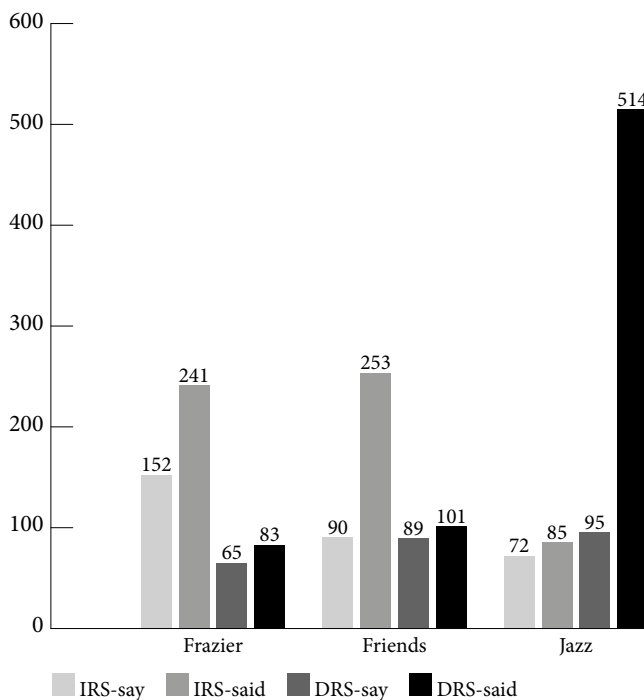


Figure 1. IRS, DRS, Say and Said.

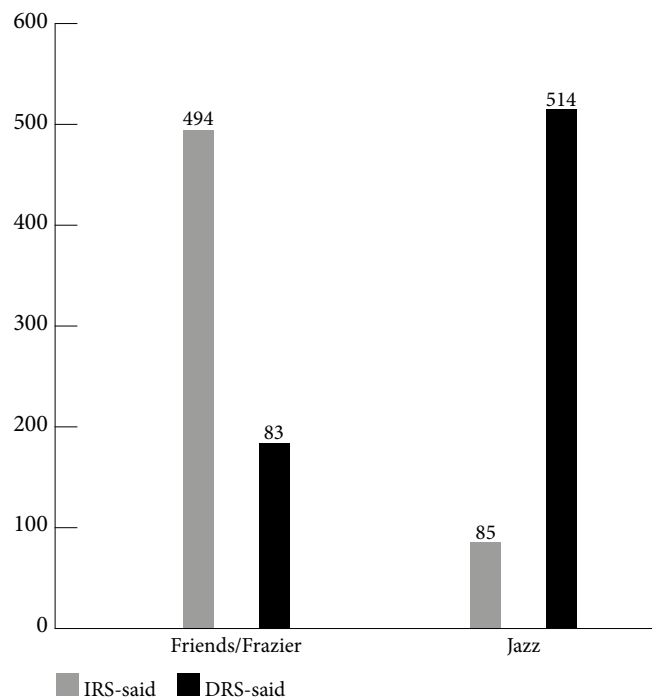


Figure 2. IRS and DRS Totals for Said.

should be taught and then followed by alternative tense combinations. The data in this study shows that the normal DRS to IRS backshifting when the IRS said is used is by far the most common of the tense combinations shown (See Figure 4).

Suggestion two, that IRS should be taught in conjunction with newspapers as it is more frequent in writing than in casual conversation, is not supported by the data in this study. While no direct comparison with written English was done, IRS in both present and past are clearly being used frequently in spoken English. The suggestion that DRS should be taught in the context of casual conversation should therefore also be adjusted. DRS is not the only construction speakers use to report speech in casual conversation according to the data collected in this study. It seems clear that speakers across registers and contexts use a complex variety of DRS, IRS and alternative DRS in various combinations. The reason why this is so is probably due to sociolinguistic or pragmatic factors that should be investigated further but are beyond the scope of this paper. However, the often near total absence of pragmatic information in prescriptive textbooks has been noted previously (Vallenga, 2004). Presenting DRS as the form that should be used in casual conversation would be just as misguided as present IRS past as the main form of reported speech. What seems apparent from the findings, here, is that DRS past is very common for narrative type discourse and not as common in regular conversation. This

narrative discourse function also seems to apply to a lesser degree to the *to be like* construction, as evidenced by its use by the speakers in the Jazz corpora. Even though the speakers in this corpora are at an age where this construction should not be used, there were instances of its use, perhaps showing its influence in narrative discourse across all registers.

Overall, the data collected here show a much more complicated picture of real world RS usage than is presented in textbooks for L2 learners and in previous studies. While it is true that grammar must be simplified to some extent to match the lower proficiency levels of L2 learners and to aid in comprehension and acquisition of new constructions, presenting information that is wrong (i.e., IRS is used for spoken English with a past tense reporting verb, DRS is for written English, backshifting applies to each case in a uniform way, alternative constructions should not be taught), is clearly bad and confusing for the students, who must take this partial knowledge and then adapt to the sometimes vastly different input that they encounter in the real world of language use.

With larger and larger spoken corpora that reflect many registers and discourse contexts coming online, empirical testing of spoken grammar norms as presented in grammar textbooks can soon reliably be undertaken for all grammatical constructions. It is highly likely that some new constructions can also be found that merit inclusion in the L2 grammar

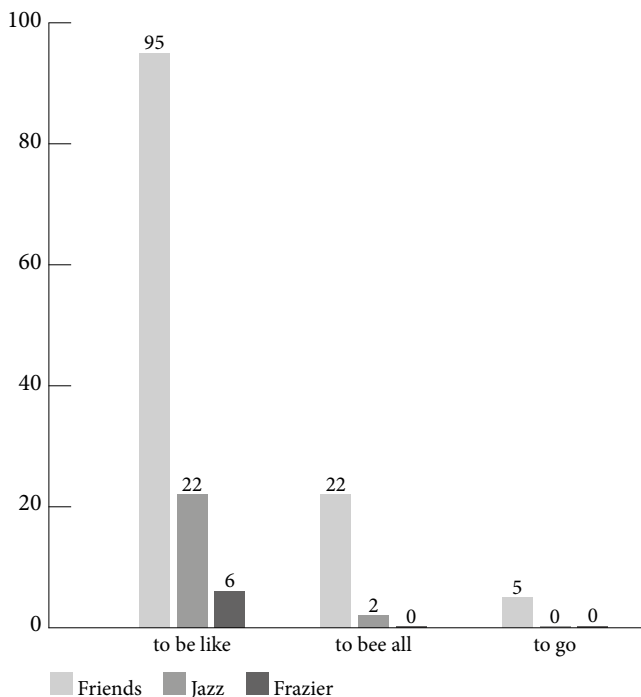


Figure 3. Alternative RS Construction Frequency.

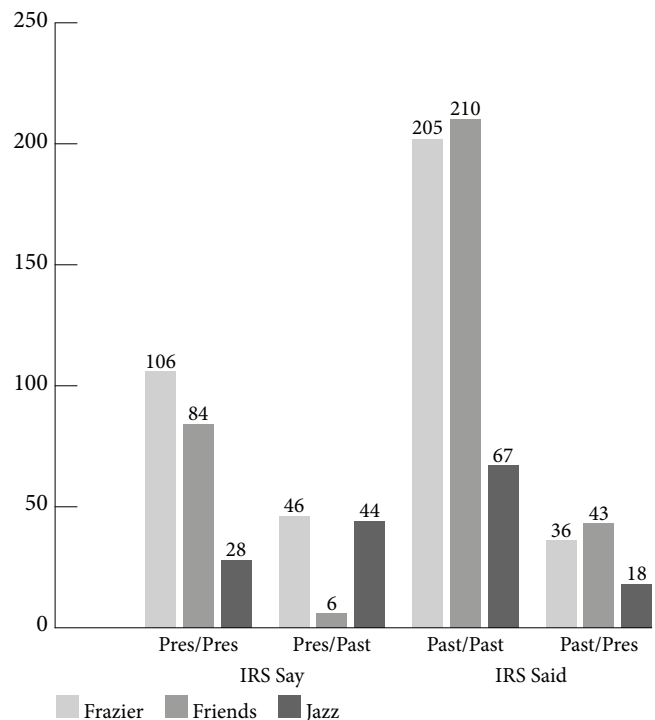


Figure 4. Tense Variations/Combinations for IRS Main and Embedded Verbs.

textbook. CL is clearly a tool that can directly impact the quality of SLA instruction and research now and in the future. In a forthcoming study, the number of corpora will be greatly expanded and current popular ESL/EFL grammar textbooks will be examined with the hope that publishers and developers will begin to incorporate more accurate and useful grammatical explanations in their textbooks.

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EST for EMI: A Problem-Based Learning Approach to Domain-Specific Fluency

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An English for Science and Technology (EST) course is offered as a potential bridge to English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in the sciences. Consisting of four modules, each organized around a “big problem” in science or technology, the course challenges students to collectively arrive at solutions through critical and creative thinking that ultimately finds expression in three modalities: verbal (e.g., expert panel discussions, debates) graphic (e.g., problem statements, action plans), and visual-spatial (e.g., graphs, models). It is suggested that Problem-Based Learning (PBL) approaches to language learning – especially ones propelled by critical thinking frameworks (e.g., SPRE) – not only ease the transition to science courses where English is the medium of instruction but promote the acquisition of general competencies thought vital to 21st century success.

Keywords: English for science and technology, problem-based learning, critical thinking

According to a recent British Council interim report (Dearden, 2014), English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI), by which so-called content subjects such as math and history are taught in English in settings where it is not the national or official language, is a burgeoning global phenomenon. On the strength of several findings, Dearden goes so far as to characterize the trend as an outright “shift from English being taught as a foreign language (EFL) to English being the medium of instruction (EMI) for academic subjects such as science, mathematics, geography and medicine” (Dearden, 2014, p. 2). This surge in EMI, in particular for STEM (i.e., science, technology, engineering, math) subjects (Langdon, McKittrick, Beede, Khan, & Doms, 2011), has recently been the focus of several professional language teaching forums and conferences (e.g., British Council Emerging Forum 4, 2014; ESP/EAP/EMI in the Context of Higher Education Internationalization, 2014) as EMI specialists grapple with the formidable challenges of their “dual pedagogical role”: that of facilitating, at

once, the acquisition of scientific content and foreign language (English) skills.

EMI and Internationalization

This author, a teacher of English for Science and Technology (EST) and EMI at the New Economic School (NES), counts herself among those coming to grips with the aforementioned “dual pedagogical role”. In an ongoing effort to “internationalize”, NES, a renowned institute of higher education in Moscow, has employed and hosted professors and lecturers from around the world. It has also vigorously engaged in the exchange of students, faculty, and ideas with affiliated foreign universities, laboratories, and think tanks and maintains a high profile at professional conferences and symposia both within and without Russia. From a cultural diversity standpoint surely this is an “embarrassment of riches”, with a multitude of nationalities, languages, and worldviews all united in the mission of furthering knowledge within the spheres of economics, finance and related disciplines.

But despite its unique (to Russia) global outreach and wealth of international human capital, the existence of linguistic communicative barriers between NES students - the vast majority of whom are Russian nationals - and their foreign English speaking instructors cannot be denied. This is especially true of students of low and intermediate English proficiency, who, understandably, struggle to keep pace with “supersaturated” lectures in specialized subjects (e.g., microeconomics, econometrics, etc.) delivered entirely in English. What is more, the language barrier may be further aggravated by non-native English speaking instructors, who, owing to questionable proficiency, sometimes fall short in their quest to transfer complex knowledge to their learners. The problem is by no means unique to NES – is, in fact, a universal theme that cuts across all schools, primary through graduate, seeking to “internationalize” through EMI while striving to maintain the highest possible standards of academic instruction (see Deardon, 2014).

From the above it is clear that inadequate English proficiency on the part of the students, the teacher, or both can greatly diminish the likelihood of EMI course success. And if left to simply run their course, to work themselves out over time, student-teacher language gaps carry the potential of undermining the academic objectives of even the most innovative and globally-minded of institutions, however noble its mission.

Materials and Methods

EST for EMI: Bridging the Language Gap

In response to this observation an EST course has been developed, one specifically designed to mitigate the language gap that exists in EMI courses between non-native English speaking students and their teachers. The EST course, which could be offered prior to or run concurrently with EMI courses, is meant to ease the transition to EMI courses through the systematic implementation of a problem-based learning (PBL) approach (Barbara, Groh, & Allen, 2001; Barrows, 1996; Merrill, 2002; Schmidt, 1983) to language learning driven by a four-stage critical thinking framework (CTF).

Many English programs worldwide currently revolve around communicative (Nunan, 1991), thematic (Nunan, 1999), and learner-centered (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Nunan, 1988) approaches to language acquisition, with teachers encouraged to assume the role of language facilitator. Beyond this, however, is the growing realization among practitioners that language instruction is perhaps most effective when

it calls upon students to perform meaningful tasks, solve real-world problems, or even contribute to their community via the target language. At the heart of task-, problem-, and community- based approaches lie critical thinking frameworks - from widely heralded Bloom’s Taxonomy (Bloom, Engelhart, Furst, Hill, & Krathwohl, 1956; Krathwohl, Bloom, & Masia, 1964) and revisions thereof (Anderson, Lorin & Krathwohl, 2000) to lesser known vehicles such as SPRE (i.e., situation, problem, response, evaluation; adapted from standard “problem-solution texts”) and CIFA (i.e., contemplate, investigate, formulate, activate) (Hannigan, in progress), among others - that serve to not only structure but propel cognition. CTF-driven PBL cannot be emphasized enough, as it promotes not only domain-specific fluency but also the development of cognitive competencies (e.g., critical, independent, and creative thinking skills) en route to advanced proficiency. In dynamic approaches such as this, English is generally seen as a vital means to a worthy end rather than as the end, itself – a view that many second language learners, at least anecdotally, find both useful and satisfying. In what follows the design details of this particular EST course (hereafter referred to as the “EST prototype”), including its profile, integral components and module progression, are described in turn.

EST for EMI Course Design Course Profile

The EST prototype herein presented is a domain-specific integrated skills course capable of addressing, with appropriate modifications, the language needs of students with CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference) proficiency levels of B1 through C2 (i.e., low intermediate through high advanced). Its overarching aim is to provide students with the academic and language skills they need for successful study or professional work in scientific contexts where English is the working language.

The EST prototype, taught by the author in the fall semester of 2014, was divided into four modules each consisting of three weeks (one week = two classes of 1.5 hours or more), with each module organized around a “big” problem in science or technology. Importantly, the course challenged students to collectively arrive at solutions to the module problems through critical and creative thinking that ultimately found expression in three distinct modalities, namely, verbal (e.g., expert panel discussions, presentations, etc.), graphic (action plans, research reports, etc.), and visual-spatial (graphs, models, etc.). The so-called “integral components” of the EST prototype are identified and explained below.

Results

Integral Components

Levels of analysis. The selection of “big” module problems for students to solve should first and foremost be guided by the “level of analysis” (LOA) at which the EST teacher - ideally in consultation with EMI instructors, language program administrators, and the students themselves (perhaps through a carefully executed “needs analysis”) - decides to pitch the course. Below are descriptions of four different LOAs (see Table 1), collectively conceptualized as a nested structure ranging from “wide scope”, where module problems are selected from separate domains of knowledge, or fields, to “fine scope”, where all problems are drawn from a single subject area. It must be noted that, as with all nested structures, LOAs may extend infinitely in both directions – implying that the EST teacher is at complete liberty in setting even wider, or as the case may be finer, parameters if necessary. It is even possible to progress from one LOA to another within a single semester, for example, in the case where a learner goal might be to either generalize beyond or delve more deeply into a particular topic, point, or process.

By way of illustration, in the EST prototype students (Bachelor of Arts in Economics candidates) investigated with an eye to solving the following four potentially cataclysmic module problems: threat of asteroid impact, oceanic garbage mega-patches, loss of planetary biodiversity, and “problem X” (choice of the bid-winning team, which was bioterrorism) (see Figure 1 for a visual representation of these module problems). The choice of this particular LOA (LOA #2, see Table 1) was based on the perception that a balance of sorts ought to be struck between two prevailing student needs, namely, the need for English assistance in EMI economics courses (e.g., scientific discourse patterns, scientific structures, semi- or sub- technical vocabulary, etc.) (see West, 2013 for a description of semi- and sub- technical vocabulary relative to jargon) and the need to broaden students’ knowledge base (i.e., “think outside the economics box”). The “happy compromise”, here, was to select problems within the domain of science yet outside the fields of economics and finance – with the understanding that many discourse patterns, structures and vocabulary (at least at semi- and sub- technical levels) generalize across disciplines within the larger scientific domain. However effective with these undergraduates, LOA #2 might not be at all suitable for sciences graduate students, technicians, and professionals routinely immersed in highly specific subject matter. In these

Table 1
Module Problem Levels of Analysis

LOA #1: wide scope, or inter-domain Problems drawn from different “domains of knowledge”, or fields: A science problem, a literature problem, a history problem, etc.
LOA #2: intermediate scope, or intra-domain Problems drawn from disciplines within a single “domain of knowledge”: Domain = science: An engineering problem, a biology problem, a physics problem, etc.
LOA #3: narrow scope, or intra-disciplinary Problems drawn from subject areas within a single discipline: Discipline = engineering: An aerospace engineering problem, a biomedical engineering problem, a civil engineering problem, etc.
LOA #4: fine scope, or within-subject area Problems drawn from a single subject area: Subject area = civil engineering: A structural engineering problem, a transportation engineering problem, an environmental engineering problem, etc.

cases, LOA #3 or #4 (or an even finer scope) would perhaps be more appropriate.

Once established, the LOA guides or even delimits the selection and creation of authentic EST course materials (e.g. academic/technical texts, [audio]visual segments, models, graphs, etc.), which, in turn, serve as the bases for the generation of custom-made projects, activities, and exercises targeted to specific needs.

SPRE critical thinking framework. Another integral component of the EST prototype was a four-stage CTF known as SPRE (see Table 2), a variant of the steps involved in crafting a standard “problem-solution text” (i.e., SPSE, or situation, problem, solution, evaluation). Over the years, SPRE has enjoyed widespread use in a variety of educational settings and contexts both within and without the field of language teaching.

Concerning the EST prototype, SPRE was ideal in that it required that each “big” problem be broken down into discreet stages for detailed analysis before being logically and creatively assembled, or synthesized, into a viable solution. Furthermore, as displayed in Table 2, each stage placed a unique cognitive demand on the students; that is, called on a different set of critical thinking and linguistic skills that culminated in verbal, graphic and visuospatial expression (see Table 3).

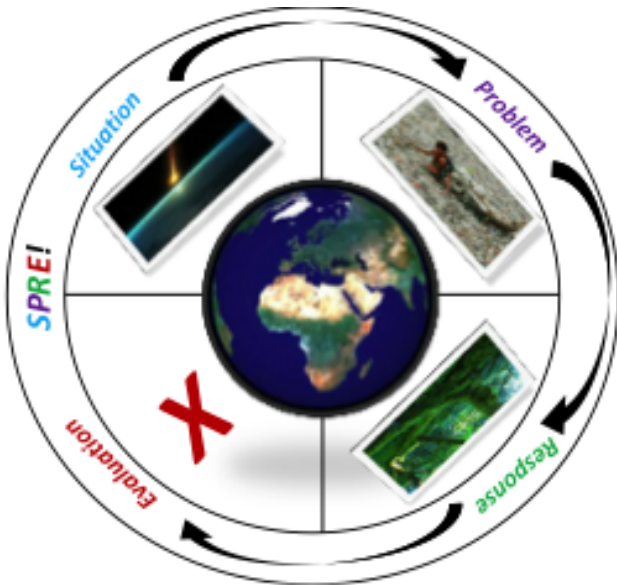


Figure 1. EST prototype module problems within the SPRE critical thinking framework.

In the EST prototype, which placed a high premium on cooperative learning, the class was divided into four “SPRE teams”, with each team member assigned one of the four SPRE critical thinking stages. More specifically, again with reference to Tables 2 and 3, the “situation” member of a given SPRE team was tasked with preparing an “objective description” of the “big” problem (e.g., threat of asteroid impact) that was first orally presented in an “expert” panel discussion (refer to the section “Module Progression”, below) and then formalized in a written report. Likewise, the “problem” member was tasked with devising a “problem statement” toward the panel discussion and written report, the “response” member an “action plan”, and the “evaluation” member a “critique”.

Table 2
SPRE Critical Thinking Framework

Situation Who? What? When? Where? Objectively describe or report dilemma.
Problem(s) What’s wrong? What’s the matter? Identify and prioritize the problems.
Response What specific steps must be taken and in what order? Generate an action plan.
Evaluation Will our response be effective? What are its pros and cons? Costs and benefits? What should be modified, added, eliminated going forward?

Noteworthy is the fact that the speaking and writing assignments for each SPRE stage correspond to, and therefore reinforce, those rhetorical modes of expression thought vital to scientific discourse. For instance, the “big” problem “objective description” corresponds to the rhetorical modes of description and classification, the “problem statement” to the mode of cause and effect, the “action plan” to the mode of process analysis, and the “critique” to the modes of comparison/contrast and argument.

Yet another virtue of the SPRE CTF is that it lends itself to dynamic, as opposed to static, problem-solving as students, both individually and collectively, must methodically work their way across problem stages to reach a conclusion. SPRE also actively promotes deep, or semantic-associative, processing (Craik & Lockhart, 1972): in order to formulate a worthy “action plan”, for example, the “response” member must also have a handle on the “situation”, the “problem”, and the “evaluation” – a glorified jigsaw exercise of sorts demanding a high degree of communication and cooperation among teammates in the target language.

Discussion

Module Progression

Week 1: Introduce the module problem. As previously mentioned, the EST prototype was organized into four three-week modules, each exploring a different “big” problem in science or technology. The focus of the first week of each module was on introducing its problem through both an academic video/podcast (TED Talks, NPR, etc.) and a scientific journal article (JA). Comprehension

Table 3
Modalities of Expression: Threat of Asteroid Impact

Student 1: Situation Verbal, graphic and visuospatial “objective description” of asteroid impact.
Student 2: Problem(s) Verbal, graphic, & visuospatial “problem statement” of asteroid impact - based on Situation.
Student 3: Response Verbal, graphic, & visuospatial “action plan” in response to asteroid impact - based on Situation & Problem.
Student 4: Evaluation Verbal, graphic, & visuospatial “critique” of asteroid impact - based on Situation, Problem, & Response.

Table 4
SPRE Team Role Rotation across the EST Prototype Modules

	Module 1	Module 2	Module 3	Module 4
STUDENT 1	situation	problem	response	evaluation
STUDENT 2	problem	response	evaluation	situation
STUDENT 3	response	evaluation	situation	problem
STUDENT 4	evaluation	situation	problem	response

of the video/podcast was checked and reinforced with tailor-made listening comprehension and vocabulary exercises/activities designed to address specific learner needs. As for the JA, the primary foci were “busting” authentic scientific text (part 1) and heightening awareness of scientific discourse patterns through an assortment of reading comprehension and close reading (i.e., discourse analysis) exercises and activities.

Week 2: Solve the module problem. The major focus of Week Two was on solving the module problem introduced in the first week via the SPRE CTF. As mentioned above, the class was divided into SPRE teams each consisting of four students. Each team was then given a “problem scenario” (see Appendix A), which clearly specified the module problem and required that consensus be reached as to which member would be responsible for what SPRE stage – in all three modalities of expression (i.e., verbal, graphic and visuospatial). Team members then worked together (with the aid of SPRE “brainstorming squares”) to devise verbal statements, one for each SPRE role, that were to be presented by each student in a series of “expert” panel discussions scheduled to occur in class the following week (see Appendix B). The panel discussions were pivotal in that they served as both the primary speaking assessment and as a pre-writing activity for all written assignments.

Noteworthy is the fact that each and every student experienced all stages of the SPRE CTF through a carefully monitored SPRE role rotation system as shown in Table 4.

Another goal of the second week was JA “busting” (part 2), with special foci on grammatical structures common to scientific discourse, the interpretation and expression of scientific figures such as graphs, models and tables, and scientific source documentation.

Week 3: Express the solution to the module problem. The objective of the third week of each module was for students to synthesize and actualize the listening and reading comprehension, vocabulary, grammar, discourse analyses, and panel discussion preparation of the previous two weeks by (1) providing their “expert” opinion on the module problem via a panel discussion (speaking assessment), and then (2)

beginning to set their verbalized – and therefore well-processed – thoughts to paper in an organized and coherent fashion (SPRE-based written assessment) with the assistance of “pre-writing” activities that included brainstorming, planning, and outlining via SPRE essay construction templates.

Capstone project. The EST prototype culminated in a “Causal Web Synthesis, “ultimate PBL” that challenged each SPRE team to creatively, yet convincingly, demonstrate how modules 1-4 are interrelated; that is to say, inextricably entwined, illustrating how precariously our planet hangs in the balance. Please refer to Appendix C for a full description of this capstone project.

Future Directions

The author would embrace the opportunity to teach a variant of the EST prototype in a different context, for a different purpose, and at a different LOA in an ongoing quest to prepare students for EMI sciences courses. In addition, she looks forward to piloting an intermediate level integrated skills course incorporating the principles and ethos of community-based learning.

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Appendix A

EST Prototype Problem Scenario

~ Module 1: Asteroid Impact ~
Speaking Assessment: Expert Panel Discussions!



IMMINENT THREAT: An asteroid approximately 1.02 kilometers in diameter is hurtling toward Earth at speed of 40 km per second. Ground-zero is estimated within 100 kilometers of the Siberian city of Novosibirsk, Russian Federation; estimated time of impact is 15 days - 2 hours - 31 seconds - 17 milliseconds and counting!

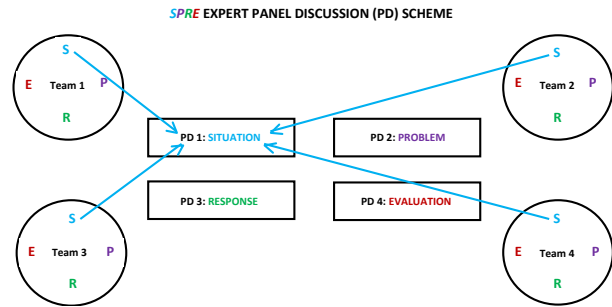
TASK 1: As a leading team of astrophysicists and aeronautical engineers at the IPPA (International Planetary Protection Agency), your job is to avert cataclysmic disaster by clearly and concisely articulating an ironclad solution consisting of 4 parts: Situation, Problem(s), Response, and Evaluation. You will present your solution as “experts” in a series of “asteroid panel discussions” scheduled to take place in class next week.

TASK 2: Reach consensus with teammates as to panel discussion roles by filling out the chart, below. I will collect one from each team by the end of class today.

EXPERT PANEL MEMBERS	PROBLEM-SOLVING ROLES
(1)	SITUATION
(2)	PROBLEM
(3)	RESPONSE
(4)	EVALUATION

Appendix B

Panel Discussion Scheme



Appendix C

Capstone Presentation Guidelines

~ Inextricably Entwined? ~

English for Science & Technology: Causal Web Synthesis (CWS)

In teams, work toward satisfying the ENG 371 course challenge of demonstrating how the four module problems (MPs) are causally linked by following the three CWS steps outlined below. Not mandatory, but you may find “Linked” book chapters (1st, 6th, & 9th Links) of conceptual and theoretical value, here. You are also encouraged to draw on other credible sources so long as they are properly cited (CMS documentation).

STEP 1: Depict it!

Think of a creative yet effective way to visually (other senses are of course welcome, too!) demonstrate how the four MPs are interconnected, that is to say, inextricably entwined. The visuospatial medium is entirely up to you. It could be physical, electronic, multisensory, multidimensional, static, dynamic, terrestrial, aquatic, cosmic - WHATEVER!

- Your depiction must be plausible, that is, defensible by way of clear example, sound reasoning, and credible evidence where possible.
- Your depiction must be captivating - conceptually intriguing and aesthetically pleasing.
- Your depiction must be presentable - fit into and function as intended within the limiting factor that is our classroom!

STEP 2: Describe it!

Verbally walk the audience through (i.e., describe) your depiction by:

- Providing a brief **rationale** for it. Why have you elected to represent MP interrelationships in this particular way and not in some other way?
- Introducing its **basic units**, if any. What are your depiction’s building blocks? Boxes & arrows? Links & nodes? Weakly connected clusters? Hubs & Spokes? Waves and/or particles? Properties? Dimensions?
- Expressing the **process(s)** by which isolated events (e.g., the four MPs) conspire, perhaps irrevocably,

to perturb “the whole” - to become “the whole”. In your depiction, how are the MPs linked such that the demise of one leads to the demise of others, which in turn lead to the demise of still others (cascade or domino effect)? Constraints? Weights? Formulas? Rules? Laws? Critical thresholds (tipping points)? Distributions [random, bell-shaped, scale-free]?

- Concluding with your **prediction** for the future. Will earth experience a “total systems failure”? Will the science that got us into this mess evolve to the point where it can get us out of it? Can Homo sapiens muster the collective will to prevent self-annihilation?

STEP 3: Present it!

- Your depiction will be exhibited (Step 1) and described (Step 2) during “finals week”. Exact date TBA.
- Each team will have 15-20 minutes to present their CWS. Time limit strictly enforced.
- An equitable division of labor among teammates must be in evidence for both the creation (depiction and description) and verbal delivery (presentation) of the CWS.
- Your entire CWS grade will be determined according to a “team presentation rubric” (see below) that will be made available to you well in advance of your presentation date.
- NOTE: Slackers beware! If there is sufficient evidence to suggest that a team member(s) is not pulling his/her weight, the professor reserves the right to grade this individual separately. In other words, an individual’s substandard performance will not adversely impact his/her CWS team as a whole

PROJECT GRADING :

Your presentation will be graded according to a rubric whose four components (logos, pathos, ethos, kairos) are known as the “rhetorical modes of persuasion” first articulated by the philosopher, Aristotle. This system emphasizes how effectively a speaker appeals to his/her audience – how persuasive he/she is in “winning the audience over”.

GOOD LUCK!

Looking for an EIL Pronunciation Standard: A Literature Review and Classroom Experience from the Russian L1 Perspective

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This article concerns itself with the identification of language units essential to the intelligibility of communication of non-native English speakers (NNESs) in international settings, or English as an international language (EIL) communication. It focuses on a seemingly narrow but nevertheless significant area of speech production and reception – pronunciation. Based on the works of pronunciation scholars and classroom experience, we outline areas of concern for NNES training and suggest pronunciation foci for Russian learners of English as a foreign language (EFL). We specifically examine areas where academic discourse goals overlap with the goals of developing NNES pronunciation fluency and rhetorical competence, targeting those features that, if improved upon, would make NNES speech sound intelligible, educated and cultured as the academic environment requires. We consider these features in view of their importance for two emerging pedagogical domains: English as a lingua franca (ELF) and English as a medium of instruction (EMI), particularly taking into account their approach to NNESs' identity and attitude.

Keywords: academic discourse, EFL, EIL, phonetics, phonology

In the 21st century, global world English has become a widely recognized and well-established lingua franca. Aside from being used for travel and everyday communication, it functions as a means of exchange at international forums and gatherings, in research, academia and business. The number of interactions between speakers from so-called expanding and outer circles who use English a medium of communication as well as native and other NNESs in international settings by far exceeds the number of interactions between NNESs and NESs (native English speakers) (Crystal, 1997; Kachru, 1985). Due to the continuing spread of English and the proliferation of language contacts, a great variety of “Englishes” have emerged, each modifying, in their own way, the canonical version on grammatical, lexical and phonological levels. As several linguists and English Language Teaching (ELT) professionals contend, rapid English globalization has also influenced “inter-English” intelligibility. According to Martin Dewey (2007), globalization of English has deviated from a traditional orientation to varieties of English to English as a multilingual activity which is deeply intercultural

and flexible (Dewey, 2007, p. 335). The centrifugal force of worldwide English development in many ways runs counter to well-established EFL pedagogies. Specifically, such pedagogies are mainly centered around teaching one of the two most prestigious NES varieties, British or American, with most textbooks focusing on either of them. Nowhere is this dichotomy more apparent than with English pronunciation, a discrepancy that has triggered vigorous debate on two as yet unresolved ELT questions: Which English language pronunciation standard should be chosen as a learning goal toward the ultimate realization of EIL intelligibility, and which segmental and suprasegmental elements of pronunciation hinder international communication due to L1/L2 transfer. These two linguistic and pedagogical issues are closely connected to the question of the sociocultural status of NNES accent. Stereotypically, NNES accents are still discriminated against both locally and internationally, and the prejudice still holds that to speak good English one should totally get rid of an L1 accent. It looks particularly one-sided when non-native English language teachers' professional skills and expertise are evaluated according

to their proximity to an English native accent, which puts them at a considerable disadvantage among the ELT world community. Meanwhile, as a result of regional and social mobility, it is next to impossible nowadays to find a native speaker in possession of the 'pure' standard variety, not to mention that some regional native accents are stigmatized, too, for example, Scottish or Irish. This is another reason why, besides linguistic and pragmatic factors, ELT scholars are drawing more attention to a more comprehensive approach for suggesting pronunciation elements of an EIL standard and take into consideration the L1 sociocultural context as well (Sedlehofer, 2000; Walker, 2010).

Materials and Methods

To meet the communication needs of small-scale and large-scale multicultural interaction scenarios, the ELT research and pedagogical paradigm has shifted from the concepts of EFL and English as a Second Language (ESL) to EIL, or ELF. Although ELF still remains one of the most controversial approaches to ELT, it is widely recognized that nowadays it symbolizes the conceptual and practical contrasts between EFL and ELF and "some of the ELF ideas are likely to influence mainstream teaching and assessment practices" (Graddol, 2006, p. 87).

For over a decade now ELF, traditionally known as EIL, has drawn significant interest of applied linguists and ELT professionals, with this field of English language studies now supported by ample theoretical and empirical data in the works of Cogo, A., Bolton, K., Dewey, M., Jenkins, J., Kirkpatrick, A., Seidlehofer, B., Shen, S., Walker, R., Widdowson, H., to name just a few.

Unlike conventional EFL and ESL approaches, EIL/ELF focuses on pragmatic competences and international communication strategies, where, for successful communication, more importance is placed on discourse intelligibility than native-speaker-like fluency. International discourse pragmatics require that participants from different linguistic and sociocultural backgrounds build common ground by promoting solidarity of discourse and equally share responsibility for the success or the failure of communication by adjusting their linguistic and extra-linguistic behavior when interacting with each other. Both parties need, therefore, to be intelligible to each other, that is, to understand and communicate the message clearly. According to the EIL approach, both NESs and NNESSs have to aspire to a mutually intelligible variety of English, which has a distinctive language, pragmatics features that NNESSs are using as a means of expressing their sociocultural identities (Seidhofer & Berns, 2009, p. 190).

Recently the linguists' focus has shifted from language features that characterize ELF interactions

towards processes and practices by which these features develop (Jenkins & al., 2011, p. 292); that is why ELF research is primarily aimed at highlighting the pragmatic strategies employed by speakers (Cogo, 2012; Sewell, 2013). Of several specific areas of ELF research, two domains in particular have captured the attention of ELF scholars, namely, business communication (as cited in Jenkins et al., 2011: e.g., Bjorkman, 2010; Ehrenreich, 2009; Erling, 2007; Pulling and Stark, 2009) and higher education (as cited in Jenkins et al., 2011: e.g., Bjorkman, 2010; Erling, 2007; Smit, 2010). Research into academic settings is of particular importance with the emergence of EMI, the kind of English used for instruction and communication in educational institutions in countries where English is a foreign language. So-called "internationalization" of education in those countries has given impetus to further intensive investigations of academic discourse and has set forth tasks for fostering teacher development, lecturers' training and the design of course materials according to new pragmatic and sociocultural standards.

One of the most widely cited ELF proponents is Jennifer Jenkins, who, based on her extensive classroom experience, proposed the ELF pronunciation core that appears crucial for intelligibility in ELF communication. Jenkins suggested regarding and designating the pronunciation units from the point of view of their "teachability" and "learnability", which makes her approach invaluable for ELT pedagogy (Jenkins, 2000). Outside the "core", she leaves some pronunciation features that might occur in different varieties of English and suggests teaching them receptively rather than productively so that non-native learners would be able to understand other accents while maintaining some of their own accent in order to retain their identity and to make the learning goals teachable and achievable. This data is still a point of debate among linguists and ELT professionals, but one cannot deny that Jenkin's findings have triggered intensive classroom research both in cross- and multi-cultural ELT contexts. Jenkin's innovative approach to acquiring a native speaker-like accent is particularly worth mentioning. She proposed acquiring only the degree of native speaker accent sufficient to ensuring intelligibility. This compromising ELT method saves precious time and effort of EFL/ESL teachers and learners while serving to retain both NNESS national identity in terms of accent and securing intelligibility of EIL communication.

Before proceeding further, a few words must be said about what kind of communicative situations should be included in academic discourse. Academic discourse can be "planned, organized by a pre-determined set of topics or informational bits intended to be addressed, as in the genres of lectures, sermons, legal proceedings" (Strauss and Feiz, 2014, p. 65). Lectures and presentations, which are the focus of this article, can be scripted, which is

becoming a more and more obsolete way of delivery, and delivered extemporaneously. An extemporaneous way of delivery, which takes on the appearance of a spontaneously produced talk, in most cases requires preparing scripted materials and demands numerous rehearsals, placing this type of oral discourse among planned, organized and pre-determined types of discourse. On the other hand, to win over the audience and get the message across in the most clear and unambiguous way, conversational passages and interactions with the audience in a semi-formal or informal speaking style are becoming more and more common in public speaking, including academic lectures and presentations. This more democratic style of public speaking has drastically changed a once most formal genre of academic lecture, with its speaking characteristics now similar to those of more conversational genres such as, for example, panel discussions, debates, negotiations, and interviews. This approach looks particularly relevant from the pragmatic point of view since all of the mentioned communication situations pursue similar goals, i.e., they are primarily aimed at persuading the listener and, in most cases, at changing people's beliefs or actions. Regarding all the factors above, we will consider oral academic discourse as a planned or semi-planned rhetorical performance delivered in a formal or semi-formal style and assume that debates, negotiations, meetings, and job interviews will require sticking to pronunciation patterns similar to academic lectures and presentations, namely those that are typical for cultured voices.

In support of an ELF-oriented approach to teaching pronunciation to NNEs of English, Simon Andrews has put forward the idea that NNEs should aim to acquire a pronunciation model approximating that of public speaking. He claims that to fit multicultural professional settings (e.g., presentations, debates, negotiations, meetings, etc.) NNEs need to develop their rhetorical competence in such areas as clarity of enunciation, speed of delivery, appropriate pausing and nuclear stress patterns (Andrews, 2011). These elements of pronunciation are considered of primary importance for intelligibility in ELF communication in many other books of EIL and EFL researchers (see, for example, Jenkins, 2007; McKay, 2002; Walker, 2010). Intensive sociolinguistic research of Russian phoneticians who have investigated British and American standard pronunciation in relation to socially and regionally marked speech has shown that pitch range is a distinctive and reliable sociocultural factor that differentiates the pronunciation of a middle class educated urban citizen from regional native speakers of lower social status. In addition, a narrower pitch range also signals of an informal and conversational discourse variety (Shevchenko, 2006; Shevchenko, 2015). Developed rhetorical skills will help NNEs to achieve pragmatic goals of academic communication and to get the message across logically, clearly, intelligibly, accurately, and persuasively as required by the academic

environment. By accuracy in academic discourse, we are primarily referring to correct word stress and consider pitch change and pitch range among the main prosodic characteristics which comply with the norms of cultured speech and help to build the image of an educated speaker (Shevchenko, 2006; Skopintseva, 2013).

To designate the key segmental and suprasegmental elements of an academic discourse pronunciation model, it is suggested putting forward the elements based on their advantage for the three main goals of academic discourse: those that are crucial for EIL intelligibility, important for building a speaker's rhetorical competence, and those that comply with the sociocultural expectations of an academic discourse. The pronunciation elements listed below are the result of a 6-year long classroom experience of teaching English pronunciation for a public speaking course for ESAP Russian students and the findings of the school of English sociophonetics headed by professor T.I. Shevchenko at Moscow State Linguistic University, where the author taught and performed research for about 20 years.

From our point of view, the key pronunciation elements are:

- Clear and distinct articulation of stressed vowels
- Accurate articulation of consonants and consonant clusters both in word-initial and word-ending positions
- Word stress
- Slower pace
- Meaningful division of the stream of speech into shorter word groups
- Appropriate placement of nuclear stress to distinguish between old and new information and also used for rhetorical purposes (e.g., in contrasts, repetitions)
- Register and pitch range to highlight the logical structure of academic discourse and to lay rhetorical emphasis.

Results and Discussion

Suprasegmentals

Russian students tend to complain that they find it more difficult to understand Standard British than Standard American speakers, and the British accent is typically harder for them to acquire than the American one. Having investigated prosodic errors of Russian learners in their academic presentations that hinder communication, we came to the conclusion that, to a large extent, intonational preferences of Russian speakers stem from differences in phonotactics, which in their turn affect prominence and rhythm. The basic difference consists in the dominance of an open syllable in Russian (Consonant-Vowel, or CV) and a closed

syllable in English (Consonant-Vowel-Consonant, or CVC) in actual speech. According to Russian scholars' research data, 78% of Russian syllables are open (as cited in Shevchenko, 2015).

Another important feature, also supported by experimental evidence, concerns the phonotactics of syllable division and articulation. In English, like in all Germanic languages, there is close contact between the vowel and the coda consonants (in VC), which, as a result, affects the length of vowels. The retention stage of a consonant belongs to the previous short vowel while the release is with the next syllable. This way, the boundary between the two syllables runs within the medial consonant: [sit-ti], [hap-pi] which never happens in Russian (Lukina, 2003). In English the articulatory tension peaks between the consonant and the vowel, which is perceived as a more accented consonant in comparison with the vowel. On the contrary, in Russian the articulatory tension grows during the transition from the consonant to the vowel, with the articulation peak localized on the vowel. The transition runs more smoothly in Russian than in English, which results in placing more prominence on a vowel than on a consonant in Russian – resulting in consonant palatalization before front vowels (Lukina, 2003).

Although both English and Russian are known to be stress-timed languages, the rhythmic patterns significantly differ. The difference can be illustrated, for example, by the stressed/unstressed syllable ratio in English. The duration of British stressed/unstressed syllables in reading was found to be 1.8:1 and in speaking 1.5:1 (Shevchenko, 2011; Shevchenko, 1999, 2012, 2013; as cited in Shevchenko, 2015), whereas the average for Russian in formal and semi-formal discourse was 1.3:1 (Savina, 1996). As a result, the overall articulatory effort in English is stronger than in Russian, and the rhythm of the English language, particularly British English, is sometimes compared to staccato (Shevchenko, 2006).

Another phonotactical feature - sound sequence constraints - are to be regarded in relation to initial consonant clusters, which Jenkins includes in her ELF pronunciation core on the grounds that in some languages (e.g., Japanese and some Turkic languages) such long consonant sequences are not possible, with the consequence that speakers insert vowels in between the consonants or drop sounds all together, both of which diminish intelligibility. As for Russian, consonants in clusters are not as closely assimilated as they are in English and therefore tend to be pronounced more as a sequence of separate sounds. This does not specifically impact intelligibility but rather disrupts the fluency and smoothness of the speech stream, which could to some extent undermine rhetorical competence.

Chunking speech into word groups was also found to have an impact on comprehension and attitude. The average comprehensible and nicely sounding word

group should typically last two or three seconds and comprise two or three accented words, which tentatively correlate with normal breathing rhythm. If the tempo is faster and the speaker puts more accented words within a word group, the listener perceives such speech as too pushy and exhilarated. It is also harder to discern a message presented in this way, and in the long run listening to such a performance becomes irritating for the listener (Morov, 2005). The differences in syllable duration, word group length and phonotactical rules between a speaker's L1 and English have a great impact on accentuation and vowel reduction in weak forms of words in connected speech. Due to sentence prominence and rhythm, small structural items (i.e., auxiliary verbs, articles, prepositions, pronouns) are reduced in quantity or quality and are pronounced in their weak form. It is claimed that for clarity's sake, NNEs should retain full, non-reduced pronunciation of non-notional words (Jenkins, 2000). Jenkins considers such items "unteachable" and therefore excludes them from the Lingua Franca Core (LFC). However, to accommodate their pronunciation to EIL, NNEs need to be taught weak forms for receptive function (ibid). According to Russian classroom experience, reduced vowel quality comes naturally to Russian learners through the teaching of rhythm, and it would be fairly unnatural to specifically teach them full articulation of vowels in unstressed positions. Dauer, in *The Lingua Franca Core: A New Model for Pronunciation Instruction?* (2005), also claims that it would be almost impossible for anyone to speak fluently without using weak forms. Pronouncing all the sounds in their full quality at natural speed would be unfeasible (Dauer, 2005, p. 547-548). According to Brown, connected speech is used in English at all levels of formality even in very formal speech (Brown, 2012) because weak forms play an important 'accentuation' role (Gimson, 2001, p.249 as cited in Brown, 2012). Weak forms are important for decoding English speech, and Brown also makes it clear that students with a syllable-timed L1 have considerable difficulty in both speaking and comprehending oral English (Brown, 2012).

To sum up we would suggest that NNEs, and particularly those whose L1 is a syllable-timed language, should raise their awareness of L1/L2 phonotactic transfer. They should acquire accentuation and connected speech primarily through the teaching of rhythm. They should also be taught to exaggerate their articulatory effort to acquire English rhythm for the purpose of meeting specific rhetorical goals, those of clear articulation and appropriate prominence. For speech production and reception purposes, it is important for teachers to segment speech into shorter chunks of two or three accented syllables and slow the pace of delivery.

Accurate word stress is essential both for intelligibility and orthoepy. There are some mistakes in word stress that

NNEs repeatedly make, with a wide range of variability across languages. Our classroom experience shows that the words typically mispronounced by Russian ESP/EAP students are *consequence*, *access*, *control* (*n.*), *recognize*, and *innovate*, in which they tend to shift emphasis towards the end of the word in accordance with Russian stress rules.

It has been noted by many ELT specialists that NNEs' oral performance sounds monotonous to a native English speaker's ear. Some speakers (Cantonese, for example) are cited as having a 'sing-song' pattern: They go up and down to the same level as they speak. Others (e.g., Korean, Japanese, Castilian, Spanish) have the so-called 'monotone', where their voice varies very little as they speak (Mayers & Holt, 2002). Besides L1/L2 intonation transfer, this can be partly accounted for by NNEs' linguistic insecurity on the one hand and the natural stage fright of public speaking on the other, which makes pitch change a triple value feature for academic discourse. Because they typically speak too fast and too loudly while emphasizing too many syllables, Russian speakers of English create the impression of being "pushy" in the minds of NESs. It has also been observed that Russian presenters sound "incomplete" in that they lack adequate levels of persuasion and style (Savina and Skopintseva, 2005b).

It is undeniable that pitch is a key prosodic variable in public speaking discourse. Pitch is known to be an essential tool that signposts the discourse structure. It is typically used to emphasize discourse structure, to highlight high-key and low-key information and logical contrasts, and to signal shift to a new topic. Mastering so-called "step-ups" and "step-downs" (Hewings, 2010) is therefore significant for rhetorically competent voices. According to the findings presented below, pitch change and pitch range can be considered suprasegmental features of double advantage for academic discourse.

Contrastive analyses of the intonation variation of NESs with Standard English and Standard American accents showed that the speech of educated middle class speakers is marked by a richer repertoire of tones and a wider pitch range (Shevchenko, 2015). In numerous sociolinguistic experiments that excluded factors of conflicting identity, it was found that pitch range is a contrastive sociocultural factor for distinguishing between standard and regionally accented speech, between a citizen of a metropolis and a small town and between middle class and working class (Shevchenko, 2014). Pitch range was also found to be a gender, age and stylistic factor differentiating contrastive types of discourse. Some experiments also revealed that higher pitched beginnings, a wide pitch range and variable melody (tone) contour are relevant for expressing friendliness and empathy (Glochkina, Shevchenko, 2010).

Besides its rhetorical and sociocultural importance, pitch was also found to be more important in relation

Table 1

British English: Reading in Three Social Groups in Semi-tones (st)

Social class	Males	Females
Higher middle class	7 st	10 st
Middle middle class	8 st	9 st
Low middle class	6 st	7 st

(Shevchenko, 2015, p. 169)

to syllable prominence. Among the three correlates of prominence -loudness, pitch, and length - pitch was emphasized as the leading factor in syllable and nuclear stress prominence in English as compared to Russian: The main prosodic feature for Russian speakers would be intensity (loudness) while English speakers would rather vary the pitch under the same circumstances (Savina and Skopintseva, 2005a, p. 74).

Segmentals

Clear and distinct pronunciation of segmentals (i.e., vowels and consonants) is essential for the intelligibility of English as a means of international communication. Shaping a distinctive articulation imprint of an English sound by specific tongue shape, differences in tension, lip and jaw posture works both for NNEs speech production and for reception once the articulation habit is automatized or at least retained. Among the ELF segmental core crucial for EIL intelligibility, Jenkins names differences between long and short vowels, the [ə:] vowel, most consonants, and consonant clusters in word-initial positions. The phoneme inventories are different in English and Russian. In English there are 20 vowels and 24 consonants while in Russian there are only 6 vowels and 34 consonants. In accordance with Jenkin's principle of acquiring only some degree of NES accent, we suggest considering only those phonemes whose misarticulation will cause communication breakdown and undermine oral performance.

First of all, [æ] – [ʌ] – [a:] and [ɔ:] – [ə:] differences will be phonologically relevant because Russian speakers tend to substitute them with [a] or [e] and [o] respectively. Thus, the pairs of words *bag* – *bug*, *stuff* – *staff*, *much* – *March* and *walk* – *work*, *born* – *burn*, *course* – *curse* will sound the same. Although teaching practices are beyond the topic of this article, we cannot help mentioning that articulating [æ] and [ə:] are essential for enunciation practice because they require mastering English-specific jaw movement and tongue position that are not typical of the Russian articulatory setting. Practicing these two English-specific articulation gestures will also contribute to improving diction and lead to clearer pronunciation.

Second, there are no diphthongs in Russian, so Russian speakers tend to mix up the pairs of words *want – won't, sells – sales, lawn – loan, beer – bear*.

Rhetorical competence includes distinct enunciation of word endings. It is well known that consonants in word-initial positions play an important role in decoding the meaning of words, while clear articulation of word endings is regarded as a sign of educated speech and is a vital feature of rhetorical competence. In addition, the distinct articulation of endings adds to the overall articulatory effort such that words do not run together in a “mumble-jumble” and thoughts are finalized and nicely paced. “Eating” sounds at the end of words produces the impression of hurried speech, and the audience is soon to make a snap judgement about the speaker’s education and speech culture.

The English inflectional morphological elements that mark grammatical forms of verbs and nouns (i.e., *-s* and *-ed*) are particularly important for phonological reasons since voiced consonants are always devoiced at word endings in Russian. For example, played often sounds like *plate* and plays like *place* when uttered by Russian NNEs.

The *-ing* ending is known to be socially distinct in English because pronouncing the dental stop [n] instead of the velar consonant is more typical of informal speech and the speech of the young (Crystal, 2003; Lychanaya, 2000; Shevchenko, 2006).

So overall, clear enunciation of word endings, in particular of *-ed*, *-s* and *-ing* inflections, might be considered an achievement that has two advantages for academic discourse: intelligibility and speech culture. According to Hancock (2013) and Walker (2010) *-ed* and *-s* endings are crucial for intelligibility for ELF communication in general.

Many NNEs, including Russian, pronounce [s/z] or [d/t] instead of the interdental fricatives [θ] and [ð] (Jenkins, 2000; Seidlehofer, 2011). Although to our knowledge none of the ELF pronunciation core proponents consider interdental fricatives worthy of practice since they do not hamper intelligibility, we suggest including them among the pronunciation “core” on the grounds that *th* words like *theory, hypothesis, thought, think* and their derivatives abound in English academic discourse - and mispronouncing them might seem irritating or distracting to NES interlocutors. Certainly, this assumption would need to be supported by further research on NES attitudes toward NNE accents.

Conclusion

We have reviewed and analyzed the extensive research and classroom data related to NNE (Russian)

and NES (Standard British and Standard American) pronunciation and identified key segmental and suprasegmental elements crucial for intelligibility, in terms of both the rhetorical and sociocultural competence of NNE oral performance in EIL communication in academic settings. The units were selected based on their importance in developing all three competences considered essential for formal and semi-formal academic discourse. According to our classroom experience, an ELF-oriented approach to building an English accent upon the L1 accent has proven to be an effective teaching method that economizes on teaching and learning time, helps to overcome negative attitude towards the NNE accent, and makes English pronunciation learning goals achievable. Although more classroom data is needed to support hypotheses born of theory and practice, we recommend that the following segmental and suprasegmental features be taught to Russian learners to ensure EIL academic communicative success:

- More energetic articulation, particularly when emphasizing prominent syllables
- Cardinal vowels quality with a special focus on /æ/ – /ʌ/ – /ɑ:/ difference as in: *cat – cut, stuff – staff, much – March* and /ɔ:/ – /ə:/ difference as in: *walk – work, born – burn, course – curse*
- Articulation of diphthongs as in: *want – won't, sells – sales, bare – beer*
- Clear enunciation of word endings, especially keeping voiced consonants voiced in *-s, -ed* word endings as in *place – plays, life – live, lift – lived, price – prize, wanted – want it,,* and retaining the velar nasal consonant in *-ing* endings as in *I'm loving it vs. I'm lovin' it.*
- Articulation of [θ] and [ð] with a focus on academic vocabulary
- Word stress, including word stress in derivatives: *contrast (n.) – contrast (v.), import (n.) – import (v.)*
- Acquiring weak forms though rhythm
- Pitch change and pitch range to emphasize academic discourse structure, to break the monotony of L1-specific intonation patterns in public speaking and to conform to the speech norms of higher status NESs.

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Language, Task and Situation: Authenticity in the Classroom

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There is debate on the use of authenticity in language classrooms in terms of language, task, and situation. “Authenticity of language” spans a continuum that begins with inauthentic materials – wholly created by a teacher or materials developer – to constructed materials, modified from real-world materials, to those materials created for non-pedagogical L1 purposes. “Authenticity of task” questions whether students are engaging with language materials in a way that would appear natural outside the classroom. “Authenticity of situation” refers to non-classroom contexts. Complicating ideas of authenticity is the question of materials selection. This paper explores teachers’ awareness of authenticity and suggests ways to incorporate authentic language, tasks, and situations to enhance classroom learning.

Keywords: Authenticity, curriculum development, English for academic purposes, teacher education

Authenticity is a relatively new concept in language teaching and learning first surfacing as a concern in the 1970s. It is also a slippery concept that has curiously defied definition despite repeated attempts. The act of trying to define authenticity means that the concept continues to evolve to the point where it now encompasses not just language (language content in particular) but also task and situation.

Struggling with the scope of what constitutes authenticity, Dunkel (1995) reflects on authentic discourse, authentic language and authentic materials and suggests, “Many in the field utilize these three terms in holistic, vague and imprecise ways and are unclear about precisely what is and what is not “authentic” (p. 98). She specifically cites the oft-repeated definition that *authentic language is produced by and for native speakers of the language* but suggests that the definition is too elusive to be of much help. Other attempts at defining authenticity run a continuum between general and specific and include Nunan (1988) who writes that authenticity is comprised of, “those [materials] which have been produced for purposes other than to teach language” (p. 99). The difficulty with this definition is that it is so broad to the point that it provides no direction to teachers and materials developers; if almost everything is authentic, how, then, do they make choices?

Rogers & Medley (1988) seem aware of this pitfall and suggest that the criteria should include the quality, appropriateness and naturalness of the language rather than a simple consideration of the source and purpose of the sample of authentic language. Taking this perspective, it is easier to imagine the teacher excluding materials that might not be appropriate for a range of reasons including materials that do not feature age appropriate language or age appropriate content. For example, while the financial pages of an English language newspaper might be suitable for college students in an advanced-level English for Academic Purposes course, one would hardly expect the same materials to be used with primary school students struggling at a beginner level. Through this example, we get an idea of authenticity being not a generic term applied to language, tasks and situations, but rather a concept that needs to work in concert with the teacher’s or material developer’s understanding of the target language learners.

Widdowson (2012) seems to support this idea, suggesting that authentic language is a social construct and one open to interpretation. Widdowson’s contribution is typical of the debate around authenticity in that it aims to illuminate one aspect without any attempt to be definitive. Widdowson also notes that authentic language has to do with a quality

he labels *genuineness*. By *genuineness*, we can relate his perception of authenticity to those of Nunan (1988) and others, the idea that authentic language cannot be that developed specifically for the language student.

Cardew (2006, cited in Tatsuki, 2006), however, goes further, noting that authentic language materials, alone, do not guarantee that the lesson will be successful. It is not just the materials themselves which are important, but their implementation. This brief overview of definitions suggests that we are best to be skeptical about notions of authenticity and begin any discussion with a concern for the learners' needs and how we can best address those needs.

Materials and Methods

Historical Perspectives

An alternative way to define a concept such as authenticity is to consider its opposite. As authenticity is a relatively new idea in the history of language teaching and learning, it is possible to consider historical examples of textbooks that focused on authenticity to varying degrees. Among the first language learning textbooks is *Orbis Sensulium Pictus (The Visible World in Pictures)*, a much-adapted textbook aimed at the teaching of local languages by Czech teacher, writer and educator Jon Amos Comenius (1592-1670) (Bardeen, 1887). The initial book and others that followed in the same pattern were revolutionary for their inclusion of pictures to bridge comprehension between what students already knew and the pronunciation of words they were intended to learn. The book was widely reprinted and adapted to a variety of languages, often in a bilingual fashion, for example, teaching English and Latin terms side by side. But, although the approach was innovative the language was far from authentic. Instead, it tried to teach reading and writing through general principles. In *Orbis Sensulium Pictus*, students learned sounds, words and sample sentences to better understand the structure of the target language.

The success of *Orbis Sensulium Pictus* (and adaptations that followed for two centuries) was such that it had a profound influence on other textbooks which adopted the same principles. Many of these, while following *Orbis'* format, introduced nationalistic and/or religious content. For example, *The New England Primer*, published in 1771, used memorable quotes to impart moral teachings alongside language acquisition (Foster, 2012). Typical of this book's approach were phrases such as, "Foolishness is bound up in the heart of a child, but the rod of correction will drive it far from him." In some ways this perspective of devaluing the worth and intelligence of the child is the opposite of Comenius' approach, whose goal was

to enfranchise the poor as well as women, giving them opportunities for what he saw as the life-long learning enabling aspect of reading. But it is difficult to know what eighteenth century teachers and learners would have made of such a text and whether they would have taken such moral quotes seriously.

In terms of authenticity, it is unlikely that *The New England Primer* mirrored either writing or conversation of the time (Foster, 2012). It can further be assumed that the role of the student was not a concern to the materials developer; the idea of student-centeredness is a relatively recent concept (Nunan, 1988).

A hundred years later, another book modeled on *Orbis Sensulium Pictus* appeared: the influential *The Monroe Reader*, first published around 1871. Like Comenius' text, it also offered phonemic awareness but as a central focus rather than as supporting details. The opening page, *Lesson 1, Sounds of m, n and short a* featured the text *m a n, m a n, man, an, am, man, man, an, am, a man*. The accompanying picture featured a severe-looking gentleman posed next to a table. Although it might not feature the same kind of fear-inspiring quotes that *The New England Primer* included, it was similarly joyless and unlikely to have prompted active engagement in the acquisition of English. It has to be noted that learners often become proficient in language despite (poor) materials, not because of them.

Also influential were *The McGuffey Readers*, originally introduced in 1836 and used in American schools into the 20th century; some remain in use today among home-schoolers and certain religious schools. The book's content ranges from basic alphabet, word, and sentence development found in previous books to connecting religious, moral, and ethical principles through excerpts from popular writing and speeches (McGuffey, 1879). In this sense, portions of the books featured authentic language, but the authentic texts were often too challenging for students to read or too unconnected with their personal experiences to be of much use in daily life. However, the series did introduce several ideas commonly found in textbooks today: teacher notes, the principle of recycling/reinforcing content in subsequent chapters, questions at the ends of chapters, and the principle of grading content so that each lesson and each level showed increased difficulty in terms of vocabulary and structures. A key aspect of *The McGuffey Readers* focused on a phonics method of sounding out each word.

The history of textbooks has vacillated between adapting and reacting against what has gone before, sometimes tempered by a better understanding of learners and learning processes. In terms of grading their content, *The McGuffey Readers* also illustrated the move away from the assumption that children were simply small adults and toward the realization

that they needed learning materials tailored to their own interests. It was a successful formula, and more than 130 million copies of the readers have been sold.

The Birth of the Student Centered Textbook

In comparison to her impact on first language and second language acquisition, Zerna Sharp (1889-1981) is a surprisingly little-known figure. She began her career working first as a teacher and then as a school principal in the American mid-west. As she traveled from school to school, she became aware that young students were exhibiting reduced reading levels. It was her contention that part of the problem was motivation; it was a novel idea at a time when schools were largely seen as competitive institutions with those of ability rising to further academic challenges and training while those who did not demonstrate the necessary aptitude dropped out of the educational system to find low-level employment.

Sharp thought students needed motivating materials beginning with a change in the characters that were depicted on the pages of the book; she decided that these characters should be as close in appearance and behavior to the target readers as possible. Sharp also felt that rather than present each vocabulary item only once before moving on, the presentation and practice of such items should be repeated frequently for continuous reinforcement. She hit upon a formula of students learning one word at a time, repeated every third page. She also abandoned *The McGuffey Readers'* phonics approach, instead embracing whole word learning.

Sharp also thought that the words being taught should already be familiar to the students; it was the beginning of the trend to feature age appropriate language and age appropriate content. But Sharp's major inspiration came in a snippet of conversation overheard while walking near the beach. A child cried out, "Oh! Look! Oh, oh, look!" Sharp considered it a perfect fit with her ideas and incorporated the style of the utterance into a new series: *Dick and Jane* (Genovese, 2012; Kisemerick & Heiferman, 1996; Norton Museum of Art, 1997).

Dick and Jane first appeared in 1927, released by the American publisher Scott Foresman. Sharp did not write any of the books in the series but rather worked as a consultant for the publisher. It is difficult to over-estimate the impact of the series. By the 1950s, an estimated 80 percent of American first-graders who were learning to read were doing so with *Dick and Jane* books.

The book series quickly spread to other national markets as well. From the start, authenticity was a key concern of the series though, surprisingly, not always in terms of language. A typical sample of text ran, "Oh,

father. See funny Dick. Dick can play. Oh, mother. Oh, Father. Jane can play. Sally can play." It is ironic that although the series started with an authentic utterance, by the time it ceased publication in 1970, it had become a much-parodied exemplar of artificial language.

The ways in which the series did try to maintain authenticity was through the depictions of situations in which children found themselves, primarily domestic routines and play. The family unit consisted of a nameless mother and father, the central character of an older son, Dick, and his two younger sisters, Jane and Sally. There were also pets, a dog named Spot and a cat named Puff (note: names varied across editions). Mother was a housewife, raising the children, and father worked at some vague office job, which was never made clear. Sharp maintained control over the look and feel of the series, and each year she would consult the department store catalogs to pick out appropriate clothing for the children and adults in the series. Toys (e.g., roller skates), appliances (e.g., electric stoves) and other possessions (e.g., automobiles) were similarly updated.

In the context of the times, these various toys, appliances and possessions can be seen as being inauthentic in terms of the general readership; within two years after the books were introduced, the world found itself in the midst of what became known as The Great Depression after the economic collapse of American stock markets in 1929. In this light, the depictions of everyday life of a relatively wealthy and certainly carefree family would seem inauthentic. However, there was perhaps another concern in effect: the books were aspirational (Kisemerick and Heiferman, 1996) in the sense that they portrayed a better material life for most readers – an unspoken promise of sorts that "good times" would return in time.

Regional varieties of the books offered authenticity in terms of depictions of local contexts. There were also editions for religious groups; both Catholic and Seventh Day Adventist editions were developed as early as the 1940s. In these versions, the characters were renamed and the contexts expanded to include religious instruction at home, visits to churches, and attendance at vacation Bible schools. Within the confines of the repetitive language structures, moral and religious instruction was included.

The *Dick and Jane* series became an industry of multiple publications across various formats. For example, Gardner (n.d.) writes,

Besides the paper books with staples and cloth tape spines, there were also Dick and Jane hard cover books, workbooks, guide books, posters, puzzles, calendars, napkins, valentines, mugs and teacher

manuals. There were picture books without words for pre-readers, and there were pre-primers (*We Look and See*, *We Work and Play*, *We Come and Go*), the Junior Primer (*Guess Who*), and the Primer (*Fun with Dick and Jane*). Dick and Jane also taught basic hygiene and health in *Good Times with Our Friends* (para. 5).

However, in terms of authenticity in reflecting American life, there was one major inadequacy; between its introduction in 1927 and 1965, the series failed to include a single black character or characters of any other race. To place this in context, in 1930, the American census showed that 11.9 million people were black, accounting for 9.7 percent of the population. By the 1960s, these figures had risen to 18.9 million blacks making up 10.5 percent of the population. Yet they remained invisible in the very books black students used to learn to read.

A year after America's passing of the Civil Rights Act in 1964, and all its attendant publicity, Scott Foresman introduced a new series, this one featuring a black family with Dick's role taken over by Mike and Dick's sisters' roles taken over by the twins Pam and Penny (Martin, 2006). Almost everything about this new series was identical to the original *Dick and Jane*. The parents had the same roles with the father working in an office and the mother at home. The children from the two series interacted and played together in a move toward depicting racial harmony. However, it was not enough to save the series, which ceased publication five years later.

A major change that led to the death of the series consisted of a swing of the pendulum back in favor of phonics. There was also an issue of authenticity: what many saw as a negative portrayal of gender roles.

The sexual stereotypes in the *Dick and Jane* series were, in some ways, authentic. At the time of their writing, many American women were more likely to stay at home to care for children and assume most of the burden of domestic duties, in particular cleaning the house, doing laundry, and cooking meals. In the books, the father and Dick were seldom if ever portrayed as taking part in these duties. In one book, when father is found in the kitchen, he is seen making breakfast for himself (pancakes) rather than cooking a meal for the family. Conversely, the daughters of the family were often seen helping the mother with cleaning and the preparation of food.

The gender roles were sharply marked among the children, exacerbated by the difference in age between Dick and his younger sisters; Dick is always seen as the instigator of activities and the one most proficient at them. He is admired for climbing a tree by his parents and sisters; when not observing, the sisters often engage in comical attempts to do something not quite

as difficult. Although the series made major attempts at authenticity that led it to be aspirational, it did not go far enough in extending those aspirations to recognizing the changing roles of girls and women.

The swing of the pendulum back to phonics instruction occurred through a number of attacks by those critical of the functional nature of *Dick and Jane* and its whole word approach. Critics also felt that the series narrowed learners' interest in reading beyond the textbook. For example, Shermer (2003) writes,

In 1955, Rudolf Flesch struck out against look-say readers in his bestseller, *Why Johnny Can't Read*. Flesch argued that the whole word method did not properly teach children how to read or to appreciate literature, because of its limited vocabulary and overly simplistic stories (para. 7).

Flesch was in favor of a return to the model of *The McGuffey's Readers*; one suspects it was the book series he used when learning to read. In 1967, alternatives to Dick and Jane began to appear in the form of *The Open Highways* series and others that included not just a return to phonics instruction but also common simplified children's stories, jokes and poems as part of their reading content. *The Open Highways* featured projects as well, such as creating a sock puppet or paper helicopter, as a way of teaching instructions.

Literature, Authenticity and the Communicative Approach

A greater move toward authenticity was fostered in the 1980s through the development of the Communicative Approach (Nunan, 1991). A key feature of the Communicative Approach is a focus on real language use in real situations with a particular emphasis on interaction. With its focus on authenticity, the Communicative Approach swung the pendulum against the directions set by *The McGuffey's Readers* and *The Open Highways series*.

The focus on real language did not completely do away with the teaching of literature or its use in instruction, but it dismissed phonics as an approach to learning to read in favor of ensuring students' ability to interact with others to communicate and negotiate a wide range of tasks. Where *The McGuffey's Readers* and *The Open Highways series* focused on recitation, new Communicative Approach texts focused more on using language as a tool of communication. Speaking and listening are foregrounded in the Communicative Approach, and fluency began to be thought of as more important than grammatical precision. Thornbury (2010) summarizes a communicative activity as featuring some or all of the following characteristics:

- purposefulness: speakers are motivated by a communicative goal (such as getting information, making a request, giving instructions) and not

simply by the need to display the correct use of language for its own sake;

- reciprocity: to achieve this purpose, speakers need to interact, and there is as much need to listen as to speak;
- negotiation: following from the above, they may need to check and repair the communication in order to be understood by each other;
- synchronicity: the exchange – especially if it is spoken – usually takes place in real time;
- unpredictability: neither the process, nor the outcome, nor the language used in the exchange, is entirely predictable;
- heterogeneity: participants can use any communicative means at their disposal; in other words, they are not restricted to the use of a pre-specified grammar item (para. 2).

Many would claim that the Communicative Approach has become the dominant approach to teaching and learning a second language but criticisms abound. For example, the above conditions for the Communicative Approach are considered more of a menu than a prescriptive practice. For this reason, teachers and materials developers tend to revert to a mixed methods approach, taking from the Communicative Approach those portions that they feel comfortable teaching and integrating older approaches, such as phonics, when it suits them.

In terms of language learning, this has resulted in hybrid textbooks that, like teachers, employ a variety of methods in reaction to market demand and perceptions of student needs. Consider the following dialog and consider whether it would qualify as an example of authentic English:

Star: How many robots do you have?

Emma: One.

Star: What color is it?

Emma: It's red.

Star: How many dinosaurs do you have?

Emma: Seven.

Star: What color are they?

Emma: They're green and yellow.

Star: How many dinosaurs does he have?

Emma: None (Beatty, 2012, p. 38).

Most native English speakers would say that although the individual sentences are authentic, the dialog is not. The individual utterances have several aspects that mark them as more authentic than texts from preceding ages, for example, the use of single-word answers where earlier books might have encouraged the use of full sentences. The use of contractions is also a mark of recognizing the realities of spoken English versus more formal written English.

But there are other details that clearly mark the dialog as inauthentic. For example, Star (a character/mascot from space in the form of a young, purple-

haired astronaut) asks what even children would consider obvious questions. In the illustrations for this dialog, the two characters are in the same room and the toys are clearly visible or, in the case of the last question, not visible. Therefore, questions about the number and the colors would seem redundant.

However, just as obviously, the dialog has a non-authentic purpose: pedagogy. Most teachers would recognize that it addresses a number of vocabulary and grammar functions: capitalization, punctuation, contractions (it's, they're), question words (how, what), numbers (including *none* in lieu of zero), colors and the names of toys. These are expanded upon in the rest of the unit, particularly choices of colors and toys for substitution tasks. The numbers recycle and reinforce those taught in an earlier unit.

How do we reconcile pedagogy and the need for authenticity? Is the above text a reasonable compromise?

Results

Authenticity of Language in English for Academic Purposes

Before considering authenticity at the level of an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) text, review the following three excerpts (Beatty, 2013; Beatty, 2015). Which of the three can be considered an example of authentic language?

1. A descriptive written text:

When he was 20 years old, Daniel Northcott began ten years of traveling the world with his video camera. Eventually, he would undertake trips across 42 countries on four continents, visiting different cities, warzones and sacred sites. He ended up with more than one thousand hours of film. At each special place he visited, he would also collect a small souvenir, often in the form of a circular or ball-shaped object. On one of his last trips, he visited a sacred cave in Mexico. The floor was covered with the ancient bones of people who had been sacrificed there. Daniel took one bone, despite the warning of his guide who said that Daniel would be cursed.

2. A transcription of an interview:

Smith: Of course! My mistake. Since 2007. It's sort of a meeting of geniuses and inventors, isn't it?

Fox: (laughs) Well, I'm not sure how many people would call themselves geniuses, but actually, we have these beliefs about geniuses and inventors working alone but truthfully many innovations come out of the work of groups. Even the great scientist Isaac Newton said, "If I have seen farther, it is by standing on the shoulders of giants." His own – Smith: Did you say *giants*? What do you mean by *giants*?

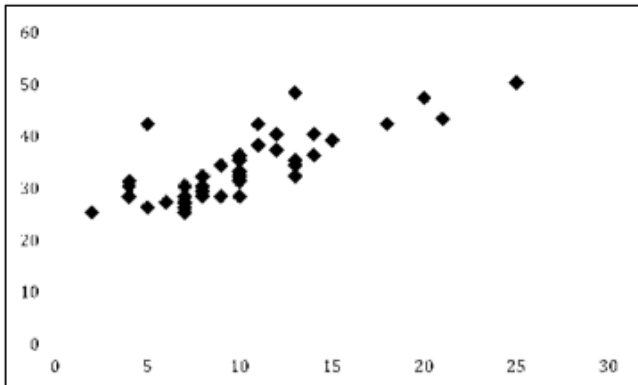


Figure 1. Age relative to experience.

Fox: Newton meant his ideas and inventions were based on the work of the great scientists who came before him.

3. A transcription of a speech:

Right back to the first breaking news event that is associated with Twitter's incursion into daily journalism, which was the Hudson River plane crash. And that involved a ferry operator – or passenger, rather, on a ferry – the operator was taking the ferry to the rescue scene on the Hudson River. And he took a snap on his mobile phone of the plane crashed into the river, which you could recognize if you saw it, and that became viral almost instantly as a result of him posting it on Twitter, via his mobile phone, and it was shared around the world.

If you faced more than a moment of indecision on selecting the third passage as the only authentic one, you are not alone. In an informal survey (through a show of hands) of 40 Canadian teachers attending a conference in Vancouver, Canada, and a more formal survey with 56 graduate students and faculty at Sabana University in Bogota, Colombia there was a common lack of agreement on which of the passages were authentic.

Beyond the informal Canadian survey, the Sabana University survey collected personal/ professional data to explore any correlation between the respondents and their answers. The Sabana students and faculty had between two and twenty-five years of teaching experience. Their focus was divided between primary/elementary school (39 percent), secondary school (42 percent), and university (19 percent) with a 70/30 split between females and males. Of the 56 respondents, only three were able to correctly identify the relative authenticity/inauthenticity of all three passages. Many inverted the choices, considering the third passage as being inauthentic and the other two as authentic.

Figure 1 indicates a common correlation between the age and experience of the teachers. The three teachers, all female, who selected all the correct

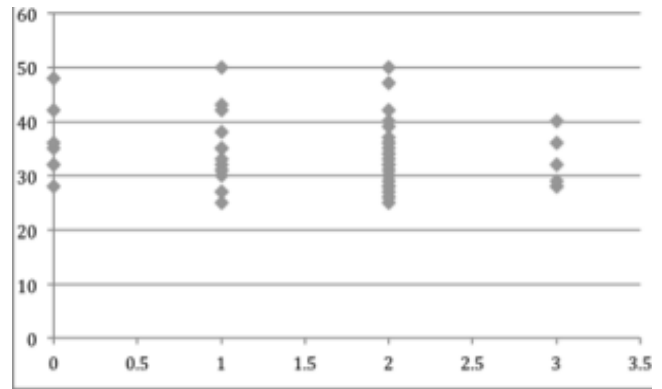


Figure 2. Age distribution of correct answers.

answers, were in the middle range of age and experience. With such a small sample of correct answers, there appears to be no statistical significance to correlating factors of gender, age or experience; the likelihood of chance being the determining factor is as strong as other factors.

Although many teachers identify authenticity in language learning materials as an important consideration, their inability to correctly identify them is worth investigation. Does it point to a need for training in terms of recognizing what constitutes authentic materials? To answer this question, it is necessary to examine the excerpts.

Passages 1 and 2 were both written by the author with the intention of mimicking authentic text and, not surprisingly, include aspects that might lead one to consider them authentic. For example, the first passage has the high degree of coherence and cohesiveness one would expect in a formal written document, in this case what one might commonly read in a magazine. As Excerpt 1 is drawn from authentic materials, it can be considered to be an example of constructed text.

Similarly, Excerpt 2 indicates aspects of the spontaneous language one would expect in an interview. Specifically, the passage includes a non-sentence (Since 2007.), contractions, an interruption, an indication of laughter, and a place-holding word (i.e., well) that serves to transition from the laughter to the speaker's comment. Along with place-holding words such as *um* and *uh*, most of the features in this and the third passage are seldom encountered in language textbooks. Nunan (1999) explains that,

There are few of the over-laps, hesitations, and false starts found in authentic texts and there is very little negotiation of meaning. These differences do not always adequately prepare learners for dealing with genuine communication either inside or outside the classroom, because some of the features of authentic

communication that rarely appear in non-authentic texts (such as repetition, requests for clarification, and so on) actually facilitate comprehension. Also, the use of authentic sources leads to greater interest and variety in the material that learners deal with in the classroom (p. 212).

Nunan’s comments highlight some of the features, as well as the problems, inherent in the third passage, an excerpt from a speech. Although it is authentic, it would seem to be an abysmal model for language learners. Consider Table 1.

However, learning opportunities can be drawn from both positive and negative models. In the case of this third passage, its shortcomings as a model can be used to illustrate common features of speech that students can both learn to recognize in oral discourse as well as use as strategies in their own conversations and oral presentations.

Table 1
Errors in a Speech Passage

Text of a speech passage	Error comments
Right back to the first breaking news event that is associated with Twitter’s incursion into daily journalism, which was the Hudson River plane crash.	This is an example of an incomplete sentence.
And that involved a ferry operator—or passenger, rather, on a ferry—the operator was taking the ferry to the rescue scene on the Hudson River.	This is an example of the speaker making a mistake and correcting herself.
And he took a snap on his mobile phone of the plane crashed into the river,	This is an example of an unclear antecedent; the <i>he</i> should refer to <i>the passenger</i> , not the last person mentioned, <i>the operator</i>
which you could recognize if you saw it,	This is an example of the speaker interrupting herself.
and that became viral almost instantly as a result of him posting it on Twitter, via his mobile phone, and it was shared around the world.	This is an example of a tautology; the term viral in this context is repeated in the phrase <i>shared around the world</i> .

Three of these oral strategies are repair, qualification, and elaboration techniques. The term *repair* (Fromkin, 1971) refers to correcting an utterance, usually mid-sentence. There are variations, such as an interlocutor interrupting to correct the speaker (e.g., “You mean, ____, don’t you?”) but repair is most commonly done by speakers who realize that their own word or phrase has been misspoken. In Excerpt 3, the phrase, “or passenger, rather” is an example of repair and the use of *rather* signals that it is a revision to what has been said. In making a repair, Levelt (1983) suggests there are three steps: a pause in the flow of speech; an interrupting word or phrase (e.g., *I mean, that is, I should have said, What I meant was, sorry*) called the editing phase; and then the repair in which the proper word or phrase is inserted into the conversation. Students who recognize repairs and are able to undertake them in their own speech come closer to native speaker proficiency.

Qualification refers to an elliptical interruption in the speaker’s flow of discourse that sets conditions about what is being explained or discussed. As with repair, there is a pause and an interruption phase, often signaled with expressions such as *except for, although not, unless and excluding*. Qualifications are often found in tentative speech where the speaker does not want to over-commit to an idea.

Elaboration is the opposite of qualification; it adds information to make some portion of the speaker’s message clearer. Elaborations are marked by words and phrases such as: *for example, as seen in, for instance, and which can be explained as*. Elaboration often occurs in a conversation when one’s interlocutor exhibits non-verbal cues of incomprehension, such as a frown.

But it is not enough to introduce examples of repair, clarification, and elaboration; tasks need to be created that are able to operationalize them in ways that engage the student and make learning memorable.

Discussion

Authenticity of Task

Authenticity in tasks is a challenge in language education because the classroom context makes most tasks inherently false.

Typical of a pedagogical context are the following three pre-reading tasks (related to the third excerpt), all aimed at awareness-raising; none are requests for information or questions one would normally encounter in a real world context.

1. In the following excerpt from Listening 1, note how the speaker, Julie Posetti, uses questions in addition to

repair, qualification and elaboration techniques to add content and effect to her presentation.

2. Rewrite the excerpt of Posetti's speech from task B, leaving out the questions and the repetitive aspects of repair, qualification and elaboration.

3. With your partner, compare your rewrites in task C to the original speech. Discuss how the use of questions, repair, qualification and elaboration clarifies information and adds effect to Posetti's speech (Beatty, 2013, p. 68).

Similarly, after the students have read the complete passage, there are post-reading comprehension tasks:

1. Why is breaking news likely to come from social media rather than local reporters?

2. What is a *viral story*? Give an example?

3. The diagram suggests that the news cycle is shortened in some cases and lengthened in others. Why and how would this occur?

4. If you're really interested in a story, you can usually look up archived content online for more details. How does this differ from access to story backgrounds in traditional media? (Beatty, 2013, p. 65)

Although these are closer to questions one might have in a real world conversation, they still feature the diction one associates with classroom teacher discourse (i.e., teacher talk).

Within the chapter in which Excerpt 3 is featured, there are three pedagogical tasks that, once awareness has been raised, allow students to engage in an authentic activity. The first authentic task is to summarize a portion of the speech; although this is an academic skill, it is common in the real world, for example, in response to the question, "What was she talking about?" The second task is to have students take notes, a common authentic task in Academic English as well as in other contexts as mundane as scribbling a recipe during a television cooking program. The third task involves having the students create a podcast based on authentic reactions to an authentic news story:

Warm-up Assignment: Prepare a Short Podcast on a News Event

Podcasts often feature interviews or speeches. In this assignment you will prepare and deliver a short speech and, after, answer questions on it. All speeches try to share information in a logical way that answers basic *who, what, when, where, why* and *how* questions and also engages the listener to reflect on the content presented (Beatty, 2013, p. 77).

The authenticity of this task lies not just in its focus on a real world context but also on the opportunity to make choices, allowing students to individualize the task, essentially choosing their own topics within the general format. There is a specific reason for structuring tasks in this way, particularly in the academic English classroom. When every student is given an identical task it encourages competition, the hoarding of resources

and, in extreme cases, cheating and plagiarism for students who feel they cannot compete or cannot be bothered to compete. However, when students are given the option of individualizing their assignments, it creates opportunities for collaboration; students naturally share their work without concern for their peers gaining an unfair advantage. A related benefit is that students comparing their work tend to use the target language to engage in negotiation of meaning and peer-learning. It also means that personal misunderstandings of the assignment are likely to be settled through clarifications by other students.

Authenticity of Situation

Authenticity of situation is among the most challenging aspects of authenticity for classroom teachers to provide to their students. Using the example of a visit to a natural ecosystem during which science students would conduct an experiment to explore a hypothesis and then report on their findings, students would learn by doing,

... and they acquire the foundational skills, knowledge, and understanding that working scientists actually need and use in their profession. In this case, students would also learn related skills such as critical thinking, problem solving, formal scientific observation, note taking, research methods, writing, presentation techniques, and public speaking (Authentic Learning, para. 3).

This can be contrasted to a classroom experience where the approach is more theoretical and less likely to demonstrate the student's abilities to transfer learning to a real world context, such as in a job.

The same is true of in-class experiences in academic English studies. Although there are many classroom activities that are authentic in terms of preparing students for the demands of being a student, they are not necessarily authentic in terms of life after college or university. The usual solution is to offer fieldtrips to visit places where authentic English can be used or to assign homework assignments that accomplish the same thing. However such assignments are sometimes only practical in locations where English is the target language.

Conclusion

In striving for authenticity in language teaching and learning, teachers tend to choose materials on a continuum of inauthentic, constructed and authentic. Inauthentic materials are those created by the teacher for a pedagogical purpose with little connection to the real world. For example, multiple-

choice tests are common in classrooms but relatively rare in the real world. Constructed materials are those adapted from real world examples, such as a simplified restaurant menu that replaces confusingly trademarked names (e.g., a *hamburger* instead of a *Big Whopper*) that unnecessarily add complexity. Authentic language, tasks, and situations come as close to the real world as possible.

Regardless of the degree of authenticity in language, tasks, and situations, there is an inherent inauthenticity in the selection process. For example, even if a teacher brings in a newspaper to class, choices will be made about what newspaper at what level. What should teachers do to engage students in more authentic materials, tasks and situations? The following are four suggestions:

1. Construct materials from authentic sources to familiarize students with language: vocabulary, structure and usage. This should be an intermediate step in moving students to engage with real world language, tasks and situations.

2. Develop student strategies to deal with the unexpected in authentic language, tasks and situations. One of the reasons teachers avoid authentic materials, tasks and situations is that they present language items which are either superfluous to students' needs or which are too complex for their level of comprehension. Solutions include teaching students strategies for understanding new vocabulary from context and clarification, particularly in spoken contexts (e.g., *Could you explain what you mean by ____?*).

3. Create pedagogical scenarios for role-plays in which students play parts connected with their own realities. Traditional role-plays often focus on situations that are inauthentic for a student, for example, having primary school students pretending to be dentists and receptionists when their only likely role is to be patients. Instead, consider linking students to their own realities by exploring with them the language events they encounter throughout a typical day. Even if they do not use English in such situations outside the classroom, they are more likely to mentally rehearse what they have learned.

4. Create authentic materials students are likely to come across, and realistic L1 course content in terms of language, tasks and situations. But avoid reinventing the wheel, doing work that has already been done for you either by fellow teachers or in published materials.

Finally, while authenticity should be a goal, it should not overwhelm other considerations. Shomoossi & Ketabi (2007) write,

“Both educators and materials designers need to stop thinking about authenticity as a dictated imperative having an ‘either/or’ quality but rather think of it as

being multifaceted and applicable to different phases of language classroom processes.” (p. 154)

Authenticity is important, but it should not overwhelm a teacher's attempts to offer creative student-centered pedagogy.

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Appendix A

Running With Scissors: Authenticity in the Classroom

Note: Completing this form signals your willingness to participate in this study. No personal information will be reported in the study or used for any other purpose.

Name: _____ . male female.

Age: ____

Sabana University Residential Group (check one)

1 2 3

Years of teaching experience: ____

Grades or levels you have taught:

Please read the following excerpts and decide whether each is authentic or inauthentic.

Excerpt 1 (check one):

authentic inauthentic

When he was 20 years old, Daniel Northcott began ten years of traveling the world with his video camera. Eventually, he would undertake trips across 42 countries on four continents, visiting different cities, warzones and sacred sites. He ended up with more than 1,000 hours of film. At each special place he visited, he would also collect a small souvenir, often in the form of a circular or ball-shaped object. On one of his last trips, he visited a sacred cave in Mexico. The floor was covered with the ancient bones of people who had been sacrificed there. Daniel took one bone,

despite the warning of his guide who said that he would be cursed.

Excerpt 2 (check one):

authentic inauthentic

Smith: Of course! My mistake. Since 2007. It's sort of a meeting of geniuses and inventors, isn't it?

Fox: (laughs) Well, I'm not sure how many people would call themselves geniuses, but actually, we have these beliefs about geniuses and inventors working alone but truthfully many innovations come out of the work of groups. Even the great scientist Isaac Newton said, "If I have seen farther, it is by standing on the shoulders of giants." His own—

Smith: Did you say *giants*? What did he mean by *giants*?

Fox: He meant his ideas and inventions were based on the work of the great scientists who came before him.

Excerpt 3 (check one):

authentic inauthentic

Right back to the first breaking news event that is associated with Twitter's incursion into daily journalism, which was the Hudson River plane crash. And that involved a ferry operator—or passenger, rather, on a ferry—the operator was taking the ferry to the rescue scene on the Hudson River. And he took a snap on his mobile phone of the plane crashed into the river, which you could recognize if you saw it, and that became viral almost instantly as a result of him posting it on Twitter, via his mobile phone, and it was shared around the world.

New Approaches to Teacher Development in an EAP Context

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Professional development is an important part of teachers' professional lives. It involves improvement of individual skills, personal performance, chances of obtaining a good job, and career advancement. The article reports on teacher professional development of English language teachers. It, first, explains the need for teacher training seminars and an increased demand for new IELTS exam teaching skills based on a study conducted by the author; then it outlines standards for English teachers and, finally, it looks at various areas of teacher development at the tertiary level, such as teaching portfolio, collaboration, teacher study groups, workshops, and research seminars. Findings reveal that teachers lack experience of teaching for IELTS and its assessment; they have also difficulties in teaching academic style to students and explaining the text structure for two IELTS essays; the format of the speaking part is also a problem with several teachers. These results indicate that there is a need for teacher training seminars as the first step in teacher development and a demand for continuous professional development in a particular university context.

Keywords: teacher standards, teacher training, teacher development, IELTS exam preparation, tertiary level, EAP

English language teachers in Russia obtain their teaching qualifications at Pedagogical universities and Philological faculties of universities. To get a qualification of foreign language teaching, students take a 4-year Bachelor course. Many graduates choose to follow a 2-year Master's course to be able to conduct research into Philology or Pedagogy and do Post-graduate studies. University graduates become professional language teachers who understand that 'a "professional" is a trained and qualified specialist who displays a high standard of competent conduct in their practice' (Leung, 2009, p. 49).

Nevertheless, teaching English at a secondary school is different from teaching at a university. And even working at Humanitarian and Technical universities English language teachers need different skills. Under these circumstances, the question of teacher training and teacher development arises: how can this process be organised in order to meet the requirements of teachers and give them ground for further development?

This paper aims to analyse teachers' needs for new skills and their difficulties in obtaining them, the role of teacher training seminars in this process and

possible ways of further English language teacher development in a Russian context.

Materials and Methods

Teaching English at the National Research University Higher School of Economics (HSE) was initially based on the concept of teaching General English, Business English, and Professional English – an approach widely used in technical and economic universities in Russia. In *General English* classes, students perfected their knowledge of grammatical structures and functions; they extended their vocabulary to fulfil these functions in roles, topics, and discussions. They were taught to converse on different themes and take part in discussions, to analyse authentic materials from newspapers and magazines, to write formal and informal letters. In *Business English* classes, students developed their reading and listening comprehension of business and economic texts; they were provided with an opportunity to express business concepts

in their own words while analysing and discussing such issues as company structures, work motivation, recruitment, advertising and marketing, franchising, retailing, banking, stocks, etc. The purpose of ESP (*English for specific purposes*) course was to develop students' restricted knowledge of economic terms and topics which included micro- and macroeconomic issues, tools of economic analysis, supply and demand, price, income, money and banking, central banking and international trade. Students had a weekly input of 4 hours during the 1st and 2nd academic years, 2 hours in the 3rd year, and 4 hours in the 1st semester in the 4th year. Testing was organised in the way that they took a 2-stage exam in English. In the first stage, they had to do multiple choice tasks based on listening to a lecture or an interview in their subject area, prepare a summary and an analysis of the factual information. In the 2nd stage, they prepared a summary of their diploma work and presented it at the end of the 4th year.

These ideas formed a basis for the concept of teaching English at the Higher School of Economics (HSE). Its aim was to form and develop English language competence necessary for solving practical tasks in various communicative and professional situations, sociocultural competence, and behavioural stereotypes essential for successful adaptation of graduates in the labour market; to develop students' self-study skills which can help them obtain knowledge and skills necessary for social and professional communication in English (The Concept of teaching foreign languages at the HSE, 2005, p. 1). Taking into account the fact that the number of hours per group and per week was limited to four, faculties could form their own combination of aspects depending on course objectives, either General English and ESP or Business English and ESP. According to the concept, students' competence was measured by their ability to retrieve necessary information from reading and listening tasks, to produce their own texts, both written and oral, using professional vocabulary, make summaries, and write formal and informal letters. The final exam included a listening task, writing a summary to a text and written analysis of factual information, in the 1st stage and making a presentation in the 2nd. The concept and the English language syllabus based on it worked for 5 years.

Results

A Change in Strategy

In five years' time, there occurred a need to systematise approaches to English language teaching and to standardise the English language proficiency levels. The Common European

Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/cadre1_en.asp) abbreviated as CEFR, and the programme 'Foreign language', recommended by the Methodological committee of the Ministry of Education (ESP Programmes and Projects – ELT in Russia) form the foundation for a new concept of teaching English at the HSE. The aim of the new concept was 'to ensure transparency of the requirements for English language competence formation at the Bachelor's level' (HSE, 2010, p. 2). Its objectives were: to develop the all-University English language syllabus meeting the requirements of all faculties; to relate it to international certification; to develop communicative competence necessary for academic and professional activities in English. The concept also aimed at achieving maximum correspondence with international standards in teaching foreign languages in reference to a mutual aim, transparency of the content of the programme, teaching techniques, and assessment criteria. An accord with international standards was to be realised through an introduction of international examinations: IELTS and BEC. The purpose of this concept was to contribute to the creation of the common European environment of higher professional education corresponding to the requirements of the European Union for the internationalisation of higher education and the development of academic and professional mobility of graduates (HSE, 2010, p. 2). The syllabus prepared on the basis of this concept aimed to form students' communicative competence (social, linguistic, sociolinguistic, sociocultural, discursive, pragmatic, and strategic competences) necessary to use the English language in their academic, scientific, and professional activities. Language communicative competence is understood in this concept as 'a sum total of individual student's qualities (knowledge, skills, and abilities) which can be used to solve problems and find answers to questions occurring during students' academic, sociocultural, professional, and everyday communication in a foreign language' (Solovova, Kuzmina, & Sternina, 2009, p. 2) (translation – mine). By the end of a four-year course in the Bachelor's programme students are to obtain the level of B2 – intermediate level or C1 – advanced level in CEFR. The main difference from the previous concept was in a shift from traditional General and Business English to academic skills development and correlation with European standards. Academic skills to be obtained by students, according to this concept, can be summarised in the following table.

This concept was a breakthrough in teaching English for many teachers because it meant a change in their teaching practices. In the world of teaching practices this change is called by some authors 'a

Table 1
Skills description

Skill	Description
Speaking	to be able to maintain conversation with native speakers; to participate in discussions on familiar issues; to develop an argumentative discussion in an academic and professional environment.
Writing	to be able to write essays and reports, develop arguments for and against, to write business letters.
Reading and Listening	to be able to comprehend lectures, articles, and reports on familiar themes; to take notes from a lecture in a professional environment.

(HSE, 2010, p. 3)

concept change' which they interpret as 'a move from general English into EAP teaching' (Alexander, Argent, & Spencer, 2008, p. 18).

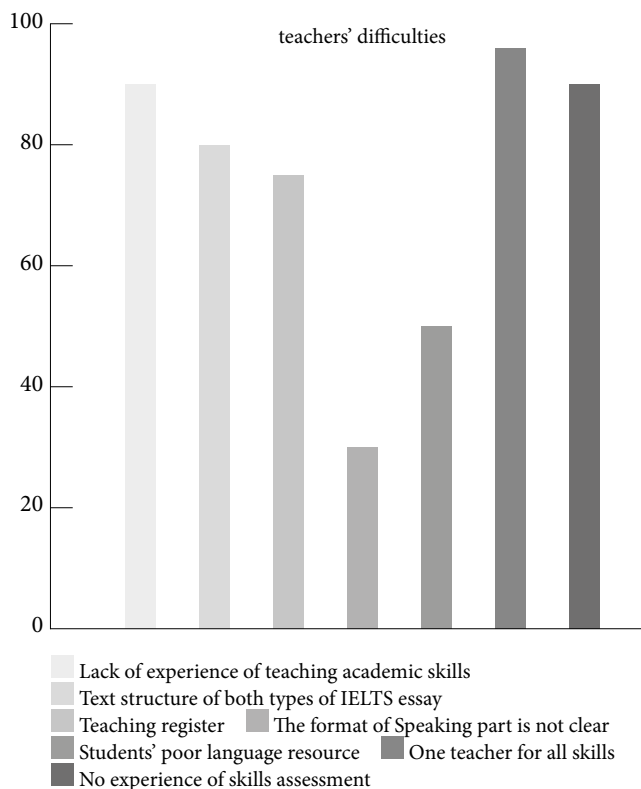


Figure 1. Results of the questionnaire.

Needs Analysis

Being university teachers, established teachers of English in a classroom stick to a university approach: they widely use pair-work or work in threes and fours, role-playing, making presentations on professional issues. The majority of them would use authentic lectures and reading texts in students' subject areas and develop additional tasks to check students' understanding of listening and reading materials in their lessons according to specifically developed criteria. Both teachers and students understand that the skills to be obtained are an investment in students' future, and this is the reason why the teaching process ought to be effective. During a study conducted at the Faculty of Economics at the HSE, 15 teachers of English were interrogated about difficulties that they have in teaching for IELTS exam. The results of this survey can be seen in Figure 1. In their responses, the majority of teachers (in percentage) named the lack of experience of teaching academic skills to the students as one of the major difficulties. Being professional teachers with years of experience of teaching General English, Business English or Professional English, they mentioned that teaching register was a big problem because many students did not differentiate between literary style and academic style and even conversational style. This can be easily explained because at school pupils are taught to write compositions, not essays. Another main problem which teachers faced was text structure of both types of IELTS essay. At the beginning of the writing course, all students found writing an impersonal essay according to a specific format almost very difficult. Several teachers complained that the format of the speaking part of IELTS exam was not clear to them even though they could differentiate between general purpose and academic speaking skills. Nearly half of the interrogated teachers named students' poor language bank as a difficulty which was unequally shared among students' language levels. Among other challenges mentioned by teachers were the following: one teacher for all skills which results in the lack of time for each skill to be developed and no experience of skills assessment. These problems were mentioned by nearly all teachers.

The needs of university teachers were analysed by the administration of the HSE, and after short negotiations with native English speakers who work at the HSE a series of teacher training seminars was organised. Both parties treated this training as 'activities directly focused on a teacher's present responsibilities and ... typically aimed at short-term and immediate goals', as 'preparation to take on a new teaching assignment' (Richards & Farrell, 2005, n.p.). The seminars included explanation of IELTS reading,

listening, writing, and speaking formats. Multimedia presentations showing candidates taking speaking tests and an analysis of example tasks, information on assessment criteria, on common problems and common students' errors was provided. All teachers who participated in the seminars found them useful and helpful but not sufficient. In terms of the specification of teaching academic writing and assessment criteria there was a demand for additional seminars. In order to meet this increased demand, three seminars were organised for representatives of three faculties: Economics, Management, and Law. Those seminars aimed to provide teachers with a detailed analysis of essay titles, essays' text structure, and language resource. In their feedback, many teachers admitted that they finally acquired an understanding of what teaching for IELTS exam is.

Discussion

Professional Standards

In the teacher training seminars, all teachers realised that they wanted to have a better understanding of the *conceptualisation of teacher professionalism* and their future *effectiveness* as teachers. In general usage, a professional is 'a trained and qualified specialist who displays a high standard of competent conduct in their practice. The term *professionalism* is regularly used in a constitutive sense to refer to practitioners' knowledge, skills, and conduct' (Burns & Richards, 2009, p. 49). The research conducted by Barduhn and Johnson showed that there is uncertainty about complexity, practicality, and reliability of assessment systems and existing standards based mainly on observed behaviour (Barduhn & Johnson, 2009, pp. 63–64). Among areas that need changes and which were identified by the researchers, the following are the most topical in an ELT environment:

- 'higher language proficiency before nonnative speakers are allowed into teaching programmes;
- fairer and more rigorous assessment;
- retraining of lecturers;
- better access to courses, exams, and opportunities for further development'.

Out of 11 factors listed by Barduhn and Johnson, these four were chosen to be quoted since they cover areas for improvement which are very challenging for ELT in Russia. For instance, the university diploma and assigned qualification of an ELT teacher is valid for both a secondary school and a university (either Pedagogical, Humanitarian or Technical), and teaching practice obtained in the university course covers only school. Besides, EL teacher assessment in a number of institutions is a formality which involves only paper

work. In addition, both retraining of lecturers and better access to opportunities for teacher development must be well planned and properly organised by the administration and taken into account in teacher assessment alongside with other factors.

Teachers of English working at the HSE would probably question themselves about what skills and knowledge they need in order to demonstrate professionalism and competence in teaching English. In fact, National Standards of Education in Russia exist but they refer basically to the professional standard of a teacher in general without specification of any particular area or subject. According to this standard, which is a set of competencies, a teacher must be competent in personal qualities, in setting aims and objectives, in the development of students' motivation, in programme writing and making decisions, in forming information base for the teaching process and in teaching organisation (Shadrikov & Kuznetsova, 2010, p. 17). Personal qualities are described in this document as professionalism and an ability to be an effective teacher, which includes such qualities as high general intelligence, self-organisation, good knowledge of the subject, and an ability to understand and respect other people (Shadrikov & Kuznetsova, 2010, pp. 118–120). Competence in students' motivation is revealed in the teacher's ability to motivate students to develop and be successful in adult life. The competence in forming information base is characterised by the teacher's theoretical and methodological competence, professionalism in teaching and an ability to obtain and provide necessary professional information (Shadrikov & Kuznetsova, 2010, pp. 126–132). A competent teacher must maintain good relationships with students, manage the teaching process and assess its results.

TESOL standards involve five domains: Language, Culture, Professionalism, Instruction, and Assessment (Katz & Snow, 2009, p. 69). Some researchers (Smith, 2007) put features characterising standards for teachers into four levels (individual, group, school, and profession) and three domains (behavioural, affective, and cognitive). According to these standards, teachers must demonstrate competence in various domains not only in their own classroom, but in working with peers, taking on a role at the school level, and acting as a professional in the wider community (Katz & Snow, 2009, p. 69). Similar standards for teachers have been developed in other countries (e.g., Egypt, China, Australia, etc.) but what they have in common is a link to standards required of their students.

Standards serve as a common frame of reference for talking about teaching and learning (Katz & Snow, 2009, p. 72). They outline a set of competences for an effective teacher and ways to assess these competences. A competent and effective teacher must

be aware not only whether his or her qualification matches the standard but also of the standards and needs of English language learners and how to assess their progress. Under the circumstances of changing standards, many teachers of English realise that they can be given new roles and responsibilities; some of them will be involved in programme design and obtaining new skills in teaching academic English. As an innovative National Research University, the Higher School of Economics expects its teachers to become materials and course developers and researchers in various areas: philology, linguistics, pedagogy, and methods of teaching. On the other hand, standards have a potential to guide professional development innovations such as teaching portfolios, teacher collaboration, workshops and research seminars, and self-monitoring.

Innovations in Teacher Development

The concept of *teaching portfolio* is new to the majority of the colleagues at the HSE. Even though some of the teachers could have heard something about it they never looked upon it as part of their competence and professionalism. A teaching portfolio is 'a collection of documents and other items that provides information about different aspects of a teacher's work. It serves to describe and document the teacher's performance, to facilitate professional development, and to provide a basis for reflection and review. ... It is another form of teacher development that is built around self-appraisal and teacher-directed learning' (Richards & Farrell, 2005, p. 98). It represents who you are, what you do, why you do it, where you have been, where you are, where you want to go, and how you plan on getting there' (Evans, 1995, p. 11). In Japan, for example, such a portfolio is required to be submitted every 2 years for evaluation by an elected committee of faculty peers and administration. It must be prepared according to a standard and usually includes: an updated CV, a concise letter of self-evaluation of teaching, samples of course materials demonstrating a pedagogical approach, creativity, willingness to adjust to the educational need of students, and standards of judgments on student performance, and examples of scholarship (Richards & Farrell, 2005, pp. 99–100).

Teaching portfolios are not required but are now talked about at some Russian universities and, specifically, at the HSE. Candidates for lecturers, senior lecturers, assistant professors and professors are assessed according to the following criteria:

1. Education and degrees
2. Achievements and promotion
3. Participation in research projects
4. Research activity (publications)

5. Presentations at conferences

All this information is kept on a teacher's personal page on the Web-site of the university. Apart from the required information, a teacher can include additional information, for instance, membership in various Committees and Teachers' associations (for example, TESOL, IATEFL). Many teachers outline their professional interests and skills taught. All this information must be put on the teacher's personal page and must be updated regularly. Why do teachers still need to compile a portfolio? The answer is obvious: it gives a teacher a chance to assess his or her own progress and establish goals for personal development. It can also facilitate the teacher's assessment by the administration. Apart from the required information stated above, the contents of a portfolio can include:

1. Copies of education and degrees documents
 2. Certificates of courses taken in areas one teaches
 3. An evaluation of supervisor and colleagues who visited the teacher's class
 4. Self-evaluation of lessons taught
 5. Lesson plans
 6. Examples of teaching materials
 7. A professional development plan
 8. A report on conference or workshop attended
 9. A report on ways the teacher has contributed to the colleagues' professional development
 10. Photographs of classes taught
- (Richards & Farrell, 2005, pp. 103–105)

Some of the ideas relating to teaching portfolios have been borrowed from Richards and Farrell (2005), but since there has been no experience of compiling and using teaching portfolios so far at the university it is possible to examine and even adapt these ideas which might work in a specific teaching context. Interestingly, there is evidence that in some contexts teachers keep student's portfolio or student's personal file which comprises students' everyday home assignments and class activities. Some teachers also keep test papers, reading records, creating writing pieces, and term report cards (Shrestha, 2013, p. 155).

Next innovation in teacher development is *collaboration*. Collaboration is viewed as

'a process that facilitates teacher development, serves to generate knowledge and understanding, and helps to develop collegiality, and one which teachers should have or share control of. Such collaboration can take many different forms, such as between teacher and teacher, teacher and university researcher, teacher and students, and parents or administration.' (Burns & Richards, 2009, p. 239)

Working on one's own to achieve a goal is less effective than in a group. A good means of collaboration

with other teachers is *teacher support groups*. They usually include ‘two or more teachers collaborating to achieve either their individual or shared goals or both’ (Richards & Farrell, 2005, n.p.). A support group is not a staff meeting; participation in it is voluntary and is meant for the good of its participants. Teachers can discuss problems, important issues, experiences, and concerns. Collaborating on materials development and syllabus writing or programme adjustment can be both beneficial for professional development and building up a good relationship with the colleagues. Trying out new strategies is a useful collaborative learning activity on the basis of a teacher support group. It can be performed in the form of class observation with subsequent implementation of the strategy by other members of the teacher group and a later discussion of experience and focus on specific problems. Some scholars such as Richards & Farrell (2005) see benefits from being in a teacher support group:

- increased motivation (which can expand to participating in other professional development projects outside the support group);
- effective teaching (can lead to innovative changes in teaching);
- benefits to students;
- overcoming isolation (can lead to a sharing attitude among teachers);
- facilitating teacher initiatives (Richards & Farrell, 2005, n.p.)

A teacher support group is one of the forms of collaboration that does work at the HSE. The groups are not fixed, and the activities are informal, but they are productive in the above listed areas. They are basically formed as topic-based teacher groups to discuss some important issues in the 1st or 2nd year or other aspects of teaching.

Writing plans, teaching materials, books, and research articles together with foreign colleagues can be another form of collaboration. This can be done in the form of Partnership University project with universities in other countries in the world. It could be implemented as teacher exchange and student exchange, teacher training seminars and round-table talks and discussions on various joint projects and materials development and writing coursebooks. It can also help teachers with different levels of training and experience to learn from each other.

Workshops can be looked at as another innovative form of teacher development for teachers of the English language at the HSE. A workshop usually helps teachers ‘to acquire specific knowledge and skills. Led by an expert with experience in the workshop topic this session serves a unique opportunity for teachers to learn from experts (Richards & Farrell, 2005, n.p.). Unlike workshops, *research seminars* can improve

teachers’ theoretical knowledge and understanding of many issues in ELT. At the HSE, they are very customary in other subjects such as Economics, Mathematics, and Sociology, but are now at the initial stage of development at the Department of Foreign languages. Invitation of foreign experts to such seminars could enhance the importance of research activities of teachers at the HSE and their informative value. Each presenter could submit an abstract summarising his or her research method and results and their applicability to everyday teaching. Such a seminar can be organised once a month and held in an adopted format. Many teachers of English at the HSE consider the idea of regular research seminars as valuable experience of teacher development and personal investment.

Conclusion

Teacher development is a crucial part of teachers’ professional lives after their formal education is over. The need for it is understood by all language teachers in the world as well as the fact that a much higher level of professionalism in ELT is needed every year. As it has been explained through the example of one particular teaching context in this paper, it is becoming more and more topical in Russia if language teachers want to become part of the worldwide English language community of professionals ‘with shared goals, values, discourse, and practices’ (Burns & Richards, 2009, p. 3). It involves many issues but only a few were given attention to so far. Further research and analysis in the sphere of teacher development could focus on other innovations such as peer observation and peer coaching which are also new to many teachers involved in ELT at the HSE.

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On the Conceptual Basis of the English Adjectival Category

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The paper focuses on the cognitive foundation of English adjectives that denote mental characteristics of human beings. Several cognitive models have been advanced in an attempt to account for the semantic structure underlying the lexical category in question. After reviewing these models, a method for determining which of them most accurately captures the “cognitive reality” of English adjectival “deep structure” is proposed. The paper concludes with arguments for the inclusion of additional “motion attributes” to Lakoff’s ICM (1987), namely, “guide’s support” and “speed”.

Keywords: lexical category, conceptual base, cognitive model, metaphoric concept, image schema, archetypical concept

Relatively recently, a number of language phenomena and issues have been reinterpreted from the perspective of cognitive linguistics. Particularly noteworthy are the developmental genesis of new meanings by words (Vendler, 1967; Lakoff, 1987, pp. 416-46; Belyaevskaya, 1992), the cognitive associations behind metaphors (Jonson & Lakoff, 1980; Zyikova, 2014) and psychological motifs for creating synonyms (Porohnitskaya, 2014), to name but a few. Cognitive linguistics has also made inroads into language teaching, enabling learners to understand the reasons for selecting one word over another in a particular communicative context through explanation of their conceptual grounds. To more accurately and fully understand a speaker’s communicative intentions, it is necessary to glean the “deep” structure, or concept, underlying a word’s “surface” characteristics (Chomsky, 1965, pp. 64-67; Lakoff, 1987, pp. 311-312; Croft & Cruse, 2004, p. 30). Otherwise, learners end up grasping just a tiny fraction of a word or phrase’s meaning, at times totally misunderstanding it. Language learners should be encouraged to decipher the deep, conceptual meaning conveyed by lexical units and make connections between the outer form of the word and its conceptual basis.

The aim of the present research is to ascertain the principles underlying human categorization of “quality” in English, in particular, the categorization

of mental characteristics via adjectives. The following hypothesis is advanced: The conceptual basis of the adjectival category is formed by archetypical conceptions/ideas specified by certain cognitive models. In this study, the category includes 400 adjectives of varying word structure, namely, simple, derived and compound words.

“Parole” formation resulting in “langue” formation is closely connected with the processes of conceptualization and categorization of real-world objects, events and phenomena. In his monograph on language origin, Jespersen argues that man is naturally predisposed to classification, that he “is a classifying animal” and “the process of speaking is nothing but distributing phenomena, of which no two are alike in every respect, into different classes on the strength of perceived similarities and dissimilarities” (Jespersen, 1922, pp. 387-388).

In the same vein, Lakoff claims that the ability to categorize is a distinguishing feature of a human being’s mind, perception, action and speech. Without it people could not function in the physical world let alone their social and intellectual lives since “any time we produce or understand any utterance... we are employing dozens if not hundreds of categories: categories of speech sounds, of words, of phrases and clauses, as well as conceptual categories” (Lakoff, 1987, pp. 5-6). The bulk of the empirical research

indicates that the process of categorization is largely automatic and unconscious. This, in turn, often leads to the illusion that we categorize things “as they are, that things come in natural kinds and that our categories of mind naturally fit the kinds of things there are in the world” (Lakoff, 1987, p. 6). However, categorization is the result of implicit reasoning that unwittingly gives rise to subjective worldviews quite removed from “reality”. From this it is clear why investigating categories is imperative, as elucidation of its mechanisms will enable a better understanding of the way in which people think about and interpret the world.

Lakoff argues that any process of categorization is guided by idealized cognitive models (ICMs) which organize our knowledge, with category structures cognitive by-products. With respect to structuring principles, four kinds of ICMs - likened to “gestalts” - have been identified: image schematic, propositional, metaphoric and metonymic (Lakoff, 1987, p. 68, p.154). As we shall see, the category of adjectives denoting mental properties is structured by image schematic and metaphorical cognitive models.

Materials and Methods

Conceptualization of the Ontological Category of Property through Adjectives

Being a biological species, people demonstrate universal and natural mind archetypes, or common ways of reasoning about the world (Mann, 1960, p. 175; Jung, 2005). So, alongside apparent differences there exist some universal principles of categorization to which typological research testifies, for instance, that of Denny (in Lakoff, 1987, pp. 112-113). The major conceptual categories are considered to be seven ontological categories, or so-called conceptual “parts of speech”: Thing, Event, State, Place, Path, Property and Amount. What is more, the mapping between conceptual and syntactic categories is many-to-many (Jackendoff, 1992, p. 34). Concerning English, the ontological category of Property is represented by adjectives, in particular.

It should be mentioned, and not in passing, that conceptualization of property (or quality) via adjectives does not occur simultaneously with speaking genesis. Adjectives as a part of speech appear well after the formation of cardinal ones. Part of speech evolution commences with the substantive and then proceeds to the verb and finally to the adjective (Kubryakova, 2008, p. 39). The assumption that the property categories of verb and adjective arise from the substance category as a result of distinguishing between an entity (thing) and its constituents (properties) is justified by the

fact that a child acquires the names of things before the names of their properties (Kubryakova, 2004, p. 253-270). This affects directly the formation of the adjectival category conceptual base in the English language.

The category chosen for this study includes mental property adjectives which denote one of the characteristics verbalized in the first place. While analyzing an array of the ergative languages (African, Australian and the languages of American Indians), R. Dixon registered in closed, small and thus estimated groups of adjectives the nominations of human mental characteristics, namely, stupid, foolish, clever, intelligent, wise. As the researcher persuasively argues that “only significant qualities have names” (Dixon, 1982, p. 50), we can conclude that intellectual capabilities belong to basic human characteristics. In English, the category of mental property adjectives can be traced back to the Old English period.

Intellectual activities regulate and determine all other kinds of activities – physical, theoretical and artistic practices as well as communication and behaviour. Therefore, a person possesses several types of knowledge: scientific, practical, religious, artistic, rational, irrational, personal, etc. (SFS, 2004, p. 241). As a person naturally finds himself in one or another community, he inevitably becomes involved in some form of communication. Subconscious estimation and evaluation of the intellectual abilities of one’s interlocutor for the purpose of achieving a particular interaction is part and parcel of any communication. In fact, intellectual abilities play such a significant role that they compelled Chafe to single out, among the basic processes of verbalization, those dealing with the speaker’s estimation of both the addressee’s mind state at the current moment and its operational abilities within a certain communicative act (Cheyff, 1983, pp. 38-39).

Results

Peculiarities of the Lexical Category “Mental Characteristics of Human Beings” Represented by English Adjectives

Since cognitive linguistics, in contrast to classical theory of categorization, acknowledges various kinds of category structure, it is necessary to determine which kind of category the adjectival category in question belongs to. It is a lexical category; that is, a category that reflects the world’s ontology, or our encyclopedic, extra-linguistic knowledge about natural objects, phenomena and their qualities. Boldyrev notes that in such categories, words are grouped together not according to their language

features but on the grounds of logical inclusion into the same category of objects denoted by them. Lexical categories rest on the invariant-variant principle, which implies comparison with the invariant and identification of the invariant features replicated in every variant (Boldyirev, 2009, pp. 29-31). Given that they are logical, or abstract, constructions, they should not be considered as language categories in the strict sense. Rather, they are language analogues of categories that include natural objects and objects of man's inner world, thereby realizing the gnoseological language function (Kolshanskiy, 1976, p. 22; Boldyirev, 2012, pp. 56-61).

Lexical categories are deprived of prototypical effects, as the existence of the most typical (or prototypical) lexeme to express some lexical meaning is hardly possible (Boldyirev, 2013, p. 7).

In addition, it is claimed in the present research that another peculiarity of the mental property adjectival category is that its referential points and boundary emerge within a certain context. It was Croft and Cruse who first described such categories (Croft & Cruse, 2004, p. 89, pp. 93-95) when citing Lakoff's example of the graded category *tall man* (Lakoff, 1987, p. 56). The quality denoted by mental property adjectives can in no way be perceived, as it manifests itself in manner of behaviour, speaking, works, etc. (i.e., in the products of human activities). When a speaker names someone as *clever*, *aware* and *sagacious* or, vice-versa, *stupid* and *unaware*, the judgment, in fact, refers to the manifestation of knowledge restricted to a specific communicative situation and specific participants. Things considered to be achievements for a child and motivate calling him clever are never viewed this way when applied to a grown-up. Every individual's intellectual abilities are unique and are first estimated according to his own scale and second according to other people's scale. Moreover, estimated knowledge covers only certain contextually determined fields. For instance, we can estimate a person's gifts, common sense, life experience, skills, etc. It goes without saying that a person can be a true professional in possession of extraordinary knowledge in a certain field, and, at the same time, demonstrate profound ignorance as far as other fields of knowledge are concerned. So, the characteristics *clever/stupid* are quite subjective with respect to an individual's intellectual activity, lending support to the notion that the reference points and boundary of this adjectival category are context dependent.

Factors Influencing the Conceptual Base of the Adjectival Category

It is argued in this research that this category's conceptual base is influenced by two factors. Firstly, the

adjectives denote an abstract, unperceived property: mind's activity cannot be seen or touched or tested with the help of sensory organs. This lexical category is of particular interest in this respect. To describe abstract ideas, a human being employs metaphors as they help our mind understand "something difficult for cognition, something invisible, concealed, hard to understand" (Nikitin, 1996, p. 253). At the pre-logical syncretic reasoning stage, there prevails not classifying but metaphorical (analogous, associative) ways of comprehending things (Nikitin, 2003, p. 50). Even primitive poetry and oratorical prose used metaphors (Meletinskiy, 1998, p. 64). Taken together, studies on the way people categorize suggest that reasoning is embodied and imagination and human categorization are essentially a matter of both human experience (perception, motor activity, culture) and imagination (metaphor, mental imagery) (Lakoff, 1987, p. xvii, p. 8).

Another peculiarity of human reasoning that affects the quality of conceptualization is the systematization of real world data as polar opposites. Foreign and Russian scholars have observed similar antinomies in all archaic cultures, which has led to the conclusion that they rest on universal ground (C. Lévi-Strauss, V. V. Ivanov, V. N. Toporov, E. M. Meletinskiy, etc.). The universal, semantic ground underlying all binary classifications created by humans are ubiquitous – abounding in natural languages and in mythology. Meletinsky distinguished and meticulously analyzed numerous elementary semantic opposites and found that they correspond to initial space positioning and sensory perception (up/down, in/out, left/right, light/dark, far/close, etc.). These opposites are "objectified" and complemented by elementary correlations in cosmic space and time continuums (sky/earth, land/sea, sun/moon, winter/summer, north/south, etc.) and in social life (friend/foe, male/female, old/young, etc.). Further, one element of each oppositional pair is marked as positive while the other is marked as negative.

Meletinsky claims a direct linkage between distinguishing contrasting properties or features and separate things. We become aware of various objects of perception thanks to the contrast in their perceived qualities, and thus we can expose objects to elementary analysis and classification (Meletinsky, 1976, p. 231). The ability to contrast perceived qualities is unique to human world cognition: the mind singles out not an isolated quality on its own but one against the background of contrasting qualities. In the end, only opposing features are distinguished and denoted by means of language.

It is noteworthy that while enumerating lexical prototypes for each part of speech, Wierzbicka suggests semantically opposed concepts only for the adjectival category. For the verb category, for instance, separate

yet not polar items are given: *see*, *say*, *hear*, etc. Universal lexical adjectival prototypes are considered to be words with the meaning BIG and SMALL, GOOD and BAD, with the former pair serving as the best example (Vezhbtskaya, 2011, pp. 230-231). There is no doubt that these antinomies are evidence that the function of inherent adjectives is to denote contrasting features. As for adjectives denoting mental properties, they also demonstrate contrasting relations en route to forming binary semantic opposites, which can be conditionally labeled as “clever/stupid”.

Here a question arises: how can archetypical opposites that form the conceptual basis of the adjectival category be unearthed? The present research has demonstrated that they can be revealed through the etymological analysis of words; that is, by observing the “life of a word” and its semantic changes in the course of language system development. Etymological data can help clarify which idea a name rests on. Kubrykova notes that several etymological studies have established that at early stages of language formation the relationship between the world of things and the world of words was more direct, more immediate and even more apparent (Kubrykova, 2008, p. 19).

Discussion

Cognitive Models Underlying the Semantics of the English Adjectival Category

Taken together, the two aforementioned factors have influenced the interpretation and denotation of human intellectual properties. Let us justify this view with examples, beginning with metaphorical cognitive models.

As the research has shown, one cognitive motif of the adjectives under investigation is the conception of light and dark, of visible and indiscernible. Associations of reason and knowledge with light on the one hand and of stupidity and ignorance with darkness on the other, is universal. The source domains of metaphorical idealized cognitive models are archetypical conceptions LIGHT and DARKNESS, which form one of the fundamental antinomies. In fact, Pythagorians included it in their Table of Opposites. It has been distinguished by the mind on the strength of a primitive sensory perception (Meletinskiy, 1998, p. 230), namely, the visual one. In the human mind, there has developed an inextricable cause-and-effect relationship between the physical ability to see and knowledge acquisition. The logical sequence “to see, hence to know” is reflected in words originating from the Pre-Indo-European stem *weid-/wid- “to see” - in the meaning of the Old English preterite-present

verb *witan* (later – *wit* “to know”), which literally meant “I have seen, hence, I know”; in the meaning of the adjective *wise* and the noun *wit* (in Old English usually *gewit*) (OED).

According to folk experiential knowledge, a person having good sight is able to discern far-away obstacles and dangerous things on his path and thus try to avoid them. Moreover, a human is thought to be capable of seeing not only with the help of a special body organ – the eyes, but also with the help of mental sight, which enables us “to discern” forthcoming consequences of various actions, to be aware of what is likely to happen, otherwise saying to foresee. And foresight, prudence, has always been appreciated and regarded as a merit. The conceptual bases of the adjectives *far-sighted* (1641)¹ *far-seeing* (1837) are composed of the elementary conceptions “far” and “light” since both the verb *see* and the noun *sight* originates from the German stem *seχwan-, which in turn goes back to the Indo-European *seq- “to see”. Given that humans possess mental sight, it is supposed that there exist mental eyes, so to speak: *far-eyed* (1903). Keeping these eyes open, one can adequately comprehend and estimate the received information: *open-eyed* (1648) “having the mental ‘eyes’ open” (OED).

Another type of cognitive model which guides adjectival category structure is image schemas. Here, mental activity is understood in terms of a kinesthetic source-path-goal schema.

The conception of motion is archetypical, recognized since the dawn of human existence. The importance and essential character of this conception can be justified by the fact that Pythagorians’ Table of Opposites contains the antinomy “rest/motion” (Podosinov, 1999, p. 501).

Lakoff points out the following elements of its structure: a source (starting point), a destination (end point), a path (a sequence of contiguous locations connecting the source and the destination) and a direction (toward the destination) (Lakoff, 1987, p. 275). Knowledge and good reasoning are associated with these structural elements. For example, choosing the only right path implies certain knowledge: the adjective *learned* (XIV c.) originates from the Proto-Germanic *liznojan “to follow or find the track”, derived from the Pre-Indo-European stem *leis- “track”. On the contrary, motion along an unfamiliar, wrong path indicates ignorance, unawareness: *unlearned*, *clueless*. The etymon of the word *clueless* (1862) is the native English noun *clue* (the phonic variant is *clue*) meaning “ball of thread”, “yarn”. In the Middle English period, *clue* developed a metaphorical sense of “that which points the way” due to the myth about Theseus.

¹ In the brackets the year when the word was firstly registered is given.

Reaching the destination quickly and successfully is possible only if the right direction and trajectory have been chosen while moving along a closed looped path. Inability to understand something, to comprehend information, to make a decision is associated with circular motion. An individual's reason proceeds as if along a circuit: an informal adjective "loopy" (1925), meaning "mad or silly", is a derivative of the noun *loop*.

Reason and knowledge are associated with translational or upward motion, which also symbolize knowledge obtaining an advanced stage of development and progress. Conversely, stupidity and the inability to obtain knowledge are associated with reverse motion, or regress: *resourceful/unresourceful* originate from the Latin verb *surgere* "to rise, spring up"; proficient goes back to the Latin verb *proficio* "to make progress, go forward"; *backward* is derived from the word *aback* "backwards, behind", which is Germanic in origin.

In my view, aside from the constituents Lakoff has detailed, other attributes of motion comprise the source-path-goal schema, namely, the guide's support and speed. The participation of these ideas in the conceptual basis of the category can be exemplified by the following adjectives: *educated*, *uneducated*, *untrained* and *sagacious*. The more aware of the path a person is, the easier it is to successfully proceed to the goal. That is why, in some cases, the aid of a competent guide is needed: the adjective *educated* (XV c.) originates from the Latin verb *educare*, which is a frequentative of *educere* "bring out, lead forth", from *ex-* "out" and *ducere* "to lead". Travelling alone, unguided, a person can lose his way or take the wrong path: *uneducated*, *untrained* from the Pre-Indo-European stem **tragh-* "to pull, to draw". However, a traveler can also seek and achieve the goal on his own: *sagacious* relates to Pre-Indo-European stem **sag-* "to track down, trace, seek".

As for the conception of speed, my findings have shown that reason and knowledge are associated with high speed, while slow motion or cessation of motion are interpreted as stupidity: *slow* originates from the corresponding Old English adjective and conveys the sense "inactive, sluggish"; *stupid* can be traced back to the Latin verb *stupere* "to stop, be motionless, be stunned". The relationship between speed and cleverness is rooted in ontological knowledge, as "people's ideas about characteristic features of real animals have comprised zoomorphic codes" (Toporov, 1992, p. 441). This notion finds support in the fact that images of some animals have become conventional symbols of certain human behaviours, traits and character. For instance, an ass and a cow are considered to be etalons for slow-mindedness and stupidity, and a person likened to these animals typically ignores other people's explanations and guidance. Related zoonyms motivate the following adjectives: *bovine* (XIX c.) is derived from the Latin noun *bos*, *bov-* "ox,

cow"; *asinine* (XV c.) "extremely stupid or foolish" originates from the Latin adjective *asininus* "stupid", derived from the noun *asinus* "ass", which in Latin also meant "dolt, blockhead".

Interestingly, a clever, quick-thinking person can be presented as the personification of a creature capable of fast motion: British slang adjective *fly* (XIX c.) "clever, keen, ingenious" originate from the Old English *fleoge* "a flying insect".

All in all, the ICM image schema – the kinesthetic source-path-goal schema – comprises the following human mental property adjectival opposites: awareness/unawareness of the path, presence/absence of a guide, awareness/unawareness of the direction and high/low/zero speed of motion.

Observe, however, that semantics of an adjective can depend on more than one ICM. Let us take, as an example, the informal word *batty* (1907), which originates from the idiom *bats in one's belfry*. The conceptual basis of the adjective combines a kinesthetic schema, which conveys the idea of chaotic motion without a goal, direction, or path, and a metaphoric ICM, which instills the idea of darkness, hindering achievement of the goal and evoking a feeling of helplessness. Hendrickson notes that "the image of bats flapping their wings and squeaking in the dark is a strong one that does suggest craziness" (Hendrickson, 2008, p. 65).

Conclusion

In conclusion, it should be emphasized that the analysis of deep, conceptual structures underlying the semantics of English adjectives may afford us a precious glimpse of the conceptual basis of the category. This, in turn, would open the door to its comparison with that of other languages – for instance, Russian, with untold implications and applications for the language teaching process.

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Russian Students' Associative View of Germans

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The article investigates semantic forms of the association field 'German' in the linguistic consciousness of Russian students. It systematises Russian stereotypical ideas of Germans through a word association experiment. Five thematic areas of the semantic form 'German' are described. Both direct (from stimulus to response) and inverse (from response to stimulus) test items probing the associative field 'German' were analysed. The results indicate how stable stereotypical ideas of Germans are in the consciousness of today's Russian students.

Keywords: psycholinguistics, semantic form, stereotype, lingua-cultural community, naive linguistic picture, Russian

A growing body of research in linguistics utilizes associative experiments, with many investigators turning to the field of word associations (e.g., Entwisle, 1966; Deese, 1965; Cramer, 1968; Marshall et al., 1970, 1986; Postman et al., 1970; Kiss et al., 1973; Anderson et al., 1973; Made-van Bekkum van der, 1973; Nelson et al., 2000; Tikhonova, 2014). In psycholinguistics, semantic relations are based on the fundamental associative types of similarity, contiguity and contrast first articulated by the philosopher Aristotle. Within the framework of cultural approaches to linguistic phenomena, classifications of associative responses were developed (e.g., Sabitova, 1991; Ivanova, 1997; Eršova, 1998) that allow the structure and content of the 'naive, every day and subjective linguistic view of the world' (cf. Puzynina, 1992, p. 9; Apresjan, 1995, pp. 66–67) to be constructed. In this context, the goal of associative experiments is to expose the ideas surrounding particular facts and realities of modern life in the consciousness of a lingua-cultural community. Not of interest to the researcher, here, is the classical behavioural chain of "stimulus – response – connection between the two" or the linguistic features of responses evoked during an experiment. Rather, from the perspective of cultural psycholinguistics, it is much more important to gain a picture of individual images of the outside world in the consciousness of the speaker. Several classifications in comparative research on national consciousness are constructed on the basis of similar principles.

One of the newest and most original ideas in the classification of associations comes from Yury Karaulov (1999). In my view, his classification system shows the role of associations not just in a person's linguistic system but also in his naive, every day and subjective linguistic world view. In his work, Karaulov has introduced a revolutionary structure that he describes as the "semantic form [gestalt] of associative space" – a dynamic feature that enables fragments of the naive, linguistic picture to be "reconstructed". In essence, the semantic form recreates models of typical speakers for every national culture – ones that reflect the stimuli in the speaker's surrounding reality (Novikova, 1998, pp. 22–23). This structure is expanded upon through assignment of a response to one or more stereotypical characteristics of the speaker. These assigned responses activate different semantic features that are brought together in a thematic field. The combination of semantic fields forms "a gestalt" that reflects a particular aspect of the naive, linguistic world view of a lingua-cultural community. In essence, the naive linguistic picture is a kaleidoscopic combination of unique semantic forms.

This article attempts to reveal the semantic form of the association field "German" in the Russian linguistic consciousness. More specifically, the aim is to systematise Russian stereotypical ideas of Germans through a word association experiment and to determine how stable these ideas are in the consciousness of today's speakers (the last decade of the 20th and the first years of the 21st century).

Materials and Methods

The ‘Russian Association Dictionary’ (RAD) (Karaulov, 2002) served as the source of all test material. This associative thesaurus was created under the direction of Y. Karaulov and represents a comprehensive compilation of linguistic associations that speakers of Russian typically make. The dictionary was the result of a mass experiment that employed the following task. A questionnaire consisting of different word stimuli was administered to 11,000 participants (students from the 1st through 6th semester). In the first stage of the experiment, participants were asked to answer the question: “What do you associate with the Germans and Germany?” From this prompt “direct” reactions were recorded. In the second stage of the experiment, a different group of experimental participants were instructed to generate associations to the “direct” reactions obtained in the first stage of the experiment. These answers are referred to as “inverse” reactions. The participants had to write next to each stimulus the first associative response that came to mind. To analyse the associative field ‘German’, lexical items were chosen such that the outcome was either direct (from stimulus to response) or the inverse (from response to stimulus).

The total number of selected lexical items pertaining to the semantic form “Germans” was 607. The responses were classified into constant/stable, individual and unexplained. The individual and unexplained responses constituted types of semantic relations whose motivation could not be established (Sokolova, 1999, p. 25). The predominance of constant/stable/fixed responses attests to the stable character of ideas in the naive world view of the speaker. The predominance of individual and unexplained responses is a sign that in the naive world view of a lingua-cultural community, stereotypical ideas are being transformed in that a few stereotypes cease and new stereotypes form.

Results

In what follows, a description of the thematic areas of the semantic form ‘German’ is provided.

Thematic area 1. Germans as subjects or actors in social and historical events.

1.1. Germans in the Middle ages

росток – *Ганза* (germ/seed – because of the homonymy in Russian [rostok] as a plant part and as a German city).

1.2. Germans in the Second world war

The most frequent word associations observed in the RAD are those that represent Russians’

knowledge of the Second World War (especially the Great Fatherland/Patriotic War, which is how Russians describe their fight with Hitler’s Germany) in the structure of the semantic form. Germans/German/Germany. It has been noted that study participants belong only to the third post-war generation. They are therefore not eyewitnesses but rather carriers of various discourses – institutional (inter alia celebrations to mark victory in war), everyday (talks with eyewitnesses) and art discourses about the Second World War. The most frequent responses to the stimulus German were those that can be assigned to the association field The Second world war: *ариец* (Aryan – 2¹), *война* (war – 5), *враг* (enemy), *Гитлер* (Hitler – 2), *националист* (nationalist), *солдат* (soldier), *фашист* (fascist – 17), *фашизм* (fascism).

The stimulus Germany produced, among others, the following responses: *война* (war – 3), *войска* (troops), *враг* (enemy), *вывод войск* (troop withdrawal), *Гитлер* (Hitler), *побеждена, побежденная* (is defeated), *Рейхстаг* (Reichstag), *фашизм* (fascism – 2), *фашистская* (fascist), *фашисты* (fascists – 4).

The stimulus German evoked the following responses: *лагерь* (concentration camp), *солдат* (soldier), *фашизм* (fascism), *фашист* (fascist), *фронт* (front).

The words Germans/German/Germany that appeared as responses to other stimuli form the following word associations of the association field The Second world war: *атаковать – немцев* (to attack – the Germans *acc.*), *взять, штурмовать – Берлин* (to storm – Berlin), *вешать – Гитлер* (to execute – Hitler), *выстрел – Панцерфауст* (shot – anti-tank missile), *завоевание, захват – немцев* (capture, annexation – the Germans *acc.*), *крах – Гитлер* (collapse, defeat – Hitler), *лагерь – Гестапо* (camp – Gestapo), *мучить, предать – Гестапо* (to torture, to betray – Gestapo), *нацизм – в Германии* (Nazism – in Germany), *победа – над фашизмом, над ФРГ, Рейхстаг* (victory – over fascism – 5, over the FRG, the Reichstag building – 2), *процесс – Нюрнберг* (trial – Nuremberg – 3, from Nuremberg – 2), *пытка – фашистами, фашист* (torture – by the fascists, fascist), *разрушенное – Дрезден, Берлин* (destroyed – Dresden, Berlin), *советский – фашист* (Soviet – fascist), *солдат – рейха* (soldier – the Reich), *тыл – немцы* (Hinterland – Germans), *убить – фашист* (kill – fascist), *штурмовать – Рейхстаг* (storm – the Reichstag building – 5).

1.3. The visual picture of the ‘German fascists’

In this topic area, one also finds in the RAD such responses as: *Германия – нацистский крест*

¹ Throughout the article the numerals show the frequency with which various responses are given to a word. If there is no numeral after the response then it was only given by one person in the sample.

(Germany – swastika), *коричневый – нацист, фашизм, фашист* (brown – Nazi, fascism, fascist), *немец – в каске, каска, мотоцикл, с автоматом* (German – in a helmet, helmet, military motor cycle, with a submachine gun), *немец – не придет!* (German – (he) is not coming!), *руки – немец* (hands – German meant is the Nazi salute with a raised arm), *смерть – фашистам!* (death – the fascists! – 6).

1.4. Germans as Aryan

The most frequent response to the stimulus German was Aryan. This seems to indicate a strong connection between these two terms in the national consciousness of Russian students. It should be emphasised that in the analysed association field the original and rather outdated meaning in the Russian vocabulary of the word *арийцы* (Aryan), as a description of Indians and Iranians and later of all people that spoke an Indo-European/Indo-Germanic language, was only sporadically present. The following responses, even when from a naive and frequently false interpretation, can carry such meanings as: *ариец – иностранец, африканец, восток, вьетнамец, негры, туземцы* (Aryan – foreigner, African, Eastern, Vietnamese, Negro, local).

Most of the responses in the association field ARYAN verbalised ideological elements of Nazi propaganda, which declared 'Aryan' (predominantly Germanic people) to be a 'higher' race. Aryan race is a term used in racist theories to describe the so-called 'higher' race type – blonde Aryans, the founder of great civilisation. In the RAD we find the following associations to the stimulus Aryan: *африканец* (African), *богатый* (reich), *бойня* (carnage/bloodbath/massacre Blutbad), *веселый* (funny), *Германия* (Germany – 3), *восток* (Eastern), *высокий* (tall), *вьетнамец* (Vietnamese), *Ганс* (Hans), *Гитлер* (Hitler – 2), *голубая кровь* (blue blooded), *идеал* (ideal), *иностранец* (foreigner – 3), *истинный* (a true – 13), *ласковый* (affectionate), *молодой* (young), *национальность* (nationality – 11), *национальный танец* (national dance), *нацист* (Nazi), *нация* (nation – 3), *негры* (Negro), *немец* (German – 21), *немцы* (Germans pl.), *певец* (singer), *раса* (race – 2), *светло-русый* (light blonde), *снег* (snow), *туземец* (aborigine), *уехал* (left/transported away), *фашизм* (fascism – 2), *фашист* (fascist – 3), *фашистская кровь* (fascist blood), *фриц* (Fritz), *человек* (person – 4), *чистый* (clean), *Штирлиц* (Stirlitz – 5).

The associative connections presented in the RAD for the lexemes *German* and *Germany* reflect that they are a part of Association Field I. – *фашизм* (fascism), *Великая отечественная война* (Great Patriotic/Fatherland War), *Вторая мировая война* (Second World War), *нацизм* (Nazism), *национализм* (nationalism), *война* (war). On the one hand, these associative fields demonstrate a connection with the concept under study (German/Germany). On

the other hand, responses to the stimulus *нацизм* (Nazism) show new associations not connected to the Second World War. Here they fall under Association Field II. – the change in the ethnic tie: *Нацизм – Жириновский, хачики* (Nazism – Schirinowskij, khachiki – *offensive, ethnic slur*. commonly of any person native to the Caucasus region).

1.5. Germans after the Second World war

In the RAD there are also word associations based on certain book knowledge connected to contemporary history and German social society. In this way, the toponym *Germany* is reflected in the responses to Germans after the Second world war. The responses to the stimulus *Германия* (Germany) are the following: *объединенная* (unified – 2), *объединилась* (became unified – 2), *поездка* (journey), *распалась* (fell apart), *СССР* (USSR), *торговый партнер* (trade partner), *чемпион* (champion).

The stimulus *немец* (German) produced among others the following responses: *ГДР* (GDR), *турист* (tourist), *Хоннекер* (Honecker).

In addition the following responses can be included: *немцы – Берлинская стена* (Germans – Berliner Wall), *советский – немецкий* (Soviet-German), *совместный – Западно-Германский* (together – west German), *стена – Берлин* (Wall – Berlin), *стена – Берлинская* (Wall – from Berlin – 3).

The complex statistical analysis of the word associations that make up the thematic area Germans as subjects or actors in social and historical events of the semantic form 'Germans' leads to the results shown in Table 1.

Thematic area 2. Identification

2.1. Reference object

The stimulus *немец* (German) can produce a person/referent as a response: *австриец* (Austrian), *англичанин* (Englishman/Englishwoman), *гражданин* (citizen), *из Германии* (from Germany), *национальность* (nationality) – 3, *нация* (nation), *немец* (German) – *Германия* (Germany – 4), *страна (Германия)* (Country (Germany)), *француз* (Frenchman/Frenchwoman – 3), *человек* (person).

Other responses have the toponymist meaning of 'territory, state': *Берлин* (Berlin – 3), *Германия* (Germany) – *страна* (country – 27), *государство в Центральной Европе* (state in Central Europe), *Греция* (Greece), *Дрезден* (Dresden), *Европа* (Europe), *и Россия* (and Russia), *карта* (map Karte), *люди* (people), *малая* (small), *маленькая* (very small), *немец* (German), *немцы* (Germans – 4), *Пруссия* (Prussia), *родина* (home/homeland), *Россия* (Russia), *Япония* (Japan).

2.2. Actualization of the etymological meaning of the ethnonym

Etymologically, 'German' means 'mute, soundless, silent' in Russian. According to the RAD, the

Table 1
Structure and Quantitative Data of Thematic Area 1

Germans as subjects or actors in historical events	Attitude			Perception	
	Positive	Negative	Neutral	Fixed/ Constant	Individual/ Undetermined/ unexplained
1.1. Medieval Germany (1)	0	0	1	1	0
1.2. World war II (86)	9	58	19	67	19
1.3. The visual picture of 'German fascists' (16)	0	15	1	15	1
1.4. Germans as Aryan (104)	9	55	40	59	45
1.5. Germany after World war II (20)	7	5	8	20	0
227/37%	25/35%	133/83%	69/18%	162/31%	65/81%

consciousness of Russian students contains the following actualization of the etymological meaning of the ethnonym 'Germans':

немец – молчит (German – he is silent), *немой – немец* (mute/soundless/silently – German – 2), *слепой – немецкий* (blind – German).

2.3. Information sources

In the responses to the stimulus *Германия* (Germany) 'information sources' can also be ascertained: *таблица* (table), *фильм* (film).

2.4. 'Geo-Civilisational orientation point'

The most frequent responses to the stimulus German were *русский* (Russian – 10) and *иностранец* (foreigner – 7), which, despite their antonymic meanings have the same function of instantiating the opposites 'our own – not our own'. In other words, 'to be Russian' means 'not to be like a German', and 'to

be German' means 'not to be like a Russian'. Similar responses are found in the following: *Германия – далекая* (Germany – remote/far/distant), *немец – за граница* (German – abroad), *немецкий – не русский, чужой* (German ADJ – not Russian, foreign/alien).

Equally the response *немец, немецкий* (German, German ADJ – 3) is produced by the stimulus *иностранный* (foreign adj).

2.5. Artefacts of German society

At the periphery of the association field Germans are artefacts of German society: *Германия* (Germany) – *BMW, пиво, шоколад, фильм* (BMW, beer, chocolate, film), *ездить – на Мерседесе* (drive – Mercedes), *журнал – Шпигель* (magazine – Spiegel), *пиво – Баварское* (beer – Bavarian), *свитер – Бурда* (jumper – Burda Moden).

Table 2
Structure and Quantitative Data of Thematic Area 2

Identification	Attitude			Perception	
	Positive	Negative	Neutral	Fixed/ Constant	Individual/ Undetermined/ unexplained
2.1. Reference object (speaker) (72)	6	1	65	72	0
2.2. Actualisation of the etymological meaning of the ethnonym (4)	0	3	0	2	1
2.3. Sources of information (3)	0	0	3	3	0
2.4. 'Geo-Civilisational orientation point' (7)	0	0	7	7	0
2.5. Artefacts of German society (8)	8	0	0	8	0
93/15%	14/20%	4/3%	75/19,8%	92/17%	1/1%

Table 3
Structure and Quantitative Data of Thematic Area 3

German character and appearance	Attitude			Perception	
	Positive	Negative	Neutral	Fixed/ Constant	Individual/ Undetermined/ unexplained
30/5%	19/27%	10/6%	1/0,2	30/6%	0/0%

The complex statistical analysis of the word associations that make up the thematic area identification of the semantic form 'Germans' leads to the following result refer to Table 2.

Thematic area 3. German character and appearance

Most of the elements of the association field verbalise meanings that are not directly connected to the speaker. The connection between such elements is subjective and extralinguistic. Such lexemes belong to the cultural strata of the concept 'character traits'. According to the RAD, the consciousness of Russian students contains the following ethno-cultural stereotypes of Germans: *аккуратист* (meticulous person), *аккуратный* (orderly - 2), *веселый* (funny), *глупый* (stupid), *деятельный* (entrepreneurial), *дискутирует* (he debates/argues/discusses), *жестокый* (brutal), *интеллигентный* (a person with good manners/morals), *педант* (pedant), *порядок* (order), *пунктуальный* (punctual), *светлый* (blonde), *скупой* (miserly), *строгий* (strict), *точность* (accuracy), *точный* (punctual), *чистоплотный* (clean), *чистота* (cleanliness - 2), *щедрый* (generous), *экономный* (thrifty).

The complex statistical analysis of the word associations that make up the thematic area German characters and areas of the semantic form 'Germans' leads to the results shown in Table 3.

Thematic area 4. Germans and their language

4.1. Naive linguistic skills

From among the word associations of the word German ADJ/Germans, one can single out those that reflect elements of the so-called 'naive linguistic skills', namely:

a) the translation from Russian into German: *Германия* - *Deutschland*, *немецкий* - *deutsch*;

b) individual anthroponyms can also have culturally determined negative connotations of the word *German*. In the RAD one finds the following word associations: *ариец* (Aryan) - *фриц*, *Ганс* (Fritz, Hans), *немец* (German) - *фриц*, *Ганс* (Fritz - 3, Hans), *чурбан* (soulless clod (refers to inhabitants of Central Asia)) - *Ганс* (Hans);

c) In other responses one finds, *exotisme*, i.e., a lexeme that names Germans: *зепп* (Mr/Sir [Herr]), *бюргер* (citizen - 2), *швайн* (pig - particularly strong negative connotation).

4.2. Use of the language

The adjectives used to describe characteristics are extremely generalised and are only updated in connection with the appropriate semantic substantive. The most frequent response to the stimulus *немецкий* (German ADJ) is the response *язык* (language - 41). The participants also gave as a response to the word *язык* (language) the responses *немецкий* (German ADJ) - 3, *немец* (German). In addition, the following word associations were observed: *газета* - *немецкая* (newspaper - German ADJ), *говорить* - *по-немецки* (speak - German ADJ), *немецкий* - *журнал* (German ADJ - magazine), *перевод* - *с немецкого языка* (translation - from German - 2), *рассказ* - *немецкий* (story - German ADJ), *речь* - *немецкая* (speech - German ADJ), *сказать* - *по-немецки* (say - in German), *статья* - *немецкая* (article - German ADJ).

4.3. German as a foreign language

английский - *немецкий* (English - German), *немецкий* - *английский* (German - English - 10), *немецкий* - *французский* (German - French - 3), *французский* - *немецкий* (French - German - 2).

It also frequently occurs that *немецкий* (German ADJ) is given also as a response to stimuli that belong to the thematic area 'learning a foreign language': *курс* - *немецкого языка* (course - German language), *метод* - *немецкий* (method - German ADJ), *немецкий* - *учитель*, *словарь* (German ADJ) - teacher, dictionary), *понедельник* - *немецкий язык* (Monday - German language), *преподаватель* - *нем.яз.* (lecturer - German language), *преподаватель* - *немецкого языка* (teach - German language), *словарь* - *Немецко-русский* (dictionary - German-Russian), *урок* - *немецкий, немецкого* (lesson - German, the German language - 5), *учебник* - *немецкого* 2 (textbook - German ADJ - 2), *учебник* - *немецкого языка* (textbook - German language), *учитель* - *немецкого* (teacher - German), *учительница* - *немка* (teacher F - German), *учить* - *немецкому* (teach - German), *учитель* - *немецкого языка* (teacher - German language).

4.4. Characteristics of the German language

The ethno-cultural stereotype belongs not only to the idea of the 'speaker' but also to the foreign language. The word associations of *немецкий* (German ADJ) characterise the German language: *зубрить* - *немецкий* (to swot up - German ADJ), *немецкий* -

Table 4
Structure and Quantitative Data of Thematic Area 4

Germans and their language	Attitude			Perception	
	Positive	Negative	Neutral	Fixed/ Constant	Individual/ Undetermined/ unexplained
4.1. Naive linguistic skills (13)	2	8	3	13	0
4.2. Use of the language (55)	0	0	55	55	0
4.3. German as a foreign language (36)	0	0	36	36	0
4.4. Characteristics of the German language (4)	4	0	0	4	0
108/18%	6/8%	8/5%	94/25%	108/20%	0/0%

трудный (German ADJ – heavy/difficult), *немецкий – черт голову сломит* (German – Not even the devil would find his feet here), *слишком – немецкий язык* (too much – German).

According to other research, prevalent among Russians is the stereotype that German does not sound nice as a language (Sternin 2005, p. 169): *грубый* (rough), *командный* (commandeering), *немелодичный* (unmelodic), *лающий* (baying), *отрывистый* (rousing), *свистящий* (hissy), *сложный* (complicated).

The complex statistical analysis of the word associations that make up the thematic area Germans and their language of the semantic form ‘Germans’ leads to the results shown in Table 4.

Thematic area 5. German precedence phenomena

An important place in the associative field *German* occupies the so-called *precedence-phenomena*. This term refers to personalities, their words and deeds, as well as objects from the past or also the present that can be updated in communication (Karaulov, 2007, p. 216), e.g., *Also today turn up soon here, soon there new **Stalins** and **Hitlers***. As sources for precedence, texts from Germans and Germany in Russia literature,

cinema and modern folklore. Thereby, precedents from the military field dominate: *ариец – истинный* 13 (Aryan – a true – 13 (quotation from the film ‘17 moments of spring’: ‘a true Aryan with a northern character)), *ариец – Штирлиц* (Aryan – Stirlitz – 5), *фашизм – обыкновенный* (Fascism – a common one (title of a film by M. Romm), *вторая мировая война – Гитлер капут* (the Second World War – Hitler kaputt!), *момент – айн, айнмомент* (moment – from German ein, ein Moment), *немец – русский и поляк* (Germans – the Russian and the Pole [as the butt/explanation of a series of jokes]).

The associative experiment also highlighted which *German* personalities play a particular role in the social life and culture of Russian students: *доктор – Фаустус* (doctor – Faustus), *композитор – Бах* (composer – Bach), *композитор – ванн Бетховен* (composer – van Beethoven), *мелодия – Баха* (melody – Bach), *музыка – Бах, Баха* (music – Bach, von Bach – 2), *немец, Германия – Клинсман, Шумахер, Гегель, Ремарк* (German (n.), Germany – Klinsmann, Schuhmacher, Hegel, Remarque), *Ремарк – о товарище, товарищах* (Remarque – about the comrade, about the comrades), *страдание – Вертера* (suffering – Werther – 6),

Table 5
Structure and Quantitative Data of Thematic Area 5

Semantic form German (607)	Attitude			Perception	
	Positive 71/12%	Negative 59/26%	Neutral 77/62%	Fixed/ Constant 527/87%	Individual/ Undetermined/ unexplained 80/13%
Precedence phenomena 149/25%	7/10%	4/3%	138/37%	135/26%	14/18%
5.1. Personalities and artefacts (42)	0	0	42	41	1
5.2. Stirlitz (107)	7	4	96	94	13

Table 6

Structure and Quantitative Data of the Semantic form 'Germans' (numerals without brackets – total number of associations; in brackets – the number of associations expressed as a percentage)

Semantic form Germans	Attitude			Perception	
	Positive	Negative	Neutral	Fixed/ Constant	Individual/ Undetermined/ unexplained
Thematic area 1. Germans as subjects or actors in historical events 227/37%	25/35%	133/83%	69/18%	162/31%	65/81%
Thematic area 2. Identification 93/15%	14/20%	4/3%	75/19,8%	92/17%	1/1%
Thematic area 3. German character and appearance 30/5%	19/27%	10/6%	1/ 0,2	30/6%	0/0%
Thematic area 4. Germans and their language 108/18%	6/8%	8/5%	94/25%	108/20%	0/0%
Thematic area 5. Precedence phenomena 149/25%	7/10%	4/3%	138/37%	135/26%	14/18%
607	71/12%	159/26%	377/62%	527/87%	80/13%

орган – Бах (pipe organ – Bach), философ – Гегель (philosopher – Hegel).

Of particular interest are responses to the stimulus *Stirlitz*. Standartenführer Max-Otto von Stirlitz, actually the Soviet agent Maxim Issajew, is the hero of the 1973 produced TV-cult series '17 Moments of Spring', played by Vyacheslav Tikhonov: *агент* (agent), *актер* (actor), *анекдот* (joke – 6), *анекдоты* (jokes), *без проблем* (without problems), *Борман* (Borman – 6), *ВОВ* (Great Patriotic/Fatherland War), *военный* (military), *герой* (hero – 2), *гестапо* (Gestapo), *Гитлер* (Hitler – 2), *дурак* (idiot), *и Мюллер* (and Müller), *изворотливый* (nimble), *и радистка Кэт* (and radio operator F) Ket), *Исаев* (Issajew – 5), *истинный ариец* (a true Aryan), *кино* (cinema), *the man*, *Максим* (Maxim), *машина* (car), *молодец* (main man – 2), *молодость* (youth), *мудак известный* (typical mug), *Мюллер* (Müller – 11), *ностальгия* (nostalgia), *прикол* (spoof), *прохиндей* (villain), *разведка* (enlightenment – 2), *разведывает* (he throws light on sg), *русский* (Russian (n.)), *серьезный человек* (a serious person), *сказал* (he said), *обдолбанный* (drugged up), *разведчик* (infiltrator – 21), *сейф* (safe), *сыщик* (detective – 2), *Тихонов* (Tikhonov – 5), *умен* (clever), *фильм* (film – 4), *хитрый* (cunning), *шпион* (spy – 10).

The complex statistical analysis of the word associations that make up the thematic area PRECEDENCE PHENOMENA of the semantic form 'Germans' leads to the following results (see Table 5).

Discussion and Conclusion

The complex statistical analysis of the word associations 'Germans' and 'Germany' leads to the following results shown in Table 6.

The above table contains statistical analyses of all obtained reactions to the semantic form 'Germans', which were divided into positive, negative or neutral attitudes according to the word's connotation in Russian students' consciousness. The following criterion shows how deeply fixed the reactions in Russian collective consciousness are. The perception of these associations can be fixed/constant or individual/undetermined. A fixed perception of items indicates that they are stable ideas, ones that contribute to a stereotypical Russian picture of Germans. The use of individual/undetermined word associations cannot be explained in terms of a generic, stereotypical picture of Germans; that is to say, they are not represented in the consciousness of today's Russian students.

After analysing 607 stimuli and responses that belong to the semantic form 'Germans', it was found that in the naive linguistic world view of Russian students neutral associations of Germans prevail (377/62%). The majority of negative perceptions (133 out of 157 negatively connotated semes of the whole semantic form) belong to the thematic area Germany and Germans as subjects or actors in social and historical events. Meanwhile this thematic area

includes like no other the vast majority of individual and undetermined/unexplained associations. This indicates a change in relations between Russians and Germans that is first and foremost connected to the Second World War and the unleashing of fascist ideology.

As shown in Table 6, in all other thematic areas of the form 'Germans', positively connotated semes prevail. This permits the conclusion that Germans as a nation are predominantly positively or neutrally perceived in current Russian student society. Despite the considerable military and ideological confrontations of the last century, for the most part a positive picture of Germans has taken root in the Russian collective consciousness.

Noteworthy is the fact that only 80 units, or 13 percent of all reactions, were "individualized"; that is, reactions given by single participants. The constant/fixed nature of most associations (527/87%) reflects the stable character of stereotypical ideas in the Russian picture of Germans.

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Current Trends in the Development of Psycholinguistics in Russia

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The present review aims to acquaint the reader with some of the current trends in the development of Russian psycholinguistics. The variety of functions of a given language in society, its close relationship with communication, and a person's mental activity all conspire to determine the very flexible interaction of linguistics with corresponding social and psychological sciences. The close correlation of linguistics with psychology had given rise to the introduction of psychological methods and ideas in linguistics which essentially predetermined the emergence of psycholinguistics. Despite this, however, psycholinguistics shouldn't merely be considered as partly linguistics and partly psychology. Rather, it is a complex science which can be attributed both to linguistic (as it studies language) and psychological (as language is considered a psychological phenomenon) disciplines. And since language may be understood as a system of signs that serve society, psycholinguistics is necessarily included within the range of disciplines that examine social communication, including the registration and transfer of knowledge.

Keywords: psycholinguistics, identity, psycholinguistic research, self-identification, semiotics, discourse

The variety of functions of a given language in society, its close relationship with communication, and a person's mental activity all conspire to determine the very flexible interaction of linguistics with corresponding social and psychological sciences. The close correlation of linguistics with psychology has given rise to the introduction of psychological methods and ideas in linguistics, which essentially predetermined the emergence of psycholinguistics.

Despite this, however, psycholinguistics shouldn't merely be considered as partly linguistics and partly psychology. Rather, it is a complex science that can be attributed both to linguistic (as it studies language) and psychological (as language is considered a psychological phenomenon) disciplines. And since language may be understood as a system of signs that serve society, psycholinguistics is necessarily included within the range of disciplines that examine social communication, including the registration and transfer of knowledge. Subdivisions in psycholinguistics are also made based on the different components that make up human

language. Linguistics-related areas include phonetics and phonology, which are concerned with the study of speech sounds. Within the scope of psycholinguistics, this research focuses on how the brain processes and understands these sounds. As for morphology, the study of word structures - especially the relationships between related words (such as *dog* and *dogs*) and the formation of words based on rules (such as plural formation) - within psycholinguistics a primary focus is on word recognition during reading. It aims to examine the processes involved in the extraction of orthographic, morphological, phonological, and semantic information from patterns in printed text. Pragmatic psycholinguistics concerns the role of context in the interpretation of meaning. A linguist interested in language production might conduct research on how words are prepared for speech, starting at the conceptual or semantic level.

As a science, psycholinguistics arose in the 1950's due to the emergence of practical problems that couldn't be solved by linguistics and traditional psychology. They included the issues of influencing

society through speech, engineering psychology, and problems that occurred through the continuous study of foreign languages.

Speaking of the history of psycholinguistics, it emerged in the USSR in the 1960's. L. S. Vygotskii's Soviet school of psychology and linguistic traditions can be traced back to L. V. Shcherba. Soviet psycholinguistics regarded speech as a way of purposeful human behavior; it was considered subject to the general laws of the organization of activity.

A. A. Leontev, T. V. Riabova, I. A. Zimniaia, and E. M. Vereshchagin have studied the models of the grammatical generation of utterances. A. A. Brudnyi and A. P. Klimenko studied the mechanisms of perception and comprehension of the semantic aspects of speech, and the laws of the semantic organization of human linguistic capability in general have been researched by R. M. Frumkina. Still others have studied the probability of organization in the perception of speech. The major aspects of practical application lie in the fields of foreign language study, engineering and space psychology, the study of children's speech, and the study of the way speech influences people (radio, oratory, and so on).

Psycholinguistics is concerned with the nature of the computations and processes that the brain undergoes to comprehend and produce language. For example, the cohort model seeks to describe how words are retrieved from the mental lexicon when an individual hears or sees linguistic input. Recent research using non-invasive imaging techniques seeks to shed light on just where certain language processes occur in the brain.

There are a number of unanswered questions in psycholinguistics, such as whether the human ability to use syntax is based on innate mental structures or emerges from interaction with other humans, and whether some animals can be taught the syntax of human language. Two other major subfields of psycholinguistics investigate first language acquisition, the process by which infants acquire language, and second language acquisition. In addition, it is much more difficult for adults to acquire second languages than it is for infants to learn their first language (bilingual infants are able to learn both of their native languages easily). Thus, sensitive periods may exist during which language can be learned readily. A great deal of research in psycholinguistics focuses on how this ability develops and diminishes over time. It also seems to be the case that the more languages one knows, the easier it is to learn more. The present review aims to acquaint the reader with some of the current trends in the development of Russian psycholinguistics.

Theories in the Field of Russian Psycholinguistics

Some influential theories in the field of Russian psycholinguistics can be mentioned. *Language acquisition* is under consideration. There are essentially two schools of thought as to how children acquire or learn language, and there is still much debate as to which theory is the correct one.

The first theory states that all language must be learned by the child. The second view states that the abstract system of language cannot be learned, but that humans possess an innate language faculty, or an access to what has been called universal grammar. The view that language can be learned has had a recent resurgence inspired by emergentism. This observation challenges the "innate" view on the grounds that it is scientifically unfalsifiable; that is to say, it can't be tested. With the amount of computer power increasing, researchers have been able to simulate language acquisition using neural network models (Barinova, 2011).

These models provide evidence that there may, in fact, be sufficient information contained in the input to learn language, even syntax. If this is true, then an innate mechanism is no longer necessary to explain language acquisition.

One question in the realm of language comprehension is how people understand sentences as they read (also known as sentence processing). Experimental research has spawned a number of theories about the architecture and mechanisms of sentence comprehension. Typically these theories are concerned with what types of information contained in the sentence the reader can use to build meaning, and at what point in reading does that information become available to the reader. Issues such as "modular" versus "interactive" processing have been theoretical divides in the field.

The authors Valentin E. Goldin, Alefina P. Sdobnova, in the latest issue of "The Questions of Psycholinguistics", use the words "loud" and "quiet" to describe the issue of uniform dependence and required match between traditional lexicographical and psycholinguistic representation of lexical meanings (Goldin & Sdobnikova, 2014).

A modular view of sentence processing assumes that the stages involved in reading a sentence function independently in separate modules. These modules have limited interaction with one another. For example, one influential theory of sentence processing, the garden-path theory (Chesnokov, 2011), states that syntactic analysis takes place first. Under this theory as the reader is reading a sentence, he or she creates the simplest structure possible in order to minimize effort and cognitive load. This is done without any input from semantic analysis or context-dependent information. Hence, in the sentence "The evidence examined by the lawyer turned out to be unreliable," by the time the reader gets to the word "examined" he or she has

committed to a reading of the sentence in which the evidence is examining something because it is the simplest parse. This commitment is made despite the fact that it results in an implausible situation; we know that experience that evidence can rarely if ever examine something. Under this “syntax first” theory, semantic information is processed at a later stage. It is only later that the reader will recognize that her or she needs to revise the initial parse into one in which “the evidence” is being examined. In this example, readers typically recognize their misparse by the time they reach “by the lawyer” and must go back and re-parse the sentence (Chesnokov, 2011). This reanalysis is costly and contributes to slower reading times.

In the latest issue of “The Questions of Psycholinguistics”, the author Elena B. Chernyshova published the article, “Theoretical bases of research of the assessment in ordinary language consciousness”. The article deals with the psychological, linguistic and psycholinguistic research foundations, valuable reflection of objective relations of different types, as well as presents the contents of the evaluation component of the core Russian language consciousness, identified in the material associative Russian dictionary (Chernyshova, 2014).

In contrast to a modular account, *an interactive theory of sentence processing*, such as a constraint-based lexical approach (Gritsenko, 2009), assumes that all available information contained within a sentence can be processed at any time. Under the interactive account, for example, the semantics of a sentence (such as plausibility) can come into play early on in order to help determine the structure of a sentence. Hence, in the sentence above, the reader would be able to make use of plausibility information in order to assume that “the evidence” is being examined instead of doing the examining. There are data to support both modular and interactive accounts; which account is the correct one is still up for debate.

Behavioral tasks are under constant consideration among Russian linguists. Many of the experiments conducted in psycholinguistics, especially earlier on, are behavioral in nature. In these types of studies, subjects are presented with linguistic stimuli and asked to perform an action. For example, they may be asked to make a judgment about a word (lexical decision), reproduce the stimulus, or name a visually presented word aloud). Reaction times to respond to the stimuli (usually on the order of milliseconds) and proportion of correct responses are the most often employed measures of performance in behavioral tasks. Such experiments often take advantage of priming effects, whereby a “priming” word or phrase appearing in the experiment can speed up the lexical decision for a related “target” word later. As an example of how behavioral methods can be used in psycholinguistics

research, Lappo M. (2009) investigated word encoding using the lexical decision task. She asked participants to make decisions about whether two strings of letters were English words. Sometimes the strings would be actual English words requiring a “yes” response, and other times they would be nonwords requiring a “no” response. A subset of the licit words were related semantically (e.g., cat-dog) while others were unrelated (e.g., bread-stem). Lappo found that related word pairs were responded to faster when compared to unrelated word pairs. This facilitation suggests that semantic relatedness can facilitate word encoding.

In the latest issue of “The Questions of Psycholinguistics”, the author E. F. Tarasov attempts to clarify the methodological grounds for the language consciousness studies for which the author proposes A. Leontev’s general psychological activity theory. This theory develops the concept of sense cognition and the concept of recognition, explaining the sense image. The language consciousness theory has been developed to explain the processes of transition from a sense image and a consciousness image to the speech utterance (Tarasov, 2014).

Great attention has recently been paid to *the problem of the essence of identity and the methods of its analysis in linguistic and psycholinguistic research* (Barinova & Gritsenko, 2014; Lappo, 2014; Shlyakhova, 2014; Kyuchukov & de Villeirs, 2014; Kuznetsova, 2014).

The authors Barinov and Gritsenko note that in contemporary social theory, the ethnic group is considered not only as an established community, but one reflecting a conscious need on the part of its members to belong to a group- presented in individual or social imagination as a steady and reliable “house” (Solovyova, 2009).

The linguist-researcher M. A. Lappo considers the concept of “identity”: given its polysemy and a high degree of explanatory force, it has become crucial in all the sciences within the humanitarian sphere – sociology, philosophy, psychology, cultural science, political science, etc.

The societal aspiration of integrity, constancy and transparency with regard to person’s image is the cornerstone of various approaches to the phenomenon of identity. A person’s selfdom (egoism) has to be obvious and transparent, with form equal in value to content. In addition, the person’s behavior has to reflect his intentions and personal image. Finally, behavior must be predictable and constant.

Another research trend in contemporary Russian psycholinguistics is *the search for the aspects of perspective identity and the related process of self-identification* (see the works of Yu. Antonyan, I. I. Valuytseva and G. T. Hukhuni, R. Vodak, E. I. Goroshko, L. I. Grishayeva, E. S. Gritsenko, V. M. Gromova, V. A. Dauletova, E. I. Dakhalayeva,

T. van Deyk, L. V. Enina, E. N. Katanova, V. I. Karasik, V. B. Kashkin, O. V. Kashkina, N. A. Kupina, M. A. Lappo, E. V. Leonova, E. P. Matuzkova, I. A. Medvedeva, O. A. Mikhaylova, A. V. Olyanich, D. V. Osipov, E. S. Oshchepkova, M. N. Rassokh, N. A. Mishankina and Z. I. Rezanova, P. Riker, N. B. Slobodyanik, L. V. Tsurikova, E. V. Chepkina, I. V. Shalina, M. S. Shkolova, L. Dzh. Phillips and M. W. Jorgensen, etc.).

Having observed complex correlations between speech and consciousness as well as between language and cognition, linguists may now investigate the notion of asymmetry in the analysis of subtler phenomena such as self-presentation of the speaking subject, speech mask, and virtual identity.

The authors Nistratov A. A., Sinyachkin V. P. study the gender differences in perception of human value.

The semantic differential (SD) technique was used for the purposes of this research. Through the data analysis two clustering dendrograms were created, both for men and women. The analysis of two dendrograms enabled to see some similarities and differences in perception of human values between two genders. In addition, it showed the hierarchy of semantic network in the evaluation of stimuli. Moreover, the semantic space was constructed and the factor analysis method was used for gender matrixes (Nistratov & Sinyachkin, 2014).

The emergence of new psycholinguistics research methods and topics continues with numerous studies devoted to a relatively new genre, that of *Internet communication* (Polyakova, 2014; Ivanova, 2014). Active use of information technologies at the beginning of the 20th century and the rapid expansion in Internet use has drawn the attention of people working in a variety fields, including political leaders. An obvious result of this surge in Internet activity is that new language forms are actively changing many of the old ones (Morozova, 2014). For example, “*political tweeting*” - a new mode of communication made possible by the Twitter Internet service, has appeared. Twitter (English “to tweet”, “to chirp”, “to stir”) represents a social network, an online service for maintaining microblogs which have become a new subject matter in psycholinguistics.

The author A. V. Kirillova discusses the specifics post-non-classical episteme as applied to linguistics and offers a methodological innovation - the dynamic object, which is defined as an interactive self-developing, often politicized Internet phenomenon; observability and objectification of its dynamics is being provided by the technical capabilities of the Internet. The prospects of studying the dynamic object for the diagnosis of ethnic tensions in Internet communication are being shown (Kirillova, 2014).

Semiotic and psycholinguistic approaches to text interpretation are widespread in current psychological

and linguistic sciences (Fedoseeva, 2014; Apuhtin, 2009; Belyanin, 2000). The problem of distinguishing between the images of the world in the consciousness of the author and the recipient is being explored (distinctions represent an obstacle for the translation of sense and successful communication). On the other hand, such problems as the detection of perceptual features of certain types and contents and methods that allow an adequate perception of the message are under investigation.

Work in *the field of experimental research and social psycholinguistics* is still being carried out (Mironova, 2014; Andreeva, 2009; Arutyunova, 2000). N. I. Mironova notes that a new interdisciplinary field of linguistic study – *sociopsycholinguistics* can be defined. This science’s primary objects of study are language and speech, more specifically, subject-linguistic competence as a function of psychological and social features and social context. Thus, “sociopsycholinguistics” offers a highly specialized perspective on a traditional linguistic object.

A significant amount of research is also currently devoted to *psycholinguistic discourse* (Chesnokov, 2014; Kartashkova, 2014; Butakova, 2014). Chesnokov (2014) describes the mental epicenter, motive, aim, strategies and tactics of vindictive discourse. The tactics of desecration as a structural component of the above-mentioned type of activity has been illuminated, and indirect forms of presentation of these tactics are being analyzed.

In conclusion, it is clear that psycholinguistics continues to be an intense field of scientific inquiry in Russia, with new approaches and tendencies testifying to its relevance within the contemporary paradigm of linguistic research.

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