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Editorial

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

The article of Jelili Adewale Adeoye is devoted to the study of conjunction as a part of speech and a polar question word. The research is provided on the basis of the Yorùbá language which is one of the major languages spoken in Nigeria. The paper claims that the presented point of view is different from the views of earlier scholars.

Oluwole Samuel Akitoye studies relative clause construction in both the Yorùbá language and its dialects in Nigeria. The research reveals that relative markers in the Ìyàgbà dialect are in complementary distribution. Apart from that, the conditional clause marker is not attested in the dialect. The article can be of interest to teachers and researchers interested in the use of conditional clause and relative clause constructions.

The paper by Idris Olawale Allison presents an analysis of the phonological phenomena of vowel deletion and insertion in one of the languages spoken in Nigeria – Úwù. Cases involving segmental phonemes were analysed with the linear phonology, while cases of feature stability and feature spread were analysed using the non-linear model. The paper reveals that autosegments like tone, nasality and labial or round features usually persist even when the vowel which bore them was deleted. The author also claims that [i] is the epenthetic vowel in Úwù, and it is argued that nouns in Úwù are virtually vowel initial.

In their article, T. Baranovskaya and V. Shaforostova look at assessment and evaluation as a component of English language teacher training. The authors claim

that there has been a lack of integration between educational theory and practice in ELT. The aim of this article is to bridge this gap through the elaboration of different assessment techniques, improvement of student learning and engagement of students in self-assessment.

Regina Dorairaju and Manimekalai Jambulingam examine the use of music and m-learning in teaching vocabulary to ESL tertiary students. The authors claim that music combined with mobile technology can become an effective and enjoyable educational tool for engaging and motivating students to learn English vocabulary. This issue is topical for the present day ESL teaching since an increasing number of students use mobile devices for learning.

The article written by R. Ivanova, A. Ivanov and M. Lyashenko analyses writing skills development issue, specifically writing for the IELTS exam. The authors focus on Writing task 1 (analysis of factual information) and propose a two-stage teaching approach and provide a methodological algorithm on how to work out exam strategies and form the necessary exam competences. The article highlights the outcomes and the difficulties of teachers who prepare students for this type of exam. The research is topical for IELTS preparation courses and EFL teaching in general.

I. Kuznetsova investigates small talk skills development in the classroom. This paper deals with teaching strategies that can be employed to increase students' participation in small talk. The results of the survey showed that there was a change in students' perception of the opportunities of small talk. The author states that there is a great potential of this kind of practice of using small talk in the classroom as it can have a positive effect on students' outside-the-

classroom interactions in English.

Elena Zanina offers a comparative analysis of the move structure of research article abstracts on management in English and in Russian. The article provides an overview of previous studies, the research corpora and the methodology applied in the current study. It also gives main trends observed in the move structure of abstracts in both corpora. The outcomes of this research are of paramount importance nowadays as writing and publishing articles is an indicator of professional development and recognition in the academia.

This brief synopsis of the papers constituting this issue of Journal of Language and Education demonstrates a diversity of approaches and topics in the areas of linguistics and practices of teaching English. We hope our readers enjoy the selection of the articles chosen for this issue.

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More on the Categorial Status of (T)àbí in Yorùbá Grammar

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Yorùbá language is one of the major languages spoken in Nigeria. The term is also used to refer to the language and the native speakers. As shown in Oyetade, Yorùbá language is spoken in six states that constitute the southwest of Nigeria – Lagos, Ọ̀yọ́, Ọ̀sun, Ògùn, Òndó, and Èkìtì. This study investigated the Standard Yorùbá used in the Southwest Nigeria by focusing on the conjunction t(àbí). Findings reveal that there are varieties of Yorùbá language based on the location of the speakers and the state they occupy in Nigeria: Ọ̀yọ́ dialect, Ègbá dialect, Èkìtí dialect, Òndó dialect and Ọ̀wọ̀ dialect to mention a few. Previous scholarly works on Yorùbá grammar show that (t)àbí performs two functions and it is ascribed with two nomenclatures namely conjunction and polar question word. However, this present paper provides another view that is different from the views of the earlier scholars. Findings in this study reveal that t(àbí) is a conjunction in all its positions of occurrence and the researcher argues against its use as a polar question word. It is established in this study among other things that its occurrence at sentence initial position is as a result of ellipsis. The study also maintains that where it appears at sentence medial position, the polar question word has been deleted.

Keywords: Yorùbá, conjunction, polar question word, T(àbí)

Conjunction and question words are integral parts of the universal grammar and every language has the two in its repertoire (lexicon). No language has been reported where the two are absolutely missing. Conjunction is a grammatical category that joins words, phrases, clauses and sentences together while polar question words in Yorùbá are interrogative particles that are adjoined to a declarative sentence to make it interrogative. The grammatical category (conjunction) and the interrogative particle (polar question) are used to show different syntactic structures.

However, over the years, Yorùbá grammarians like Bamgbose (1967, 1990), Awobuluyi (1978), Ilori (2010) and Ajiboye (2013) have continued to ascribe two functions to (t)àbí from the traditional linguistic approach. None of these scholars, to the best of our knowledge, has queried the assertion that (t)àbí is a conjunction and a polar question word. It shall be argued in this paper that all occurrences of (t)àbí perform the function of a conjunction. It will also be shown that there is no single word that can combine the functions of a polar question and a conjunction. For instance, a polar question word serves as the introducer of interrogative sentence while a conjunction occurs between nouns, clauses and sentences. This significant difference is an indication that (t)àbí cannot perform the two functions simultaneously.

This paper is divided into four sections. Section one will form the introduction. In section two, the researcher discusses the previous analysis of (t)àbí as a conjunction and a polar question word. In section three, arguments will be presented to support the present proposal. Section four is the conclusion.

Materials and Methods

Previous Analysis of (T)àbí

Previous analysis of (t)àbí falls into two categories: treating it as a conjunction in one context and a polar question word in another context (Bamgbose 1967, 1990; Awobuluyi, 1978; Ilori, 2010; Ajiboye, 2013).

Bamgbose (1967) groups *(t)àbí* "or", *ṣùgbọ́n* "but" *yálà.....tàbí* "whether.....or" as conjunction as shown

in the examples below:

1. a. Ẹ ó gberin (t)àbí ẹ ó ní gberin? — Will you join in the song or won't you?

   b. Ṣé kí a já.de (t)àbí kí a dúró? — Shall we go out or stay?

A keen look at the examples given above will show that 1 (a & b) are interrogative sentences. In 1 (b) *(t)àbí* functions as a conjunction because the polar question word *Ṣé "did"*(polar question word) is adjoined to the sentence while in 1 (a) *(t)àbí* functions as the polar question word. Since example 1(b) is grammatical in Yorùbá, one may argue that the polar question word in 1 (a) has been deleted. Moreover, Bamgbose (1990, p. 190) asserts that *(t)àbí* functions as both a conjunction and an interrogative particle. He opines further that when two opposite sentences are joined together by *(t)àbí* or when it appears at the sentence initial position, such a sentence will give interrogative connotation. See the examples below:

2. a. Ẹ le duro de wa (t)àbí ki ẹ maa lọ sile. — You can wait for us or go home.

   b. Ṣé ẹ ti ṣe tan (t)àbí ẹ si féẹ́ ṣiṣẹ́ sí i? — Are you through for the day or you still

   c. Yálà ẹ wá (t)àbí ẹ o wá, a a ṣe é. — Whether you come or you don't, we will do it.

   d. Ó ti lọ(t)àbí kò ì tí ì lọ? — Has he gone or he hasn't?

   e. Ó tán (t)àbí ó kù? — Has it finished or it remains?

   f. Àbí ẹ féẹ́ bá wa lọ? — Are you willing to follow us?

(Bamgbose, 1990, p. 190)

In 2 above, Bamgbose (1990) asserts that the function of *(t)àbí* is dependent on the syntactic environment. It is a conjunction in 2 (a, b & c) while the same word is a polar question word in 2 (d, e & f). However, contrary to Bamgbose's view, consider the examples below:

3. a. Ṣé ó ti tán (t)àbí sé ó kù? — Has it finished or it remains?

   b. Ǹjé ó ti lọ(t)àbí ǹjé kò ì tí ì lọ? — Has he gone or he hasn't?

If (t)àbí is a polar question word as asserted by Bamgbose (1990) in 2 (d, e & f) what is the function in 3 (a & b)? In addition, a closer look at 2 (f) will show that a clause has been deleted prior to *(t)àbî* occurrence at the initial position (see Bamgbose, 1990). Moreover, contrary to Bamgbose's (1967; 1990), Awobuluyi (1978, p. 106) classifies *(t)àbí* as a disjunction and he notes that the word is used within nouns, adverbs and sentences. See the examples below:

4. a. Ìgbà wo ni kí n wa, ni àárọ̀ ni (t)àbí ni alẹ? — When should I come in the morning or in the evening?

   b. Ó ti dé (t)àbí kò ì tí ì dé? — Has he come back or he hasn't?

   c. Àbí kò níí wá ni? — Or is it that he doesn't plan to come?

(Awobuluyi, 1978, p. 106).

In the examples in 4 above, it is shown that *nígbàwo* "when" is the question word in 4 (a) and *(t)àbî* is the

conjunction in the sentence; while the same *(t)àbí* is the question word in 4 (b&c). A closer look at example 4 (a) will show that *(t)àbí* is a conjunction in both 4 (b&c) because a question word can be added to 4 (b) while the clause before *(t)àbí* in 4 (c) has been deleted. Furthermore, the question word in 4 (c) has been deleted. See these examples:

4. d. Àbí ṣé kò níí wá ni? — Or is it that he doesn't plan to come?

4. e. Àbí ṣé kò gbọ́ ni? — Or is it that he doesn't comprehend?

Awobuluyi (1978) also named *(t)àbí* a disjunction, that is, a separate entity from conjunctions. However, it must be noted that disjunction or adverse conjunction is an integral part of the coordinating conjunction, thus the appropriate nomenclature for *(t)àbí* is disjunctive conjunction or adverse conjunction.

Ilori (2010) identifies *àti/ti* and, *(t)àbí* "or" as nominal conjunction in Yorùbá. See the example below:

5. a. Mo ń fẹ́ [mọ́tò (t)àbí ilé]
   1sg prog. Want vehicle or house
   I want a car or house.

He also notes that *(t)àbí* "or" is used as a clausal conjunction in interrogative expressions. See the examples below:

5. b. Mo rí i (t)àbí mi ò rí i?
   1sg see it or 1sg neg see it
   Did I not see it?

   c. Wọ́n ti jẹwọ́(t)àbí wọ́n ò ti i jẹwọ?
   3pl pert confess or 3pl neg pert neg confess
   Have they confessed or not?

The researcher agrees with Ilori's claim in 5 (b & c) that *(t)àbí* is a clausal conjunction in interrogative construction but Ilori (2010) has not provided the question words in the sentences. He (Ilori) has not been able to explain the function of *(t)àbí* when it occupies a sentence initial position. This present study shows that examples 5 (b and c) can be rendered in these forms and it will be grammatical. See the examples below:

6. a. Ṣé mo rí i (t)àbí ṣé mi ò rí i?
   Qw 1sg see it or Qw 1sg neg see it
   Did I not see it or not?

   b. Ǹjé wọ́n ti jéwọ́ (t)àbí ǹjé wọ́n ò ti ì jẹwọ?
   Qw 3pl pert confess or Qw 3pl neg pert neg confess
   Have they confessed or not?

If the sentences in 6 (a and b) are grammatical in Yorùbá, the researcher suspected that the question words in 5 (b and c) have been deleted. Moreover, it is worth noting that (t)àbí joins sentences of equal status where one is assertive the other is negative. It is also observed that when the first clause is introduced by polar question words such as *ṣé* and *ǹjé*, the question word is always deleted in the second clause in Yorùbá utterances (see example 1 b and 2 b above), this, the researcher assumes must have made some scholars

think that *(t)àbí* is the question word in the second sentence. However, if examples 6 (a and b) are grammatical; thus, the polar question in the second clause has undergone ellipses.

Ajiboye (2013, p. 10) makes two assertions with respect to *(t)àbí*. First, he claims that there are three lexical items having the same segmental and tonal features in the form of *(t)àbí* but function differently; one function as a conjunction, the second as Yes-no interrogative particle and the third as a kind of Wh-word. Secondly, he notes further that the kind of interrogative particle that comes up depends on the syntactic context and the type of structure. Lastly, he assumes that *(t)àbí* is one and the same lexical item that demonstrates ambiguity between those possible meanings, and one can only appeal to context in order to determine which meaning is intended. See the examples below:

7	a.	Yaradua de,(t)àbí?	Did Yaradua arrive?
	b.	(T)àbí musulumi?	Is it a muslim?
	c.	Nínú kí Adé lọ oko (t)àbí kí o lọ ọja.	Is either Ade goes to the farm or the market.
	d.	Adé lọ oko (t)àbí o sun?	Is it the case that Ade went to farm or he is asleep?

(Ajiboye, 2013, p. 10)

Contrary to the assertions in Ajiboye (2013, p. 10) above, *(t)àbî* is one lexical item in all its position of occurrence and its syntactic position does not determine its function and it does not demonstrate ambiguity of any kind which can be determined by context. See the examples below:

8	a.	Ṣé Yaradua dé (t)àbí Ṣé Yaradua kò dé?	Has Yaradua arrived or not?
	b.	Ǹjé musulumi ni (t)àbí ǹjé musulumi kọ?	Is he a Muslim or not?
	c.	Ṣèbí Adé lọ sí oko (t)àbí ó sùn?	Is it a fact that Ade went to the farm or he slept?

In reaction to Ajiboye's assertion that *(t)àbí* is a polar question in one context, a content question in another and a conjunction in some other environment, a closer look at the examples in 8 (a, b & c) above, will show that *(t)àbí* has a peculiar function which is a clausal conjunction. In addition, a content question in Yorùbá has a strong [Wh-feature] that forbids any other word to replace it. Moreover, when polar question words are adjoined to where *(t)àbí* is purported to be a polar question word like the examples in 8 above what happens to *(t)àbí*? As the researcher has noted earlier, *(t)àbí* combines two sentences with equal structure (S1 conj S2), what happens in most cases is the deletion of the question word (Qw) and NP of S2 to avoid repetition. Observe that 8 c is deviant when the question word (Qw) is attached to S2; we suspend the explanation for this to the next section.

Results and Discussion

The Status of (T)àbí Re-Visited

In the reviewed works above, scholars have claimed that *(t)àbí* functions as both a polar question and a conjunction. However, based on the earlier assertion that (t)*àbi* is a conjunction in all ramifications, the researcher presents the following arguments:

i. Why is it that only (t)*àbi* functions as both a conjunction and a polar question whereas, no other conjunction can perform the same function and no other polar question word can act as a conjunction as well?

ii. That polar question words are adjoined to a declarative sentence to form an interrogative sentence. The question is: how do we account for the instances where (t)*àbi* appears at the sentence initial position?

iii. When (t)*àbi* co-occur with other polar question words, what specific function does it perform? If it is a conjunction, can it be a polar question as well?

iv. Finally, why is it that it is only (t)*àbi* that can occur at the initial, medial and final position as a polar interrogative sentence while other polar question words are either restricted to the sentence initial, medial or final position?

Based on the observations above, we present the following claims to support our arguments.

However, Polar question formation in Yorùbá involves the process of adjoining the polar question words to the existing declarative sentences. See the examples below:

9	a.	Adé lọ sí oko	Declarative
		NP go to farm	
		Ade went to the farm.	
	b.	Ṣé Adé lọ sí oko?	
		Qw NP go to farm	
		Did Ade go to farm?	
	c.	Ṣèbí Adé lọ sí oko?	
		Qw NP go to farm	
		Ade went to the farm, didn't he?	
	d.	Ǹjé Adé lọ sí oko?	
		Qw NP go to farm	
		Did Ade go to the farm?	
	e.	Adé ha lọ sí oko bí?	
		NP Qw go to farm Qw	
		Did Ade go to the farm?	

In the examples 9 (a–e), it is discovered that the polar question words are adjoined to the declarative sentence to form polar interrogative sentences. However, in examples (2 f and 7 b) if it is assumed that (t)*àbí* is adjoined to the declarative sentence as it appears at sentence initial position to produce the outcome like the ones in 9 above, let us consider instances where (t)*àbí* is sandwiched between two sentences. See the examples below:

10 a. Adé lọ (t)àbí kò lọ?
    NP go Qw neg. go
    Did Ade go or he didn't?

    b. Olú dúró (t)àbí ó jòkòó?
    NP stand Qw he sit
    Olu stood or he sat down?

A closer look at example 10 (a–b), will reveal that (t)*àbî* in these sentences is neither inserted nor adjoined. Bamgbose (1990, p. 190) observes among other things with respect to example (2 f and 7 b) and (10) that when two opposite sentences are combined with (t)*àbi* or where (t)*àbi* appears at a sentence initial position, it normally has interrogative connotation. He notes further that when (t)*àbi* occupies a sentence initial position, the clause before it has been deleted. However, this assertion in Bamgbose (1990) is an indication that (t)*àbî* is not adjoined to a declarative sentence in example (2 f and 7 b). Based on this, (t)*àbî* has violated the one of the rules of polar question formation in Yorùbá. Secondly, where it occurs between two opposite sentences, a polar question word can be added to such sentences. See the examples below:

11 a. Ṣé Adé lọ (t)àbí ṣé Adé kò lọ ni?
    Qw NP go conj. Qw NP neg. go foc.
    Did Ade go or not?

    b.* Ṣèbí Adé lọ (t)àbí ṣèbí Adé kò lọ ni?
    Qw NP go conj. Qw NP neg. go foc.
    Ade went or he did not?

    c. Ǹjé Adé lọ (t)àbí ǹjé Adé kò lọ ni?
    Qw NP go conj. Qw NP neg. go foc.
    Did Adé go or he didn't?

In examples 11 (a-c), it is discovered that *(t)àbí* performs conjunction function as opposed to polar question as shown in 10 (a & b). These examples in 11 (a–c) point to the fact that the polar question words in 10 (a & b) have been deleted. Moreover, Ṣé, ṣèbí, ǹjé in (11 a-c) of the clause (S1) controls the structure in (S2). However, 11 b seems deviant; Adeoye (2015) argues that *ṣèbí* is derived from *ṣé # àbí* that is why the contiguous co-occurrence of *ṣèbí* and *àbí* may not yield a grammatical sentence in Yorùbá. This assertion may look plausible but in Yorùbá a low tone cannot displace a high tone as shown in the concatenation. Moreover, this study still maintains that in the distant past in the historical development of Yorùbá *ṣé # àbí* must have fused together to produce a polar question word because in some Yorùbá dialects the word is *ṣèbí*; this is an indication that the merger of the high and low tone has produced a mid tone which is a plausible tonal process. This process is attested in Mọ̀bà dialect (see Abiodun & Ajiboye, 2008). It must be noted however, that *ṣèbí* and *ṣebí* are in free variation in the Yorùbá language, that is, they have same semantic content. Another test to show that *t(àbí)* is not a polar question word is that no other polar question word such as *ṣé, ṣèbí* and *ǹjẹ́* have the same distribution as *t(àbí)*, that is, they must be able to conjoin two

independent sentences. See these examples:

12 a.* Adé lọ ṣé kò lọ
    NP go Qw neg. go
    Ade went did not go

    b.* Adé lọ ṣèbí kò lọ
    NP go Qw neg. go
    Ade went didn't not go

    c.* Adé lọ ǹje´ kò lọ
    NP go Qw neg. go
    Ade went did not go.

    d. Adé lọ t(àbí) kò lọ
    NP go conj. neg. go
    Ade went or he didn't

While examples in 12 (a–c) are ungrammatical, example 12 (d) is grammatical. This is a clear indication that (t)*àbî* is a conjunction. And, no real polar question word can combine two opposite sentences. Moreover, no other conjunction has been reported in Yorùbá to perform polar question word functions. If this is the case, why is (t)*àbi* an exception? However, with respect to the arguments above, three hypoteses are proposed by the researcher to account for (t)*àbî* in Yorùbá.

Hypothesis (1) (t)*àbǐ* is a polar question word and a conjunction.

Hypothesis (2) (t)*àbí* is a polar question word.

Hypothesis (3) (t)*àbî* is a conjunction (disjunctive).

To start with the first hypothesis, the researcher proposes a Complementizer Phrase (CP) Structure for a polar question interrogative sentence where the polar question word occupies the C, CP position and it takes IP as its complement. Moreover, the study also proposes a ConjP that is dominated by IP *x* and it combines two sentences (IP *n* and IP *m*) together. The proposed structures are represented below:

13 a.

    b.
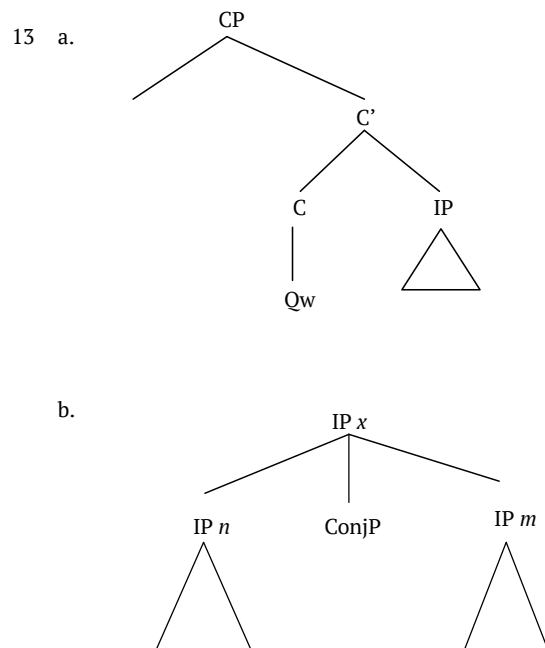
These structures in 13 (a-b) will be used for the analysis of hypothesis (1) in example 13 below:

14 a. Olú lọ.　　　　　Olu went.　　　Declarative

b. (T)*àbi* Olú lọ . / ? Did Olu go?　　Or Olu went.

c. Olú lọ t(àbí) kò Did Olu go or Olu went or he
lọ. / ?　　　　not?　　　　didn't.

d. Ṣé/Ǹjé/Ṣèbí Olú Did Olu go or
lọ (t)àbi kò lọ? he didn't

The examples above are presented on tree diagrams for clarification

15 a.

15 b. i

15 b. ii

15 c. i

15 c. ii

10

15   d. i

```
                    CP
                  /    \
               Spec    C'
                      /  \
                     C    IP
                     |   /  \
                    Ṣé  DP   I'
                        |   /  \
                       Adé  I   VP
                             /    \
                           V'      CP
                           |      /  \
                           V    Spec   C
                           |         /  \
                           lọ       C    IP
                                    |    /\
                                 t(àbí)  /  \
                                        /____\
                                       kò lọ?
```

15   d. ii

```
                    CP
                  /    \
               Spec    C'
                      /  \
                     C    IP
                     |   /  \
                    Ṣé  DP   I'
                        |   /  \
                       Adé  I   VP
                             /    \
                           V'     ConjP
                           |      /   \
                           V          Conj.
                           |         /   \
                           lọ      Conj   IP
                                    |     /\
                                 t(àbí)  /  \
                                        /____\
                                       kò lọ.
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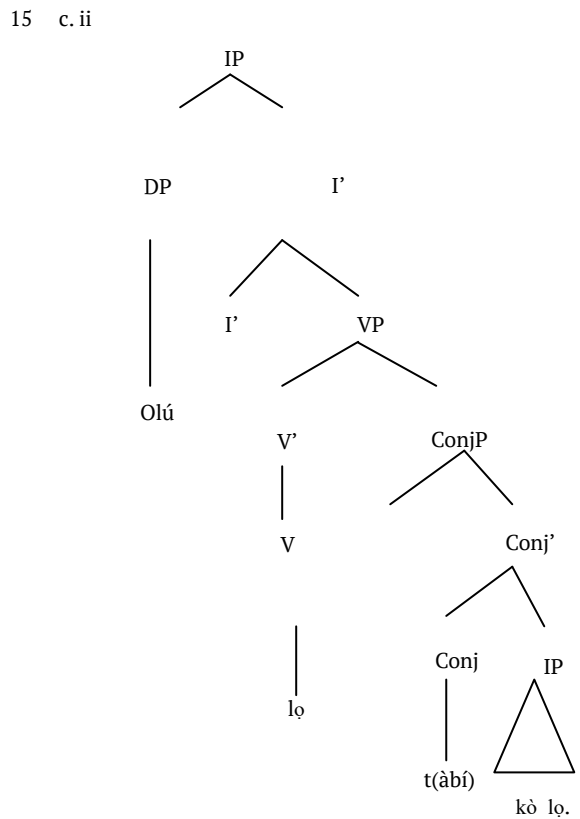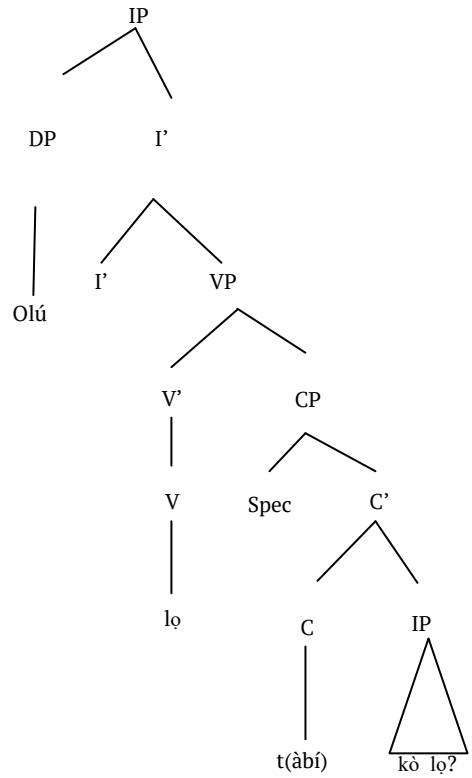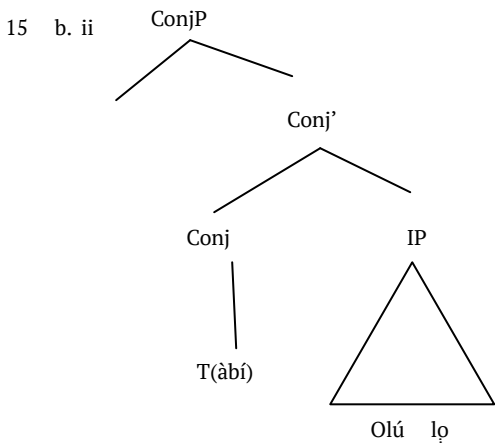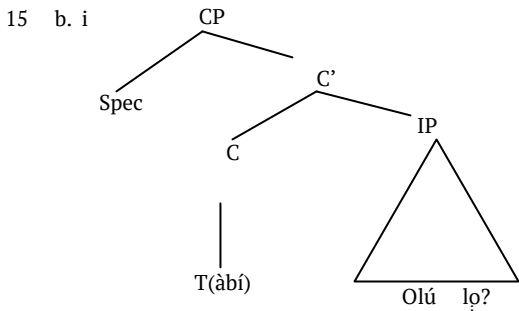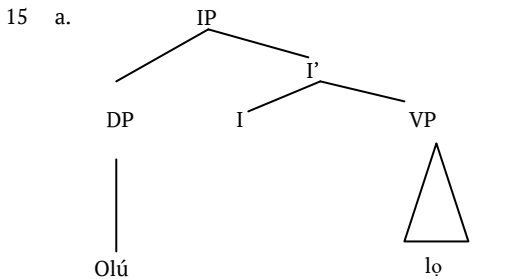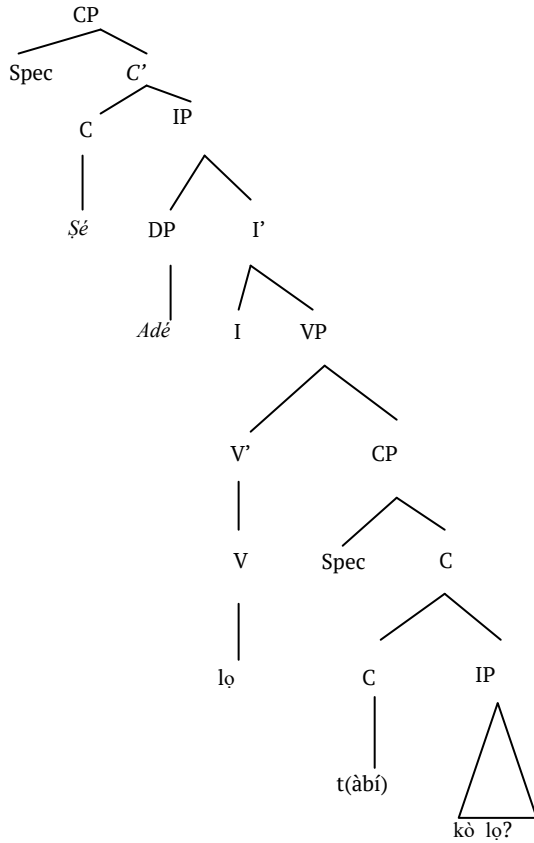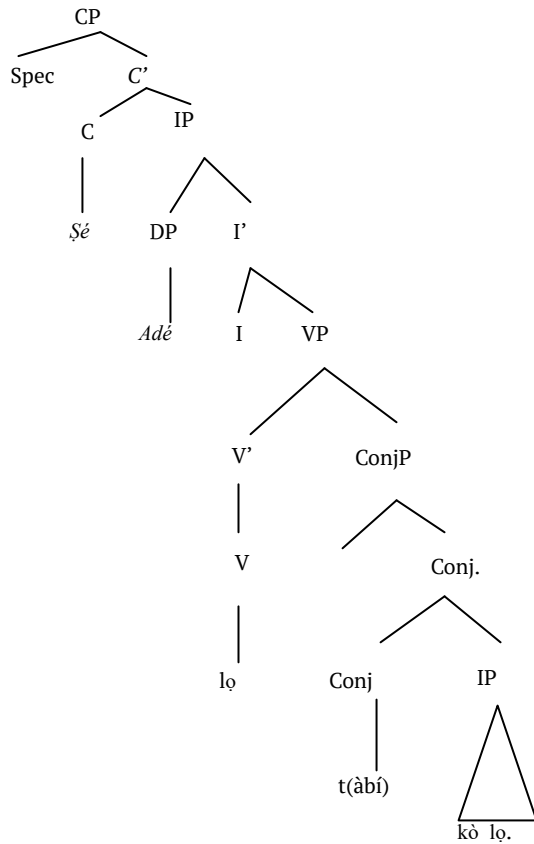
Based on our assertion in hypothesis (1), examples 14 (b, c and d) will have two reading as shown in 15 (b, c and d) diagrammatically above. However, example 15 d (i) shows that there are two sentences, *Ṣé* questions the first sentence, while (t)*àbi* questions the second sentence whereas example 15 d (ii), depicts that there are two sentences; the first sentence is questioned by *Ṣé* while (t)*àbi* combines the second sentence to polar interrogative sentence (first sentence).

The conclusion that will be drawn from the tree diagrams above is that the assertion in hypothesis (1) is ambiguous, because where (t)*àbi* is sandwiched between two sentences, it would either function as a polar question word or a conjunction. Moreover, when a polar question word is adjoined to the same sentence the function of (t)*àbi* will also remain the same. It must be noted that Yorùbá permits the co-occurrences of two polar question words in a sentence and these do not result in change of their functions. See these examples:

16   a.   Ṣé Adé lọ bí?
            Qw NP go Qw
            Did Ade go?

       b.   Ǹjé Adé lọ bí?
            Qw NP go Qw
            Did Ade go?

       c.   Ṣé Adé ha lọ bí?
            Qw NP Qw go Qw
            Did Ade go?

The examples in (16) above show that the occurrence of two or more polar question words in a sentence do not change the function of one of the two as opposed to example 15 d (ii) above. Moreover, it is pertinent to note that where (t)*àbí* co-occur with other conjunctions like *yálà/bóyá* its function remains as a conjunction. See the examples below:

17   a.   Yálà òjó rọ̀ (t)àbí kò rọ̀ máá gbin ìgbàdo.
            Conj. NP rain Conj. Neg rain fut. plant maize
            Whether it rains or not I will plant maize

       b.   Bóyá Ó lọ (t)àbí kò lọ mi ò mọ̀.
            Conj. Pro go conj. Neg go Pro Neg know
            Whether he went or not I don't know

In addition, if *t(àbí)* is placed as a question word and a conjunction on the same node on a tree diagram, the structure will be cumbersome for analysis and it will generate a grammar that is hard to comprehend.

Since, Hypothesis (1) cannot provide a unified approach for the analysis of *(t)àbí,* it is pertinent to make recourse to hypothesis (2). In hypothesis (2), it is stated that *(t)àbí* is a polar question word in all its position of occurrence thus a CP structure is proposed where C projects into CP and it takes IP as its complement. The structures in 15 b (i) 15 c (i) and 15 d (i) will be applicable, but example 17 (a and b) will pose a problem to this assertion in hypothesis (2). See the tree diagram in 18 below:

18
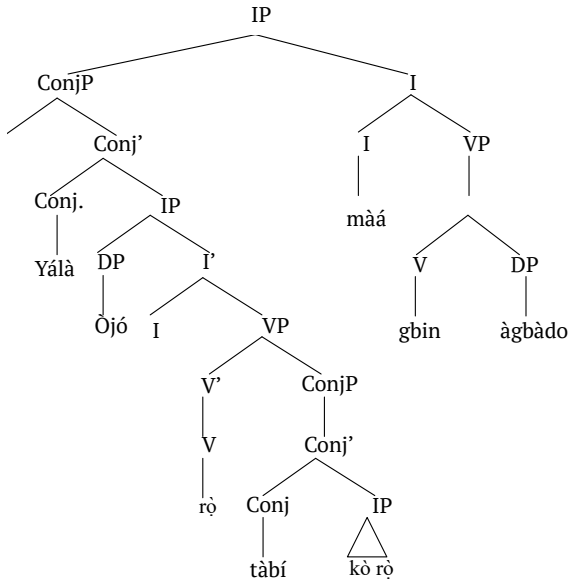
b   Olú lọ (t)àbí kò lọ. Olú went or he didn't.
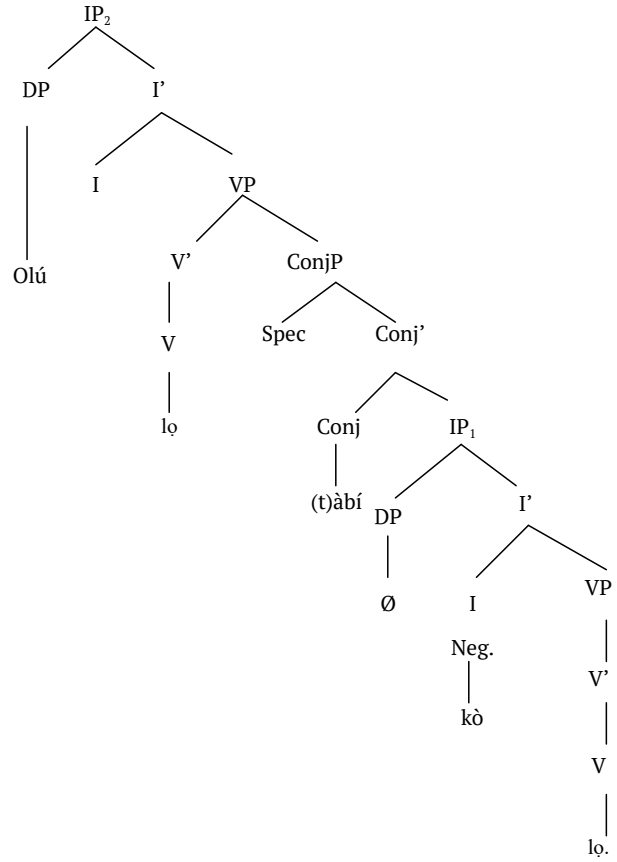
The structure in 18 above and other examples where t(àbí) functions as a conjunction will show clearly that hypothesis (2) is not plausible. Thus, it is imperative to look for a unified analysis to capture *t(àbî)* in all its position of occurrence in Yorùbá sentences. However, hypothesis (3) may offer a plausible explanation for the occurrences of *t(àbí)*.

Hypothesis (3) asserts that all occurrences of (t)*àbí* is a conjunction. In line with this assertion, a ConjP-Structure is proposed, where (t)*àbí* occupies Conj that projects into ConjP and it takes IP or CP as its complement. Moreover, the ConjP can occur between IP *n* and IP *m* (declarative sentences). See the tree diagrams below:

d.   Ṣé / Ǹjẹ́ / Ṣèbí Olú lọ(t)àbí ṣé,ǹjẹ́ kò lọ? Did Olú go or he didn't?

19 a.   T(àbí) Olú lọ. Or Olú went.

12
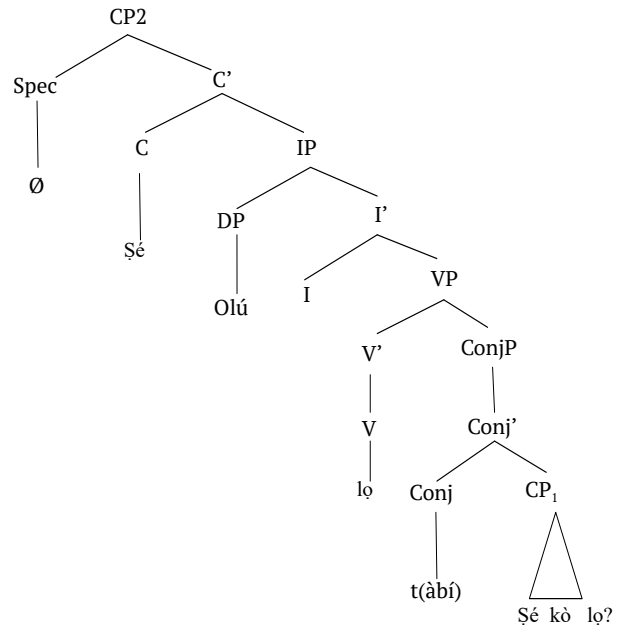
The assertion put forward in hypothesis (3) looks more plausible and it provides a uniform approach to the status of (t)*àbí* in all its places of occurrence. Based on this fact, it is argued that whenever (t)*àbí* occupies a sentence initial position, the clause or sentence before it has been deleted (see Bamgbose, 1990). It is also submitted that when it appears between two sentences, the polar question word has been deleted at the base. Thus, its (polar question word) presence becomes optional. The researcher also upholds the popular belief of Yorùbá grammarians like Awobuluyi (1978) and Bamgbose (1990) on the use of voice raising to produce a polar question because of its cross linguistic evidence. This study asserts that voice raising to produce a polar question must have been responsible for the claim that *t(àbí)* is a polar question word by some Yorùbá scholars. It is also posited that there is no specific way to differentiate sentences with a raised voice and the sentences without a raised voice when they are reduced to writing. However, the researcher opines that Yes / No questions in Yorùbá can be interpreted just like the φ-features of N items based on its syntactic position (see Ilori, 2010). Thus, it has a weak [WH] feature that is why it can be deleted in some syntactic environment; and its presence may be optional in other environment. Finally, this paper submits that *t(àbî)* is a conjunction in all its place occurrence in sentences.

Conclusion

This paper provides another argument that is quite different from the views of the earlier scholars. This paper challenges the traditional approach of the use of *(t)àbí* which ascribes two nomenclatures (lexical category - conjunction and functional category - polar question word) and use for it. The study establishes that the occurrences of *t(àbí)* in all syntactic environments is a case of a conjunction. The paper also asserts that where it appears at a sentence initial position, the question word in the sentence has been deleted. It is also established that when it is sandwiched between two sentences the question word has been deleted or its presence becomes optional. Moreover, this study submits that when it combines two sentences where the first clause is introduced by a polar question word, the same polar question word controls the second sentence but in utterances it is always deleted. However, this paper supports the claim that raising of the voice can be used to produce a polar question in Yorùbá and in such an utterance the polar question is always deleted. This research is limited to lexical categorization of *t(àbí)*. Moreover,

the deviance in the co-occurrence of *şèbí* and *àbí* in an interrogative sentence needs further research, maybe an incursion into Yorùbá dialects may provide a clear answer. Furthermore, Yorùbá lexical categories need a total reappraisal. In English language for instance, a definite number of lexical categories are taught in any grammar course. However, Yorùbá grammar which has been undergoing research for decades has not evolved any definite number of word classes. This is a challenge that scholars cannot afford to run away from.

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Relative and Conditional Clause Constructions in Ìyàgbà Dialect

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Relative Clause has been discussed as a subordinate clause used to qualify a noun. It narrows down the meaning of the noun it qualifies. A relative clause marker tí is inserted to accomplish the noun qualified having coded in the sentence initially in Yoruba language on the one hand. On the other hand, a conditional clause in Yoruba language is introduced with tí-clause by coding it in the sentence initially as well. The paper focuses on relative clause and conditional clause constructions in the Ìyàgbà dialect of Yoruba; a regional dialect in the north-east Yoruba. The author observes that though there are many scholarly works on the relative and conditional clause constructions in the Yoruba language, attention has not been paid to the relative and conditional clause constructions in the dialects of Yoruba. The data were collected from the informants from these dialect communities who reside in these communities and speak the dialects fluently, and the literature materials on these topics. The data presentation shall be based on descriptive analysis. Findings reveal that relative clause markers in the Ìyàgbà dialect are in complementary distribution; they occur in an exclusive environment. Apart from that, conditional clause markers are not attested in the dialect

Keywords: relative clause, standard Yoruba, dialects, scholars, conditional clause

Relative Clause Construction in both standard Yoruba and its dialects has attracted the attention of Yoruba scholars. Bamgbose (1967; 1975a; 1975b; 1990) and Awobuluyi (1975; 1978) independently explain that a relative clause is derived from a simple sentence and it is used to qualify a noun. These two scholars accept that a relative clause is introduced by a *tí*-clause which appears immediately after the relativized items as shown below.

Ọmọ tí ẹkùn bí
Child REL tiger bear
The child that tiger gave birth to

The status of **tí**-clause has generated significant arguments among Yoruba scholars. For instance, Bamgbose (1975, pp. 1-16) is of the opinion that not all the clauses introduced by **tí**-clause are relative clauses. Hence, it is not sufficient to use the presence of **tí**- clause as evidence of a structure being a relative clause. He claims that while it is true that a **tí**-clause can introduce a relative clause, it as well introduces nominalization having a factive and a manner meaning.

Lílú tí Olú ń lu ìlù
The fact that Olu beat the drum
The manner at which Olu beat the drum

A **tí**-clause introduces a relative clause when it appears after relativized NPs and also nominalization having a factive and a manner meaning when it occurs after nominalized verbs.

Awobuluyi (1975, pp. 1-11) has a contrary opinion. While Bamgbose argues that **tí**-clause only introduces a relative clause when it occurs after a true noun and nominalization when it occurs after a nominalized verb. According to Awobuluyi (1975, pp. 1-11), **tí**-clause always introduces a relative clause construction when it appears after the relativized items whether the relativzed item is a noun or a nominalized verb and it conveys a relative clause meaning. Akintoye (2015, pp. 40-45) is of the opinion that **tí**-clause performs dual functions; it functions as both a relative marker and a conditional clause marker. It introduces a relative clause when it occurs after the relativized items and a conditional clause when it appears at the initial position of a conditional sentence.

The focus of this paper is to examine relative and conditional clause constructions in the Ìyàgbà dialect and compare them with how the two clauses operate in other dialects of Yoruba. This research work will be a contribution to the existing works on the syntax of Yoruba dialects. The data presentation for this paper shall be based on descriptive analysis. This will enable the author to have a comprehensive explanation on the operation of relative and conditional clause constructions in the dialect under discussion. The data were collected from the native speakers of Ìyàgbà dialect. They reside in the dialect communities and they are fluent in speaking the dialect. Some of the informants are farmers and illiterates. They do not see any value in researching their dialect. Therefore, they did not give the author enough information. Because the author is not a member of the dialect community, some of the informants were suspicious and very careful in their response to the author's interview. The author also makes use of texts and articles in journals on relative and conditional clause constructions in the standard Yoruba and its dialects.

The paper is divided into three parts. Part one is the introduction. Part two contains the conditional clause construction in Ìyàgbà dialect. The focus of part three is the relative clause construction in Ìyàgbà dialect.

Materials and Methods

Conditional Clause in Ìyàgbà Dialect

Ìyàgbà dialect is one of the regional dialects spoken in the Northeast Yoruba according to Oyelaran (1977) and Awobuluyi (1998). Ìyàgbà speakers occupy the Northeast of Kogi-State and comprise three Local Government Areas. They are; Ìyàgbà West with the headquarters at Ìgbáruku, Ìyàgbà East with the headquarters at Ìsánlu and Mọpamuró Local Government with the headquarters at Mọpa. Each Local Government Area has many dialect communities under it which may not be possible to cover in a work like this. Therefore, the discussion and analysis shall be based on the sub-dialect of Mọpa. It is a good representative of other sub-dialects because all the sub-dialects of Ìyàgbà are mutually intelligible.

Like the standard Yoruba and its dialects, Conditional Clauses are attested in Ìyàgbà dialect of Yoruba. According to Kirkpatrick (2007, p. 52), a conditional clause is an adverbial clause that indicates a possible situation and its consequence. What Kirkpatrick's definition implies is that there are two events in a conditional clause in which one event gives rise to the other. This claim is similar to the claim in Awobuluyi (2013, pp. 254-294) who views a conditional clause as two events in which one occurs before the other and the second event modifies the first one.

Awobuluyi (1978, pp. 111-135) had earlier defined a conditional clause as a sentential modifier, modifying another sentence. Bamgbose (1967, p. 28; 1990, p. 197) views the conditional clause as an event that has never occurred. Both Awobuluyi (1978, pp. 111-135) and Bamgbose (1990, p. 97) are of the opinion that a conditional clause in Yoruba language is marked with the introducers **bí** and **tí** and the adverb **bá** as shown below.

1 a. tí Olú bá dé kí ó jẹun
        COMP Olu be come COMP 3sg eat
        If Olu comes let him eat.

   b. tí òjò bá rò, Olú máa lọ oko
        COMP ojo be fall, Olú PREV go farm
        If it rains, we shall go to farm.

   c. bí Òjó bá lówó, ẹ máa gbádùn
        COMP Ojo be have money, 2pl PREV enjoy
        If Ojo has money, you will enjoy.

A look at the examples above shows that conditional clause markers **tí** and **bi** occupy the sentence initial position while the preverb **bá** 'be' preposes the verb **dé** 'come', **rò** 'rain' and **ní** 'have' respectively. Conditional clauses are transposable in the standard Yoruba. That is, the two structures that form a conditional sentence can be displaced such that the conditional markers will appear in the middle position as demonstrated below

2 ai. tí Olú bá dé kí ó jẹun
         COMP Olu be come COMP 3sg eat
         If Olu comes let him eat.

   ii. kí Olú jẹun tí ó bá dé
         COMP Olu eat COM 2sg be come
         Let Olu eat if he comes.

   bi. bí Tólá bá lówó, ẹ máa gbádùn
         COMP Tola be have money, 2pl PREV enjoy
         If Tola has money, you will enjoy.

   ii. ẹ máa gbádùn bí Tólá bá lówó
         2pl PREV enjoy COMP Tola be have money
         You will enjoy if Tola has money.

In examples (aii and bii) the subordinate conditional clauses **tí ó bá dé** 'if he comes' and **bí Tólá bá lówó** 'if Tola has money' occupy the middle position respectively.

Like the standard Yoruba, conditional sentences are present in the dialects of Yoruba. For instance, although the conditional clause markers appear at the sentence initial position, they vary form one dialect to the other. For instance, Ondó dialect employs **di** while Èkìtì dialect employs **kí** to mention a few as demonstrated below.

3. **Ondó dialect**
   Di Olú bá wa, á ka jẹun
   COMP Olu be come PREVs eat
   If Olu comes, he will eat

   Di iba i bá nówó ẹ ka gbádùn
   COMP father be have money 2sg PREVs enjoy
   If father is rich, you will enjoy.

4. **Òmùò dialect**

a.   Ki Olú bá á, aá jẹun
COMP Olu be come PREV eat
If Olu comes, he will eat.

b.   Ki bàbá bá léó, ẹ̀ ka gbádùn
COMP father be have money 2sg PREV enjoy
If father is rich, you will enjoy.

Examples 3 (a, b) and 3 (a, b) above indicate that as it is found in the standard Yoruba, the preverb **bá** 'be' also accomplishes the function of a conditional clause marker in the dialects of Yoruba.

A question we should ask is whether the presence of conditional clause markers and the preverb **bá** in the conditional sentence are enough to identify a conditional construction in the standard Yoruba and its dialects. The reason both conditional markers and **bá** can sometimes be deleted in the construction without altering meaning as shown below.

5. **Standard Yoruba**

a.   Bí o bá fẹ́ bí o bá kọ̀, ó màá tẹ̀lé ẹ
COMP 2sg be like COMP 2sg be refuse 3sgPREV follow you
Whether you like it or not, he will follow you

b.   Bí o fẹ́ bí o kọ̀, ó màá tẹ̀lé é
COMP 2sg like COMP 2sg refuse, 3sgPREV follow you
Whether you like it or not, he will follow you

c.   O fẹ́ o kọ̀, ó màá tẹ̀lé ẹ
2sg like 2sg refuse, 3sg PREV follow you
Whether you like it or not, he will follow you.

6a.   Bí òjò bá rọ̀ bí òjò kò bá rọ̀, iṣu á ta
COMP rain be fall COMP rain NEG be fall, yam PREV germinate.
Whether it rains or not, the yam will germinate

b.   Bí òjò rọ̀ bí òjò kò rọ̀, iṣu á ta
COMP rain fall COMP rain NEG fall, yam PREV germinate
Whether it rains or not, yam will germinate

c.   Òjó rọ̀, òjò kò rọ, iṣu á ta
Rain fall, rain NEG fall, yam PREV germinate
Whether it rains or not, yam will germinate

There are some dialects of Yoruba, especially the regional dialect under study, where a conditional clause marker is not attested. For instance, unlike the standard Yoruba and some other dialects of Yoruba where conditional clause markers are attested as demonstrated in examples (2), (3) and (4) above, a conditional clause marker is not obtainable in the Ìyàgbà dialect as shown below.

7. **Mọ̀pà dialect**

a.   Olú bá rè, ghọ̀n á ghá
Olu be go, 3plPREV come
If Olu goes, they will come

b.   Ghọn bá jẹun alẹ́ tán, ẹ gha retí gha
3pl be eat night finish, 2pl PREV expect 1pl
If they finish lunch, be expecting us.

c.   Olu bá máà jìyà, ẹ ra rè
Olu be NEG punish, NEG go
If Olu is not discipline, he will not go.

In examples 6 (b) and 7 (b) above, the preverb **bá** 'be' is deleted and in examples 4 (c) and 6 (c), both the conditional clause marker and the preverb **bá** are deleted. Whereas, a conditional clause marker is absent in the examples (7) above, but the preverb **bá** 'be' which always occurs with the conditional clause marker in the standard Yoruba and in some dialects of Yoruba is present. Even when the two conditional structures are transposed, the conditional marker is still absent as demonstrated below.

8ai.   Olú bá rè, ghọ̀n á ghá
Olu be go, 3pl PREV come
If Olu goes, they will come

ii.   Ghọ̀n á ghá Olú bá rè
3pl PREV come Olu be go
They will come if Olu goes

bi.   Olú bá jẹun alẹ́ tán, ẹ gha retí rẹ̀
Olu be eat night finish, 2pl PREV expect 3sg
If Olu finish lunch, be expecting him.

ii.   Ẹ ghá retí Tolú ó bá jẹun alẹ́ tán
2pl PREV expect Tolu 3sg be eat night finish
Be expecting Tolu if he finishes lunch

It is evident, according to the examples (8) above that conditional marker is not observable in the Ìyàgbà dialect. One can now say that the occurrence of both the conditional clause marker and the preverb **bá** is obligatory in both standard Yoruba and its dialects on the one hand. On the other hand, the realization of a conditional sentence depends on the discretion of the native speaker At times, if one compares the occurrence of the conditional markers and **bá** with the occurrence of the relative clause **tí** and the focus clause **ni** in the sentence, it may be evident that these two markers are also obligatorily deleted as demonstrated below.

9. **Standard Yoruba**

ai.   Èyí tí ó bá wù ọ́ ni kí o wi
This REL RSP be like 2sg FOC COMP 2sg say
Say whatever you like.

ii.   Èyí wù ọ́ kí o wí
This like 2sg COMP 2sg say
Say whatever you like

bi.   Ẹni tí o rí ni o bá lọ
Person REL 2sg see FOC 2sg be go
You follow whosoever You see,

ii.   Ẹni wọ́n rí wọ́n bá lọ
Person 3pl see 3pl follow
They follow whosoever they see

In examples 7 (aii) and 9 (bii) above, both relative and focus markers are deleted without altering the meaning of the expressions. This shows that in the standard Yoruba and its dialects, the occurrence of relative, focus and conditional markers is obligatory as earlier noted and their realization depends on the discretion of interlocutors.

In addition to this, **bí** and **bá** can also appear in expressions without giving conditional clause

meaning as shown below.

10. **Standard Yoruba**

ai. Olu bá gba kámú ní tirè nigba tí ó sún un
Olu be accept fate PART his when RSP feed up 3sg
Olu then accept fate when he was fed up.

ii. Olú bá jókòò rè jééjéé nígbà tí kò mọ èyí tí ì bá ṣe
Olu be sit his gently when NEG know this REL PREV be do
Olu then sat down gently when he did not know what he
could do

iii. Ò bá kúkú gbà fún Ọlórun ní órí ọrò yìí
2sg be ADV accept PREP God PREP head word this
You had better accept for God on this matter.

bi. Bí wọn ṣe jí owó náà kò yé e
Be 3pl do steal money DET NEG understand 3sg
He did not understand the way they stole the money

ii. Bí Olú ṣe gbọ ọrò náà ni ó bú ṣékún
Be Olu do hear word DET FOC 3sg burst to tear
As Olu heard the matter, he was crying

In examples 10 (i-iii) and 9 (i, ii), both **bá** and **bí** function as adverbs. If one compares the examples above with examples in (7), one can easily say that **bá** in the conditional sentence in the Ìyàgbà dialect cannot be an introducer of a conditional sentence. A critical look at these examples shows that in both examples 6 and 8 (ai-iii), the preverb **bá** 'be' preposes verbs. What we are trying to put forward is that if **bá** 'be' performs the same function in examples 7 and 9 (i-iii) above, it cannot be said that **bá** is a recoverability of the conditional clause marker in the Ìyàgbà dialect unless there is evidence that **bá** performs dual function. The observation is that although the Ìyàgbà dialect does not have a conditional clause marker, a conditional sentence is realized by discretion of the native speaker.

Results and Discussion

Relative Clause Construction in the Ìyàgbà Dialect

Scholars like Awobuluyi (1978, pp. 35-37) and Bamgbose (1990, p. 123) have explained that a relative clause construction is derived by movement transformation. A simple sentence is reduced to a relative clause by moving the relativized items outside the higher clause to the initial position of the relative clause construction. According to Hastings (2004, pp. 54-60), Mureili (2008, pp. 1-4) and Andreea (2010, p. 7), a relative clause is an attribute which qualifies the head of the noun phrase. It narrows down the potential reference of an NP by specifying the role of the reference of that NP.

Following the definition of the scholars above, a relative clause is a subordinate clause that qualifies and narrows down the meaning of a noun. Although Kayne (1994), Borsly (1997, p. 629) and Bianchi (2000, p. 145) mention the different types of relative clauses; Restrictive, Unrestrictive and Free or Zero relative

clauses, in this paper, we shall limit our discussion to the restrictive relative clause. The reason is that the restrictive relative clause is more prominent in the standard Yoruba and its dialects.

The structures of a relative clause construction in both the standard Yoruba and its dialects are identical in the sense that there is movement transformation as earlier noted and the relative marker comes after the relativized items. The only difference is that a relative marker manifests itself in different forms in the dialects of Yoruba. For instance, it takes **tí** form in the standard Yoruba and in some Northwest Yoruba such as Ìbàdàn, Òṣogbo, Ṣakí and Ìgbòho to mention a few. A relative marker takes two forms; **ghin** and **n** in the Ìyàgbà dialect as demonstrated below.

11. **Mọpà dialect**

ai. Ọmọ jé iṣu
Child eat yam
The child ate Yam

ii. Ọmọ n ó jẹ iṣu
Child REL RSP eat yam
The child that ate yam

bi. Ó kọ ilé
3sg build house
He built a house

ii. Òun n ó kọ ilé
3sg REL RSP build house
He that built a house

12ai. Ọmọ jé iṣu
Child eat yam
The child ate Yam

ii. Iṣu ghin ọmọ jẹ
Yam REL child eat
The yam that the child ate

bi. Ghón kọ ilé
3pl build house
They built a house

ii. Ilé ghin ghón kọ
House REL 3pl build
The house that they built

In examples 11 (aii), 11 (bii) above, the relative clause marker **n** co-occurs with **ó** whereas the relative clause marker **ghin** co-occurs with ọmọ 'child', the 3sg **ghọn** 'they' in examples 12 (aii), 12 (bii). This indicates that each of the relative clause markers **n** and **ghin** is restricted to a particular domain; **n** occurs with a resumptive pronoun whereas **ghin** occurs with NPs. If one considers the Ìkàlè dialect, there is a tendency for one to view **n** as the proform of the relativized items or a reduced form of **òun** as manifested below.

13. **Ìkálè dialect**

a. Udàbó n/òun ó mú pa ejò
Cutlass pro 3sg take kill snake
The cutlass that he took to kill the snake.

b. Òkúta n/òun Olú jù
Stone pro Olu throw
The stone that Olu threw.

A critical look at the examples above shows that **n/òun** are allomorphs and they refer to the relativized NPs; **udàbó** 'cutlass' and **òkúta** 'stone' respectively. This type of proform is common in Yoruba literature as demonstrated below.

12a.   A-ṣápẹ́-fún-wèrè-jó òun pẹ̀lú wèrè ẹgbẹ̀ra ni
      A person that beats bell for a mad man to dance, he and the mad are equal.

b.   A-lù-fún-wèrè-jó òun wèrè jọ lọ̀kanùn kanùn
     A person that beats drum for a man to dance, he and the mad   man are the same thing

                       (Olatubosun, 1973, p. 83)

In the examples above, the 3sg **òun** 'he' is referring to the subject NPs **A-ṣápẹ́-fún-wèrè-jó** 'he that beats bell for a mad man' and **A-lù-fún-wèrè-jó** 'he that beats drum for a mad man'. But if one considers the example below, one may argue that **n** cannot be the reduced form of **òun** because if it is so, **òun** and **n** could not have co-occurred.

15.   **Ìyàgbà dialect**
    Òun n ó mú òdùn lu ọmọ
    3sg REL RSP take cane beat child
    The one that took cane to beat the child.

Conclusion

Conditional and relative clause constructions in the dialect of Ìyàgbà, a regional dialect in Northeast Yoruba, have been examined. Unlike the standard Yoruba and some dialects of Yoruba, a conditional clause marker is not attested in the Ìyàgbà dialect. The author also argued in this paper that the presence of **bá** 'be' is not enough to determine a conditional clause construction in the Ìyàgbà dialect and that the realization of a conditional clause depends on the understanding of the native speakers through intonation. The author explained further that a relative clause marker takes two forms in the Ìyàgbà dialect; **n** and **ghin,** which occur in different domains. For instance, **n** co-occurs with a resumptive pronoun and **ghin** co-occurs with noun phrases. Further research on relative clause and conditional clause constructions will need to focus on comparative analysis of relative clause and conditional clause constructions in Ìyàgbà and the other dialects of Yoruba. This will enable the author to see if what is discussed in the paper is obtainable in other dialects of Yoruba.

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Vowel Deletion and Insertion in Úwù

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Úwù is one of the many endangered languages in Nigeria.The number of its fluent speakers is believed to be less than 2000. The language is spoken in a small community known as Àyèré in Ìjùmú Local Government Area (LGA) of Kogi state. This paper describes the manifestation of vowel deletion and insertion in the language with the view of testing earlier assertions on the nature of vowel deletion and insertion in languages that are genetically related to Úwù. Apart from this, the paper is also an attempt to document these phonological phenomena (i.e. vowel deletion and insertion) before the language goes into extinction. About six hundred (600) lexical items of Úwù were collected for this research work with the aid of the 1000 word-list of the Summer Institute of Linguistics. Both linear and non-linear models were adopted for analysis in this research work. Cases involving segmental phonemes were analyzed with the linear phonology, while cases of feature stability and feature spread wereanalyzed using the non-linear model. The paper, among other things, reveals that the pattern of vowel deletion is predictable in Úwù, auto-segments like tone (mostly high tone), nasality and labial or round features usually persist even when the vowel which bore them was deleted. Apart from this, the paper also reveals that [i] is the epenthetic vowel in Úwù, and lastly, it is argued in the paper that nouns in Úwù are virtually vowel initial.

Keywords: Vowel deletion, Insertion, Linear Phonology, Autosegmental Phonology, Prothesis

Earlier scholarly works in the area of phonology have proven that vowel deletion and insertion are two of the most productive phonological processes observed in many languages of the world (Glowacka, 2001; Uffmann, 2002; Frajzyngier, 2003; Hall, 2006). Research works carried out on the phonology of many African languages and precisely Benue-Congo languages have shown that there is hardly any African language that does not manifest the two or at least one of these phonological processes. Scholars, including Elugbe (1973), Egbokhare (1990), and Abiodun (2000; 2004), have all shown the pattern of vowel deletion in, Edo, Emai, Ukaan, and Yorùbá languages. Elugbe (1973) and Egbokhare (1990), report that vowel deletion is unpredictable in Edo and Emai languages because sometimes the first vowel (henceforth V_1) is deleted and some other times the second vowel (henceforth V_2) could be deleted in a V_1 # V_2 construction. According to Egbokhare (1990), the choice of the deleted vowel is determined by the morpho-syntactic relations between the lexical sequences bearing the vowels (in Emai). Abiodun (2000; 2004) also reports that vowel deletion is also unpredictable in both Ukaan and Yorùbá languages. According to him, on vowel deletion within a verb phrase in Yorùbá, the vowel of the verb is most likely deleted if the noun is a derived one. However, in the case of an underived noun, any of V_1 or V_2 could be deleted.

On the pattern of vowel insertion, earlier scholars who have worked on various Benue-Congo languages have shown that vowels are usually inserted to break unwanted consonant clusters in languages that do not manifest consonant clusters. Apart from this, vowels may also be inserted to ensure that a vowel

ends every word in a language that operates only the open syllable type. Lastly, a vowel may also be inserted in the form of a prothesis so that a consonant-initial word conforms to the syllable structure of a language where non-verbal words are mainly vowel initial. A typical example of such a language is Edo as reported in Adeniyi (2008).

In this paper, these two phonological phenomena are described and by implication documented in the Úwù language. The paper is divided into four sections. Section one is the introduction, section two presents the pattern of vowel deletion in Úwù, while section three presents the pattern of vowel insertion in the language. Finally, section four is the conclusion of the paper.

Materials and Methods

Vowel Deletion Úwù

According to Abiodun (2007), the deletion process involves a loss of sound, which may be a vowel, a consonant, or a suprasegment. This paper shows that vowel deletion is very robust in the Úwù language. The process is technically referred to as elision. As the name implies, it is the loss of a vowel in the course of derivation. On the effect of vowel deletion in languages where it occurs, Bamgbose (2006, p. 56) comments that; "Such a loss (of vowel) leads to the reduction in the number of syllables in the word or phrase".

The process of elision in Úwù occurs in three different grammatical constructions that include:

i.   associative morpheme + noun
ii.   verb + noun
iii. pronoun + future tense morpheme

Vowel Deletion in Associative Morpheme + Noun

In Úwù, a noun-noun construction is usually mediated by a medial particlewhich prevents the occurrence of two nouns across word boundaries. Ibikunle (2014) observes a similar particle which performs the same function in Ìyínnɔ́ (a dialect of Àíka spoken in Ondo state). Ibikunle (2014) referred to this particle as "associative morpheme" henceforth (AM). The same nomenclature is therefore adopted for the particle in this study. In Úwù, this study reveals that the associative morpheme is underlyingly "nì". However, the vowel of the morpheme is usually deleted whenever thenoun after the word boundary in the construction begins with a vowel, but when the noun after the word boundary begins with a consonantthe vowel of the associative morpheme becomes overt. Consider the examples in 1 (a) and (b) below:

1. (a)	i.	oɲĩnì àtá water AM gushing	→	oɲĩnà̰tá	'spring'
	ii.	àdʒánìajĩ̀ku house AMfaeces	→	àdʒánãjĩ̀ku	'toilet'
	iii.	anũnìùwa mouth AMdoor	→	anũnũ̀wá	'door way'
	iv.	ahi nì àdʒá stomach AM house	→	ahinà̰dʒá	'room'
	v.	ɔkɔ̀ nìédʒé nìoɲĩ vehicle AM eye AM water	→	ɔkɔ̀nɛ́dʒénõɲĩ	'boat/ ship'
	vi.	ɔkɔ̀ nì Adé vehicle AM Ade	→	ɔkɔ̀nadé	'Adé's car'
	vii.	ɛdʒa nì írìgòrĩgo egg AM ant	→	ɛdʒanírìgòrĩgo	'rice'
1(b)	i.	oɲĩ ni kɔ̀ŋga water AM well	→	oɲĩnìkɔ̀ŋga	'well water'
	ii.	àkì nì Bɔ́lá cloth AM Bɔ́lá	→	àkì nibɔ́lá	'Bola's cloth'
	iii.	ùwàʃenì tíʃà food AM teacher	→	ùwàʃe nìtíʃà	'teacher's food'
	iv.	àdʒá nì tajɔ house AM Tayo	→	àdʒá nìtájɔ̀	'Tayo's house'

As shown in 1 (a-b) above, the vowel of the associative morpheme which is contiguous with the first sound of the noun after the word boundary is lost at the derived form of the construction throughout the examples in 1 (a). This is because the initial sound of the noun after the word boundary is a vowel. However, the case in 1 (b) is different because the nouns after the word boundaries begin with consonants. This implies that for deletion to take place in an "associative morpheme + noun construction" in Úwù, the noun after the morpheme boundary must begin with a vowel. It is noted that the nasal feature of the alveolar nasal; [n] is usually acquired by the vowel [i] of the associative morpheme. It is also noted that the nasal feature is usually transferred to the initial vowel of the noun after vowel [i] is deleted. This shows that when the vowel is deleted, its nasal feature persists. The deletion rule is captured by the rule below:

2.

$$\begin{bmatrix} +\text{syll} \\ +\text{high} \\ -\text{back} \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \emptyset \ / -\# \ [+\text{syll}]$$

On the pattern of deletion in Úwù, it is observed that, the vowel [i] of the associative morpheme which is always the deleted segment shows that in an "associative morpheme + noun construction", V_1 is usually deleted and its nasal feature transfers to V_2 in a $V_1 \# V_2$ construction.

It should be recollected as said earlier that this phenomenon is not peculiar to Úwù alone as Ibikunle (2014) reports a similar case in Iyinno. The examples below show the manifestation of the associative morpheme in Iyinno:

3 a. èná mè àháĩ → [ɛnɔ́mãháĩ] 'animal'
   meat AM farm

   b. àʃú mè itítí → [àʃúmĩtítí] 'Titi's faecces'
   faeces AM Titi

   c. àʃú mè ehú → [àʃúmẽhú] 'rice'
   faeces AM rat

The examples from Iyinno have shown that just as the vowel [i] of the associative morpheme is deleted whenever the noun after the word boundary begins with a vowel in Úwù, the vowel [ɛ] of the morpheme is also deleted in Iyinno whenever the noun after the word boundary begins with a vowel.

Vowel Deletion in Verb + Noun

Elision within a verb phrase is highly productive in Úwù. This is not strange as several scholars have shown that vowel deletion is highly productive in various languages of the worl. Scholars like Elugbe (1973), Egbokhare (1990), Schiffman (1993), Abiodun (2000; 2004), Molczanow (2007) among others have shown the robustness of vowel deletion within a verb phrase in different languages. Apart from the robustness of vowel deletion within a verb phrase, scholars in the area of phonology have also shown that the choice of the deleted vowel across word boundries in a V_1# V_2 construction varies from one language to another. While some languages delete V_1 (e.g. Ukaan as shown in Abiodun (2000), other languages either delete V_1 or V_2 (e.g. Yorùbá as shown in Awobuluyi (1978; 1988), Bamgbose (2006), and Abiodun (2004). For instance, the data below taken from Abiodun (2004, pp. 3-8) show that any of V_1 and V_2 could be deleted in a V_1 # V_2 construction in Yorùbá:

4. (a) pa ejò → pejò 'kill a snake'
      wo ọnà → wọnà 'be on the look out'
      ra epo → repo 'buy oil / fuel'
      ʃέ èpè → ʃépè 'put a curse'

   (a) ta ọjà → tajà 'sell goods'
      ra ọjà → rajà 'buy goods'
      se ọbè → sebẹ 'cook soup'
      ro ọbẹ → robẹ 'stir soup'

In the examples above, V_2 survives deletion in 4 (a) while V_1 survives deletion in 4 (b). Based on the data presented above, it becomes convincing that the choice of the deleted vowel is unpredictable in Yorùbá.

This present study shows that vowel deletion within a verb phrase is highly productive in the Úwù language. Although, the phenomenon only occurs between a monosyllabic verb and a noun, in the case of a disyllabic or tri-syllabic verb, deletion does not occur, rather no phonological change is observed. But if the

contiguous vowels are identical, then deletion will occur as the occurrence of identical vowels across the morpheme boundary is not allowed in Úwù. Consider the data below:

5.(a) kwũ̄ʃo ɛ̀ndʒɛ́ 'gather/ collect fruits'
   ruhi ólá 'remember dream'
   fupá oŋwu 'climb tree'
   lɔlɛ̀ ogo 'swim river'
   bɛ̀rɛ̀ adʒɔ̀ 'start work'
   ʃueũ éwó 'beat goat'
   ʃúéũ ómã 'beat child'
   wúrèé olowù 'ask for somebody'

(b) gbala alè → gbalalè 'sweep floor'
   ruhi irĩ → ruhirĩ 'remember a song'
   ruhi ìlèmú → ruhìlèmú 'remember an orange…'
   kwũ̄ʃo òwú → kwũ̄ʃòwú 'gather/ collect threads'

As shown in data 5 (a and b) above, the items in 5 (a) do not reflect any phonological change, but those in 5 (b) reflect deletion. The difference is due to the kind of the contiguous segments as already said; those in 5 (b) are identical vowels, whereas those in 5 (a) are different vowels.

Apart from the above, the study also reveals that within a verb phrase where the verb before a noun is monosyllabic, in a V_1 # V_2 construction in the language, it is always the V_1 that gets deleted. The corpus data presented below validate our claim:

6.							
i.	ʃi take	+	oɲĩ water	→	ʃoɲĩ		'take water'
ii.	ʃe be	+	ɔba king	→	ʃɔba		'become king'
iii.	hí cook	+	ɔ̃dɔ̀ soup	→	hɔ̃dɔ̀		'cook soup'
iv.	jwi give birth	+	ómã child	→	jóma		'give birth to a child'
v.	fo wash	+	àki cloth	→	fàkì		'wash cloth'
vi.	kpu kill	+	ɛna animal	→	kpɛna		'kill (an) animal'
vii.	ŋgo weave	+	àkì cloth	→	ŋgàkì		'weave cloth'
viii.	ʃe eat	+	ɛ̀kpèjɔ̀ ground-nut	→	ʃɛ̀kpèjɔ̀		'eat groundnut'
ix.	dʒí steal	+	ódʒí thief	→	dʒódʒí		'steal something'
x.	kó learn	+	ídʒú dance (N)	→	kídʒú		'to dance'
xi.	kú pack	+	àkì cloth	→	kwákì		'pack clothes'
xii.	kú pack	+	àwù shirt	→	kwáwù		'pack shirts'

xiii.	gú pound	+	ɔ̀dɛ́ pounded yam	→	gwɔ́dɛ̀ɛ́	'pound pounded yam'
xiv.	ʃe do	+	iʃɔla fight(N)	→	ʃiʃɔla	'fight(V)'
xv.	hɛ̃́ throw	+	èkíta stone	→	hɛ̃̀kíta	'throw stone'
xvi.	jã tear	+	ɛlɛ́ money	→	jɛ̃lɛ́	'tear money'
xvii.	gbɔ́ hear/listen	+	irĩ song	→	gbírĩ	'hear/ listen to song'
xviii.	jà boil	+	ɛdʒa egg	→	jɛdʒa	'boil egg'
xix.	gbɛ́ abuse	+	ɔ̀gá boss	→	gbɔ́gá	'abuse/ insult the boss'
xx.	dà buy	+	ɛ̀ʃɛ́ yam	→	dɛ̀ʃɛ́	'buy yam'
xxi.	wù wear	+	àkì cloth	→	wàkì	'wear cloth'
xxii.	gù demolish	+	àdʒá house	→	gw àdʒá	'demolish house'
xxiii.	fu untie	+	éwó goat	→	féwó	'untie goat'
xxiv.	gbu tie	+	àkɔ̀kɔ cock	→	gbàkɔ̀kɔ	'tie cock'
xxv.	kpu kill	+	áʃʷá dog	→	kpáʃʷá	'kill dog'

From the examples above, it is apparent that the choice of the vowel that gets deleted is predictable; that is, only the vowels of the verbs are deleted. It is also evident in the data that the choice of vowels deleted is by no means dependent on the type of vowels of the verbs or nouns involved, or the form of the nouns (i.e. whether derived or underived); rather, it depends on the position of the vowel as it must be V₁ which is the vowel of the verb. Another point that needs to be emphasized here is that the vowels are not usually deleted with all their features. We observe that, such autosegmental features like tone (specifically high tone) (e.g. iii), nasality (e.g. xv), and roundness features (e.g. xi) usually persist only to realign with other segments within their environments. This kind of behavior is referred to as feature stability within the autosegmental theory, and it has shown us the relevance of the theory to this work. The illustration below shows the pattern of deletion within a verb phrase in the language:

$[V]_1 \rightarrow \emptyset\ /-\ \#\ [V]_2$: $[+\text{syll}] \rightarrow \emptyset\ /\ -\ \#\ [+\text{syll}]$

It is also important that we discuss a type of phonological change that occurs between a verb and a consonant-initial noun as shown in the data below:

Note that the asterisked examples below are deviant.

7							
i.	ʃe eat	+	dodo plantain	→	ʃidodo	'fry plantain'
ii.	dà buy	+	bata shoe	→	dibata	'buy shoe'
iii.	tà sell	+	bɛ́líìtì belt	→	tibɛ́líìtì	'sell belt'
iv.	dá go	+	súkúrù school	→	dísúkúrù	'go to school'
v.	wá come	+	súkúrù school	→	wísúkúrù	'come to school'
vi.	wá come	+	ʃɔ̀ɔ̀ʃì church	→	wíʃɔ̀ɔ̀ʃì	'come to church'
vii.	* bɛ̀rɛ start	+	sùkúrù school	→	bɛ̀rɛ̀ sùkúrù	'start schooling'
viii.	* wúrèé ask	+	bàtà shoe	→	wúrèé bàtà	'ask/request for shoe'

From the data above, it is observed that a high front vowel [i] which is not present at the underlying representation surfaces at the phonetic representation. This change may make a casual observer to assume that the vowel of the verb changed to [i] whenever the noun begins with a consonant. However, this kind of assumption may not be correct because one may not be able to account for this kind of change as it is not a common phonological process that occurs in natural languages. Alternatively, one may assume that the vowels of the monosyllabic verbs were deleted and an extraneous vowel [i] introduced to block the cluster of consonants resulting from the deleted vowels. Consider the illustration below:

8. dà + bata : underlying representation'
   ddbàtà : v-deletion
   dibàta : i-insertion
   dibàta : surface representation

Although this assumption may appear to be more logical than the first one, it is worrisome to have the two rules; v-deletion and i-insertion to both apply to a single structure to arrive at its surface representation. One needs to ask the following questions:
i. Why would a language delete a vowel only to replace it with another one?
ii. How logical is the order of application of the two rules in terms of naturalness, economy, simplicity and plausibility?

The complexity and illogicality of the above rules may also compel one to consider a more appropriate and logical argument. This will lead one to assume that an extraneous vowel [i] which is technically referred to as a prothesis is introduced before the consonant initial-nouns so as to ensure that all nouns begin with a vowel in the language. The prothetic vowel [i] is covert when the nounsoccur as the subject of sentences as shown below:

Note that 9iii is deviant.

9. i. sùkúrù ne Olu á dá   'it is school that Olu went'
school foc. O prv go

  ii. bàtà ne Ade á dà   'it is shoe that Ade sold'
shoe foc. A prv sold

  iii. *isùkúrù ne olu á dá   'it is school that Olu went'
school foc O prv go

Meanwhile, the vowel is overt whenever the nouns occur before a monosyllabic verb. Based on this new hypothesis, the underlying forms of the data in (7) may now be re-presented as:

10.						
i.	ʃe	+	idodo	→	ʃidodo	'fry
	eat		plantain			plantain'
ii.	dà	+	ibata	→	dibata	'buy
	buy		shoe			shoe'
iii.	tà	+	ibɛ́líìtì	→	tibɛ́líîtì	'sell
	sell		belt			belt'
iv.	dá	+	isùkúrù	→	dísùkúrù	'go to
	go		school			school'
v.	wá	+	isùkúrù	→	wísùkúrù	'come to
	come		school			school'
vi.	wá	+	iʃɔ̀ɔ̀ʃî	→	wíʃɔ̀ɔ̀ʃî	'come to
	come		church			church'

One salient observation about the data above is that all the nouns are borrowed words. It can also be deduced from the data that nouns in Úwù must begin with a vowel; this explains why all the nouns in (10) begin with vowel [i]. It can therefore be argued that vowel [i] is usually inserted at the beginning of a consonant-initial loanword so that such a word fits into the phonotactic structure of the Úwù language. This kind of insertion is not strange. Elugbe (1989) and Adeniyi (2008) have both demonstrated that all nouns (and all non-verbal words) in Edo are vowel-initial. As a result, when the language borrows a word that begins with a consonant, a prothetic vowel [e] or [i] is usually introduced to nativise such a word. According to Adeniyi (2008), the extraneous vowel is usually inserted at the beginning of every consonant-initial borrowed word so that the word conforms to the phonotactic rule of Edo. Whereas, the prothetic vowel in Úwù is [i], it is [e/i] in Edo. Consider the data below from Edo which were drawn from Adeniyi (2008, p. 65)

11. èfíìmù   'film'

  èbɛ́lítì   'belt'

  èkóòmù   'comb'

  èkọ́rísà   'chorister

  ìbúrù   'blue'

  èbúrɛ́dì   'bread'

In the same vein, Awobuluyi (2013) argues that the vowel that exists between two nouns where the second one begins with a consonant in a Yorùbá noun phrase like:

12. ìwé e dàda   'Dada's book'

  isu u kọ́lá   'Kola's yam'

  bàta a tísà   'Teacher's shoe'

  ìlú u kánò   'the town of kano'

is underlyingly [i] which is a prothetic vowel inserted at the beginning of a consonant-initial- noun as presented below:

13.   ìwé idada → iwe e dada

  isu ikọla → isu u kọla

  bata itísà → bata a segun

  ìlú ikánò → ilu u kano

The [i]-prothesis normally undergoes a perseverative assimilation such that it becomes like the final vowel of the first noun. He further asserts that all nouns in Yorùbá are vowel-initial. Oyebade (2008, p. 75) also reports a case of [e]-prothesis in Spanish. According to him, the language does not allow a consonant cluster that starts with the sibilant [s] to begin a word. When such happens, a vowel [ɛ] is inserted at the beginning of the word:

14. ɛspaŋol   'spanish'

  ɛslavo   'slavic'

  ɛsplin   'spleen'

The data presented in this section have also shown that just like the case of the 'associative marker + noun' V_1 is always the deleted vowel in a construction consisting of $V_1 \# V_2$ in the Úwù language.

Results

Vowel Deletion in Pronoun + Future Tense Morpheme

This study also reveals that vowel deletion normally occur between a pronoun and a future tense morpheme. The future tense morpheme (henceforth FTM) in Úwù is égà. Its manifestation is illustrated with the examples below;

15.(a)						
i.	má égà dá	→	mégà dá		'I will go'
	I FTM go				
ii.	ŋgɔ égà dá	→	ŋgégà dá		'you will go'
	you FTM go				
iii.	wá égà dá	→	wégà dá		'he/she will go'
	he/she TM go				
iv.	awá égà dʒídʒú	→	awégà dʒídʒú		'we will danceo'
	we FTM dance				
v.	ɛ̀mɛ́ égà dʒídʒú	→	ɛ̀mégà dʒídʒú		'you(pl) will dance'
	you(pl) FTM dance				

	vi.	àmá égà dʒídʒu → àmégà dʒídʒú	'they will dance'
		they FTM dance	
(b)	i.	Adé égà dá	'Ade will go'
		A FTM go	
	ii.	Olú égà dá	'Olu will go'
		O FTM go	
	iii.	wálé égà dá	'Wale will go'
		W FTM go	
	iv.	edʒi égà dà	'it will rain'
		rain FTM fall	
	v.	mama égà dʒi	'thunder will strike'
		thunder FTM strike	
	vi.	àdʒá égà gu	'the house will collapse'
		house FTM collapse	

In 15 (a) above, it is observed that the vowels of the pronouns get deleted before the FTM. However, in 15 (b) where the words before the FTM are nouns, the vowels of the nouns were not deleted. It appears therefore that Úwù language distinguishes between its nouns and pronouns by ensuring that the vowel of a pronoun is deleted before a FTM while that of a noun is not deleted in the same environment. It is also an indication that pronouns in Úwù may constitute clitics, since they have the ability to concatenate with the FTM which occurs after them. Radford et al (1999) describe such clitics as proclitics since they precede their hosts. This kind of concatenation between pronouns and verbs or preverbal particles is not strange. Radford et al (1999, p. 174) report that pronouns in Romance languages behave like proclitics while those of Spanish may behave like proclitics or enclitics depending on the form of the verb. The examples in 15 (a) above have also affirmed the earlier claim in this paper that V_1 is always deleted while V_2 survives in a $V_1 \# V_2$ construction in Úwù language. This implies that the pattern of deletion in Úwù is predictable. The illustration below shows the general pattern of deletion in the language.

$$[\text{+syll}] \rightarrow \emptyset \; / \text{-} \; \# \; [\text{+syll}]$$

Discussion

Epenthesis in Úwù

This is a process in which an extraneous segment (consonant or vowel) is introduced into a word to break up unacceptable sequences. It is also used to achieve the preferred syllable structure of a language. In Úwù, only vowels can be inserted into a word, consonant insertion does not exist in the language. Adeniyi (2008) reports that vowel insertion takes place in three positions in Edo. These are morpheme initial, medial and final. In Úwù, the same positions are also observed. According to Adeniyi (2008), the following forms can be pronounced in isolation in Edo (p. 65):

16.	èfììmù	'film'
	èbélítì	'belt'
	èkóòmù	'comb'
	èkórísà	'chorister
	ìbúrù	'blue'
	èbúrédì	'bread'

However, in Úwù, they are realized as:

17.	fììmù	'film'
	bélíìtì	'belt'
	kóòmù	'comb'
	kórísítà	'chorister
	búlù	'blue'
	búrédì	'bread'

The same words are also assumed to be produced underlyingly as presented below when they are preceded by a verb:

18.	ifììmù	'film'
	ibélíìtì	'belt'
	ikóòmù	'comb'
	ikórísítà	'chorister
	ibúlù	'blue'
	ibúrédì	'bread'

The realization of the prothetic vowel in Úwù has already been discussed in the previous section. In order to avoid repeating the same presentation; readers are advised to revisit section **2** for the argument on how the prothesis manifests in Úwù. Concerning the observation that the prothetic vowel [i] in Úwù only surfaces when a consonant initial-noun occurs after a verb, one can simply assume that the vowel is deleted when the nouns are in citation forms. The assumption that the vowel is deleted when the nouns are in citation forms appears to be correct because during an interaction with some native speakers of Úwù, it was observed that Úwù speakers do not normally distinguish between the forms of nouns in 19 and 20 below:

19.	ilógbò	'rat'
	iʃɔla	'fight (N)'
	ìʃɛkpɛ́	'cane'
	ìlèmú	'orange'

20.	lógbò	'rat'
	ʃɔla	'fight (N)'
	ʃɛkpɛ́	'cane'
	lèmú	'orange'

The data above show that the presence or absence of vowel [i] in nouns that begin with the vowel does not distort meaning. It therefore appears that vowel [i] is commonly deleted optionally when it begins a noun

in Úwù.This also points to the fact that Úwù nouns are probably vowel-initial and those nouns that are consonant-initial in the language are only products of clipping; it also seems like there is an on-going process of [i]-deletion at the initial position in Úwù nouns. It is also believed that the deletion of the vowel extends to consonant-initial borrowed words even when it was inserted to nativise such words. However, while the vowel is optionally deleted in the case of Úwù native words when they occur in isolation, it is obligatorily deleted in the case of borrowed words. The obligatory deletion of the vowel [i] at the beginning of a borrowed word when in isolation is believed to be influenced by the contact with Yorùbá language which is the lingua franca of the Àyèré people, or alternatively, those forms are rendered in Yorùbá, while the Úwù forms are already eroded. In Yorùbá, borrowed words are pronounced without the prothetic vowel [i] in citation form as presented below:

21.
bíbélì	'bible'
tábílì	'table'
ʃɔ̀ɔ̀ʃī	'church'
súkúùlù	'school'

Inspite of the forms presented above, Awobuluyi (2008; 2013) has consistently argued thatall Yorùbá nouns are vowel-initial. He buttressed his claim by citing examples from the Mọ̀bà dialect where all consonant-initial nouns in Standard Yorùbá begin with vowel [i] in Mọ̀bà. Consider the examples below:

22.
SY	Mọ̀bà dialect	
bọ̀dé	ibọ̀dé	'name'
kọ́lá	ikọ́lá	'name'
mọ́tò	imọ́tò	'vehicle'
túndé	itúndé	'name'

In view of the above argument by Awobuluyi, Ajiboye (2011) argues that the realization of the prothetic vowel [i] in Mọ́bà is context-based. According to Ajiboye, the prothetic vowel performs certain functions which include indicating possession and emphasis. However, when a supposed consonant-initial noun is pronounced in isolation, the prothetic vowels do not feature. This according to him explains why the following forms (Ajiboye, 2011, p. 58) are not acceptable forms in Mọ̀bà and by extension in the Yorùbá language;

23.
*	ìfilà
*	ìkọ́kọ́rọ́
*	ìgèlè

Although the above forms may not be acceptable in citation, there are some other nouns in Yorùbá that begins with vowel [i]. Consider the examples below:

24.
ìlèkùn	'door'
ìyàrá	'room'
ìdòwú	'name'
ìdògbé	'name'
ìyèwù	'room'
ìnàbì/ nàbì	'prostitution'

The nouns in (24) above and some others of the same form are believed to be the relics of the nouns that begin with the vowel [i] in Yorùbá. It therefore implies from a historical perspective that Yorùbá developed a rule that deletes the vowel [i] at word initial position in nouns, at some point along its historical development, and such words in (24) above and few others of the same form are the radical ones that were never affected by the deletion rule. Another area that supports the claim that [i] is often deleted in the Yorùbá language is the verb-noun construction. Awobuluyi (1988) and Abiodun (2004) both report that the pattern of deletion in Yorùbá may be predictable whenever [i] is involved. In the following examples, [i] is deleted as V_1 and V_2:

25.
dʒí # owó → dʒówó	'steal money'
ra # iʃu → raʃu	'buy yam'

Ebira is another language just like Edo where nouns are mainly vowel-initial. Consonant-initial loanwords are also nativised in Ebira by inserting vowel [i] at the beginning of such words. The examples below are drawn from Abiodun (2007):

26.
English	Ebira	
mɔtəu	imɔto	motor
bred	iburedi	bread
kəum	ikoomu	comb
sku:l	isukuru	school
pəlis	iporiisi	police

In the same vein, Anaang; a Benue-Congo language spoken in the Akwa Ibom state of Nigeria is another language whose nouns are mainly vowel-initial. When the language borrows a consonant-initial noun, [a]-prothesis is inserted at the beginning of such a word so as to conform to the phonotactic structure of the language. Consider the examples below (Ekpe, 2012):

27.
English	Anaang	
/waiə/	àwaya	'wire'
/maŋgəu/	amaŋgo	'mango'
/glæs/	àglas	'glass'
/kəmpju:tə/	àkomputa	'computer'
/fæn/	afan	'fan'

Evidence from Edo, Úwù, Yorùbá, Ebira and Anaang

languages presented above shows that nouns of most Benue-Congo languages are mainly vowel-initial, and various languages employ different prothesis to nativise loan words that are consonant-initial. For instance; it is [e/i] in Edo, it is also [i] in Úwù, Yorùbá and Ebira, whereas in Anaang it is [a]. From the foregoing, it becomes quite convincing that the prothetic vowel [i] is prespecified in the Úwù lexicon but it may be deleted when the nouns are in citation forms. However, the difference between Úwù and Yorùbá, and Edo, Ebira and Anaang is that while the prothetic vowels are deleted when the nouns are pronounced in isolation in the former, they are never deleted in the case of the latter.

Oyebade (1998, p. 75) reports that epenthesis is a very common phenomenon in the loan-word phonology of many African languages. The case of Úwù affirms this report as shown in the examples below:

28.

English	Úwù	
/belt/	/bɛlíìtì/	'belt'
/brʌʃ/	/búrɔ̀ɔ̀ʃì/	'brush'
/breik/	/búréèkí/	'brake'
/skuːl/	/súkúrù/	'school'
/sleit/	/síléètì/	'slate'
/kəum/	/kóòmù/	'comb'
/freim/	/fúrémù/	'frame'
/bred/	/búrɛ́dì/	'bread'
/treilə/	/tírélà/	'trailer'
/teibl/	/tébù/	'table'

From the examples above, one notices that the sound [l] in /skuːl/ is realized as [r]; /súkúru/ 'school' in Úwù, whereas the sounds do not alternate in other words. The question posed by this irregular alternation is "how come it is only restricted to /skuːl/?" Two logical answers could be provided for this question; the first one is to suggest that the form must have been influenced by contact with Owé dialect of Yorùbá spoken in Kàbbà which is about 8 kilometers from Àyèré. Findings reveal that school is also pronounced as sùkúrù in Owé. This assumption is possible due to the close relationship that exists between the people of Àyèré and Kàbbà. The second one is to suggest that the form is influenced by the contact with Èbìrà spoken in Òkenné which is about 28 kilometers away from Àyèré. The [l] → [r] alternation is common to Èbìrà. Apart from the close distance between Òkenné and Àyèré, some speakers of Èbìrà who are mainly farmers are also settled in Àyèré.

It is also observed that Úwù breaks the cluster of consonants either by the introduction of an epenthetic vowel [u] or [i] depending on the roundness or unroundness of the vowels that occur after such clusters, on the one hand, and also the involvement or non-involvement of a labial consonant on the other hand. [u] is usually inserted whenever the vowel that

occurs after the cluster is a round vowel or when the cluster involves a labial consonant otherwise, the vowel [i] is usually inserted. The same condition also determines which of the vowels is inserted when a word ends with a consonant. Consider the illustration below:

29.

30.

31.

Using the linear model, the epenthetic rules are presented thus:

32.

33.

The alternative use of the epenthetic vowels [i] and [u] as seen in the data above is not peculiar to Úwù. Egbokahare (1990) observes in Emai that [u] occurs also as the epenthetic vowel after labial consonants, it also occurs after other consonants if a rounded vowel occurs in an adjacent syllable. [i] occurs as the epenthetic vowel in non-labial environments. Adeniyi (2008) also asserts that the case of Emai as reported by Egbokhare (1990) is also applicable to Edo. Egbokhare (1990) further observes that a similar situation is reported in Yorùbá by Awobuluyi (1967; 1978) and Pulleyblank (1988). He notes that Pulleyblank accounts for the phenomenon in Yorùbá in terms of the application of redundancy rules and labial harmony rule. Redundancy rules account for the occurrence of [i] being the underspecified vowel while labial harmony ensures that [i] becomes [u] in the labial context. He stated further that "since consonants can only occur in the onset position, any unsyllabified consonant must be assigned a rhyme. And since there would be no motivation for any particular vowel quality to be present on that rhyme, the unmarked expectation will be for redundancy rules to fill in feature values for such an epenthetic vowel. The illustration below shows

the pattern of epenthesis in Yorùbá:

34.

σ

C k   l   a   S

allowable
syllabification

syllabification of
consonants

V

35.

σ   σ   σ

σ

C   V C   V   V   C   V
k   i l   a   a   s   i

Redundancy rules

Pulleyblank provided strong motivations for recognizing [i] as supplied by redundancy rules in Yorùbá which is also observed to be true about Úwù. [i] is therefore postulated as the epenthetic vowel in Úwù. The Vowel becomes [u] in a labial environment as a result of the application of labial harmony rule which spreads the labial feature of a labial sound occurring in an adjacent syllable on the inserted vowel [i]. Egbokhare (1990) gives an accurate picture of the insertion process in Emai which fits squarely into Úwù. This is captured by the derivation below:

36.   Ø → [i]   →   [u]/[+ labial]

        by insertion   by labial harmony

Other salient observations are the cases of vowel lengthening, the High-Low (HL) tone sequence on the lengthened vowels and the low tone on the epenthetic vowel [i/u] that ensures that a nativised English word conforms to the open syllable structure of the Úwù language. On this note, Oyebade (2008) reports that Ayo Bamgbose and Kenstowicz (2000, p. 1) had observed a similar case in the Yorùbá language and both claimed that the lengthening was an attempt by the recipient language to stay faithful to the falling intonation pattern of English stressed syllable; since Yorùbá disallows glide tone on short vowels, it adopts the strategy of lengthening to accommodate the gliding pitch of English stress. However, Oyebade takes a look at the lengthening using the optimality theory, and makes a convincing argument about the process in Yorùbá. According to him, vowel lengthening in Yorùbá is motivated by the desire to preserve the prosodic structure of the input syllable from English. He argues this by saying that "stressed syllables in English are mainly bimoraic. In other words, they have a duration that is longer than their unstressed counterparts.

This fact can be asserted more firmly for heavy syllables. Heavy syllables are those ones with long vowel, diphthong or an arresting coda (that is, closed syllable)" (Oyebade 2008, p. 43). He went further to remark that lengthening in Yorùbá words on English providence is motivated by the desire of Yorùbá to preserve the prosodic structure of the syllable(s) of such word(s) as they come from their source. Thus, a monosyllabic word like 'brush' with an arresting coda comes with the prosodic structure:

37.

σ

μ   μ

b   r   ʌ   ʃ
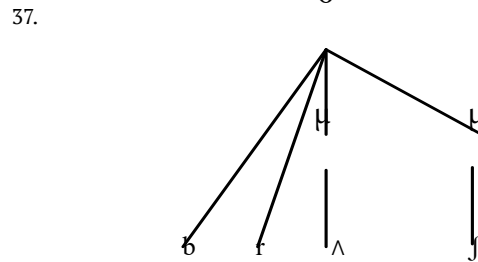
Borrowed into Yorùbá word, the word presents the structure below:

38.

σ   σ   σ

μ   μ   μ   μ

b   μ   r   ɔ   ɔ   ʃ   i
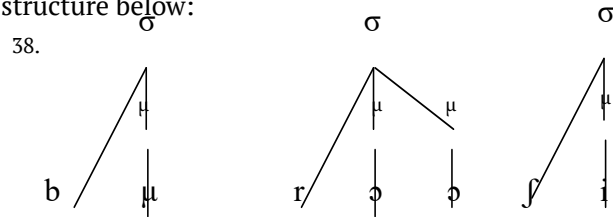
Notice that the structure of the input syllable is preserved subject to the ban, in Yorùbá, of complex onset in a syllable and prohibition of arresting consonant. The same is applicable to all monosyllabic words. Oyebade's argument is affirmed in this paper as the same case is applicable to Úwù.

Conclusion

This paper has described the manifestation of vowel deletion in Úwù. The paper observes that the process of elision in Úwù occurs in three different grammatical constructions that include:associative morpheme + noun, verb + noun, and pronoun + future tense morpheme. The vowel of the AM is usually deleted whenever the morpheme precedes a vowel-initial noun. In a verb phrase (or verb + noun construction), the vowel of the verb is usually deleted when the verb is a monosyllabic one. In a verb phrase where the verb is a disyllabic or tri-syllabic one, no phonological change occurs unless the contiguous vowels are identical (in which one of the vowel is usually deleted). In a construction involving a pronoun + future tense

morpheme, the vowel of the pronoun is usually deleted. When a vowel is deleted, autosegmental features like high tone, nasality and roundness usually survive the process and then realign with other neighboring segments. From the foregoing, it could be concluded that in a V_1 # V_2 construction in Úwù, V_1 is usually deleted while V_2 survives the deletion process, which the pattern of vowel deletion is predictable in Úwù.

On the pattern of epenthesis in the language, this research work reveals that only vowels can be inserted into a word, consonant insertion does not exist in the language. Vowel insertion takes place in three positions in Úwù; these are morpheme initial, medial and final. The paper also reveals that [i] is the underlying form of the inserted vowel, and that the vowel usually becomes [u] in a labial environment. Another salient observation in the paper is the case of vowel lengthening, the HL tone sequence on the lengthened vowels and the low tone on the epenthetic vowel [i/u] that ensures that a nativised English word conforms to the open syllable structure of Úwù language. On this note, it is observed that these were motivated by the need to stay faithful to the prosodic structure of the donor language. These various observations imply that the pattern of insertion in Úwù does not differ from findings in earlier research on the manifestation of epenthesis in Benue-Congo languages. Finally, the paper holds that nouns in the language are mainly vowel-initial.

One of the major problems confronting minor languages is that not only are they endangered, quite a number of them are fast going into extinction without any form of documentation (Allison, 2015, p. 7). One of the ways to salvage endangered languages from going into extinction is to document them. It is therefore recommended in this paper that more researches should be carried out on Úwù. Future researchers should look into other aspects of phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and sociolinguistics. The native speakers of Úwù are also enjoined to produce literature materials on the language. These two steps will make people know about the structure and grammar of Úwù and by implication ensure that the language is documented.

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Assessment and Evaluation Techniques

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Assessment and evaluation have always been important; they are linked to language teaching methodology, program outcomes, language teacher competencies, language standards and second language acquisition training. They can serve many different policies and can come in different forms. Assessment and evaluation have always been seen as the responsibility of the specialists, but they have rarely been included as a component in English language teacher (ELT) training. However, the ELT field has been experiencing a major shift in assessment and evaluation with effects on teachers, and learners around the world. It has also been influenced by a major questioning of traditional forms of testing and the underlying psychometric principles of measurement in ELT. Recent studies reveal that the reconceptualization of English language assessment and evaluation provides systematic information about student learning in relation to their performance and contributes to better understanding of their strengths and weaknesses. In many ways ELT has lagged behind the rest of education in the exploration of new theories and assessment and evaluation tools, including self-assessment. This research gap was generated partly because of the lack of integration with mainstream educational theory and practice in many areas of ELT, and partly because of powerful positions of traditional English language tests. The attempt to bridge this gap has lead to the research carried out. The aim of this article is to elaborate different assessment techniques that may better address student learning needs, improve student learning and engage students in self-assessment, including the sequence of steps that could lead to self-assessment. The study shows that the techniques implemented to develop self-assessment enable students to perform well.

Keywords: evaluation, assessment, important, English language

This article examines the importance of assessment and evaluation A major concern of English language teaching has been assessing and evaluating students' progress during the course of study as well as their achievements at the end of it. The methodology of this paper is a qualitative approach using classroom activities and library sources as well as other related research in an attempt to improve students' knowledge and learning. Assessment and evaluation also give teachers useful information on how to improve their teaching methods.

Assessment and evaluation are very important parts of the constructive alignment process. Well-designed assessments can allow students to use the knowledge and skills they have learnt and indicate their level of mastery. The feedback on the assessment will also provide students with clear information on the criteria they need to succeed at assigned tasks,

can give the lecturer a clearer sense of how the task is assessing mastery and what aspects are being assessed. Evaluation of the course or module, by students and lecturers should feed back into the whole process of curriculum alignment, as well as reflect critically and constructively on the outcomes, the teaching and learning activities, the assessment and the experience of the course or module. Reflexivity, continuous learning and development are key aims of successful evaluation.

Through the use of appropriate classroom assessment strategies and techniques, teachers can increase their students' motivation and show them how well they have learned the language. Evaluation goes beyond learners' achievements and language assessment to consider all aspects of teaching and learning. Although the terms 'assessment' and 'evaluation' are often used interchangeably, they can be considered two parts of the same process. Assessment is the process of gathering evidence of what the child can do. Evaluation is the process that follows this collection of data, including analysis and reflection, as well as decisions based on the data.

This paper will present some useful assessment and evaluation techniques that can assist language teachers to create a dynamic classroom situation for evaluation. It will show that the quality of the assessment and evaluation in the educational process has a profound link to students' performance and can engage them in self-assessment which is most important in English language teaching.

Materials and Methods

Theoretical Background

The present study focuses upon the qualitative approach of English language learning assessment and evaluation process in the educational system. Evaluation in teaching the English language is a process of collecting, analysing and interpreting information about teaching and learning in order to make informed decisions that enhance student achievement and the success of educational programs (Rea-Dickens & Germanie, 1993; Genesee & Upshur, 1996; O'Mally & Valdez-Pierce, 1996). Evaluation is a process that includes five basic components:

- Articulating the purpose of the educational system;
- Identifying and collecting relevant information;
- Having ideas that are valuable and useful to learners in their lives and professions;
- Analysing and interpreting information for learners;
- Classroom management or classroom decision making.

In classroom assessment, since teachers themselves develop, administer and analyse the questions, they are more likely to apply the results of the assessment to their own teaching. Therefore, it provides feedback on the effectiveness of instruction and gives students a measure of their progress. As Biggs (1999) maintains, two major functions can be pointed out for classroom assessment: one is to show whether or not learning has been successful, and the other one is to clarify the expectations teachers have of the students (Dunn et al., 2004).

Assessment plays a number of roles in the life of a student, some of which they may be more aware of than others. It is widely accepted that students' learning patterns, educational focus, and allocation of time will be directly influenced by assessment. It does more than allocate a grade or degree classification to students – assessment plays an important role in focusing their attention and, as Sainsbury & Walker (2007) observe, actually drives their learning. Gibbs (2003) states that assessment has 6 main functions:

1. Capturing student time and attention;
2. Generating appropriate student learning activity;
3. Providing timely feedback which students pay attention to;
4. Helping students to internalise the discipline's standards and notions of equality;
5. Generating marks or grades which distinguish among students or enable pass/fail decisions to be made;
6. Providing evidence enables them to judge the appropriateness of course standards.

He states that, with the exception of the last two points, these functions should occur as frequently as possible to support effective learning.

The purpose of classroom assessment and evaluation is to give students the opportunity to show what they have learned rather than catching them out or to show what they have not learned. Needless to say, evaluation and assessment can focus on different aspects of teaching and learning: respectively, textbooks and instructional materials, student achievement, and whole programs of instruction.

It is important to clarify the distinction between evaluation and assessment. These terms are often used interchangeably and are, in fact, related, but they are technically different. Assessment of an individual student's progress or achievement is an important component of evaluation: it is that part of evaluation that includes the measurement and analysis of information about student learning. The primary focus of assessment in English Language Teaching has been language assessment and the role of tests in assessing students' language skills. Evaluation goes beyond

student achievement and language assessment to consider all aspects of teaching and learning and to look at how educational decisions can be made on the basis of alternative forms of assessment. Gensee (cited in Carter & Nunan, 2001) believes that another purpose of evaluation is to guide classroom instruction and enhance student learning on a day-to-day basis. Classroom assessment and evaluation concerns:

- Suitability of general instructional goals and objectives associated with an individual lesson or unit plans;
- Effectiveness of instructional methods, materials and activities used to attain instructional objectives;
- Adequacy of professional resources required to deliver instruction.

Classroom assessment and evaluation under the active management of teachers can also serve important professional development purposes since the information resulting from such evaluations provides teachers with valuable feedback about their instructional effectiveness that they can use to develop and improve their professional skills. As part of reflective teaching movement, teachers are encouraged to conduct research in their own classrooms (Nunan, 1989b; Allwright & Baily, 1991; Richards & Lockhart, 1994); classroom assessment and evaluation is an important part of such research.

Assessment is perhaps one of the most important elements of curriculum design and alignment, because this is where it is possible to see if students can demonstrate mastery in terms of the knowledge and skills they need to have learnt. Assessment, in a constructively aligned curriculum, must speak to the outcomes listed for the course. It must draw in both the knowledge and the practical and intellectual skills and competencies that students have been taught and that they have practiced in lectures and tutorials. Assessment activities must test what has been learnt and taught, and should not be constructed so as to be ambiguous or inexplicit.

Assessment tasks can be formative and summative. The former give students opportunities to make errors and get constructive, guiding feedback used to develop competency and understanding in further assessments and teaching and learning. Formative quizzes, essays that can be drafted and revised, and short written or verbal tasks that receive detailed feedback are examples of formative assessments. They are opportunities for the students to demonstrate mastery or competence in a particular area or across several areas that have been studied. The feedback is usually less detailed and aimed more at providing a summary of what they have and have not yet mastered. Examinations, some kinds

of tests and theses or dissertations are examples of summative assessments.

Feedback is a very important part of the assessment process, both formative and summative. Through receiving focused, relevant and guiding feedback, students are able to understand where their strengths and weaknesses are, and where they still need to concentrate their efforts in terms of their own learning. Through giving feedback, lecturers and tutors are better able to make similar assessments of strengths and weaknesses for students. This can enable more responsive teaching and tutoring to address gaps and weaknesses where necessary. It can also provide a better understanding of how students are responding to the methods and styles of teaching and tutoring. It can further show how deeply and accurately the students grasp and understand the relevant knowledge and employ the related skills and practices to explore and demonstrate their knowledge.

Evaluation is an important part of an aligned curriculum and an overall teaching and learning strategy because it is a part of the feedback and development cycle. It should be a part of any responsive and up-to-date teaching and learning strategy or plan. Evaluation gives students opportunities to speak to the lecturer about their experiences and impressions of the course content and the pedagogical approaches that have been used. It, therefore, gives lecturers valuable insights into how they teach and how effectively instruction has been taken up by the students.

One of the most important issues in evaluation is timing. Teachers can use quick exercises to check in with students during the course, at the end of a topic or after an assignment has been completed. Longer and more detailed evaluation for the end of a course can also be created. Students who did the course last year can be asked to complete a retrospective evaluation. The important thing to consider when thinking about the timing is the purpose of the evaluation (what do students need to know and why), and what teachers plan to do with the information students give them.

Gensee and Upshur (1996) state that classroom assessment and evaluation is concerned primarily with improving instruction in order to help enhance students' learning. Teachers in any educational system are actively and continuously involved in assessment and evaluation. Students can also be active participants in assessing their own achievements and in planning how they will study and learn a second language, i.e. they can be engaged in the early stages of the process of self-assessment. The context of classroom assessment and evaluation is summarized by Gensee and Upshur (1996) in the following figure:
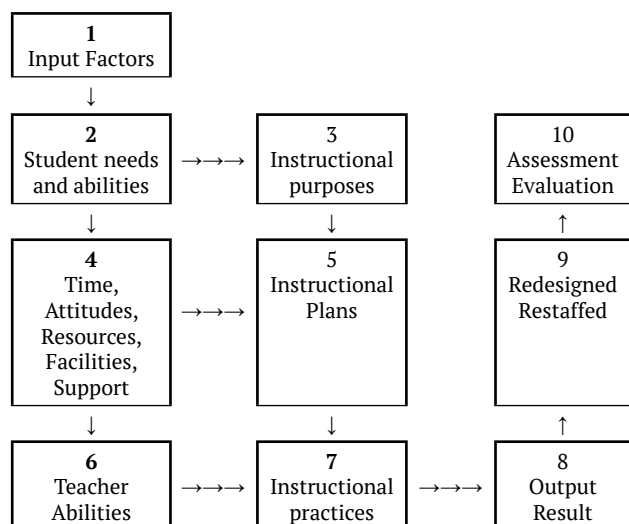
1 Input Factors			
↓			
2 Student needs and abilities	→→→	3 Instructional purposes	10 Assessment Evaluation
↓		↓	↑
4 Time, Attitudes, Resources, Facilities, Support	→→→	5 Instructional Plans	9 Redesigned Restaffed
↓		↓	↑
6 Teacher Abilities	→→→	7 Instructional practices	→→→	8 Output Result

Figure 1. The context of classroom assessment and evaluation.

Any instruction consists of three components: first, the purposes identify the objectives of instruction – the "WHY"; second, the plans describe the means of attaining those objectives – the "HOW"; third, practice reveals what actually takes place in the classroom – the "WHAT". Gensee and Upshur (1996) also discuss other factors, which are not part of classroom instruction itself, but can have a significant effect on second language teaching and learning. They refer to these additional factors as "input factors." Thus, it can be said that classroom assessment and instruction have four aspects, namely: purposes, plans, practices, and input factors.

Instructional objectives are identified as the goals that a teacher sets while teaching. On the one hand, they provide direction for planning appropriate instruction and, on the other hand, they provide a basis for determining whether a student has achieved what a teacher has set out to accomplish. They provide criteria for assessing the outcomes of students' learning and monitoring their performance. Different kinds of objectives can guide classroom instruction: 1) language, 2) strategic, 3) socio-affective, 4) philosophical, and 5) method or process.

Language objectives refer to language skills that learners are expected to acquire in the classroom. Objectives that are concerned with strategies for communicating, learning, and critical thinking are referred to as "strategic objectives". Learning process refers to a "conscious processes and techniques that facilitate the comprehension, acquisition, and retention of new skills and concepts" (Chamot & O'Malley, 1989). According to Chamot and O'Malley, they may include metacognitive strategies (such as selective attention), cognitive strategies (such as summarizing and elaboration), or socio-affective strategies (such as questioning for clarification).

Socio-affective objectives refer to changes in learners' attitudes or social behaviour that result from classroom instruction (e.g. changes in attitudes toward the target language, the target language group, or the learner's first language group). However, in most cases these objectives are secondary to language learning objectives. Gensee (1996) deals with philosophical objectives as changes in attitudes, values, or beliefs of a more general nature than those associated with socio-affective objectives. And, finally, method or process objectives refer to methods, processes, experiences, materials, activities, or other aspects of instruction. Nevertheless, Gensee and Upshur (1996) state that the influence of these objectives is not equally useful for classroom instruction. They believe philosophical objectives, for example, are minimally useful. Strategic objectives help in understanding students' performances in class, thus, play an important role in instructional planning. They are, however, secondary to language acquisition; in other words, the effective deployment of certain strategies should lead to enhanced second language attainment and usage. Clearly, language objectives are fundamental to second language evaluation.

Gensee and Upshur (1996) argue that evaluation and assessment involve comparison. More specifically, decisions that result from assessment are arrived at by making comparisons. They claim that in order to evaluate and assess, it is necessary to understand the factors that influence student performance in class. This means going beyond the assessment of just achievement. Chastain (1988) believes that teachers need to constantly evaluate their teaching on the basis of student reaction, interest, motivation, preparation, participation, perseverance, and achievement. The conclusions drawn from such ongoing evaluation constitute their main source for measuring the effectiveness of selected learning activities.

Evaluation of achievement is the feedback that makes improvement possible. By means of evaluation, strengths and weaknesses are identified. Evaluation, in this sense, is another aspect of learning. It enables learners to grasp what they missed previously and helps the teacher to comprehend what can be done in subsequent lessons to improve learning. To do so, alternative methods (e.g. dialogue journals, portfolio conferences, interviews and questionnaires, observation, etc.) are available for collecting useful information about language learning and about student-related factors that influence the processes of language teaching and learning. It is widely accepted that the assessment/evaluation process involves the use of multiple sources of information collected in a variety of contexts. At the primary level, many teachers use observation, work samples, and questionnaires as tools in the process of assessment and evaluation.

Methodology

This article includes analyses of the evaluation and assessment tools carried out by teachers at the National Research University Higher School of Economics with fourth-year students in the Department of Public Administration. The main idea of the experiment was to develop students' ability to assess their own speaking skills. The expected skills of fourth-year students included: specialized knowledge and experience in conveying ideas and information clearly and in a well-organized manner; ability to give presentations; effective communication skills. To acquire these necessary skills in order to confidently and effectively interact in speaking situations, students should learn how to plan, organise and present information on a variety of topics. They should be able to give formal presentations at conferences as well as talk to experts, consultants, visiting researchers, etc.

Focusing on this primary task, the authors conducted an experiment on developing, improving, mastering and assessing oral presentation skills among the fourth-year students. At the end of the course the students were supposed to give presentations to accompany the formal written paper, i.e. a project proposal. The 90 students who took part in the experiment were split into six smaller groups: three of these groups were organised as Group 1; the other three groups comprised Group 2. Both groups were given instruction on oral presentation skills. But while the first group were given specific instruction about how they would be assessed and were shown the evaluation criteria for oral presentations, the second group received no explicit information regarding evaluation; the input they received was based solely on the fourth-year teaching materials (Kuzmenkova, 2011).

To assess students' level of English language competence at the beginning of the course, both groups were given *Objective Placement Test, Variant 1 CUP & FLTRP, 2010* (consisting of 60 multiple-choice questions divided into three sections Language Use (40 items), Reading (10 items), Listening (10 items)).

The results achieved of the first group of 43 students are presented in Table 1.

The second group of 47 students (whose results were rather close to the first group) results are presented in Table 2.

The pre-test showed that the level of the English language competence was practically equal in both groups.

To accomplish the objective of the study, the authors attempted to verify the role of continuous evaluation of different stages on their ability to master the special skills associated with giving presentations. With this task in mind, the authors conducted research with the first group of 43 students. The essence of the study was to evaluate each part of the presentation, which was to be introduced during the academic course.

Table 1
Assessment results of the first group (43 students)

Number of students	Score (60)
4	55-58
5	53
4	50
9	45-49
9	41-44
5	37-40
3	32-35
2	28-30
2	27

Table 2
Assessment results of the second group (47 students)

Number of students	Score (60)
5	55-57
6	52-54
5	51
10	47-49
8	41-45
4	38-40
3	34-36
4	29-32
2	26-27

Results

Introducing a Presentation

In Group 1, information shared on how to introduce a presentation and make it effective was provided by the teacher's input and the students were asked to select a problem that they felt deserved the special attention of the class. After that, they worked individually to prepare a one- to two-minute introduction for a presentation on the topic. When the task was completed, the students worked in small groups and they then took turns presenting their introductions to the group. Once all the introductions were presented, the strengths and weaknesses of each were discussed. Before the discussion, the instructor assigned different students to fill out the evaluation form and consider the following questions in analysing both positive and negative sides of each introduction.

1. How did the speaker attract listeners' interest and focus their attention on the topic?
2. What was the central idea of the presentation? Was it clearly stated?
3. What preview did the speaker give of the

presentation organisation?

4. How did the speaker plan to handle questions from the audience?

5. Can you offer any suggestions for improving the introduction?

After that the listeners carefully studied the assessment criteria and justified the grade allocated.

Eventually the students were given a list of suggested topics (in alphabetical order) and optional guidelines:

A. *Discuss a recent development or innovation in your field*

Guidelines:

• How was it developed?

• What are its current and future applications or uses?

• What needs does the particular development meet?

• What, if any, are the problems associated with it?

B. *Discuss a research project that you have carried out:*

Guidelines:

• the purpose of the research;

• what you did;

• when and where you conducted the research;

• significant results/conclusions/ recommendations;

C. *Imagine that you are speaking to some students who are interested in majoring in your particular field of study. Conduct a discussion on different job opportunities in this field.*

Determining Content

Inevitably, at some point in preparing for a presentation, students began to be concerned about determining the content, that is, what specific information to include. Students were introduced to the structure and teachers emphasised that the focus of any informative presentation should be to communicate useful information in an explicit way. For the fourth-year students, the topic chosen for presentation was related to their studies or research projects. Once the subject issue was chosen, the topic would be limited in order to cover the information adequately within the time available for the presentation. When students selected the topic for their presentations they also considered the following points:

1. Do you have enough time and resources to conduct the necessary research?

2. Have you narrowed the topic enough to cover it adequately within the time limits?

3. Is the topic of potential interest to your listeners?

4. Is the topic too easy/too difficult or too technical for the audience?

5. What do your peers want or need to know about this subject?

After that, the teacher wanted the students to write down two topics from their field of the research that they thought would be suitable for a five- to ten-minute presentation to be given to students in the class. The instructor collected these topics, listed them on the board and asked students to work in small groups. The students in groups analysed each topic, considered whether it was too limited, too general, too technical or too well-known for the audience. Moreover, if the students found the topic unsatisfactory, they revised it to make it adequate for delivering a precise message.

Concluding a Presentation

To make a strong impression on listeners, the conclusion of the presentation should be brief and to the point of the talk. For example, when presenting conclusions, students are instructed that it is not the time and place to introduce new ideas, but to remind the audience of what has already been presented by reviewing the main points and emphasising the major issues. The listeners are prepared for the end of the talk through some signalling strategies for concluding a presentation; for example, *"And now let me quickly review the main points (advantages, reasons, effects, types) of _____."*

Having identified the main features of conclusion, the teacher assigned the tasks for writing conclusions using the same topics that were given as the examples for writing an introduction. Students worked individually to prepare a one- or two-minute conclusion to a presentation they selected. When everyone finished, they started to work in small groups, taking turns presenting conclusions to the group. Within the small groups, strengths and weaknesses were discussed and then results were reported to the whole group.

After studying the information on determining the content and preparing the conclusion of the presentation, students prepared a four- or five-minute talk to give to a group or to the entire class, taking into account the following guidelines:

• making an outline of the points to be presented (avoiding writing out every word of the presentation)

• making sure the points were put in a logical order

• planning the introduction and conclusion

• making up a short list of any specialised or technical terms, etc.

The teacher assigned some students the task of evaluating the presentations. These listeners considered the following questions in analysing strengths and weaknesses of the content presented:

1. What kind of details, examples or facts related to the topic did the speaker include?

2. Did the speaker use the appropriate vocabulary?
3. Was it the right level for these particular listeners in terms of understanding?
4. Was the information too simple or too complex for the audience?
5. Did the presentation meet the time requirements?

They also examined the positive and negative sides of the conclusion focusing on the following questions:

1. Did the speaker use a fixed phrase to lead into the conclusion? What was it?
2. Was there a summary of the main points of the presentation?
3. Did the presenter highlight the major issues?
4. How did the speaker elicit questions from the audience?
5. If the conclusion did not meet the format how could it be improved?

According to the teacher's instructions, the listeners then reported the results to the speakers and the rest of the class, and finally discussed them.

In terms of organising information, determining the central idea explains exactly what aspect of the topic is to be covered. Thus, the central idea controls what is included in the presentation and also determines the arrangement of the main points.

Organising Information

For example, the chosen subject 'International Cooperation', could be developed in a variety of ways: a) the history of creation; b) the importance of international cooperation to avoid dangers, solve problems; c) working together with the UN and other organisations to deal with international problems; d) priorities of international cooperation: a. the environment b. economic cooperation c. regional infrastructure d. the indigenous population e. social aspects f. cross-border cooperation, etc.

To build up several different topics with a clear central idea, the teacher asked the students to work in small groups. Each group was given the list of general subjects:

- Public Administration
- Civil Service
- Procurement
- Bureaucracy
- Corruption
- Budgeting
- E-Government
- Knowledge Management
- Public-Service Motivation
- Crowdfunding

Working in a group, the students compared their topics, reported their results and finally selected those that sounded most relevant to the subject. The teacher emphasised that the central idea is the main body of the presentation. It consists of key points that need to be arranged for the audience in an easy way to understand and remember. Some of the most commonly used patterns of organisation are: (a) topical, (b) chronological, (c) spatial, (d) problem-solution, (e) cause and effect, (f) comparison/contrast (Matthews & Marino, 1990). For example, in comparison/contrast pattern, there are two basic ways to follow when two things are compared or contrasted: A-B and point-by-point. In the first type, the two things to be compared are discussed in turn to give a general picture of the comparison by focusing first on A then on B. While in the second type, the point-by-point approach, specific details are emphasised, alternating between A and B. The plan for this pattern is given in a Table 3.

Table 3
Two solutions to a problem

To compare two solutions to a problem			
A-B type		**Point-by-point type**	
I. Solution 1		I. Cost	
A.	Cost	A.	Solution 1
B.	Practicality	B.	Solution 2
C.	Side effects	II. Practicality	
D.	Disadvantages	A.	Solution 1
E.	Advantages	B.	Solution 2
II. Solution 2		III. Side effects	
A. Cost		A.	Solution 1
B. Practicality		B.	Solution 2
C. Side effects		IY. Disadvantages	
D. Disadvantages		A.	Solution 1
E. Advantages		B.	Solution 1
		Y. Advantages	
		A.	Solution 1
		B.	Solution 1

Further, the teacher asked the students to work in small groups to determine which pattern of organisation would work best with the general subjects suggested earlier. When the students finished the task, they discussed the results in their groups. After giving some time for comparing the patterns, the teacher invited one person from each group to present the outline of their topics on the board. The audience made comments, pointed to positive and negative sides and improved the imperfect ones.

Using Transitions

In order for the listeners to understand the relationship of the ideas and to show them how the pieces of information fit together into a logical pattern, transitions need to be used. The students were given the task to work individually, planning their presentations with the focus on outlining and using

transitions effectively, moving from point to point and connecting different parts of the talk.

When individual work came to an end, the teacher instructed the students to work in groups, taking turns giving their presentations. After each speaker had finished, the discussion of strengths and weaknesses was initiated. Having practiced in groups, some of the students were asked by the teacher to give presentations to the entire class. Meanwhile the teacher also assigned some students to do the following listening task:

1. What was the central idea of the presentation?
2. What pattern of organisation did the speaker use?
3. What were the main points presented by the speaker?
4. Were the main points presented in a logical way?
5. How well-connected were the different parts and ideas of the presentation?

Turning to the conditions of the experiment the first group under research was aware of the examination speaking criteria while the students of the second group were not presented the criteria and were not evaluated according to these criteria as the first group was.

To see the effect of the experiment and to assess students' level of English language competences in terms of general English, the students were given *Objective Placement Test, Variant 2, CUP & FLTRP, 2010* before the exam of the fourth-year academic course. This post-test revealed a definite progress in the first group:

Table 4
Post-test scores of the first group

Number of students (43)	Score (60)
7	60
6	57-58
5	53-55
7	48-50
7	45-47
5	41-43
3	38-40
3	33-36

While the results of the second group did not improve much (see Table 5).

Therefore, the authors were persuaded that continuous evaluation and awareness of the assessment criteria had a positive impact on the process of students' further development in the field of English language training. Moreover, these methods led to remarkable results at the final examination.

Table 5
Post-test scores of the second group

Number of students (47)	Score (60)
5	56-58
6	53-55
5	49-50
8	48-49
8	42-46
6	39-41
4	35-37
5	30-33

Discussion

The present study provides an overview of assessment techniques pertinent to English language training in the field of oral speech. This exploration can help to understand the extent to which these learning-oriented techniques of assessment affect competence in English language learning and lead to self-assessment, which plays an active role in English Learning Teaching. This issue has not been studied so far and the main aim of the present study was to observe and characterise these effects. The research consistently showed that only assessment "for learning" and not "of learning" lead to self-assessment. A sequence of steps to develop self-assessment was worked out: setting goals for students; the assessment of each language component; guidance of the teacher in discussions; clear references if students needed further review; teacher insights into student motivation. These patterns were repeated several times. They proved to demonstrate permanent progress. The development of the assessment techniques encourages the active involvement of students in the process of their own learning and assessment. These results indicate that the techniques implemented to develop assessment and self-assessment are intended to shift the focus more to students, enabling them to become more effective learners and to succeed in English language learning.

Conclusion

The research conducted by the authors shows that the framework used in assessment produces good results. It outlines the relationship between assessment and self-assessment. The authors argued that self-assessment plays a major role in ELT and explored

the assessment activities which they embedded in the curriculum to develop self-assessment. The research shows that the impact on learning outcomes was great. The degree of English learning competence improvement helped students to develop and perfect their language skills.

The research into assessment and evaluation in ELT highlights several broad themes for further research into teachers' professional development. More detailed classroom studies of assessment practices and their effects on students' learning are needed. By investigating the effect of using some self-assessment techniques on language competence, this study hypothesized that the development of self-assessment can foster language skills. In order to verify this hypothesis different techniques were adapted and injected while teaching "Oral Presentation Skills". It was found that the development of self-assessment helped improve and foster language skills and contributed to the development of reliable monitoring and evaluation, thereby influencing students' progress and attainment. However, an important variable not investigated in this study was the effect of assessment on students' motivation. This might be a focus for a further experimental study and calls for a wider range of assessment strategies.

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The Role of Music and M-Learning in English: Vocabulary Gain Among Tertiary Students

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Undoubtedly, mobile technology has started to be visible in the field of education, as can be seen by the increasing number of publications that have appeared in recent years. This can also be proven with the existence of the new term in education – M-learning. Several types of mobile devices are accessible, such as wireless laptops, portable MP3 players, personal digital assistants (PDAs), and electronic dictionaries, although smart phones and iPads are the devices that have started to attract particular attention from educators. It is also noticeable that listening to music is one of the most important features in the aforementioned mobile devices. Against this backdrop, this study explores the benefits of integrating music and mobile devices in English vocabulary learning among tertiary students in a private university in Malaysia. As this study uses quantitative approach, a pre-test and a post-test were used to obtain data to analyse whether there was a gain in students' vocabulary knowledge after vocabulary lessons using English songs and mobile devices were conducted. In addition, a survey was used to show if students had a positive outlook in learning vocabulary through music and mobile devices. The findings of this study indicated that there was an increase in the students' vocabulary knowledge and students were enthusiastic to learn vocabulary. Integration of music and mobile devices provide more opportunities to enhance English vocabulary learning and act as a suitable tool for learning anytime and anywhere. Therefore, educators should find innovative ways to use mobile devices to teach the future students.

Keywords: music, vocabulary knowledge, m-learning

Mobile learning is a new discipline that is gaining more and more attention because of its promises for education. Mobile devices have great potential to provide supplementary practices for students both inside and outside a learning institution for they promised functions such as mobility, reachability, localisation, and personalisation. As there is a growing trend in adopting mobile learning in education, it is necessary to clarify what is meant by "mobile learning". Geddes (2004) defined mobile learning as the acquisition of any knowledge and skill through using mobile technology, anywhere and anytime which results in an alteration in students' behavior and knowledge.

There are many reasons for promoting the use of mobile technology in education. One of the primary reasons for the popularity of mobile devices is the widespread penetration into the market (Levy & Kennedy, 2005). This means that there is no need for the institution or educators to provide learners with

the said devices in order to incorporate a mobile learning component into their teaching context.

Added to this is the fact that mobile devices are relatively inexpensive compared with wireless laptop computers, and with functions such as Internet browsers that are available in current mobile devices, the possibilities of using mobile devices as tools for learning increases even further. Besides, mobile learning is considered as the application of mobile or wireless devices for learning when the learner is moving. Thus, flexible, accessible and personalised learning activities are considered as the advantages provided by mobile learning. This study investigates the role of mobile learning in English language learning; particularly in the use of mobile devices and music in enhancing students' vocabulary knowledge.

Materials and Methods

Literature Review

The following sections on the literature review sum up on M-learning and the acquisition of vocabulary using music. To be specific, What follows will provide insights into the functions and practices of M-learning in classrooms. We then further explain on the suitability of merging music and vocabulary lessons and how this could be conducted in M-learning.

M-Learning

Mobile technology, anywhere, anytime results in a change in students' behavior. Mobile learning is reflected as the use of mobile or wireless devices for learning when the learner is moving. Thus, flexible, reachable and modified learning activities are considered as the benefits provided by mobile learning. Sharples (2006) and Laurillard (2007) argued that a typical m-learning activity could build more opportunities for digitally-facilitated site-specific activities, and for ownership and control over what learners do. Thus, the key to understand mobile learning practices is to see how learners relate with mobile devices. In other words, it is the human experience (perception, cognitive, psychological and affective) that leads to the insight in understanding the new mode of learning.

Another obvious function of mobile devices is the way they allow contextual learning. According to Kukulska-Hulme (2009) mobile devices allow the information available in learners' location, and relevant to their needs, to be captured or delivered in real context. If the acquisition of new vocabulary items occurs at the authentic setting, learners will understand and use what they have learned with less effort. Next, the portability of mobile devices is

another obvious benefit. They can be easily accessed in the classroom or outside of classroom. Learners can study manageable chunks of information in any place in their own time, thereby taking advantage of their convenience.

In line with that, Thornton and Houser (2005) compared the effect of different vocabulary learning modes; one using paper material and the other supported by mobile phones. The results showed that mobile phone group gained significantly more vocabulary than the paper group. The success of such vocabulary learning is mainly due to the "push media" effect, which promotes frequent rehearsal and spaced study, and utilize recycled vocabulary (Thornton & Houser, 2005). They argue that the regular delivery of target words facilitates the retrieval of the vocabulary. Nevertheless, according to Stockwell (2010) although the said research findings indicated that learners felt that these messages through the "push media" were very helpful for learning vocabulary, some indicated that they were too frequent.

Music and Vocabulary Knowledge

Over the years, there are many research findings that support the combination of music and language learning (Nelson, Wright, & Parker, 2015; Hi & Williamson, 2013; Legg, 2009). Successively, experts like researchers, philosophers, scientists, teachers and therapists have recognised the role of music for therapeutic and developmental functions. Many support the educational conjoining of language and music as there are numerous historical and developmental proofs of the relationship of music with language learning.

It is important to note that researchers have made some points regarding the positions of language and music; in terms of brain hemispheres and functioning. As described by Feric (2012), the term right-brain is used for emotional and artistic tasks and the term left-brain is used for rational and scientific tasks. Not only that, he further stated that music has a way of connecting the two hemispheres by utilising the left for language and the right for distinguishing music. Therefore, it is expected that music can effectively facilitate learners in language learning. Using music in language acquisition should promote interest in students, a natural context for vocabulary learning and extra-linguistic clues to meaning which are important in second language learning.

Not only that, music makes cultural ideas accessible to all students and increases the capacity of the working memory; while providing a setting for long-term recall of words and phrases. Feric (2012) added that music also creates a good atmosphere in the classroom; thus increasing students' motivation. Students relate to songs and find learning vocabulary through songs

interesting and amusing rather than boring. Likewise, language learners that lack familiarity with the target culture and have trouble expressing themselves can connect through the freeing influence of music. This is true especially with pop songs which are part of youth culture. These songs also tend to deal with problems relevant to learners as they know the singers and want to understand the words. Didactically songs are also useful in teaching the rhythm and the musicality of the language and the atmosphere created by the music enhances the ability of learners to remember vocabulary and thus shortens the study period.

Besides, songs also help to establish the prosody of the language and to enable the repetition of phrases in the classroom singing mode to further practice vocabulary. Learners enjoy the singing, and they are quite likely to rehearse it residually. The repeating of a song in one's head enables involuntary inner vocalisation of linguistic content, which then has the effect of deepening the memory traces of this content in the mind. Furthermore, they can take the music with them and learn and practice it on the move. And it helps improve the mood. Plus all these benefits can be achieved with the combination of music and m-learning. Looking into all the obvious suitability of combining m-learning and music, this study looks into the effectiveness of using music in mobile technology in English vocabulary learning among tertiary students.

Problem Statement

Some studies have suggested that while learners have a positive view of mobile learning, and feel that there are the potential benefits, not all learners are willing to engage in it. Learners in Stockwell's (2010) study, for example, wrote that the mobile phone was "not a tool for studying" and that they "couldn't get into study mode with the mobile" as reasons for not using the mobile phone to complete learning activities. Perhaps educators should look into the types of activities involved in the usage of mobile technology in vocabulary learning.

Here, it is important to note that GSM Arena team (2011) reported 95.3% of mobile device users listened to music daily and among them 80.2% were aged between 18 and 24. It suggests that students are spending time listening to music through their mobile devices like iPads or smart phones. To engage the present generation, educators should be innovative and use mobile devices in learning for activities which learners are familiar with such as listening to music. This study would highlight the importance of using mobile devices for language learning and suggest ways in which technology could be integrated in language learning. The findings would be significant for language educators as well as ESL learners.

Theoretical Framework

This section explains the theoretical framework adopted in this study. It is a general understanding that learners learn better from words and pictures than from words alone. This is the foundation for Mayer's Cognitive theory of multimedia learning (see Fig. 1). Multimedia learning refers to the use of visual and auditory teaching materials that may include video, computer or mobile devices. Likewise, cognitive theory of multimedia learning focuses on the effective use of multimedia in learning, with importance on using both the visual and auditory channels for information processing. The auditory channel deals with information that is heard, and the visual channel processes information that is seen and in combination more knowledge is gained. Thus, multimedia learning seeks to give instructors the ability to stimulate both visual and auditory channels of learners, resulting in better progress.

This theory is appropriate for this research as the songs that are forwarded to learners' mobile devices have both the auditory and visual channels that allow better learning of English vocabulary among students. Additionally, when students listen to the forwarded songs to complete English vocabulary worksheets, they could also relate to their prior knowledge and make the learning process much easier.
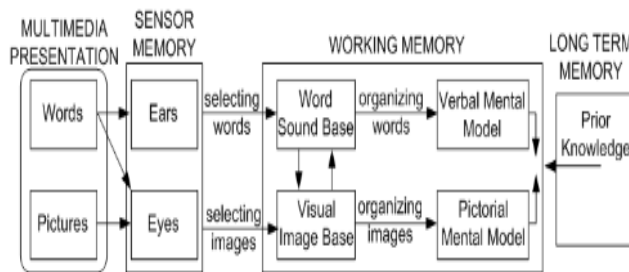

Figure 1. The cognitive theory of multimedia learning.

Note: Adapted from Mayer, R., Heiser, J., & Lonn, S. (2001). Cognitive constraints on multimedia learning: When presenting more material results in less understanding. *Journal of Education Psychology, 93*(1), 187-198.

Methodology

This study used a quantities approach. A pre-test and post-test were used to obtain data on students' vocabulary gain. Besides, a survey that investigated students' perception on using mobile devices and music in learning vocabulary was administered. The specific details of the instruments used are discussed below.

Pre-Test

The participants of 60 Diploma in Business students in a private higher education institution

took part in the pre-test by writing the meaning of 30 English words taken from three famous English songs - I'm Yours by Jason Mraz, Skater Boy by Avril Lavigne and Soak Up the Sun by Sheryl Crow (refer to Table 1). Participants' scores were recorded for the analysis purpose (Table 2). After that the target group went through three vocabulary lessons (which were conducted outside the classroom) using mobile devices and songs. The three songs mentioned earlier were forwarded to students' smart phones and tablets. By listening to the three songs downloaded into their mobile devices, the participants were asked to complete worksheets that were created for each song. To encourage m-learning, the participants were allowed to complete these worksheets at anytime and anywhere convenient to them. These worksheets required participants to complete the lyrics by filling in the blanks or identifying the wrong words used in the lyrics while listening to the songs.

Table 1
Words tested in the pre-test and post-test

I'm Yours by Jason Mraz	Skater Boy by Avril Lavigne	Soak Up The Sun by Sheryl Crow
divine	punk	fancy
intervention	baggy	lame
reckon	tags	crummy
moment	superstar	ride
godforsaken	slamming	gas
hesitate	soul	master suite
complicate	obvious	communist
nibble	rock	afford
vanities	backstage	soak up
virtue	studio	squat

Post-Test

For the post-test, after two weeks, the participants were again asked to write the meaning of the 30 words tested in the pre-test earlier. The participants' scores for the post-test are recorded for comparison in Table 2.

Survey

In addition, a survey questionnaire was distributed to all 60 participants. The questionnaire used a Likert scale and consisted of 10 statements seeking the participants' opinion on learning English vocabularies through music and mobile technology. The students were given one hour to complete the survey. The responses were collected from the students on the same day. The statements and participants' responses are shown in Table 3.

Table 2
Pre-test and post-test results

Total Scores (full marks :30)	Pre –Test		Post – Test	
	Number of Participants	Percen-tage (%)	Number of Participants	Percen-tage (%)
30	-	0	10	16.7
29	-	0	7	11.7
28	-	0	8	13.3
27	4	7	9	15
26	5	8.3	9	15
25	5	8.3	8	13.3
24	6	10	1	1.7
23	3	5	5	8.3
22	7	11.7	-	0
21	9	15	3	5
20	11	18	-	0
19 and lower	10	16.7	-	0

Table 3
Participants' opinion on the use of music for English vocabulary acquisition

		YES Percent	NO Percent	NOT SURE Percent
1.	I find it easier to understand the words in the songs	75.0	16.7	8.0
2.	I find it interesting to learn the words in the songs	71.7	13.0	15.0
3.	I learn new words any time of the day with mobile devices	75.0	10.0	15.0
4.	I can remember the word easily after listening to the songs	70.0	7.0	23.0
5.	I like to learn English vocabulary through music	73.3	8.0	18.0
6.	I have fun by learning English vocabulary through music	68.3	7.0	25.0
7.	Learning English vocabulary through music in mobile devices is enjoyable	71.7	12.0	17.0
8.	I can understand different accent of the English language	80.0	7.0	13.0
9.	I believe listening to music in mobile devices is the fastest way of understanding the language	71.7	7.0	22.0

Results and Discussion

The following table presents the pre-test and the post-test results.

Increased Vocabulary Gain

Table 2 presents the marks obtained by 60 participants in both the pre-test and the post-test. It is shown that no participant scored full marks (30) in the pre-test. In fact, the highest mark recorded was only 27/30. The majority of the participants scored 21 and below. In contrast, for the post-test, there was a drastic improvement as 10 participants scored full marks (30). In addition, the majority of the participants scored 29 (7 participants), 28 (8 participants), 27 (9 participants), 26 (9 participants) and 25 (8 participants). Besides, the lowest mark recorded in the post-test was 21 (3 participants). This difference in the results clearly indicates that there was an improvement made in participants' vocabulary knowledge after the three vocabulary lessons through music and mobile technology. This study attributes to the fact that using specific features of mobile devices such as music can promote learning and increase vocabulary acquisition among tertiary students. This study also suggests that students' vocabulary improved after the lessons using music and mobile devices.

The third table is the summary of the survey results indicating their opinion on the use of music and mobile devices for vocabulary acquisition.

Learners' are Enthusiastic about Using Music

Table 3 shows the participants' opinion learning English vocabulary through music and mobile devices. Participants are enthusiastic and find it easier to learn English through music by using mobile phones and tablets. The participants also expressed that learning English vocabulary through music via mobile technologies is enjoyable. The result that showed the increased vocabulary knowledge among learners supports the findings of Hsin and Cigas (2013) and Steffes and Duverger (2012) in which participants found it easier to learn vocabulary and they enjoyed learning English vocabulary through music and mobile technology. It is recommended that music and mobile technology when combined do bring positive effects to the growth of vocabulary knowledge among students.

Conclusion

This study demonstrated that music in combination with mobile technology can be an effective and enjoyable educational tool to engage and motivate ESL learners, particularly in learning vocabulary. In summary, the results of the pre-test and the post-test seemed to support the argument that ESL learners may increase their vocabulary knowledge when they learn vocabulary through music on their mobile devices. It was reported that the participants scored higher marks in the post-test after 3 vocabulary lessons using music and mobile devices. The survey conducted confirmed that participants appeared to have a positive outlook on music and M-learning. In general, this study recommends that learning English vocabulary using music in current mobile technology enhanced tertiary students' English vocabulary knowledge. Mobile technologies could provide more opportunities to enhance English vocabulary learning and act as a suitable tool for learning anytime and anywhere. Therefore, educators should find innovative ways to use mobile devices to teach the future students.

Limitation of the Resent Study

The limitation of this research provides directions for future research. It would be good to test mobile-learning in a larger sample size. The findings of this research are only based on a small sample size of 60 ESL learners. This research did not look into the challenges of implementing mobile learners across an institution involving a big group of ESL learners for a long term. An issue faced while implementing mobile learning is that the effectiveness of sending songs to some participants were affected by the Internet connectivity and the speed of different devices. This suggests that if mobile learning is implemented across an institution, the lessons may get delayed due to the Internet connectivity. Besides, to encourage M-learning, participants were allowed to complete the worksheets at anytime and anywhere convenient to them. It was difficult to monitor if the participants completed the vocabulary worksheets by themselves. Thus, this study is limited to self-reported data and researchers had to rely on the learners' own responses.

Next, further investigations are needed to assess the learners' long-term response because the short-term experience may affect learners' attitude towards a teaching method. Adult learners might have responded positively to the new style of vocabulary learning due to the novelty of their experiences. Last, this research only adopts quantitative methods. Qualitative findings about how learners use mobile devices for learning purposes may add comprehensive information to this new field and this could be done through interviews. Therefore, further investigation is needed in reducing the challenges that mobile learning poses for vocabulary teaching in an educational institution and make the finding enhanced.

Further Research

Given all these limitations, this research draws attention of researchers and practitioners to the application of M-learning and music and English language vocabulary learning. The findings and discussions presented in this paper, hopefully, will provide insights for those who want to integrate mobile technologies into language teaching and learning. It is recommended that researchers should focus on the challenges in mobile learning that involve a big group of learners and ways to overcome barriers that hinder the effectiveness of mobile learning should be conducted. In addition, it is also suggested that future researchers look into the usefulness of M-learning in enhancing the other skills of English language such as listening, speaking, reading and writing.

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A New Training Workshop for Students' IELTS Exam Mastering

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The paper is devoted to the problem of improving written communication skills in the university. It is intended to underline the importance of mastering writing skills when teaching a foreign language. Much attention is paid to teaching experience and approaches for students' mastering of the IELTS (International English Language Testing System) exam. This article is intended to fill the gaps in methodological and pedagogical aspects of teaching description of visual information materials in English. The authors worked out and implemented a new training workshop which is aimed at teaching and practicing graph description of visual information. Based on the curriculum a new syllabus has been drafted that provides further distribution of thematic, lexical and grammatical material given the specific nature of graphical material. The authors propose a two-stage teaching approach and methodological algorithm about how to work out exam strategies and form the required exam competences. The article highlights the outcomes and the challenges that are likely to arise when implementing the approach suggested by the authors. The proposed methodology can be used as a part of general foreign language training.

Keywords: IELTS, language writing skills, written communication, exam training, description of visual materials

Foreign language teaching methods in post-Soviet times have invariably neglected intensive techniques that could help to develop foreign language writing skills, although any school or university textbook generally contains a large number of written assignments for in-class and out-of-class training.

The USSR of the mid twentieth century had a focus on foreign language education based on the principles of grammar-translation method involving a detailed study of grammar rules and their subsequent practice

through drilling exercises. Writing was used solely as a means of teaching a foreign language. In the late 1980s–90s foreign language teaching methods evolved qualitatively: Basic skills essential for oral communication were given top priority. Thus, special emphasis was placed on generating and developing verbal skills. It is widely accepted that modern foreign language education stresses the importance of teaching both oral and written communication, so currently all types of speech activities are addressed equally. Writing is no longer isolated from other speech activities, but it is rather an integral part of a comprehensive teaching method since written communication offers multifold opportunities to form the mechanism of foreign speech production.

Following the requirements of the Bologna Convention, general principles of teaching the English Language as an academic discipline to undergraduate students at higher educational institutions are unified both across Europe and Russia. That is why the role of writing as a communication activity in the academic process is growing.

This academic activity involves several types of written communication:
- filling in questionnaires;
- writing personal / formal letters;
- making a CV;
- writing applications;
- describing graphs;
- writing reviews;
- writing annotations;
- writing reports;
- writing compositions / essays;
- writing research papers;
- writing course works;
- writing graduation theses.

In written communication, students are expected to describe events, facts or phenomena; report and request detailed information; express personal standpoint or stance; write reviews on books or movies; comment on events or facts with substantiated reasoning using emotional, expressive or evaluation means; compare personal experience with that of the native speaker of the target language; use synonymous means of expression. When creating such written texts, it is crucial to bear in mind their structural logic and composition. Many of those competences are mastered by students when learning a foreign language at school.

In the course of university studies, students improve their written communication skills by preparing course works or graduation theses. But only during English language tutorials, undergraduate students working towards a Bachelor's Degree get acquainted with a new type of written communication – description of visual information materials, including line, surface, pie charts, amplitude graphs, maps, schematic pictures, and tables.

Practice shows that written tasks of that kind are rather complicated but highly essential types of written communication, as they involve description of various visual graphical images using at least 150 words within a set period of time (20 minutes).

Due to their considerable complexity and specificity, written tasks related to describing graphical information are taught at an advanced level only. Such training would be unreasonable unless students have sufficient vocabulary and the linguistic component of their communicative competence is largely formed. With this in mind, the tutor can primarily focus on forming and developing pragmatic and sociolinguistic components of the communicative competence.

Materials and Methods

Methodology of Writing Skills Development

Numerous studies into teaching methods of writing in a foreign language prove a growing interest in written communication. That is why current methods of foreign language education place special emphasis on strategies of preparing for international exams, including IELTS (Sahanaya, Lindeck, & Stewart, 2006). However, the scope of surveys into the experience gained while preparing students for written tasks and related in particular to describing graphical visual materials is rather scarce (Chaudron, 1995; Hyland, 2009). Precisely speaking, most achievements of this kind relate mainly to general methodological guidelines required to prepare students for academic writing, but only partly address such issues as describing charts, maps and schemes (Sommer, 1989; Bachman, 1990; Farhady, Jafarpoor, & Birjandi, 1994; Wray & Lewis, 1997; Bondareva, 1999; Tatarinova, 2005; Zhurbenko, 2008).

An analysis of contemporary scientific sources undertaken by the authors in the given field showed no determined efforts or methodologically sound works that would seriously focus on ways and means of tackling challenges that arise while preparing students for describing visual graphical materials with regard to the requirements of international English language exams. This article is intended to fill the gaps in methodological and pedagogical aspects of teaching this type of written communication.

Writing skills have rarely been given due attention by Russian tutors – in methodological respect writing has been considered a specific type of speech activity that requires focused instruction. Foreign language teaching methods applied to develop writing skills were actually based on the existing practice of mastering

writing skills in the native language; however, they are far from being equal. When analysing speech activities, the primary focus was and still is on speaking as a priority and writing as an auxiliary skill.

Researchers that recognise a critical role of writing as an efficient activity relevant to mastering the language note that writing indeed promotes linguistic competences and along with reading makes up a linguistic analytical activity (Bramki & Williams, 1984). Within the modern methodological concept, this fact helps to define writing not only as a means but also as a goal of teaching a foreign language since writing creates favourable conditions for forming and consolidating oral and written communication skills.

Irrespective of the type of written tasks a student performs, writing gives them ample opportunities for independent and arbitrary making up of a statement with due respect for the rules and norms of the target language because indeed a written text helps to assimilate the rules of a different language and accelerates internalisation of foreign language speech patterns, which in turn contributes to the formation and the consolidation of mechanisms of foreign language acquisition (Danilina, 1981, p. 42).

More importantly, writing helps to seize a special algorithm focused on curtailing or folding an enlarged statement in line with the generalised semantic scheme, which in essence is the process of transforming external speech into an internal one.

The highest level of foreign language command implies perception of the information in a way that the recipient dismisses the linguistic context of speech but keeps its semantic content expressed in a free form different from the original. Ellis and Beaton (1993) as well as Widdowson (2003) point out that writing promotes linguistic thinking that is understood as a means of navigation in the language material based on linguistic conceptual images. Linguistic thinking is implemented through solving linguistic problems. An operational feature of this type of thinking involves updating linguistic benchmarks in the subject's conscience to extract semantic information from the text during speech perception and to build a message based thereon at the moment of speech. According to the above authors, writing-based work on the text promotes faster formation of untranslatable understanding of foreign speech.

Further speaking about the importance of mastering writing skills, it is crucial to highlight that written communication forms an integral part of a cognitive process of students' critical thinking: any mistakes in the target language are promptly and clearly identified in written speech, thus making it an optimal means of control in learning a foreign language.

Automation of written text manipulation skills and formation of similar abilities with students occur amid constant vocabulary expansion, greater scope and complexity of written tasks: at an early training stage, most training time is devoted to pattern texts, whereas towards graduation the focus shifts to higher complexity tasks associated with a course work or a graduation thesis, both implying much better formed skills of working with written texts.

In the authors' opinion, it is undoubtedly essential to teach students to describe charts, drawings, schemes or diagrams of various thematic scope and complexity in view of the growing society informatisation, and ever-increasing amount of information. That is why preparing students for international language exams such as IELTS currently involves planning and achieving a series of training outcomes, including the following:

- ability to read information from the graphical medium and transmit it in writing using the target language thus providing an objective and reliable description of the graph (chart, diagram, drawing, map, etc.);
- ability to make a written report on the subject passing no judgment of one's own;
- ability to use appropriate lexical and grammatical stock to describe graphical materials;
- ability to choose the most accurate and comprehensive strategy to quickly and adequately describe graphical materials within a certain period of time;
- ability to use special patterns when creating written texts;
- strong orthographic skills;
- basic knowledge of business writing;
- sustainable skills of independent work.

Speaking and writing constitute a multidirectional actualisation of a single verbal-communicative human function (Zimnyaya, 2000, p. 183); that is why when teaching writing as one of the key types of learning speech activity due account needs to be taken of the following challenges that are faced if working with written texts:

- perception and processing of the information are largely mediated by its presentation form;
- productivity of the recipient's speech activity is determined by the quality and depth of understanding of the information received;
- quality of the final product is directly dependent on the extent to which writing and verbal skills are developed with a student, on his ability to choose and correctly apply speech material required to create a text-description.

All types of speech activity are united by a single means of thought formation with apparent differences in the use of means and methods of speech transfer. In teaching writing, it is crucial to send materials that are

to be adopted through an audiovisual channel because when making up a written statement, students mainly rely on well-developed verbal and writing skills. The statement has not only length but depth which is meaningful for the speaker or the writer (Milrud, 2005, p. 95); the latter should create lexically and grammatically correct texts in a foreign language.

Bearing in mind methodological aspects, it is worth noting that the task to describe various visual materials implies a certain level of written and verbal skill formation. Creating a text-description in a written form is viewed as one of the most valuable scholastic and professional abilities and forms an integral part of a student's both academic and practical activity. Thus, in the context of cross-cultural communication and the development of sociolinguistic competence, training to write secondary texts continues to be highly relevant.

When teaching to perform any tasks related to such an academic activity as description of visual information materials, a number of teaching methods including conscious-practical, communicative, audiovisual and integral methods are commonly used.

These methods are to some extent applied to teach students all types of speech activity, but only when teaching to describe charts, diagrams, drawing and schemes of various sorts such methods collectively demonstrate their efficiency.

Results

Description of Graphical Information in English: A New Training Workshop

With due regard to the requirements imposed by the Federal State Educational Standards adopted by the Ministry of Education and Science of the Russian Federation, preparation for writing tests is arranged for students with different levels of language training:

- high school students planning to enter foreign universities;
- undergraduates studying for a Bachelor's Degree;
- students planning to study either for a Master's Degree or PhD;
- graduates intending to improve qualifications in English or undergo training abroad.

Written communication skills are formed with junior students when making IELTS Writing Task I at the stage of profile-based training in the context of a future professional activity, thus contributing to the development of a professionally-oriented foreign language communicative competence. When training students for an international exam, graph descriptions

prove to be the most complicated written task although the skills of drawing up letters and writing essays are assumed to have been generally formed at school.

Since a certain type of visual information materials promotes a qualitatively different writing skills focus, the authors have developed Graph Description Activator, a workshop meant to train students for the IELTS test. Workshops are generally looked at as an innovative form of development of communicative skills at the Higher School of Economics (Velikaya, 2015, p. 61).

The training session consists of 10 topics each corresponding to exam topics and has a well-defined structure.

The topics have been identified with due regard to the following aspects:

- type of graph;
- vocabulary focus;
- grammar focus.

Based on the curriculum, a new syllabus has been drafted that provides the following distribution of thematic, lexical and grammatical material given the specific nature of the graphical description required.

Table 1
Training stages and skills being received

Type of Graph	Grammar Focus	Vocabulary Focus	Skills Focus
1. Types of graphs 2. Main principles of writing	Punctuation Sentence structure Active grammar: construc-tions for the formal style	Formal / in-formal range of vocabulary	Creating a structure (sen-tence, para-graph, text) Style Analysing the question
A line graph	Present Tense forms	Collocation related to health	Making a point Writing an introduction Organising ideas
A pie chart	Past Tense forms	Collocation related to health Collocations with nouns	Writing the main body Developing the theme Describing the trends
A pie chart	Future Tense forms	Collocation related to nature Collocation with verbs Prepositions	Emphasising the point Supporting details
A process	Passive voice	Collocation related to language Cause and effect verbs and nouns	Describing stages of devel-opment

A process	Degrees of comparison Articles	Collocation related to technology and science Adjectives and adverbs	Comparing and contrasting
A bar chart	Countable / uncountable nouns Articles Numbers	Collocation related to culture Words and phrases expressing quantity	Working with numbers and quantities Explaining the trend
A bar chart	Infinitival and gerundial construc- tions	Collocation related to travel The usage of synonyms and antonyms	Paraphrasing Avoiding word- iness
A table	Defining and non-defining clauses	Collocation related to business Derivatives	Writing the conclusion Summarising the ideas
Review	Finding mistakes		Proof reading

In the course of studies students are offered various thematic tasks that facilitate their prompt and efficient involvement into the work related to describing various charts, diagrams and schematic drawings. The authors find it reasonable to familiarise students concerned with a variety of typical assignments that are successfully used by the authors in the teaching process.

Types of possible tasks
1. Understanding a task/question. Analysing the graph:
- true/false questions;
- matching;
- completing a gapped text;
- analysing the graph structure;
- analysing the paragraph structure.
2. Grammar focus:
- completing the sentences using different tense forms / *ing*-forms / articles etc.;
- rewriting the sentences using passive forms;
- matching the grammar pattern with the example;
- underlining and correcting the mistakes.
3. Vocabulary focus:
- studying the collocations and complete the sentences;
- transforming the sentences using derivatives / synonyms / antonyms;
- finding the correct/incorrect words in the sentences;
- deciding where you can use the phrases in the paragraph;
- completing the sentences with the expressions of quantity / preposition / relative pronoun /

collocations etc.;
- matching the expression with the definition.
4. Writing skills:
- rewriting the sentences using the words given;
- finding the examples of linking devices;
- finding the examples of formal/informal style;
- sketching the diagram according to the description;
- completing the introductory/concluding phrases;
- matching the paragraph with the graph.

The proposed tasks are formed in view of the methodological principles described above and finally help to obtain the desired end product – a written text with a consistent description of a chart, diagram or map image. Such a text meets the requirements imposed by examiners authorised to check final written papers of the IELTS test.

Tasks based on visual information materials are performed in line with a carefully designed plan and subject to an extensive use of interactive technologies: video materials, podcasts, educational web-sites, and interactive flash cards. Such information support contributes to students' growing interest in the discipline in general and in this type of activity in particular.

One of the key elements of the workshop task flow is the choice of strategy to describe a particular type of chart. Essential strategies are taught in two stages.

1. The *first* stage requires the processing of the visual information materials. The main goal there is to ensure careful graph (chart, diagram, drawing, scheme, etc.) reading, and graph data analysis.

This stage involves presentations, video materials, and Internet resources. The tutor demonstrates strategies of dealing with visual information materials that suggest the following activities:
- note maximum and minimum peaks marked on the graph;
- indicate significant trends in each segment (sector);
- define key parameters that would later serve the basis for a text-description;
- avoid irrelevant details and explanations.

Demonstration of the essential vocabulary, its drilling and activation make up another substantial part of training. Basic vocabulary helps to describe the elements of visual information materials and the so-called linking units that serve to unite separate parts of the text. Lexical material is mastered using specially designed flash cards posted on the Internet web page or any information-educational platform.

No less attention at this stage is given to basic grammar. The goal is to improve grammar skills, i.e., to activate grammar patterns obligatory for written text-descriptions.

After such preparation, a student gets down to writing his own text. First of all, he needs to identify the type of graphical information (chart, diagram, scheme, drawing, map, etc.), give its brief formal description with due regard to most essential, inherent characteristics of this type, and then interpret the information contained in the graph.

2. The *second* stage requires laying out and editing a written text.

Students are advised to critically reflect on and review the text they have written in order to avoid such mistakes as personal opinion or comments, and to paraphrase sentences that fail to fully perform the informative function. Students need to make sure that their text is consistent, coherent, and reliable, fully conveys graphical information, and contains the required relevant connectors between the parts. Besides, before making a test the students are offered

to get acquainted with graph descriptions patterns given in the pool of ready-made description essays.

The authors of the course place particular emphasis on group and pair work as a means to arrange collective thinking activity aimed to improve motivation based on the collaborative (joint) education principle.

Students at the final stage are required to check and assess groupmates' test papers.

Examples of students' graph description are given below.

The writing task for student X.

The diagram below shows the process for manufacturing juice of a direct extraction. Summarise the information by selecting and reporting the main features, and make comparisons where relevant. You should spend about 20 minutes on this task. Write at least 150 words.

The graph description made by student X.
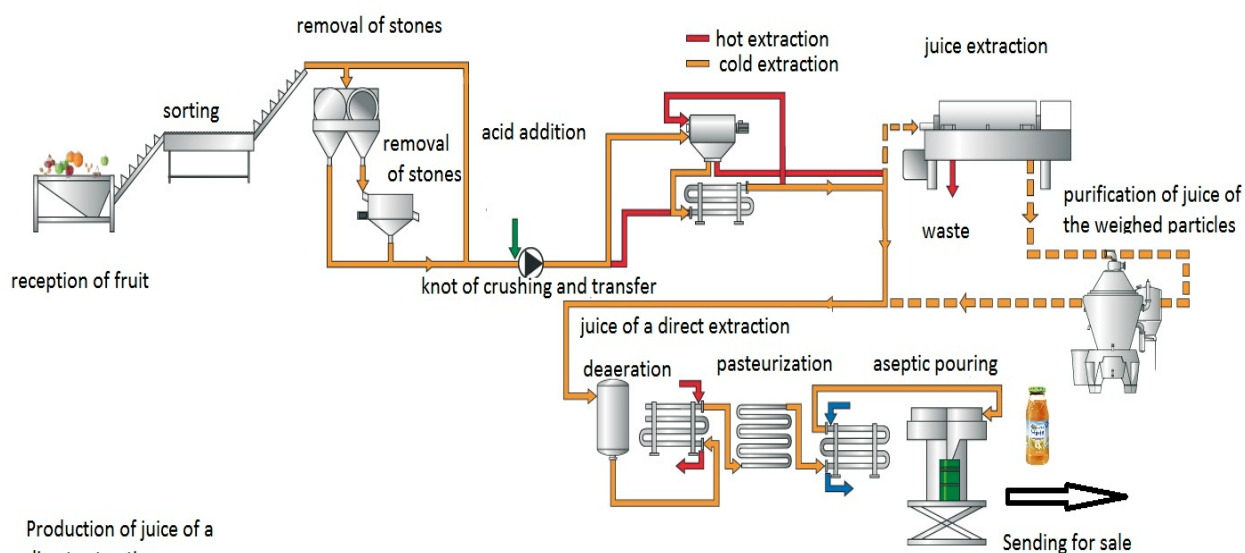
Figure 1. Production of juice of a direct extraction.

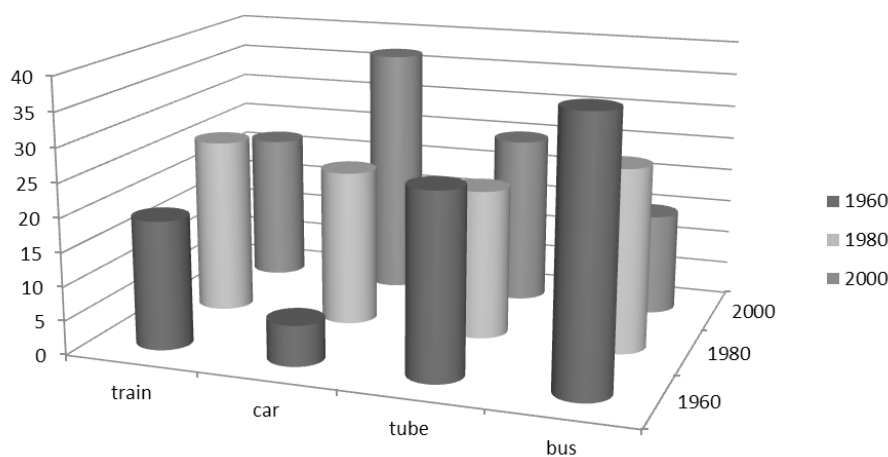*Figure 2.* Mode of transport and years.

The Apple Juice Manufacturing Process

This scheme illustrates the most widespread method of producing the apple juice.

To begin with, the process consists of approximately nine stages. First of all, it is impossible to prepare juice without ripe fruits grown on a farm. Once, when ripening is done, it is supposed to collect received harvest and transport it to one of the factories. Then, having delivered apples, workers must clean them from dirt and put into fresh water. Following this, pure fruits are likely to be sliced up by means of huge cutting machines. Next, they can be squeezed using extractors, and apples finally turned into the liquid. After this stage, resulting juice is usually packed into boxes and delivered to a local store.

To conclude, it is necessarily to note the process of making juice not to be a bed of roses because of its difficulty. Nevertheless, it has always been one of the most popular beverages, which is drunk all over the world.

The writing task for student Y.

The graph shows the different modes of transport used to travel to and from work in one European city in 1960, 1980 and 2000. Summarise the information by selecting and reporting the main features, and make comparisons where relevant. You should spend about 20 minutes on this task. Write at least 150 words.

The graph description made by student Y.

Over Time: Modes of Transport

The chart illustrates changes in the transports used to and from work in a particular European city for 3 years.

Regarding 1960, the greatest number of commuters used buses, about 40%. The figures for other types of transport – tube, car and train – were at approximately 27%, 22% and 19% respectively.

The bus popularity decreased to about 26% in 1980 and this fell even further to 15% in 2000. In contrast, the use of cars increased significantly to about 23% in 1980, before rising steeply to 38% towards the end of the period. Moving on to the train, the figures increased to about 26%, but this dropped to just over 20% by 2000. The use of the tube declined from 1960 to 1980 before rising 25% in the final year.

In conclusion, the chart indicates that car use increased over the period shown, whereas the use of the bus declined. The figures for tubes and trains both fluctuated over the same period of time.

Many years of preparing students for IELTS international exam have prompted a unique teaching algorithm for Writing Task 1 to be presented as follows:

Methodological Guidelines for Describing Visual

Information Materials
1. Peruse the information provided
2. Define the type of visual information materials
3. Assess the graphical image
4. Draft a description plan
5. Highlight main trends
6. Examine the details to identify relevant and/ or irrelevant information
7. Make up a written text following a proven structure that includes introductory part, main body, final part
8. Highlight key points using equivalent numerical information available on the graph (chart, diagram, scheme, drawing, map, etc.) as a line of reasoning
9. Use a proper stock of lexical and grammatical tools to make up a text-description
10. Check the text for spelling mistakes
11. Avoid personal opinions or critical remarks towards the matter in question using clichéd structures and opinion words such as 'I think', 'I believe'
12. Avoid describing every fact presented in this or that section of the chart or diagram, or explaining the reasons for arising trends or phenomena
13. Be precise in conveying numerical information available on the graph (chart, diagram, scheme, drawing, map, etc.)
14. Simplify the text-description where necessary to make it comprehensible and understandable to a reader
15. Count the number of words used when making the said assignment
16. Meet the given time of 20 minutes.

Upon completion of the task the student shall pass his written text either to a tutor or to his peer in a pair or group work for further review and analysis.

During the workshops the tutor shall provide students with clear instructions and clarifications the goal of which is to train students for a particular written assignment.

Another crucial aspect of the given algorithm to be followed when writing up a text-description is to build a description of graphical information on active vocabulary and grammar patterns required by the IELTS test format and mastered through various forms of interactive learning. A series of PowerPoint presentations as well as auxiliary online resources have been developed and integrated into the educational process to present graphs and description structure prepared by tutors and/or students.

A written text-description is focused on developing and improving the following competences presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Competences to be developed (improved), and core results of mastering the discipline

Type of Competence	Content of Competence	Core Results of Mastering the Discipline
Universal Competences		
Native language competence	Comprehensive command of the native language and proficient level of oral and written communication in the native language	Knows how to use words, their forms, syntactic structures in accordance with the norms of the literary language, use all lexical means in accordance with the stylistic differences
Foreign language competence	Formal language skills, acquisition of lexical, grammatical, and phonetic foreign language skills and ability to apply the acquired skills to achieve communication goals	Knows how to describe various graphical images thus reaching the goals set in written communication. Knows how to make clear statements on various topics, express his/her views on the issue by giving pros and cons
Training competence	Tendency to continuous learning, activity profile rearrangement, satisfaction of ever-changing life and professional ambitions to successfully adapt on the labor market	Knows how to use knowledge of various branches of science and apply it in practice
Sociolinguistic competence	Ability to apply the acquired language skills to recognise spelling, lexical, grammar, and other features of the visual information materials	Knows how to choose and use appropriate language forms and means depending on the goal of the message. Knows about stylistic differences
Sociocultural competence	Willingness and ability to hold a dialogue of cultures that involves knowledge of cultural realities, native and foreign language realities. Ability to apply this knowledge in oral and written communication	Knows about cultural characteristics of other countries, standards of conduct in a foreign language society. Knows how to adequately present his/her culture using the means of the English language
Pragmatic competence	Proficiency in a cluster of communicative behaviour patterns as a set of communicative norms and traditions typical of the English-speaking linguocultural society	Knows how to make clear, logical statements using a required pool of language tools
Special Competences		
Discourse competence	Ability to generate coherent foreign language statements, arrange logical, consistent, and convincing speech, use a proper stock of lexical, grammatical and spelling tools	Knows how to arrange logical, consistent, and convincing speech
Strategic competence	Ability to use both verbal and nonverbal strategies to compensate for the gaps in the knowledge of the English language code	Knows how to use both verbal and nonverbal language tools to achieve communicative goals
Linguistic competence	Ability to understand, synthesise and analyse information Ability to use appropriate lexical and grammatical material to create an information message or a review following the given graphical written structure. Ability to understand and generate foreign language statements in oral and written speech	Knows how to express his/her thought in oral or written form using an appropriate language stock: Commands a large vocabulary in academic and professional spheres and uses it appropriately in speech

Compared with other activities arranged during the English Language Course, Graph Description Activator is focused on a set of teaching techniques specifically developed to master a particular test exercise, i.e., to train students to make a text-description based on visual information materials for the IELTS exam. This activity is for the first time arranged at the university and as the authors continue to reiterate, requires a painstaking and careful preparation of both the tutors and students.

Being devoted to graph description English classes shows further students' skills improvement. The tutors' experience and the results achieved by students witness versatile chances of the workshop in acquiring both basic and additional competences, because writing, speaking, listening, and reading skills are mastered simultaneously.

Writing skills are subject to current, formative, and summative assessment.

Current assessment involves the following activities performed by students:

1) individual work during practicals in all types of foreign language activities (listening, speaking, reading and writing);
2) separate writing activity based on the communicative task set.

Formative (intermediate) assessment takes place in the middle of the term and is aimed at:

1) checking skills to describe any types of graphs (charts, tables, diagrams, maps, etc.);
2) identifying the development and automation skills level after finishing the topic.

Summative (final) assessment aims to check students' ability to describe graphical materials of any complexity in line with the scheme proposed and apply description skills in further professional activities.

Discussion and Conclusions

All the four aspects of speech activity are known to be split in actual communication as follows: listening – 42%, speaking – 32%, reading – 15%, writing – 11%. Although, in the course of studies, writing in terms of percentage is the least addressed type of communicative activity, it is a complex psycholinguistic process of perception, recognition and understanding foreign speech associated with processing and transmission of the information received.

The authors' experience proves that using the proposed teaching approach in the academic process when training junior students for one of the IELTS-based tasks is very efficient. The proposed methodology is used in class as part of general foreign language training and may serve for designing and implementing other academic projects and training methods. The crucial feature of the concept underlying a set of methods used to work with graphical materials is that a written text is made up with the help of lexical and grammatical patterns serving as auxiliary means to achieve communicative goals.

Describing charts is a means of creating a text that emerges as a result of performing a series of mental and logical operations, including analysis, synthesis and interpretation of graphical materials, description of its informative elements in students' own words.

The educational value of the methods used to describe graphical information involves improving students' intellectual abilities, developing attention, learning to read various diagrams, creating a written text based on the obtained information, improving competences typically required for a researcher, including responsible attitude to the results of one's work.

When training students it is important to arrange their self-guided work with written texts, because this type of activity can be seen as one of the ways to achieve a major communication-oriented goal, i.e., to teach speaking.

Working with a text-description helps to tackle a number of extra challenges, including:
- intensifying students' speech activity;
- presentation and consolidation of new

academic materials;
- developing skills and abilities required for successful implementation of other types of speech activity;
- increased feedback and self-control efficiency.

The proposed workshop offers an interdisciplinary and vocational guidance, since the ability to describe graphical information is universal in nature and highly required in various disciplines such as Mathematical Analysis, Macroeconomics, Microeconomics, Accounting, Time Management, etc. Methods of working with graphical materials can generally find efficient application in English language classes because they aim at forming communication skills both in oral and written forms.

The ability to make an adequate and professional description of graphical information is equally important for upperclassmen, especially while preparing and defending a graduation thesis: Requirements introduced to defend a graduation project include graduate's mandatory skills of analysing and interpreting the results of research work during defence which are usually presented in graphical form.

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Creating High-Frequency, Naturalistic Opportunities to Develop Small Talk Skills in EFL Classrooms

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The paper is the outcome of an action research project that investigated factors that keep students from participating in classroom small talk (ST). In-class observations, surveys and students' logs, backed by the author's self-reflection resulted in an intervention plan which aimed to help students with their anxiety and ST apprehension. The final role plays, as well as the survey demonstrated that there was a change in how the students noticed and used the opportunities to utilize ST. Specifically, they started to see the potential of classroom talk for putting ST skills into practice. Another finding is the need to raise the students' awareness of ST as a social and linguistic skill, to clearly establish ground rules for practising ST, and to create high-frequency, naturalistic opportunities to develop ST in class. It is argued in the paper that ST skills can be practised in the classroom beyond the purposefully designed activities, i.e. in spontaneous interactions between the teacher and the students. Such interactions may decrease the students' anxieties and reluctance to get engaged in small talk. This change would have a positive effect on their outside-the-classroom interactions in English, both in academic and work-place situations.

Keywords: small talk, EFL classroom talk, small talk strategies, action research

Small talk (ST) is often metaphorically described in reference to its pragmatic function. In literature, ST is often referred to as the 'gift of the gab' (Baber, 1991), which is necessary to 'oil the social wheels' (Holmes, 2005) or to 'break the ice' (Fine, 2005). There is a focus on the balanced 'ping-pong' nature of a natural, polite conversation (Fleming, 2013), and the importance of showing interest in others.

While these metaphors emphasize ST's importance, it turned out to be difficult to locate a distinct ST definition within an EFL context. And yet, within the communicative language teaching (CLT) paradigm, there is an expectation that a teacher will provide opportunities for learners to be engaged in interaction and meaningful communication while experimenting with the language (Richards, 2006).

For the ST practice, this CLT principle is translated into setting some specially designed communicative contexts such as reading ST episodes, acting them out, or role playing ST in prescribed situations. While this is certainly a valid approach to practising talk as interaction, such activities can hardly take place in each class. It seems that there are other, regular opportunities in class to practise ST in a meaningful way. Specifically, classroom talk can be used to enhance students' ST practice.

For the purposes of this study *classroom ST* is defined as a social interaction between the students and the instructor that aims to build rapport. In many institutions EFL teachers do not make classroom ST at all. This observation resonates with the literature review: the methodology and pedagogical implications of making spontaneous ST with the group have not been explicitly researched. This action research project was started in order to check the initial assumption that classroom ST can improve students' attitudes about ST. The project should interest those teachers who are open to experimenting with their formal classroom talk and who seek new opportunities to encourage their students to make ST in class.

Materials and Methods

Literature Review

ST may be valued in many social situations. In native English-speaking cultures, it is generally considered to be a learnable and transferable skill, so many communication experts turn their research into practical guidebooks, aimed specifically at native speakers of English (Baber, 1991; Carducci, 1999; Fine, 2005). Even a brief acquaintance with these books shows that they are written to address people's anxiety and reluctance to engage in ST. While ST may stir up panic even in a native speaker of English, it is only natural that making ST in English is quite a challenge for foreign language learners of English. Specifically, there are a lot of case studies describing how international students find it extremely hard to present a good image of themselves, partially because they lack such skills and dread social functions within and outside their host university (The Higher Education Academy, n.d.). The inability to establish and maintain relationships ultimately deprives these students of opportunities to become integrated into the community without a great deal of stress. Consequently, rapport building is an essential language skill for foreign students to develop (Bamford, 2008).

Since ST is a problem for EFL students, it is natural to assume that this skill is also a special area of professional interest for English language educators. Primarily, this is a question of how Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) principles are applied in teaching ST. There is also a question of the time and the effort a teacher is willing to allocate to practising ST.

CLT theory highlights the necessity to look at the language classroom as preparation for survival and effective performance in the real world (Jacobs & Farrell, 2001; Littlewood, 1981; Richards, 2008). In most sources reviewed, this purpose, when considered in the context of teaching ST, gets translated into two major themes: the social nature of language usage (e.g., greetings, jokes, closings) and students' career considerations. Specifically, many English for Specific Purposes studies examine how to make effective ST at different work-place situations (pre-meeting talks, elevator talks, hallway talks, lunch talks, off-task talks, etc.). A number of EFL researchers focus on the content, distribution, and social functions of ST, as well as the consequences of failed ST (Bayles, 2009; Coupland, 2003; Holmes, 2005; Koaster, 2010; Mehus, 2004; Mirivel & Tracy, 2005).

According to Fine (2005), in a person's daily life, ST incidents happen at least a dozen times a day. For some people these statistics mean a dozen of stimulating, meaningful casual conversations, while for others a dozen of uncomfortable, failed exchanges.

In one of her studies, Holmes (2005) looked at challenges presented by ST for two specific groups: new immigrant workers from non-English-speaking backgrounds and native English-speaking workers with an intellectual disability. Holmes concluded that no matter how different these peoples' social situations were, the kinds of difficulties they faced in managing different aspects of social talk at work were surprisingly similar: they did not sustain ST long enough, they did not pull their weight in the ST exchange, and when a coworker engaged them in ST, they answered in monosyllables or non-verbally, allowing the topic to drop inappropriately quickly (p. 359).

In an attempt to address such problems, methodologists and practitioners alike have concentrated their efforts on compiling lists of ST situations (McCarthy, 2003; Ockenden, 1972; Richards, 2006), on pragmatic considerations for these routines (Barron & Schneider, 2009; Edwards & Csizer, 2004; Schneider, 2008; Tannen, 1984), and on designing practice activities. Such activities may include speaking exercises with an emphasis on reading and then role playing some ready-made conversational episodes and/or actually role playing some situations that ask for ST exchanges for a start (Hadfield, 1996; Sakamoto, 2010; Ur, 1992; Westcombe, 2009). The most common activities are role plays, where students try making ST in a variety of less structured speaking contexts, including: being at a party, standing in a line, doing a job interview, talking to a seatmate on a plane, or waiting for a payment to go through and chatting with the clerk. While all of these communicative situations are certainly in accord with CLT principles, it should be emphasized that such ST happens exclusively in an artificial practice environment. Such simulations are surely the case for most of ELT contexts, but it is reasonable to assume that ST skills can be put into practice that goes beyond the purposefully designed contexts and involves spontaneous interactions between the teacher and their students. If exercised on a regular basis, such ST interactions may decrease students' anxieties and reluctance to get engaged in ST. This change would have a positive effect on their outside-the-classroom interactions in English, both in academic and work-place situations.

First and foremost, it is necessary to check if this assumption is true for a local teaching context. So, the study started with a desire to maximize the opportunities for a group of students to use and practise ST inside an EFL classroom. The starting point was Luk's (2004) rigorous study of classroom ST, which involves "…interactions between the teachers and the students that are not intended for pedagogical purposes" (p. 118). Luk argues that there is a strong connection between the classroom talk and the effect it might have on the development of EFL students'

communicative competence. The study emphasizes that English language teachers should attempt to open themselves up to more non-institutional talk contexts. For example, the researcher demonstrated how the teacher she observed made ST with the students who had completed the assignment while they were waiting for the others to finish (p. 122). The ultimate goal and benefit of such spontaneous interactions, Luk says, is for students and teachers alike to experience "the joy of using a foreign language for meaningful communication" (p. 129). While the researcher's interests lie in pedagogical implications of classroom ST, the study has serious implications for those English language educators who are interested in ST methodology. Primarily, it shows that authentic ST can indeed become a part of the classroom talk. If a teacher is willing to make ST in their class, it can make a world of difference in breaking away from the constraints of institutional classroom talk and, therefore, from the anxiety which seems to be associated with classroom ST. Anxiety and ST apprehension is what started this research study; so Luk's work turned out to be very helpful and strategic. Most importantly, Luk's research implicitly indicated the potential of taking a step away from an exclusive, activities-based approach to teaching ST, which seems to prevail in the contemporary methodology. With this study in mind, it was possible to see the potential of classroom talk for putting ST skills into practice.

To be clear, this paper is not arguing that the traditional ST practice is a faulty approach, but that rather than limit practicing ST within some specially designed activities, English language teachers should increase practice frequency through integrating ST into classroom talk, for example at the beginning stages of English classes. While the traditional frame of an English class starts from a greeting and then moves on to warm-ups (Ur, 2013), it will be demonstrated in this paper that making authentic teacher-students ST in between these two well-defined stages is natural, as well as effective. First of all, students get a chance to practise what they have learned in artificial ST practice activities in a different, but meaningful setting. Secondly, this natural interaction provides a rapport building opportunity between the teacher and their students, which, if effective, will make everyone feel comfortable for the whole class ahead.

Research Questions

When it comes to the topic of effective communication, most people will readily agree on the value of ST skills on many academic and work-place occasions. Consequently, in this study, the primary interest in integrating ST into the classroom talk was to create a positive atmosphere for the class ahead. In terms of lesson planning, it seems right to have an ST component right after the greeting and before a warm-up activity. When this study was started, the students were aware of this class routine, but they seemed to have a hard time to get through this class stage. The responses to the teacher's questions/comments in most cases were very unenthusiastic. Very often, it was necessary to address individual students to get an answer to a question, which, pragmatically speaking, was of social nature and was meant to be answered on a voluntary basis.

This observation defined the utmost purpose of this research: to change the ST situation in class. The initial data and self-reflection motivated a general interest and a need to explore ST in its application to the language classroom and its socio-linguistic significance. As the research focus evolved, the research questions were narrowed to the following:

1. What factors keep a chosen group of intermediate students from participating in ST?
2. What teaching strategies should a teacher employ to increase students' participation in ST at the opening stages of the classes?

Teaching Context

The setting for this study was a class of intermediate students within a university professional program majoring in Translation Studies. The students were in their second year; there were six females and three males in the class, all aged 17-20. The class met four times a week for two hours each session. The course followed the Department's curriculum, which equally emphasized the development of such skills as reading, writing, listening, and speaking. While the curriculum specifies which course book should be used for this group, the requirements for activities and methodology are unspecified. So, in many cases a teacher makes her own decisions.

One of these decisions concerns how to teach speaking. For the chosen class, this was done in the frames set by Richards (2006), who distinguishes the following functions of speaking: *1) talk as interaction; 2) talk as transaction;* and *3) talk as performance.* While the course book emphasizes the development of the two last functions, there is nothing in the units about teaching speaking as interaction (ST, in particular). The conversations with the students indicated that their previous experience with learning English did not seem to have underlined this important aspect either.

Data Collection and the Study Design

The data collection started from in-class observations. The purpose of student-observation was to understand the student's SR behaviour, while self-

observation was targeted at learning more about the teacher's communicative behaviour.

To register how the ST evolved, who the most active/inactive participants were, what preferred communication strategies in making ST were (if there were any), a digital voice recorder and reflective notes and drawing were used. Each time the teacher made some after-class reflective notes. This preliminary stage of the study took about four weeks and went along with the initial literature review and transcribing the episodes of ST. In the interest of obtaining useful data, a student survey was conducted to learn more about the students' attitudes about ST and their evaluation of their personal and the group's performance.

The data from the survey allowed to structure a whole-class discussion on ST of which I made notes. This discussion centered around the following topics: ST's pragmatic function, the differences between the cultures and the languages, and practical applications of this skill to social functioning and workplace considerations. The purpose behind this discussion was to change the overall skeptical and indifferent attitude to ST and get the students' commitment to the learning experience ahead.

Based on the literature review and the initial data collection and analysis efforts, a four-week intervention plan was developed (see Table 1). The plan is focused on the ST strategies listed in Table 2.

The post-intervention stage started with two ST role play activities. The students were divided into two groups, and each group was provided with a scenario for a role play: *Tower Block* and *House Parties* (Hadfield, 1996). These role plays require the students to socialize with their partners while solving a communicative task, so there are lots of opportunities for every student to utilize ST extensively while mixing with others. While the students of one group were role playing their parts, others were told to become 'flies on the wall'. The observers were asked to follow the assigned classmate unobtrusively and register his/her performance in ST in specially designed assessment grids. The special areas of interest were the following: the ST topics and the relevant strategies used.

In the next class after the role plays, the students were offered the survey, which they had at the beginning. Through bringing in the same survey, the hope was to see if the students themselves registered any changes, and what suggestions they had for further development of this area.

Results

All in all, 48 episodes of small talk were transcribed: 12 episodes - during the initial stage, 28 episodes from the intervention stage and 8 more episodes of

Table 1
Road map: The intervention stage

1	to raise the students' awareness of the ST social importance through a whole class discussion
2	to get the students' commitment to make an effort and take a more self-aware attitude towards practicing ST in class
3	to provide models of ST episodes and analyze them for the common topics and the strategies, which can help to sustain ST
4	to create and constantly update the class' resource bank of ST episodes (authentic texts, audio and video episodes)
5	to provide the students with opportunities to practise ST in two ways: (1) specially designed activities; and (2) within classroom talk with the teacher, at the beginning of each class
6	to audio record, transcribe the classroom episodes of ST; then, to analyze these episodes together with the students
7	to encourage the students' reflection on their progress and performance in classroom ST situations through keeping logs

Table 2
Strategies for managing small talk

Strategy	Comment about the strategy
shadowing	repeating a word or a short part of what you have just heard to show interest
asking an extra question	clarifying the point or/and getting extra information about what you've just heard
commenting on partner's words	Acknowledging that you've been listening and making some remarks about what your partner has said: That's right/ great/ true.....
commenting on something from the actual, real-life context	Initiating a conversation, inviting your partner to step in. For example, I've always thought this room is kind of stuffy...
verbalizing your agreement or disagreement	This strategy is not so much about finding who is right and who is wrong; this is more of an invitation to share anecdotes, views and ideas of the subject matter
complimenting and complaining	These strategies are great starters for a casual conversation; they naturally lead on to conversation development and smooth flow.

classroom ST, which had taken place when the study was formally finished. These transcripts were analysed in order to single out some tendencies occurring in the data: the length of silences, the participants in the episodes, the number of exchanges, and the preferred communicative strategies as they are outlined above, in Table 2.

The student responses were tabulated to the quantifiable survey components. Additionally, there was a content analysis of the comments from the surveys and the whole-class discussion. This analysis provided valuable insights to answer the first research question: *what keeps the students from participating in ST.*

Having got the answer to the first research question at the pre-intervention stage, it was possible to consider the second research question of what teaching strategies should be used to *increase the students' participation in ST at the opening stages of the classes.*

The teacher's after-class writing and marginal notes were continued to be analysed; and the students' opinions about their progress were collected. They were analysed for general tendencies.

After the role plays, there was a tabulation of the registered cases of the strategies used, as well as the number of times the students chose a particular topic for an interaction.

Given additional time, it would have been reasonable to improve the chosen collection methods for the data related to student beliefs, for example, by organizing a final class discussion of the project with the students. Also, it would have been interesting to get the colleagues' opinions about their classroom ST experience, but unfortunately, only a few committed time to go through an interview. The sample size for this project is small (n=9), so the data was only analysed for general trends and was not subjected to a statistical analysis.

In terms of triangulation, the study's credibility was strengthened through methods triangulation and time triangulation. In the context of this study, it refers to using more than one data source and data collection methods (observations, survey, and whole-class discussion) and collecting the same data at different occasions.

Discussion

Next, some key findings associated with each research question will be addressed.

1. What factors keep students from participating in ST?

First of all, the students' input and the teacher's own self-reflection demonstrated that there were too many assumptions in the teaching; the major one was that there was an expectation that the students should automatically share the teacher's enthusiasm about ST. The students' beliefs about and attitudes towards ST had not been studied before this research project, and the question of whether the students are adequately equipped to make ST had not been addressed. This finding came from the survey and the discussion, both of which turned out to be indispensible in terms of welcoming and considering students' input.

Here are some extracts from what the students said:

"I always feel kind of awkward, when you confront me with your opening questions...

like you are cornering me..."
"I do not really know what to say..."
"Other teachers do not expect us to make ST..."
"I'd love to participate, but I am not quite sure how..."
"It drives my Mom crazy when I try to make ST with her in Russian. She says she feels I want something from her..."

Based on this input and some analysis of the reflective journal, it became possible to define what was wrong in terms of ST teaching in this class:

1. Almost no scaffolding for the students to participate in ST was provided.
2. The students did not fully understand why the teacher expected them to participate in classroom ST.
3. The ground rules for practicing ST as a social and linguistic skill had never been established. The students did not fully realize the different functions of the following structural components of the class: a greeting, a warm-up and a ST episode, as they were structured in the teacher's own understanding.
4. Given the students' background, and the kinds of teaching they were exposed at other classes, the expectations were unrealistic.
5. The repertoire of ST 'starters' needed to be revised. Instead of "cornering" the students with too direct questions about *what* and *how*, some 'friendlier' questions and comments had to be found, to which they would feel comfortable connecting and responding.

These issues were addressed while answering the second research question.

2. What teaching strategies should a teacher employ to increase students' participation in ST at the opening stages of the classes?

The initial literature review and the primary data have proposed a hypothesis that regular practice of ST at the opening stage of the class, can change the students' attitudes about ST.

In a small-scale teaching context like the author's, this hypothesis was confirmed, which became clear from the content analysis of the comments found in the students' logs, in the teacher's own observations, the classroom ST episodes, and in how the final role plays went.

A certain trend was noticed: when a student managed to sustain the ST for 2-3 exchanges, this was when he/ she made an entry in the logs. Since the course book strongly emphasizes the need to justify whatever one says/ writes with an example or an explanation, it was pleasant to see this critical thinking mechanism was realized in students' ST logs.

In fact, their reflections gave a pretty round picture of what had changed and what was happening. Below are some of the illustrative extracts from the students' writing about ST:

Student 1: I liked how my small talk evolved today. I managed to make a comment about my yesterday's Philosophy class, and the teacher asked me an extra question, and I could answer it. I think this is because I have prepared in advance. I was expecting this question because the teacher knows that this is a hard class for our group this semester and she regularly uses this topic for small talk. Next time, I will prepare something else.

Student 2: The teacher started with a compliment about my new hairstyle today. I was glad she has mentioned it, because I like it myself. Last semester I would have just smiled awkwardly and said nothing. Now I know this is not appropriate, and although it was hard, there was a moment of hesitation, but then I remembered the mechanism we were talking about: "Tell me more, please! Give details!", so I went like: "Thank you very much, I am glad you've noticed my new hairstyle. I did it because it was my Dad's birthday yesterday. I wanted to look nice". And then we talked about my Dad and his birthday party. Surprisingly, my classmates stepped in and started asking questions! That was great!

The content analysis of the ST episodes also demonstrates that the students became more self-aware about managing ST. This is true for both spontaneous classroom ST interactions (teacher-students), and the set communicative situations (student-student). Below are two illustrations of these interactions with the teacher's comments on the ST moves and the language.

T: Any news?
S1: I went to Passport Office yesterday.
T: Passport Office? *(shadowing, inviting for more information)*
S1: Yes, I am 20 now, so I have to change my passport. *(giving more information)*
T: Oh… That must be an interesting procedure. *("That's …" comment)*
S1: Interesting?!…. Not at all. *(shadowing + more details)*
T: Why not? *(asking an extra question)*
S1: My photos were ugly…and I spent an hour filling up the form several times. It bored me a lot. *(complaining)*
T: Well, now you can forget about it for a long time…until you are 45, I think. *(offering sympathy)*
S1: Thank you, that's comforting. *("That's …" comment)*
S5: I've always thought that winter is better than summer. *(an implicit invitation either to comment or to ask an extra question)*
S7: Interesting! What makes it so special to you? *(comment + extra question)*
S5: You know, I've always loved the winter's atmosphere the best. *(giving more information)*
S7: Same with me. *(agreeing)*

While these episodes might seem naive to many communication experts, it is possible to argue that they register two major changes. First of all, there was a change in the atmosphere: while at the initial stages of this study, silences, hesitations and pauses took most of the talk time, now it was obvious that the students were actually talking. Secondly, there was a definite change in the students' communicative behaviour: they were trying to build in the strategies they learned and practised, and because they now knew what could fill the conversation, they no longer diverted their eyes from those who were initiating ST, and they also did not expect somebody else to pull the weight, taking a very proactive and responsible role in sustaining the ST.

Overall, the teacher's observations also confirm the positive change. While the initial stage marginal comments registered her frustration at the students' unsatisfactory performance, within the intervention stage, and especially close to its end, her own perception of what was happening became more enthusiastic in tone. These notes also started to register the mechanism which had been practised in class, and how they found their way into spontaneous ST exchanges.

The final role plays were analysed based on the peer assessment of ST performance. While each individual assessment grid was analysed, it also seemed important to have a whole-group picture, which would demonstrate the students' utilization of the topics, appropriate for ST and the mechanisms which made it possible. Table 3 highlights the total number of instances when students made use of a certain ST mechanism and Table 4 registers the total number of their referring to a particular topic within STs.

All in all, given that there was practically no ST happening at the very beginning of the study, with a maximum of one unenthusiastic reply from a most emphatic student, now there was real participation and true attempts by almost all the students to utilize ST strategies.

The students' logs and their peer assessment appeared to confirm that utilizing ST in the opening stages of the classes may have a positive effect on students' willingness and ability to participate in ST. The skill was redefined throughout the project in value terms for the students' effective socio-linguistic functioning. Equally important, it proved to be an important part of the classroom talk. Without purposeful enforcing this element of the classroom talk into the classes, it would not have been possible to showcase that making ST is not just an exercise,

Table 3
Final role play results: ST strategies at work

The mechanisms at play	Total number of observed instances
shadowing	15
asking an extra question	21
commenting on something that your partner has said	25
commenting on something from the actual, real-life context	10
verbalizing your agreement or disagreement	12
complimenting	16
complaining	8

Table 4
Final role play results: ST topics at work

The topic	Total number of observed cases of making ST around the indicated topics
the weather	15
the surroundings	11
traffic	18
how is school going (other classes, homework, tests, exams, University social life)	14
the weekends/ vocations/ last night	12
TV programs from last night	6
recent concerts/ festivals/ soccer matches, etc.	6
city news	4
common acquaintances and what happened to them (exchanging news)	22
health	5

Table 5
Survey results: Pre-intervention and post-intervention stages (n=9)

The statement	Pre-intervention responses	Post-intervention responses
I understand why I need to make ST in class	0	7
I understand why I need to make ST in a real-life social situation	2	9
Classroom ST helps me to make progress in practicing speaking English	2	8
I have been taught how to make ST on several occasions during my years of studying English	4	9
I do not make ST anywhere else, except for this class	9	4
I just want to get through with this stage in class and move on to what really matters (e.g., reading, listening, writing)	6	0
I very often just do not know what to say, and there is no time to think it over	8	1
I am ready to initiate ST myself	0	6

but rather an integral part of unstructured meaningful communication between the teacher and the students, even if this communication is happening within the classroom walls.

The study finished up with a survey, where the students once again evaluated their perception of ST as a sociolinguistic phenomenon, as well as their own skills in managing ST. Table 5 shows the considerable change in the attitudes.

The major changes were in the students' perception of ST, and its function both in class (particularly through classroom talk) and beyond. With the change in the attitudes, there appeared a more self-aware attitude towards how to manage ST, and how to practise this skill within an EFL setting.

Conclusion

This action research project resulted in a number of positive outcomes. The most significant one is the students' improved ST profile. This change became possible when the students were urged to participate in ST as a routine. It was demonstrated that ST is a manageable and learnable skill, the one that has implications that go far beyond a classroom setting, and then the teacher provided constant scaffolding for the learning process. Classroom talk became the platform and the instrument that maximized the students' opportunities to practise ST, and ultimately, to function more effectively in a social setting.

Moreover, there was a lesson learned of how much can be gained from conducting group discussions about the current teaching/learning situations. The students seemed to appreciate being invited into the decision-making process about how to approach the ST

practice in the classes. Therefore, it seems reasonable to plan to do more of such sessions, and this decision resonates with a CLT principle that students need to be aware of their own learning process.

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Move Structure of Research Article Abstracts on Management: Contrastive Study (the Case of English and Russian)

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Although a plethora of papers have proved a seminal role of move-based genre analysis in cross-linguistic research of academic communication and EAP/ESP teaching and learning, there is a lack of respective linguistic or pedagogically motivated studies of research articles (RAs) and their parts aimed at comparing English and Russian. Using Hyland's (2000) 5-move model, the current research seeks to determine the most obvious cross-linguistic differences in the move structure of abstracts of research articles on management for these languages. Based on a move analysis of the English- and Russian-language corpora each comprising 20 unstructured RA abstracts, the research revealed conformity of most English-language abstracts to Hyland's model, while the Russian abstracts principally displayed a three-move structure containing 'purpose', 'method' and 'product', and included the 'introduction' and 'conclusion' moves only occasionally. Other significant discrepancies comprised the English-language authors' tendency to provide precise or detailed indication of research methods and results, in contrast to their brief indication or over-generalized mentioning by Russian writers, as well as greater length of the English-language abstracts and their stricter concordance to standard move sequence than those of the Russian abstracts. Though the research was conducted on relatively small corpora and was descriptive in nature, its findings might be of interest to genre analysts as well as to L2 theorists and practitioners.

Keywords: research article, unstructured abstract, genre analysis, communicative move, cross-lnguistic, move structure

Ever since Swales' (1990) seminal paper on genres in academic discourse, there has been a continuous concern of ESP/EAP theorists and practitioners for structural and linguistic features of written academic genres. This persistent interest has been motivated, on the one hand, by an increase in intercultural written academic communication and, consequently, a need to instruct a growing number of non-native academic research writers in various aspects of academic genres, following structural conventions among the most essential ones for a researcher to succeed internationally. These practical needs have resulted in a plethora of pedagogically motivated genre-based research aiming at achieving communicative competence by L2 learners. On the other hand, this interest is stimulated by advances in linguistic genre studies stemming from the intrinsic logic of knowledge evolution in communicative linguistics.

Genres in contemporary linguistics and pedagogics are increasingly treated as serving specific communicative aims, and analyzed through their rhetorical/communicative move structures (Swales, 1990), with the move seen as a functional discoursal or rhetorical unit performing 'a coherent communicative function in a written or spoken discourse' (Swales, 2004, pp. 226-229). Move-based framework is

prevalent in linguistic and ESP genre analysis giving rise to abundant discipline-specific and cross-disciplinary genre research on research articles (RAs) and their conventional structural parts (Holmes, 1997; Samraj, 2002; Peacock, 2002; Bruce, 2009; Lim, 2010), as well as to a growing number of investigations of their cross-linguistic/cross-cultural variations.

Though the move structure of RA abstracts seems to have been comparatively less studied at the advent of move-based genre analysis, recent years have seen an upsurge of scholarly interest to this RA part. A large number of papers provide insights into the functions and move structure of abstracts (Hyland, 2000; Huckin, 2001; Swales & Feak, 2004; Lores, 2004), their disciplinary variation (Samraj, 2002; 2005) as well as cross-cultural and/or cross-linguistic differences (Martin, 2002; Ju, 2004). Nevertheless, surprisingly scarce research has been conducted into the move structure of RAs on management (Lim, 2006; Peacock, 2011; Piqué-Noguera, 2012; Li, Pramoolsook, & Wang, 2015), with detected papers focusing on management RA abstracts even fewer in number (Piqué-Noguera, 2012; Li, Pramoolsook, & Wang, 2015). Besides, though much of the previous work on the move structure of abstracts across languages reveals significant cross-linguistic/cross-cultural discrepancies, no research has been found into cross-linguistic variation of the move structure between English and Russian-language abstracts.

Given the invariable view of RAs as the main medium of exchanging disciplinary academic knowledge, and the scarcity of move-based cross-linguistic analysis of RA abstracts on management, this study aims at attempting to partially fill this gap by concentrating on a contrastive analysis of the move structure of management RA abstracts in English and Russian. Within this broad purpose, the research focuses on investigating conformity of the abstracts to Hyland's (2000) five-move model, as well as on specifying the most visible additional cross-linguistic differences in the abstract generic structure for the languages.

Based on relatively small corpora, the research was mainly descriptive and did not involve a thorough quantitative analysis, nor analyzing step structure of the moves. The core intention behind this paper was rather to attempt to detect and collate the most evident tendencies in the move structure of RA abstracts in both languages.

This paper develops as follows. After giving a brief overview of the previous papers relevant to achieving the current research objectives, the research corpora and the methodology applied in this study are described. The main trends observed in the move structure of abstracts in both corpora are presented and discussed. Then, the main outcomes are summarized, and the implications for both ESP teaching practice and further research in the area are outlined.

Materials and Methods

Genre Analysis and ESP/EAP

Genre analysis has established itself as one of the most favored and fruitful frameworks for assisting language learners in perceiving, interpreting, and producing academic or professional discourse. One of the reasons for its popularity among ESP/EAP theorists and practitioners is that it provides guidelines for explicit instruction in generic structures for specialized varieties of English, which help non-native speakers of English gain easier access to the international academic community, thus improving their career opportunities and enhancing international communication in academia.

Conventionally, three core approaches in genre studies are identified. The New Rhetoric School concentrates chiefly on genre rhetorical context and its interrelation with the texts rather than on text constituents and textual features, and uses mainly ethnographic research methods. The systemic-functional approach is rooted in linguistics, emphasizes lexico-grammatical and rhetorical patterns in their regular connection to the context, and focuses mainly on pre-genres (e.g., explanations, descriptions, etc.) in wide cultural context.

Finally, the ESP approach underscores that genres belong to and are determined by discourse communities (i.e. academic, professional and societal groups) and their specific communicative purposes, rather than wider culture. In Swales' (1990) groundbreaking work, genre is defined as 'a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes...recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community', thereby constituting the rationale for the genre (p. 58). The communicative purposes are seen to shape both surface and deeper discourse structure, as well as to influence and constrain the choice of structure, content and style (Swales, 1990, p. 58).

Within the ESP genre framework, genre is viewed as having a conventional structure comprising a specific combination of moves. Moves are seen as building blocks of the overall generic communicative structure, communicative/rhetorical instruments that realize 'a sub-set of communicative purposes associated with a genre' (Bhatia, 2001, p. 80). At one extreme, moves 'can be realized by a clause; at the other, by several sentences' (Swales, 2004, p. 20); besides, they are believed to allow a rough subdivision into obligatory/conventional and optional according to their degree of frequency, and further splitting into steps (submoves).

In academic communication, a wider cross-disciplinary community is considered by many to provide insufficient grounding for genre analysis. Though some research has revealed only minor, if any,

cross-disciplinary differences in RA move structure and frequencies, there are still many investigations postulating their importance (Swales, 1990; Hyland, 2008; Peacock, 2011, etc.). As Hyland (2008) argues, to achieve discourse community-based communicative purposes, disciplinary writers draw on the 'persuasive practices of their discipline, encoding ideas, employing warrants, and framing arguments in ways that their potential audience will find most convincing' (p. 3). Therefore, analyzing disciplinary community needs and conventions is seen by many as a convenient level of the ESP approach in genre analysis, making the latter a reliable instrument in ESP/EAP teaching and learning.

RA Abstracts and Their Move Structure

For many years, the prevalent view of the function RA abstracts have in academic communication was that they summarize RA content, thus providing assistance in selecting articles for reading. However, recently a view of abstracts as performing a more complicated role and functioning in several ways simultaneously was developed. In particular, Lores (2004) states that RA abstracts differ from RAs in function, rhetorical structure and linguistic realization. Huckin (2001) maintains that abstracts have several functions in academic communication typically serving as:

1. mini-texts summarizing the research topic, methodology and main findings;
2. screening devices helping readers in deciding whether to read the whole article or not;
3. previews providing readers with guiding lines for their reading;
4. help in indexing for abstract writers and editors.

Besides, Swales and Feak (2004) mention that abstracts assist in reviewing new research. Emphasizing the pivotal role abstracts play in academic knowledge-making based on their function of the first introducing new research to readers, Hyland (2000) argues that abstracts possess both the informative and persuasive functions, with the latter particularly closely connected with disciplinary conventions: 'To gain readers' attention and persuade them to read on, writers need to demonstrate that they not only have something new and worthwhile to say, but that they also have the professional credibility to address their topic as an insider' (p. 63). The function of persuasion could only be performed if abstracts 'recognize and replicate the field's organizational structures, beliefs and authorized institutional practices; they must appeal to readers from within the boundaries of a disciplinary discourse', thus involving 'a certain marketization', i.e. a promotion of oneself and one's

paper through discursive means' (Hyland, 2000, p. 63).

Among the discipline- and culture- or language-influenced academic conventions the writer must follow to gain acceptance by colleagues when abstracting, the move pattern is one of the most important ones. It has, therefore, been subject to scrutiny in abundant research yielding several move structure models. While most of them are composed of three to six moves depending on the discipline and language, the five-move model appears to be among the most productive ones for genre analysis across disciplines and languages. In line with Santos' (1996) and Swales and Feak's (2004) five-move models comprising 'background', 'aim', 'method', 'results', and 'conclusion' moves with some terminological differences, Hyland's (2000) model based on a thorough study of 800 abstracts in 8 science domains includes 5 moves. They are: 'introduction' establishing the context of the paper and motivating the research or discussion; 'purpose' indicating purpose, thesis or hypothesis, outlining the intention behind the paper; 'method' providing information on design, procedures, assumptions, approach, data, etc.; 'product' stating the main findings or results, the argument, or what was accomplished; and 'conclusion' interpreting or extending results beyond the scope of the paper, drawing inferences or pointing to applications or wider implications (Hyland, 2000, p. 67).

RA abstracts are frequently divided into informative, indicative, and mixed (informative-indicative). Since there is no consensus among scholars on precise definitions of these abstract subtypes, in order to categorise abstracts, this paper draws on Yakhontova's (2003) understanding of informative abstracts as including the main research findings as well as measurements or quantities (p. 130), and indicative abstracts as signifying the subject of a paper without going into a detailed account (Yakhontova, 2003, p. 130). Besides, there is a distinction between structured abstracts divided into several formal sections with subheadings and one-paragraph unstructured abstracts.

Research Taxonomy

The present analysis aims at comparing the move frequency, as well as determining other most evident tendencies in the move structure of English-language and Russian-language informative and mixed unstructured abstracts on management. To this end, the research was based on Hyland's (2000) 5-move pattern for RA abstracts which was selected as the move structure prototypical model for two reasons. First, it seems to be among the most detailed and elaborate models currently favored by genre analysts as it includes five moves, thus offering a finer

classification, and, at the same time, embracing all the moves included in other scholars' models irrespective of how they are termed. Second, some moves in this model are designated and treated in a wider way, which could provide easier application of the model to different languages with a view of detecting possible cross-linguistic variation (e.g., 'introduction' instead of frequently used 'background', 'product' instead of conventional 'results').

Corpus and Procedure

For this research, two corpora were complied, the first one comprising informative and mixed (informative-indicative) unstructured abstracts of twenty English-medium research articles in the area of management published from 2000 to 2015, the other one composed of twenty Russian-medium RA abstracts of the same type and period. The articles for the English corpus were selected at random from journals with the impact factor for 2014/2015 exceeding 3.0, and included *Journal of Management, Strategic Management Journal, Journal of Supply Chain Management, Research Policy, Journal of Operations Management, and Journal of Management Studies*. Since all the English-medium journals are international journals with native speakers as members of their editorial boards, it is assumed that the acceptance of the articles by these journals is a sufficient guarantee of their compliance with international standards of academic communication. Therefore, no distinction was drawn between the native speakers and non-native speakers as authors. Russian-medium journals were selected according to appraisal given by three informants from the discipline who characterized these journals as conforming to international standards, which is a relatively rare case in Russian-language academic written communication due to considerable deviation of Russian national publishing standards from the internationally accepted ones. The Russian corpora thus comprised abstracts of RAs published in two top-ranking Russian journals in this domain of science: *Vestnik Sankt-Peterburgskogo Universiteta. Series 8. Management* and *Rossijskij Zhurnal Menedzhmenta.*

Following Peacock (2002), the moves and their boundaries were identified manually through employing both text comprehension and linguistic evidence, with the latter comprising discourse markers and new lexical references as suggested in Ding (2007). Using paragraphing as proposed in the latter work is inapplicable for analyzing the move structure of unstructured abstracts due to their conventional one-paragraph structure. In detecting and labeling the moves in the abstracts in both corpora, this study used the bottom-up approach starting from the sentence

level and then assigning each sentence to a move identified in compliance with Hyland's (2000) model.

Then, the classification was validated by two other raters working independently, one of them holding a 'Candidate of Philological Sciences' degree, which roughly equals a PhD, and the other one a senior university lecturer in English for Academic Purposes. The initial division of the abstracts into moves was iteratively revised to obtain a more precise classification. Then, the recorded findings were compared, and a simple frequency count was run manually and tabulated, the proportions of moves were counted, and the obtained data were tabulated for both the languages. Next, the numerical data were studied to determine if a move was conventional or optional; following Kanoksilapatham (2005): if a move was used in no less than 60 percent of the abstracts in the corpora, it was regarded as conventional for the language; otherwise, it was labelled as optional. Lastly, the data and the detected moves were analyzed to uncover cross-linguistic differences.

Because of a comparatively small size of the corpora, the study did not regularly look into the move-constituting steps and their sequence; rather, it attempted to certify some distinct differences between the languages in the step structures of some moves.

Results and Discussion

Based on Hyland's (2000) model, the present research focusing on identifying cross-linguistic variation in the move structure of unstructured informative and informative-indicative abstracts of English-medium and Russian-medium management RAs, revealed the same set of possible communicative moves for both the corpora. In a number of both English-language (1) and Russian-language (2) RA abstracts, the authors applied the 'introduction' move describing the research context and/or indicating the gap in the existing research or motivation for the research, although the move frequencies in the corpora differed significantly:

(1) Prior research has underscored the importance of internal and external supply chain integration, but the growing role of the supply management organization in developing this capability is not well-specified (Handfield, Cousins, & Petersen, 2015, p. 3).

(2) Interdisciplinary approach to management involves the company's focusing on effective cash management as well as its interest in determining the optimal cash balance. Given the managers and owners' different views of the cash balance problem, cash management

can be seen as a mechanism that enables owners to control managers' activity in line with the firm management theory. Most firms engaged in intentional or unintentional cash management, encounter the cash excess or deficit problems, which induces researchers to analyze these problems and their consequences (Ezerskaja, 2008, p. 30).

The overwhelming majority of both English-language (3) and Russian-language (4) authors included the 'purpose' move in their abstracts:

(3)   This paper examines the effectiveness of producing so-called CoPS, i.e. complex high value products, systems, networks, capital goods, and constructs in a project-based organization PBO, as compared with a more traditional functional matrix organization (Hobday, 2000, p. 871).

(4)   The article proposes a brand capital model for upmarket companies (Andreeva & Prokofyeva, 2010, p. 31).

Most RA abstracts in the English (5) and Russian (6) corpora contained the 'method' move constituted by the same possible steps – the research approach, methods, data, sample, etc., or a combination of these steps:

(5)   Using an event study method, we investigate sample 272 alliances of 69 e-commerce firms (Park, 2004, p. 7).

(6)   The paper reports the results of empirical research conducted from April 2012 to December 2013 using the inductive method (a case study) (Araj & Burmistrova, 2014, p. 55).

In line with the core functions of RA abstracts in academic discourse, most English (7) and Russian (8) authors included the 'product' move:

(7)   Employing the foreignness of multinational enterprise subsidiaries as a particular case of minority identity, I find that managers actively cultivate minority identities by embedding into niche networks, reinforcing alternative expectations, and categorizing themselves into distinct collective identities. These elements of the minority identity enable particular forms of agency – internal experimentation and an external license to deviate – while constraining others – adaptation to the dominant logic and positioning in mature market segments (Edman, 2016, p. 55).

(8)   The research revealed competitive advantages of the company's employer brand in staff recruitment, use and retention, as well as its long-term benefits for human resource management ensured by the employer-branding program (Kucherov & Zavjalova, 2012, p. 22).

In both corpora, cases of employing the 'conclusion' move were found (9, 10) formed by the same possible steps including deductions from the research results, theoretical and/or practical implications, and/or limitations, and recommendations for further research:

(9)   The findings extend theory by highlighting how minority identities are generated and sustained, as well as their implications for agency (Edman, 2016, p. 55).

(10)   This paper also presents limitations of the F-GBE model, as well as recommendations for its practical use (Andreeva & Prokofyeva, 2010, p. 31).

Though the moves detected in the English and Russian corpora were the same, the research revealed some variations between the languages in terms of move frequencies, which are reported in Figure 1.

As it can be concluded from the data indicated in Figure 1, all the five moves are conventional for the English-language abstracts, whereas only three of them ('purpose', 'method' and 'product') appear to be conventional for the Russian language abstracts. This is additionally proved by a comparatively low percentage of occurrence of optional 'introduction' and 'conclusion' moves in the Russian corpus (10% and 35 %, respectively). In contrast to the frequencies of the 'introduction' and 'conclusion' moves, the frequency of the 'purpose', 'method' and 'product' moves are the same or similar in the English and Russian corpora, with the frequencies of the 'purpose' move 90% for both corpora, and some variations detected in the frequencies of the 'method' move (85% for the English corpus and 75% for the Russian corpus) and the 'product' move (100% and 90%, respectively). Thus, it could be assumed that the move structure of English-language abstracts of management RAs corresponds to the scheme proposed by Hyland (2000), while Russian-language RA abstracts tend to follow a three-step move structure comprising 'purpose', 'method', and 'product'.

A more detailed analysis of the move structure involving move subdivision into steps and move subtypes in the English and Russian abstracts revealed both similarities and some obvious differences. In Table 1, the numbers of move-constituting steps and/or move subtypes, with the latter understood as conventional varieties of moves (e.g., aim, thesis, or hypothesis for the 'purpose' move) are shown. Move subtype frequencies and percentages are summarized in the same table line with the move, while move-constituting steps occupy a separate table line each. The table does not reflect the division of 'introduction' and 'conclusion' into steps or move subtypes, since frequencies of these moves in the Russian corpus were low, which makes drawing a valid conclusion on their
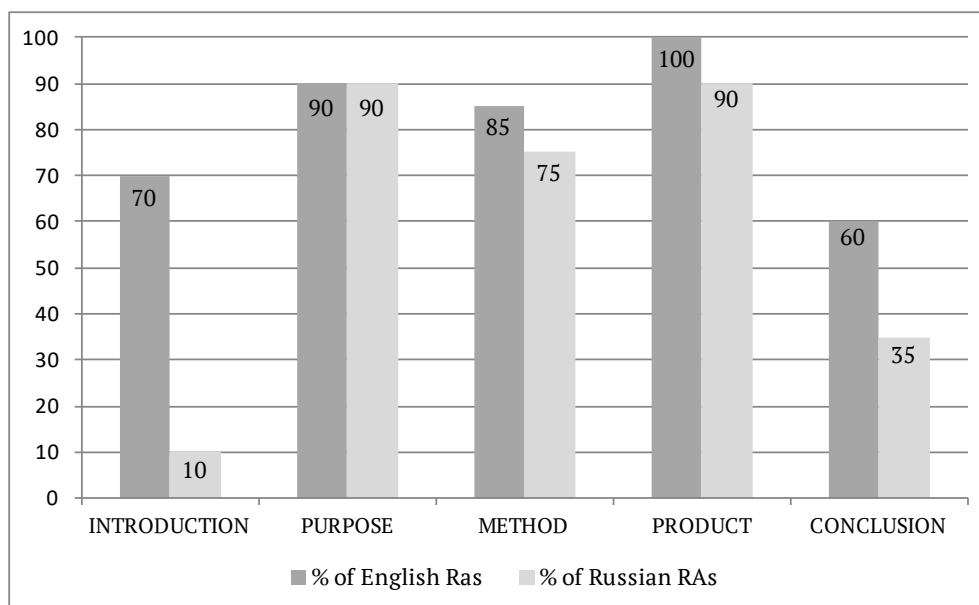
Figure 1. Frequency of moves in the English and Russian corpora.

structure highly improbable.

Table 1 illustrates the most significant differences detected between the corpora in terms of frequency of move subtypes and/or steps. Within the 'purpose' move, both the English and the Russian writers chose between several move subtypes, i. e. 'topic', 'thesis', 'research aim/problem' and 'hypothesis'. The most frequently applied move subtype in both languages was formulating the research aim or problem, which accounted for the move use in 50 % of the abstracts in the English corpus, and in 45 % of the Russian abstracts. The least frequent move variety in both languages was 'hypothesis' used in 15% and 5 % of the abstracts, respectively; a combination of two move subtypes within one move was exceptionally rare in both corpora (5% and 10 %, respectively), which could probably be explained by communicative interchangeability of the 'purpose' move subtypes and the convention of redundancy avoidance in academic writing.

A considerable amount of significant variations between the languages was detected within the 'method' move. First, the English writers preferred to provide a more or less detailed method description or precise indication (60% of the abstracts) even when referred to briefly (5) rather than formally mention using a research method without its exact indication or necessary specification (one abstract only). Meanwhile, only 35% of the Russian authors gave a more or less exact indication of the research method or described it in some detail, and 20% of the Russian-language abstracts contained its generalized mentioning (11):

(11)   The evolution of the concept of company's

business model was studied, and an approach to analyzing this model was proposed (Shatalov, 2010, p. 24).

Second, the 'theoretical framework' and 'sample/ data/delimitations' steps proved to be more frequent in the English language than in Russian (45% versus 30%, and 65% versus 35 % of the abstracts, respectively). Consequently, employing a combination of steps within the 'methods' move rather than using a one-step move structure proved to be significantly more popular among the English authors than among the Russian writers (80% and 30%, respectively). Additionally, some of the English language abstracts contained comments on predictability/unpredictability of the findings and their explanation, which were not detected in the Russian abstracts. Thus, it could be concluded that the English writers tended to dwell on research methods while the Russian authors preferred their brief or, in some cases, overgeneralized indication.

Likewise, analyzing the 'product' move use by the Russian and the English authors yielded a range of important discrepancies between the languages. With compatible frequencies of using the conventional 'product' move by the English and the Russian authors (100% and 90%, respectively), the former provided a more or less detailed or precise description of the research product (7) in 90% of the articles, while the latter gave it in 60% of all the abstracts only, and 20% of the Russian authors preferred to formally mention the fact that some research results were obtained without describing the product even briefly (12):

(12)   Through   analyzing the business models of companies funded by the charitable foundation 'Meeting the change' in 2012, data

Table 1
Number of moves, move subtypes and steps in the English and Russian corpora

Move	Move subtype/step	Number of English RAs containing move/move subtype/step	% of English RAs containing move/ move subtype/ step	Number of Russian RAs containing move/move subtype/step	% of Russian RAs containing move/ move subtype/ step
Introduction	Overall (moves)	14	70	2	10
Purpose	Topic	3	15	6	30
	Thesis	3	15	4	20
	Problem/aim	10	50	9	45
	Hypothesis	3	15	1	5
	Combination of move subtypes	1	5	2	10
	Overall (moves)	18	90	18	90
Method	Theoretical framework	9	45	6	30
	Generalized method mentioning	1	5	4	20
	Method description/ indication	12	60	7	35
	Sample/data/ delimitations	13	65	7	35
	Combination of steps	16	80	6	30
	Overall (moves)	17	85	15	75
Product	Product description/ explanation (hypothesis support included)	18	90	12	60
	Generalized product mentioning	1	5	4	20
	Product/implications	1	5	4	20
	Expected / unexpected results	4	20	0	0
	Explaining the expected / unexpected results	2	10	0	0
	Overall (moves)	20	100	18	90
Conclusion	Overall (moves)	12	60	7	35

were obtained enabling some conclusions and assumptions about business model characteristics in social entrepreneurship (Konjuhovskij & Kuznecova, 2015).

In both corpora, there were some cases when exact identification of the move type was difficult due to its multifunctionality, and the functions most frequently combined within one move were 'product' and 'implications' (usually a part of the 'conclusion' move) as it is shown in the example below (representing the whole abstract, not its part) (13):

(13)   This paper suggests an approach that could provide considering short-term and long-term impacts of marketing activities in companies engaged in value chain; it substantiates directions for designing new indicators that could enable determining the share of value-creating companies in the cumulative outcome. A series of measures aimed at introducing new management technologies is proposed (Tretjak & Sloev, 2012, p. 29).

Besides the reported quantitative differences and some tendencies detected through comparing the frequencies of the moves, steps and their subtypes in the English and the Russian corpora displayed in Table 1, the research revealed two additional variations. First, the English language abstracts proved to be generally longer than the abstracts in Russian regardless of the article length: most abstracts in the English language corpus contained 100 to 200 words, while the majority of the Russian language abstracts ranged from 50 to 120 words in length. These differences could be

partially explained by the journal requirements; however, the latter appear to demonstrate a nationally specific tendency. Additionally, some Russian abstracts displayed variations in the sequence of moves, while English authors preferred to follow their standard order.

It may be supposed that the reported discrepancies in the move structure of the English language and the Russian language abstracts could be explained by cultural specificity of cognitive structures and consequent differences in national academic writing styles. Though cross-cultural variations in thinking and speech patterns have become a field of thorough research only in the last few decades, they are increasingly acknowledged by linguists and are commonly explained either through divergences in national intellectual styles postulated by Galtung (1985), cultural dimensions formulated by Hoefstede (1984), or Hall's (1976) cultural factors. However, explaining differences in the move structure of RA abstracts from cross-cultural perspective appears to be a challenging task requiring a rigorous analysis and is therefore outside the bounds of this research.

Conclusion

Though the cross-linguistic move-based genre analysis has been widely acknowledged to provide a fruitful basis for both linguistic research and ESP/EAP teaching and learning, there is a paucity of contrastive studies of RA move structures in English and Russian. Specifically, the move structure of abstracts has been understudied. By focusing on comparing move types, their sequence and frequencies in unstructured abstracts of RAs on management, this study attempted to reveal and document the most widely used move patterns for each of the languages, as well as the most vivid tendencies in the use of moves in each language.

The analysis demonstrated that the RA abstracts in the English corpus mostly followed Hyland's (2000) 5-move model while the Russian-language abstracts tended to use a 3-move structure comprising 'purpose', 'method' and 'product' moves with the same or similar frequencies as compared to the English language abstracts, but with rare 'introduction' and 'conclusion' moves. A more detailed comparative analysis of specific moves revealed the same 'purpose' move subtypes in both languages, with 'formulating the research aim/problem' being the most frequently used move variety, and 'hypothesis' the least frequently used one. Considerable discrepancies between the languages in the 'method' move included English authors' preference for exact or detailed reference to the methods and procedures used, frequent description

of data, sample or delimitations, and a tendency to use several steps inside this move. However, the Russian language abstracts tended to display the opposite tendencies, thus demonstrating a more generalized approach to abstracting than the English language authors. A similar tendency was found in the use of the 'product' move in these languages. Other important findings comprised a larger size and stricter sequence of moves in the English language abstracts testifying to stricter requirements to abstracting in the English journals, which could probably be accounted for by cross-cultural differences in academic writing styles.

The current research has several implications. First, it might provide some insights into the move structure of scientific discourse in both languages since contrastive linguistic research could be seen as a useful tool of highlighting characteristic features of each of the phenomena contrasted or compared. Second, the research outcomes could be useful for EAP/ESP teaching and learning by assisting in raising students' awareness of the conventional communicative structure of abstracts in both languages and of their cross-linguistic variations, which could help learners to avoid negative pragmatic transfer and be more successful in written academic communication.

The limitations of the research include a comparatively small size of the corpora, which could lead to limited testability of the research outcomes and conclusions. The small corpora also resulted in unfeasibility of finer analysis of the move structure than it is presented in the article, e.g. involving steps and their sequences. Another important limitation is only partial use of quantitative methods leading to the mainly descriptive character of the current research. Moreover, the research outcomes could be explained from the cross-cultural perspective. However, the present study did not aim at giving a detailed account of the move and step frequencies, nor at supplying a profound cross-cultural analysis of the detected discrepancies; rather, its aim was to reveal and document the most striking discrepancies in the move patterns of abstracts of RAs on management.

Further research could use quantitative methods and larger corpora to provide a more comprehensive analysis of the move-and-step structure variations in the English language and the Russian language abstracts of RAs on management focusing on steps and their sequences inside moves. It might also supply a detailed explanation of cross-linguistic variations based on cross-cultural research.

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Every learner of English while learning it wants to speak accurately and clearly. This is why accurate pronunciation is important for people in order to understand and be understood. But not all learners of English can easily obtain this pronunciation skill. Very often something goes wrong: some individuals progress well, others – slowly; some learners make good separate sounds but in connected speech they feel that sounds deteriorate. For many individuals English intonation is a problem. How can teachers help learners of English to obtain this skill? What should be taught and how? Are there any alternatives to listening to speech patterns and drilling them? Mark Hancock answers all of these questions in his PronPack resource books 1-4.

The general approach to teaching pronunciation adopted in the books is to understand others and make them understand you. The pronunciation model is that of the teacher, no matter what country he or she comes from. MP3 Audio files are recorded in British English accent but an American version of the Sound Chart is provided.

PronPack 1, entitled **'Pronunciation Workouts'**, focuses on the sound system of English: it provides learners with the Sound Chart, explains rules of articulation of English vowels and consonants and also familiarises learners with such prosodic features as word stress and tone modifications in connected speech. Book 1 gives 13 Workouts and activities with teaching focus on various issues and is meant for choral drill activities. For example, Workout 1 introduces learners into the Sound system of English; Workouts 5 and 6 – into vowels and 7-8 – into consonant system. Activities vary from simple exploration of the sound system to explanations of articulation and spelling patterns. Workout 5 contains a sufficient number of phonetic exercises which are meant to practice not only vowel sounds but also diphthongs of English.
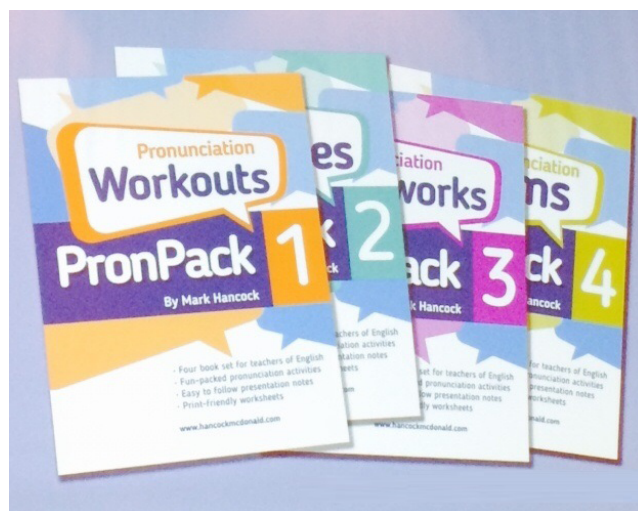
Short and long vowels are practiced separately. All exercises are accompanied by pictures which makes drilling not at all boring. Articulation of vowel sounds is supplemented by pictures of the position of the lips, and of consonants – by pictures of the position of all organs of speech. Word stress is easily explained in Workout 10 as 'making one syllable stronger, longer, louder and higher in pitch, and the other syllables weaker – often, but not always, by reducing the vowel sounds'. Quite a number of exercises follow which practise word stress in shorter and more extended words, which are grouped according to the position of the stressed syllable. In Workout 11 pronunciation of words in English is linked to grammar. Phonetic exercises of this Workout have three levels of difficulty. Workouts 12 and 13 contain ideas about English rhythm and tonic stress, respectively. Rhythm is explained on the usage of content and function words and strong and weak syllables. Example exercises contain six groups of questions and statements which

practice stressed, stressed-unstressed and stressed-2 unstressed syllables in each of the phrases. The last, 13th, Workout introduces a tone unit or a tone group (which forms sentences) and, specifically, the nucleus or tonic stress. The nuclear tone, which can be placed on any word in the sentence changing its meaning, is practised on simple sentences and special questions.

PronPack 2 ('**Pronunciation puzzles'**) provides pronunciation puzzles – game-like activities which can be done individually or in pairs and even small groups. These activities include mazes, sudoku, word searches, and crosswords. The benefit of using these activities lies in mastering patterns of pronunciation (letter combinations, word stress in word families, and word combinations). The difficulty of puzzles increases starting with individual sounds, proceeding to grammatical endings and ending with word stress, tonic stress and connected speech. Activities 2.1-2.5 involve finding a route through a maze at different language levels; activities 2.6 – sound sudoku; there is also a 'puzzle parquet' and 'stress jigsaw' and 'stress mazes', a spelling puzzle. Puzzle 2.12 is devoted to word chains. All activities are designed for different language levels.

PronPack 3 is called '**Pronunciation Pairworks'**, and it was designed for students to work in twos or threes or even fours. Basically pairwork is very beneficial to the students: they develop self-confidence and self-esteem when working without teacher's guidance; it allows them to interact with other learners and exchange opinions and gives them a sense of achievement after they have reached the goal. It could be even more efficient if groupings were varied. PronPack 3 is a book which gives learners all of these benefits. It, first, focuses on individual sounds through minimal pairs which are practised on maps, sentence pairs, picture descriptions or games. Then pairworks become more sophisticated and concentrate on word stress, tonic stress and phrasal homophones. All the activities cover everyday themes, which are very familiar to the learners: world and street maps, air travel, dominoes, games of dice, pinball, and real life situations. The activities are meant for different language levels: from elementary upwards but can be used by various age groups.

PronPack 4 ('**Pronunciation Poems'**) contains rhymes, chants, limericks, raps, and song lyrics specifically designed to practise individual sounds, consonant clusters, grammatical −*ed* and −*s* endings, weak forms, and connected speech. Poems are easy to remember and, therefore, to drill. They cover such everyday issues as living in woods, appearance description, cat and mouse, looking after a horse, eating out, playing football, wearing shoes, skiing, eating fruit and vegetables, education, playing a musical instrument and others.

PronPack books are logical, well-structured, useful for all language levels and all age groups. They are up-to-date and, taking into account that there are in general not many pronunciation books, allow learners in an entertaining way to obtain pronunciation skills to a level when they understand how they are speaking and they are understood. The books are written by an author who has been writing teaching materials for many years and practising teaching throughout his professional career. Mark Hancock is a teacher who loves teaching pronunciation (a precious quality!) and shares this love with others.

Notes for contributors

1. Journal of Language and Education is an electronic journal of the National Research University Higher School of Economics (HSE), Russia.

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    (7) Introduction: The statement of the problem should be stated in the introduction in a clear and concise manner.

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