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**6th International Conference on
Applied Linguistics Issues (ALI 2019)**

July 19-20, 2019, Congress Hall Vasilevsky, St.Petersburg, Russia

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Selected Papers E-Book | **6th International Conference on Applied Linguistics Issues (ALI 2019)** | **Published by ISCDBU Inc.**

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COMMUNICATIONS

Selected Papers E-Book

6ᵗʰ International Conference on Applied Linguistics Issues
(ALI 2019)
19-20 July 2019, St. Petersburg, Russia

Welcome to the 6th International Conference on Applied Linguistics Issues
19-20 July 2019, St. Petersburg, Russia

We are pleased that you could join us for two intense days of collaborative examination of the issues related to "applied linguistics", an interdisciplinary field of study that has long fascinated scholars. Notwithstanding its longevity, applied linguistics seems not fully capable of dealing with many recently emerging "applied" issues of language. In particular, in the post method era of language teaching, many emerging issues have not yet been deeply delved into by scholars and researchers in the field. With new problems always arising for analysis, applied linguistics seems to be a highly fascinating and challenging filed with a miscellaneous coverage of issues in both theory and practice.

In addition to a busy and exciting program of papers presented by participants, we had two distinguished plenary speakers: Professor Ana M. Gimeno-Sanz with special focus on Technology Today to Satisfy Ever More Demanding Foreign Language Learners, and Professor Alireza Jalilifar with orientation on Conventionalized Text Transference.

I would like to express my gratitude to all participants for making ALI 2019 a vibrant and significant intellectual event. I am also thankful to the **ISCDBU, Bauman Moscow State Technical University, Adam Mickiewics University** (the Faculty of Modern Languages and Literatures), **University of Zielona Gora,** and **NAS RA** for their academic contribution to the event. The quality of the conference surely is due to the attempts made by all the respected members on the scientific committee and reviewers as well.

Sincerely,

Hassan Soleimani
Conference Scientific Chair
Payame Noor University, Iran
July. 10, 2019

Hassan Soleimani
Conference Chair
Associate Professor of Applied Linguistics
Payame Noor University, Iran

Hassan Soleimani is an associate professor of applied linguistics at Payame Noor University, Iran. Dr. Soleimani received his Ph. D. in applied linguistics from Isfahan University in 2008. He has authored several books including *Non-Parametric Statistics for Applied Linguistics Research* in 2010 and a chapter in Issues in *Materials Development* by Sense Publishers, the Netherlands, in 2016. He is the author of several articles and has presented some papers in international conferences. His special interests are SLA issues in general and CALL in particular. He is presently teaching Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), First Language Acquisition, and EFL Curriculum at PNU PhD post graduate school. Dr. Soleimani is the editor-in-chief of Applied Linguistics Research Journal (ISSN 2651-2629).

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PUBLICATIONS
ARTICLES IN JOURNALS
(Thomson Reuters Web of Science)

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ISC, Scopus, International Journals
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Books

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Soleimani, H. & Mola Esmaili, M. (2016). Technology in materials development: A CALL perspective. In M. Azarnoosh, M, Zeraatpishe, A. Faravani, and Kargozari, H. R. (Eds.), Issues in materials development (135-145). The Netherlands: Sense Publishers.

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Soleimani, H. (1998). Language teaching methodology tests. Qom: Nasr Publication.

Plenary Speaker

Ana Gimeno-Sanz, **Professor of Applied Linguistics**
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Email: agimeno@upvnet.upv.es

Ana Gimeno-Sanz is Full Professor of English Language in the Department of Applied Linguistics at the Universidad Politécnica de Valencia (UPV), Spain, where she has also held various managerial positions. She has published numerous research papers on language learning and teaching, more specifically in the fields of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL). Prof. Gimeno-Sanz is Head of the CAMILLE Research Group, devoted to research in CALL and e-Learning. She has been Project Manager of several funded multimedia CALL research and development projects that have led to the publication of a number of language courses on CD-ROM and online. Through *Proyecto InGenio,* funded by UPV, she has created an online dedicated CALL authoring tool and content manager to enable the publication of interactive courseware for foreign language learning on the web. With this tool she has co-authored *Intermediate Online English* and *FCE Online Course and Tester,* two courses which are delivered through the *InGenio* learning environment and which are widely used by learners around the world. In 2016, she also co-authored the first Spanish as a foreign language Massive Open Online Course (MOOC) delivered on the US-based edX platform, which attracted over 100.000 learners from around the world. Ana Gimeno-Sanz serves on the Editorial Boards of two major CALL journals: *ReCALL* (CUP) and *Computer-Assisted Language Learning Journal* (Taylor and Francis), as well as being editor-in-chief of *The EUROCALL Review.* She has been President of the European Association for Computer Assisted Language Learning (EUROCALL) for 6 years (2005-2011) and is currently President of WorldCALL.

Professor Ana m. Gimeno-Sanz Publications on CALL

Some of my Powerpoint conference presentations: http://www.slideshare.net/anagimeno712
Gimeno Sanz, A. (Ed.) The EUROCALL Review. Available from ttp://polipapers.upv.es/index.php/eurocall/index and
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Plenary Speaker

Alireza Jalilifar, **Professor of Applied Linguistics**
Speech Title
The Past to the Present: An Innovative Attempt into Conventionalized Text Transference
Shahid Chamran University of Ahvaz, Iran
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Alireza Jalilifar is Professor of Applied Linguistics at Shahid Chamran University of Ahvaz, Iran, where he teaches discourse analysis, applied linguistics and advanced research. He has published extensively and presented papers in many conferences on academic discourses. He is also the author of three books in academic discourse and two books in reading for academic purposes. Jalilifar is the editor-in-chief of Journal of Research in Applied Linguistics and member of the editorial board of a few other journals. Besides, Jalilifar has supervised more than 70 MA and 15 PhD theses in Iran. His main interests include second language writing, genre analysis, and academic discourse.

Qualifications

PhD in applied linguistics, Isfahan University, Iran, awarded June, 2005 (His dissertation project was a genre-based study of thesis and dissertation abstracts written by native and non-native English researchers in nine disciplines).

MA in applied linguistics, Shahid Chamran University of Ahvaz, Iran, awarded June 1997 (His thesis was a critical analysis of ESP courses presented to medical students).

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2009 Associate professor: accreditation issued by Shahid Chamran University of Ahvaz
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Professional Experience

2018- current   vice-chancellor for Academic Affairs, Shahid Chamran Uiversity of Ahvaz, Iran
2014- 2018   Dean of the Faculty of Letters & Humanities, Shahid Chamran Uiversity of Ahvaz, Iran
2010-2014   Lecturer and Director of International Relations Office, Shahid Chamran University of Ahvaz, Iran
2005-2010   English instructor and lecturer at BA and MA levels, Shahid Chamran University of Ahvaz, Iran

Articles published in international journals

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PhD theses supervised

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4. Dhahir, J. K. (2015). A Cross-cultural Analysis of Blurbs in English and Arabic: An Investigation into Generic Structure and Appraisal Markers. Ahvaz, Iran: Shahid Chamran University of Ahvaz.

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13. Namdari, N. (2010). *A comparative study of research article and Ph.D. dissertation discussion sections: Variations across sub-disciplines of applied linguistics*. Ahvaz: SCU.

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30. Pourabbasi, R. (2015). A comparative study of thematicity in high-graded and low-graded compositions written by Persian-speaking learners of English. Ahvaz: SCU.
31. Koraei, S. (2016). Investigating Evaluative Strategies in Blurbs of Fictions: Exploring the Informative and Promotional Aspects. Ahvaz: SCU.
32. Behjat, S. (2016). A Comparative Study of Persuasive Language in English and Persian TV Advertisements. Ahvaz: SCU.
33. Arast, M. (2016). Writer Visibility in Applied Linguistics Research Articles vs Thesis Proposals: Analysis of Introduction and Methodology. Ahvaz: SCU.
34. Abbasi Montazeri, E. (2016). Investigating Thematicity in Applied Linguistics Textbooks: A Comparative Study of Foreword, Introduction and Preface. Ahvaz: SCU.
35. Sharifi, M. (2016). Cross-Linguistic Study of Attitudinal Language of Press Conferences of Iranian and American Foreign Ministers: The Nuclear Negotiations in Focus. Ahvaz: SCU.
36. Jamshidi, M. (2017). Power and Social of Status of Citation Verbs in Applied Linguistics Research Article Introduction and Discussion Sections: Implications for Research Writing Courses. Ahvaz: SCU.

Projects

Izadi, A., & Jalilifar, A. R. (2009). *Analysis of politeness strategies in academic defense sessions* (Project No.). Abadan: Islamic Azad University- Abadan Branch.

Jalilifar, A. R. (2011). *Who is held in stitches: A pragmatic analysis of jokes* (Project No.). Ahvaz: SCU.

Honors and Awards

2011-   Leading professionals of the world 2011 by the Research and Educational Department of the International Biographical Center (IBC), England
2010   Khuzestan's leading researcher in Human Sciences
2009   Leading researcher in Human Sciences—Shahid Chamran University of Ahvaz

PhD theses reviewed at international level

Meihami, Hosein, (2019). *The Role of Negotiation in Developing ESP and EGP Teachers' Cultural Identity*. Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran.

Mirzaei Jegarlooei, Seyyed Hooshmand, (Sept. 2018) *(Im)Politeness Strategies in Iranian L2 Classes: Use of Discourse Markers*. Yazd University. Iran.

Makki, Mohammad, (April, 2016). *The language of Iranian news journalism: news values, genres, and the reporting styles*. University of New South Wales, Australia.

Sorayyaei Azar, Ali (2017). A genre analysis of review articles in applied linguistics. Faculty of Languages and Linguistics, UNIVERSITY OF MALAYA, KUALA LUMPUR.

Affiliated Journals

Editor-in-chief of the **Journal of Research in Applied Linguistics** since 2011 onward

Editorial board member of the **Journal of Research in Applied Linguistics** since 2009 onward

Editorial board member of the **Journal of Issues in English Language Teaching** since 2009

Editorial board member of the **Journal of Iranian English for Academic Purposes** since 2010

Editorial board member of the **Journal of Modern Languages** since 2015

Editorial board member of the **Journal of Applied Linguistics and Discourse Analysis** since 2013

Advisory board member of **Journal of Language and Communication 2015**-Onward,

Association Membership

Member of the International Pragmatics Association (IPrA) since 2007

Member of Teaching English Language and Literature Society of Iran since 2005

Head of Teaching English Language and Literature Society of Iran since 2015

Conferences Chaired

Chair of the 1st National conference on Language, Discourse and Pragmatics, 2009

Chair of the 2nd International conference on Language, Discourse and Pragmatics, 2011

Chair of the 3rd International conference on Language, Discourse and Pragmatics, 2013

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Table of Contents

Main Results of Analysis of Language Legislation of all 85 Russian Federation's Subjects (regions)

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Abstract

The analysis of the language legislation of all 85 subjects of the Russian Federation shows complete heterogeneity and diversity. Common legal guidelines in Federal law do not exist, because Federal legislation is obsolete and is largely whitespace and conflict. The subjects of the Russian Federation, on whose territory different ethnic groups, both large and indigenous, historically live, solve the problem of preservation and development of the languages of these peoples on their own. This activity leads to the fact that the unique languages of the peoples of the Russian Federation, especially those that do not have a written language, are gradually disappearing and are in danger of complete disappearance. The absence of Federal full-fledged language legislation that would guarantee funding, the possibility of full-scale scientific research of languages, the creation of alphabets for rare non-written languages and a whole range of other measures of state support, leads to the fact that we in Russia today do not even know a clear number of languages of the peoples of Russia. Two now existing law at the Federal level is absolutely not govern the scope of the considered relations. The constitutional consolidation of the possibility of granting state status to the languages of the peoples of the republics that are part of the Russian Federation does not guarantee the preservation of these languages. On the contrary, this situation may lead to the fact that the Russian Federation will have 55 state languages, which will significantly complicate the state structure of our already complex country. In addition, the presence of many state languages is also a cause of ethnic tension. The research conducted by the author allows to formulate a number of conclusions and proposals, among which the main place is the need for a full-scale language reform in the Russian Federation.

Keywords: language legislation, indigenous, state language, disappearing languages

Introduction

Language legislation of the Russian Federation is heterogeneous, but generally reflects the real picture of the language situation in each subject.

All 22 republics of the Russian Federation have adopted independent legislative acts on languages (with the exception of the republics of Crimea, Dagestan, North Ossetia – Alania, which are currently considering relevant bills).

Not all of these legislative acts establish the state status of languages, but in some cases this is done by the Basic law (Constitution) of the Republic.

The only Republic where national languages have no state status is the Republic of Karelia. In this sense, it represents an example of a fairly successful option to preserve the national languages, without giving them the status of a state, the Republic adopted the state program, which allows us to successfully solve the task - the Karelian, Vepsian and Finnish languages enjoy full state support. This generally confirms one of the fundamental conclusions of fundamental importance in the implementation of the state language policy – the state status of the language itself has no significance in its preservation, development, teaching and learning.

The only example of legislative consolidation of the language as one of the state symbols is very interesting. Article 3, paragraph 1, of the Law of the Republic of Ingushetia of 16 August 1996 No. 12-RZ "On the state languages of the Republic of Ingushetia" establishes that the Ingush language as the state language is a symbol of the statehood of the Republic of Ingushetia. Please note that the Constitution of the Russian Federation does not consider the Russian language as a state symbol. In our opinion, such consolidation in the Federal legislation will make it possible to use the law enforcement functions of the state and the norms of law enforcement in full, which will provide full legal protection of the state language. The example of the Republic of Ingushetia should become an incentive for appropriate regulation of the national language of our country – Russian.

The example of legal contradiction existing in the language legislation of the Republic of Yakutia is also interesting. The Constitution of the Republic of Sakha (Yakutia) of April 04, 1992 in article 46 establishes that the state languages of the Republic of Sakha (Yakutia) are the language of Sakha and Russian.

At the same time, the Law of the Republic of Sakha (Yakutia) of October 16, 1992 No. 1170-XII "On languages in the Republic of Sakha (Yakutia)" in Art. 5 establishes that the Russian language in the territory of the Republic of

Sakha (Yakutia) is the state language and is used as a means of interethnic communication. There is no indication of the state status of the Sakha language in the law.

There is a contradiction between these two acts: The Constitution establishes the status of the state languages for the two languages – Russian and Sakha, while the Law recognizes only Russian as the state language.

n addition, article 46 of the Constitution of the Republic of Sakha (Yakutia) stipulates that the languages of the indigenous peoples of the North are official in places of compact residence of these peoples. And article 6 of the law further establishes that the Evenk, Yukaghir, Dolgan, Chukchi languages are recognized as local official languages in the places of residence of these peoples and are used on an equal basis with the state languages. This means a complete lack of legal regulation, since the legislation of the Russian Federation does not contain a definition of the concept of "official" language. And how can the "official" language can be used on a par with the state language?

The General legal picture of languages at the national level is as follows: 27 state languages have been established at the national level, without taking into account the yet unapproved law of the Republic of Dagestan, which is planned to give state status to another 28 languages. Thus, the Russian Federation will receive 55 state languages.

Legislation of the Edges on languages also presents a heterogeneous picture. In 7 of the 9 regions of the Russian Federation there is no relevant law on languages, which is primarily due to the lack of indigenous nationalities.

In two Edges, due to geographical ethnic characteristics, relevant legislation has been adopted:

- The law of the Kamchatka Edge of March 31, 2017 No. 72 "On native languages of indigenous peoples of the North, Siberia and the Far East of the Russian Federation living in the territory of the Kamchatka Territory", paragraph 2 of article 1 of which the native languages of indigenous small peoples include: Aleutian, Alutor, Itelmen, Koryak, Chukchi, Evenk, Eskimo.

- The law of Krasnoyarsk Edge from 05 November, 2015 No 9-3816 "On native (national) languages of the indigenous minorities living on the territory of the Krasnoyarsk Edge", article 1 of which refers to the native language Dolgan, Ket, Nganasan, Nenets, Selkup, Chulym, Evenk, Enets.

At the same time, it is necessary to pay attention to the legal uncertainty of this law. Point 2 of Art. 2 contains the rule according to which in places of traditional residence and traditional economic activity of small peoples along with the state language of the Russian Federation in official spheres of communication the native language of the small people living in the corresponding district can be used if other is not provided by the Federal legislation. Again, we emphasize that the "official sphere of communication" - a term incomprehensible to the law enforcement in the absence of a definition. In addition, the possibility of using such a language on a par with the state language also remains unclear. This quasi-legal construction, in fact, gives the listed languages the state status that contradicts Art. 68 of the Constitution of the Russian Federation to which such right is assigned only to the republics.

Oblast's legislation on languages is even more heterogeneous.

Despite the absence of relevant laws on languages in most regions (29 of 45 oblasts), there are many examples of legislative consolidation of languages as objects of traditional culture, which is expressed, as a rule, in legislative acts on culture (Amur, Vladimir, Volgograd, Vologda, Voronezh, Ivanovo, Novosibirsk, Orenburg, Samara).

The legislation of the Tyumen and Ulyanovsk oblasts regulates language relations by the legislation on national and cultural autonomies.

That is, in most cases, language relations have been moved to the area of cultural legislation. This situation inevitably entails very little and minimal participation by the state and regional authorities in the preservation and development of languages and small peoples.

The geographical features of the ethnic groups living in some areas also led to other features of legal regulation. For example, the Charter of the Irkutsk oblast of April 15, 2009, unlike all other regions, specifically establishes that the state authorities of the Irkutsk region create conditions for the preservation and development of languages, cultures and other components of the national identity of the Buryat people and other peoples traditionally living in the territory of the Ust-Orda Buryat district (item 1 article 17).

The most interesting is the Law of the Magadan Oblast of March 30, 2016 № 2013-OZ "On native languages of indigenous peoples of the North living in the Magadan Oblast".

First of all, it should be noted that this law contains a very detailed legal definition of the native languages of indigenous minorities (art. 1), according to which the native languages of indigenous peoples are "historically determined and fixed in the public consciousness of indigenous peoples sign systems that serve as a natural way of human communication and mental activity, a way of national identity, a means of storage and transmission of information and are the basis and means of implementation and development of national culture of indigenous peoples (hereinafter also - native languages)".

We consider such legal definition as a model for its establishment in the Federal legislation.

The law provides for a wide range of measures of state support for indigenous minorities of the North (art. 4), as well as the creation and interaction with the Magadan regional public Association of indigenous minorities and ethnic groups of the North, indigenous communities (art. 9).

The law of the Murmansk Oblast of June 30, 2008 № 984-01-ZMO "On state support of indigenous peoples of the North in the Murmansk region, carrying out traditional economic activities" in article 1 gives another interesting definition: "indigenous peoples of the North in the Murmansk region (hereinafter - small peoples) - peoples living in the territories of traditional settlement of their ancestors, preserving the traditional way of life, economic activity and crafts, numbering in the Russian Federation less than 50 thousand people and realizing themselves as independent ethnic communities. In accordance with the legislation of the Russian Federation and the Charter of the Murmansk region, the Sami are a small people in the Murmansk region." Also very good wording.

It should be noted that the legislation of the Murmansk Oblast is the most complete in terms of the regularity of linguistic and ethnic relations among the entire array of linguistic legislation of the Russian Federation.

The definitions of the Murmansk legislation represent a very valuable legal material from the point of view of the development and improvement of the Federal language legislation.

I would like to pay special attention to the legislation of Sakhalin.

The law of the Sakhalin Oblast of October 16, 2007 No. 91-ZO "On languages of the indigenous peoples of the North living in the territory of the Sakhalin region" in item 1 of Art. 1 fixes that the persons belonging to indigenous small peoples of the North (Nanais, Nivkh, Oroki (Ulta), Evenks) living in the territory of the Sakhalin region (further - indigenous peoples) have the right of free choice of language of communication, education, training and creativity.

Article 3, paragraph 1. The state authorities of the Sakhalin region assist persons belonging to indigenous peoples in the organization of various forms of education and training of children in their native language, regardless of their number and in accordance with their needs.

An important way to preserve languages is established in article 4 the obligation to use the media operating on indigenous languages, dialects indigenous to preserve them and original development, as well as established in section 1 of article 5 measures of material incentives for teachers: "Teachers who teach native languages of indigenous peoples in educational institutions shall be provided with an additional payment at the expense of the regional budget in the amount of 15 per cent of the tariff rate (salary) of the Unified wage scale for public sector employees. Financing of the specified expenses is performed in the order established by the law of the Sakhalin region on the regional budget of the Sakhalin region for the next financial year.".

As you can see, the regional legislator fully and thoughtfully reacted to the issues of legal regulation of languages of relations and the development of measures of state support.

However, from the point of view of legal regulation of relations on the use of the national language of the Russian Federation - Russian, the most striking and the only example is the legislation of the Kaliningrad Oblast. The law of the Kaliningrad Oblast of 22 February 1996 No. 36 "On the protection of the Russian language in the territory of the Kaliningrad Oblast", adopted by the regional Duma on 21 December 1995, provides, for example, in article 6, that the protection of the Russian language in the territory of the Kaliningrad region in the manner prescribed by the legislation of the Russian Federation and the Kaliningrad region, is the civil duty of each of its inhabitants, the duty of officials of public authorities, local governments, enterprises, institutions and organizations, regardless of their type of activity, forms of ownership, organizational and legal structure and departmental affiliation. This really is no anymore in any subject of the Russian Federation!!!

Cities of Federal importance – Moscow, St. Petersburg and Sevastopol do not have legal regulation of language relations.

The only Autonomous Oblast of the Russian Federation – Jewish, has its own Law of the Jewish Autonomous Oblast of October 26, 2017 № 150-OZ "On some issues of protection of the rights of citizens to freely choose the language of communication, education, training and creativity in the Jewish Autonomous Oblast."

As the preamble of the law indicates, its objectives are to protect the rights of citizens to freely choose the language of communication, education, training and creativity, as well as to preserve and develop languages, including the Yiddish language.

Among the legislation of the Autonomous okrugs (4 in total), a special example of Russian legislation is the law on a specific language, and adopted in the subject not entitled to establish the state language - the Law of the Nenets Autonomous district of March 18, 2013 № 4-OZ "On the Nenets language in the territory of the Nenets Autonomous Okrug ".

The most interesting from the point of view of legal regulation of language relations is the unique legislative provision established in the Law of the Khanty-Mansiysk Autonomous Okrug – Ugra of December 4, 2001 № 89-OZ "On languages of indigenous peoples of the North living in the territory of the Khanty-Mansi Autonomous Okrug".

Article 4 stipulates that the public authorities of the Autonomous Okrug shall create conditions for scientific research in the field of linguistic problems of indigenous minorities. And in places of compact residence of indigenous minorities, public authorities and local governments of municipalities of the Autonomous Okrug contribute to the creation of conditions for the functioning of pre-school and educational institutions, in which these institutions, along with education and training, organize the possibility of continuous learning and teaching of native languages. Such regulation is simply obliged to become a model for the establishment of the Federal language legislation.

It should also be noted that a similar analogy is contained in the Law of the Chukotka Autonomous Okrug of October 23, 2017 No. 65-OZ "On the native languages of the indigenous peoples of the North, Siberia and the Far East of the Russian Federation living in the territory of the Chukotka Autonomous Okrug".

So, as we can see, the language legislation of the Russian Federation is heterogeneous, does not have the basic legal guidelines that should be set by Federal legislation. It uses terms that have no legal definition. There is no common understanding of what language relations are, therefore, there is no uniform mechanism for their regulation.

At the same time, the language legislation contains isolated examples of brilliant ideas that should be used in the development of Federal legislation, such as giving the language the meaning of the state symbol or the development of scientific research in the field of language problems of the peoples of the Russian Federation.

But first of all, language relations unique in the number and diversity of ethnic groups requires large-scale research, because today there is not even a complete listing of all the languages of the Russian Federation in the regulatory legal acts.

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Phraseological Units as a Mirror of National Mentality

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Abstract

The relevance of the study is caused by the continuing interest of linguists to the problem of phraseology as a special – national – sign in the language system, reflecting the national-cultural features of the perception of the world, national mentality, ideological and mental attitudes of native speakers. The analysis of scientific literature showed that the phraseological layer reflecting the national character of a person is rather understudied. In this regard, the purpose of this study is to identify the features of the national mentality of the British based on the analysis of the internal form of phraseological units (PUs), reflecting the nature of a person. In the given study there were analyzed the theoretical works of Russian and foreign linguists on the problems of definition of the term "phraseological unit"; there were analyzed semantic features, sources of origin and figurative bases of the selected PUs; were identified the specific characteristics inherent in the British, based on the frequency parameter of the components of phraseological units. The analysis of figurative sources of PUs, reflecting the national character of a person, revealed a large number of PUs with the following components: zoonyms, somatism, phytonyms and colors (46%); this indicates the national-cultural specificity of PUs, which is expressed in the figurative content of these units and is associated with the cultural and national features of the British. The practical significance of this study is that the results can be used in the lectures and courses of intercultural communication, linguoculturology and lexicology.

Keywords: phraseological unit, national mentality, national-cultural specificity, figurative basis, internal form

1. Introduction

Due to their semantic and idiomatic component, phraseological units attract the attention of Russian and foreign linguists up to now and occupy a special place in the theory of semantic, psycholinguistic and linguocultural studies. The Swiss linguist Charles Bally [1] first formulated the basic definition of the phraseological unit as a set phrase in 1909.

Many scientists classify aphorisms, as well as proverbs and sayings as PUs [2,3]. For example, I. I. Chernysheva refers proverbs to stable phrases, noting that the phraseological units that have syntactic structure of sentences belong to this class [3].

N.P. Norrick also refers proverbs with a figurative meaning to idioms, since their proverbial meaning differs from the literal reading of a proverb [4].

D' Arcais Giovanni B. Flores defines idiom as "a phrasal unit which meaning cannot be derived from its syntactic components" [6, p. 79]. It is noted that linguists have not come to a common understanding of the term [7]. Despite the sufficient development of perspective of phraseological units, a single definition of phraseological units has not yet been developed. A.V. Kunin defines PU as a "set combination of lexemes with fully or partially reinterpreted meaning" [8, p. 301]. R. N. Popov writes that "PU is a complex linguistic unit, a "set" of features of which is hardly identified"; he refers to the characteristics of PUs "semantic cohesion and indivisibility with the "external" separate form of components of a given language unit" [9, p. 205]. I. V. Arnold ranks "linguistic stability, semantic integrity and separate form" as the most common features of phraseological units [10, p. 167].

Therefore, we can conclude that a PU is a set phrase associated with the unity of the meaning contained in it. In speech, this unity is reproduced in the finished form and acts as a single member of the sentence.

Phraseological fund of the language is the most valuable source of information about the culture and mentality of the people, people's ideas about myths, customs, rituals, habits, morals, behavior, etc. The phraseological units, reflecting in their semantics the long process of development of the culture of the people, fix and transmit from generation to generation cultural attitudes and stereotypes, standards and archetypes.

2. Research methodology

The material of the study was selected by the method of a continuous sampling from the Large English-Russian phraseological dictionary of A.V. Kunin (Moscow, 2005) [11], from the Cambridge Idioms Dictionary (Cambridge University Press, 2006) [12] and Oxford Dictionary of English Idioms (Oxford University Press, 2010) [13].

The total number of analyzed PUs is 751.

The analysis of theoretical and supporting data comprise the usage of such methods as the descriptive method, the method of the quantitative analysis, the method of the semantic analysis, the continuous sampling method, the classification method and elements of etymological analysis.

3. Study results and their discussion

The sources of origin of PUs in modern English are very diverse [14]. A.V. Kunin divides all phraseological units into 4 semantic groups:

1. Native English PUs;
2. Cross-language borrowings;
3. Intra-language borrowings (PUs, for example, borrowed from American English);
4. PUs, which are borrowed in a foreign language form [8].

Here are some examples from a rather large group of phraseological Units-Americanisms that were borrowed, and are currently not perceived as borrowed: stickler for time (meaning "punctuality"); be on one's high horse (meaning "arrogance"); a calamity howler (meaning cowardice); be a lot of noise, shoot, throw the bull (meaning "talkativeness").

The reasons for such borrowing are the growing influence of the United States on the whole world in political, economic and cultural life, and consequently the growing interest of the media to this country.

A number of phraseological units can be attributed to intra-language borrowings, which filled erased images with new meanings.

For example, the meaning "cruelty": take-no-prisoners – very determined, uncompromising; cruel, ruthless. Initially, it was used in the context of military vocabulary, then it turned into the colloquial vocabulary through the media.

The meaning "stupidity": brain washed. Originally, this PU was used in a narrow meaning: zombified; however, today it is used in a broad meaning: brainless, narrow-minded.

The meaning "naivety": easy game, easy meat – trustful; easy prey.

A special place is occupied by the PUs, which arose in the English language on the basis of biblical scenes, since Christianity is the dominant religion of the English-speaking countries, thus historically there was a widespread quoting of the Bible, followed by the transition of expression in the phrasicon.

Examples of such PUs are: put one's hand to the plough/plow ("hard work"); a judgment of Solomon; as wise as Solomon ("perception, mind"); as hard as flint as the nether millstone; drop/weep millstones ("cruelty"); eat the bread of idleness ("laziness"); worship the golden calf ("greed"); unstable as water ("unpredictability"); turn the other cheek (submission).

These PUs were formed as a result of the metaphorization process. By the etymological analysis of the given phraseological units, it can be concluded that all expressions that go back to the Bible texts have been reinterpreted in the English language. Among them are phraseological units that have a meaning close to the original, and expressions that have completely lost their semantic connection with the biblical context.

A large number of PUs, reflecting the national character, arose from works of art:

The meaning "stupidity": cousin Betty – feeble-minded, stupid (from the novel of Honore de Balzac "Cousin Betty").

The meaning "hypocrisy": Jekyll and Hyde – someone with both an evil and a good personality (the hero of R. L. Stevenson's novel "Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde"); Pied Piper – a man who gives false promises (the hero of R. Browning's poem).

The meaning "laziness": Weary Willie – feebling, slack person (the image created by the American Clown E. Kelly).

As for the figurative sources of PUs, reflecting the national character, a large number of phraseological units with components of zoonyms, somatisms, phytonyms and color namings were revealed.

For example, phraseological units with the meanings "envy" and "jealousy" have a common lexeme "green": look through green glasses, green-eyed, green-eyed monster.

Antonymous PUs are expressed in opposite colors: the meaning "cheerfulness": to take a rose-coloured view of smth. and "pessimism": see through blue glasses. Similar are the PUs with the meaning "insight, mind": to see things in their true colors and "intelligence": know black from white.

Other examples of PUs with color components are: rose-tinted spectacles, look through rose-coloured glasses ("naivety"); swear black is white ("falsehood"); blushing is virtue's colour ("modesty"); blush to the roots of one's hair, ears are red ("shyness"); not worth a red cent ("obedience"); treat smb. white ("sincerity"); red blood ("courage"); have a yellow streak, white liver, milk-livered ("cowardice"); a white man ("honesty").

A large number of set expressions of the English language includes somatisms. For example, using the word "liver". The usage of the image of the liver as an associative word with the semantics of "bravery/courage" is explained by the following historical and cultural fact: before the battle, the Greeks determined the outcome of the battle by the color of

the liver of the killed animal. If the liver was red, then the Greeks were expecting to win, but if it was white – to lose. Thus, the white liver symbolized misfortune and was often explained by the warrior's cowardice. Hence the PUs with this lexeme: milk-livered, chicken-liver (meaning "cowardice"), clean liver ("honesty"), close liver ("greed").

Quite frequent in English is the somatism "heart": get / have / keep one's tail up, a heart of oak ("courage"); to be whole-hearted, single heart / mind ("sincerity"); work one's heart out, have one's heart in one's work ("hard work"); to be open-hearted, tender-heart, kind / soft / warm-hearted ("responsiveness"); stout heart, to be single-hearted / single-minded ("loyalty").

In most PUs, the component "head/brain" is connected with the lexeme "head/brain" in one of its meanings. The imagery of these PUs is associated with allegorical representations of the head as a physical repository of thoughts, knowledge and ideas, examples of these phraseological units are: big head, high head ("arrogance"); false head ("hypocrisy"); battery one's head against a brick/a stone wall ("stubbornness"); hot head ("recklessness"); have one's head in the clouds ("carefree"); level-headed, a cool head, keep one's head ("restraint"); a clever head ("insight, mind").

The next group of phraseological units with the lexeme "hand" reveals the diverse sides of human nature: clean hands ("sincerity"); a dab hand, a safe pair of hands ("hard work"); single-handed ("independence"); even-handed ("justice"); free-handed; large-handed; large-handedness; open-handedness; sharing the heart; large handedness; open handedness ("generosity"); cool hand ("hostility"); iron hand (fist) in a velvet glove ("hypocrisy"); iron hand ("cruelty"); light in hand ("naive").

Phraseological units with the component "tongue" in its diversity describe person through verbal activities: he knows much who knows how to hold his tongue ("restraint"); rough tongue ("hostility"); a honey tongue ("hypocrisy"); a ready tongue, a sharp tongue, to have a long/loose tongue, loose tongue, have too much tongue, his tongue is too long for his teeth ("jaw"); a silver/oily tongue ("flattery").

In comparison with other somatisms, phraseological units with the lexeme "ear" are not so numerous: draw the bow up the ear ("vigor/ energy"); have nothing between the ears, dead above the ears ("stupidity"); tickle ears ("flattery").

PUs with the component "foot" are diverse in their meaning: flat-footed ("determination, courage"); light of foot ("intelligence"); put foot in mouth ("stupid"); standing on own two feet, be on one's feet ("independence"); grass does not grow under one's feet/ never let anything grow under his feet ("vigor"); let the grass grow under one's feet ("laziness"); get/have cold feet ("cowardice"); have your feet on the ground ("earthiness").

The imagery of body parts as a repository of some qualities is expressed in the anthropocentric character of the semantics of PUs. Thus, it is not surprising that a huge number of phraseological units with a component-somatism prevails in English when describing a person's character.

Analyzing the figurative sources of the studied PUs, a large number of PUs with the component-name of animals should be noted. This is due to the fact that man and animal since ancient times live in close cooperation with each other. We indicate the most frequent images of animals.

PUs with the component "fox": sly fox, an old fox, as cunning as a fox ("cunning"). In English and in Russian, the image of a fox has the meaning of "cunning" under the influence of established mythological and folklore traditions.

PUs with the component "ass / donkey": every ass thoughts himself worthy to stand with king's horses ("arrogance"); as stupid as a donkey ("stupidity"); talk the hind leg off a donkey ("talkativeness"). On the example of these phraseological units it can be concluded that by comparison with this animal the most negative features of the human personality are revealed.

PUs with the component "dog": lazy dog ("laziness"); work like a dog ("hard work"); a clever dog ("perception, mind"); a dull dog ("boring person"); dirty dog ("meanness"); a sad dog, beware of a silent dog and still waters ("unsociable"); to blush like a black/blue dog ("impudence"); dog in the manger ("greed"). The image of the dog is interesting because it contains various and sometimes opposite characteristics.

PUs with components-phytonyms are few in number: a hard nut to crack, grass the nettle ("determination, courage"); know how many beans make five ("intelligence"); pure as a lily ("nobility"); grass does not grow under one's feet ("energy"); let the grass grow under one's feet ("laziness").

Comparing the number of selected phraseological units with the given components, it was found that the most frequent are PUs with components-somatisms (in the amount of: 196 PUs = 26%); followed by PUs with components-zoonyms (in the amount of: 105 PUs = 14%); further PUs with the colour namings (in the amount of: 25 PUs = 3%) and with phytonyms (in the amount of: 24 PUs = 3%).
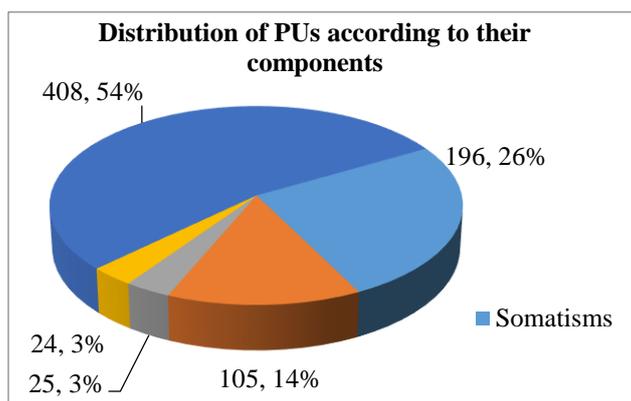
Fig. 1. Quantitative and percentage distribution of PUs according to their components

Among the PUs with components-somatisms the greatest number is occupied by the phraseological units with the lexeme "heart". The heart in English symbolizes the repository of feelings, thus words with this associative convey the moral qualities of a person (kindness, courage, etc.).

Next, the quantitative ratio is followed by PUs with the lexemes "head" and "eye". These semes equally reveal various aspects of the human character.
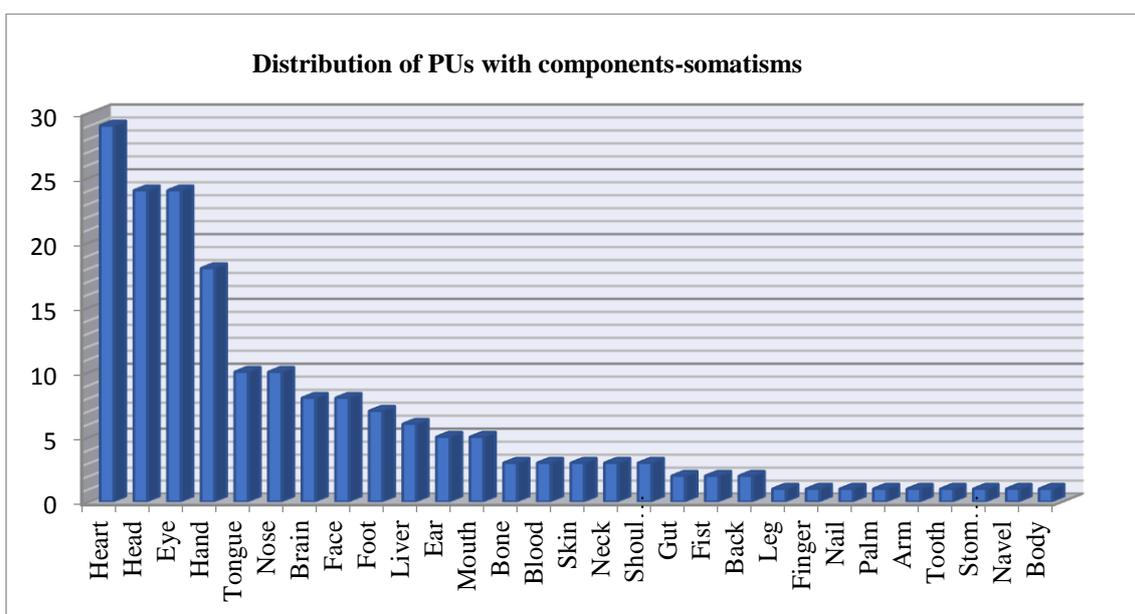
Fig. 2. Quantitative distribution of PUs with components-somatisms

Through the identification of acceptable and unacceptable traits from the point of view of the British we have an opportunity to reveal the features of the mentality of the people.

As components of the national character of the British were selected the most frequent groups of PUs with negative and positive evaluative connotation with the presence of 20 or more phraseological units.

The positive characteristics include courage, diligence, cheerfulness, sociability, independence, loyalty and restraint. These characteristics are approved as a statement of socially established assessment in the English mentality.

The negative characteristics include arrogance, cowardice, stupidity, greed, hypocrisy and hostility, falsehood. These characteristics are condemned in the English mentality.

4. Conclusions

The phrasicon is one of the main components of a language, which most clearly reflects the peculiarities of the mentality of peoples. In the phraseological units, ideas about habits, values, national features, and character of cultural and historical traditions of a nation are recorded [14].

The national character is the psychological characteristics of a particular people, set national traditions and habits that distinguish one nation from another.

The study examined and analyzed the PUs of the English language, reflecting the features of the national character of the British.

The analysis showed that the number of PUs expressing negative traits exceeds the number of PUs expressing positive traits. This is due to a more acute emotional and verbal reaction to negative actions.

The study of phraseological units that reflect the character of a person, based on the analysis and classifications of the modern English language, allowed to establish the diversity and uniqueness of stable expressions, to determine the features of the world perception of the British, to establish the individuality and identity of the English mentality, to understand what images are the basis of the selected PUs.

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Rising and Falling Nuclear Tones in Political Debate: Range and Attitudes

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Abstract

The phenomenon of TV political debate has much been discussed recently due to their high popularity and great persuasive value as an instrument in political struggle for power.
Political debates aim at informing and persuasion. Recent American presidential debates showed that persuasive function comes undoubtedly forward therefore any linguistic feature used in the context is aiming at convincing and persuading.
Electro-acoustic analysis of speech done in Praat v6.0.21 allows to describe some tonal and range peculiarities of nuclear low falling and rising tones. Traditionally they are used as a grammatical compliment rather than expressing subjective modality but we suppose that the mentioned above tones can be used to help the speaker fulfill persuasive function. The paper presents a part of a bigger investigation into prosodic peculiarities of political debate.
As a rule the debates start in the non-emotional key so the choice of the prosodic nuclear tones lies within the limits of emotionally non-marked means, which, in its turn, is the subject matter of our investigation.
Tonal prosodic component (as a nucleus) of non-emotional part of debates is presented mostly through the variety of low falling and rising and mid level nuclear tones pronounced within the limits of semi-narrow or medium register in the lower part of the tonal range.
The paper proves that prosodic attitudes, expressed by basic simple tones acquire new meanings and implications in political speech and these new semantic shades fulfil pragmatic function of persuasion. The prosodic parameter of the nuclear tones which is modified for the purpose is mostly tonal range, although the place of the utterance in the phonetic paragraph also plays an important role. Sometimes a contour can be replaced for its counterpart to add some personal evaluative attitude to the matter while in general the speech seems to sound impartial and unemotional.

Keywords: phonostylistic identity of political debate, tonal component, tonal levels, emotionally neutral prosody, allotones, tonal movement range

Introduction

The phenomenon of TV political debate has much been discussed recently due to their high popularity and great persuasive value as an instrument in political struggle for power. Any political text is thought through and made up so that any minute detail acquires great importance in the perspective. Prosodic characteristics are of no exception. It is common knowledge that prosody is capable of expressing various grammatical and semantic meanings and thus is widely used by speakers as a means of manipulation with the audience's decision making.

Political debates presuppose that two aims are realized at the same time: that of informing and that of persuasion. This idea has been expressed by E.I. Sheigal (Sheigal, 2000), E. B. Suhotskaya and N.M. Perelgut (Perelgut, Suhotskaya, 2013) and many others (Baranov,1991), (Dijk, 1998), (Feldman ed., 1998). However, recent American presidential debates showed that persuasive function comes undoubtedly forward therefore any linguistic feature used in the context is aiming at convincing and persuading. The current paper presents a study into some prosodic means of expressing persuasive function in political debate. On the basis of electro-acoustic analysis of speech it describes some tonal and range peculiarities of nuclear low falling and rising tones. Although they are traditionally thought to be used as a grammatical compliment rather than expressing subjective modality (but not in the least devoid of the latter), the authors managed to prove the point that the mentioned above tones can be used to help the speaker fulfill persuasive function. The paper presents a part of a bigger investigation into prosodic peculiarities of political debate.

Method

The current investigation involved analyzing speech samples of politicians performing in political debate (https://www.nytimes.com/2015), (https://www.politico.com/story/2016), (http://fortune.com/2016), (https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/the-fix/wp/2016). According to widespread practice and for the sake of convenience we divided the speech body of the debate into two bulks: emotionally neutral and emotionally coloured. In this part of our study we

limit our sounding data to emotionally neutral bulk. The electro-acoustic analysis was done in Praat v6.0.21. Tonal height was described in the following terms: extra low, low, low mid, high mid, high and extra high. Tonal range was described in the following terms: narrow, semi-narrow, medium, semi-wide, wide. All video speeches were converted into audio files for the sake of analysis.

Discussion

Political discourse is thought to be one of a kind for the following strong reasons. First, it occupies some intermediate position among speech, communication and linguistic behavior on the one hand and fixed text on the other (Sheigal, 2000). Second, it has several genres beginning with informal like political scandals, TV political debates, press conferences ending in most formal like laws and decrees. The main objective of all kinds of political communication is the struggle to gain the majority of voices in the elections to maintain power, which turns political discourse into a kind of speech performance accomplished within the limits of the politicians' institutional activity.

Political debates present the type of dialogical speech forms with the leading persuasive and informative function. From the point of view of the structure, debates are similar to an interview in the way that a question-answer form prevails. In addition, there are variants where participants exchange their opinions without actually being asked questions. Recent practices of previous years showed that political debates can turn into a very heated discussion where emotions are overwhelming, besides, the choice of emotional tones depends but little on the syntactical structure of the utterance but on its semantic aspect.

We have noticed that as a rule the debates start in the non-emotional key so the choice of the prosodic nuclear tones lies within the limits of emotionally non-marked means, which, in its turn, is the subject matter of our investigation.

Tonal prosodic component (as a nucleus) of non-emotional part of debates is presented mostly through the variety of low falling and rising and mid level nuclear tones pronounced within the limits of semi-narrow or medium register in the lower part of the tonal range.

Low falling and rising tones and all their allotones respectively are traditionally regarded as emotionally not coloured (with some exceptions (O'Connor, 1973) and mostly serving to fulfil grammatical meaning of finality or non-finality (Kingdon, 1958).

Within the population of falling allotones it is possible to distinguish three main variants. They are: (1) the one with the most narrow range possible to distinguish and beginning and ending on the low tonal level; (2) the one with the narrow range and beginning on the low and ending on the extra low tonal levels; (3) the one with the semi-narrow range and beginning on the low mid and ending on the extra low tonal levels.

Within the population of rising allotones it is also possible to distinguish three main variants. They are: (4) the one with the narrow tone and beginning on the extra low and ending on the low tonal levels; (5) the one with the semi-narrow range and beginning on the low and ending on the low mid tonal levels; (6) the one with the medium range and beginning on the extra low and ending on the low mid /high mid tonal levels.

All the mentioned above can be pictured on the following diagram.
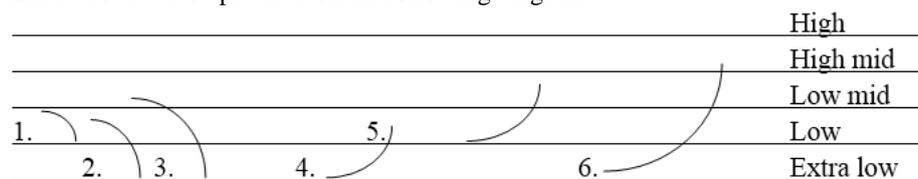
Fig. 1 – Tonal diagram

We consider it relevant to mention that all the tonal moves are studied within a phonetic paragraph taking the fact proved by Yu. Dubovsky (Dubovsky, 1983) that the prosodic realisations make up a system, abide by common laws and influence one another.

Results

Having performed electro-acoustic analysis of the politicians' speeches we managed to acquire the following consistent patterns.

A phonetic paragraph as a rule starts with phrase ending in a falling allotone of the semi-narrow range. Other utterances (3 to 5 in number) are realised with the help of the narrow range in case a falling tone is opted for. The last phrase of the final phonetic paragraph is usually realised with the tone which looks very much like the one in the first; what is more, in case of a compound sentence both parts tend to be pronounced this way. In other words, there exists an obvious tendency to widen the range of the first and final falling terminal tones.

This pattern may be explained by the unconscious wish of the speaker to strengthen the first and the final ideas which usually stay in the audience's minds better. Moreover, the first sentence usually presents the key idea of the utterance which introduces a new semantic turn in the speech. The speakers therefore use the falling tone with a wider range (reaching semi-narrow or medium ranges) and ending on the extra low tonal level which sounds more weighty and persuasive. This kind of a falling allotone preserves the idea of final, categorical attitude but acquires an additional implication of being strong and compelling.

The variety of the rising tones was wider in the part where the participants answer questions rather than when they state their ideas. This can be explained by the fact that the basic attitude conveyed by the rising tones is non-final, non-categorical and implying continuation which in its turn gives the speakers the opportunity to think over their answers. Thus most of the answers start with an introductory phrase pronounced with the allotone beginning on the extra low tonal level which is physically more convenient after the silence. The tonal range varies from narrow to medium. We have traced a curious tendency: the wider range the speaker uses for the parenthesis the longer is the pause after it. This looks like a common strategy used by the speakers to win time to think of a good answer and not to look hesitant or unsure. The idea can also be supported by the fact that almost all other intonation groups ending in a rising allotone within a phonetic paragraph are separated with a junction and tonal contrast.

Rising allotones found within a phonetic paragraph commonly start on the low pitch level with a narrow tonal range and fulfil a grammatical function of continuation.

We cannot but mention a curious incidental use of rising allotones in statements which by their grammatical and pragmatic function are supposed to be final and categorical. By their tonal parameters these allotones are no different from those realising purely grammatical function. Alongside with John Wells (Wells, 2006) we assume that this manner of using rising tones is characteristic of semantic implications of uncertainty or scepticism. It is also possible that a function of a falling-rising tone is acquired by a simple rising one, that of contradiction, correction or contrast.

Conclusion

To sum up, prosodic attitudes, expressed by basic simple tones acquire new meanings and implications in political speech and these new semantic shades fulfil pragmatic function of persuasion. The prosodic parameter of the nuclear tones which is modified for the purpose is mostly tonal range, although the place of the utterance in the phonetic paragraph also plays an important role. Sometimes a contour can be replaced for its counterpart to add some personal evaluative attitude to the matter while in general the speech seems to sound impartial and unemotional.

We are far from the notion that this study is complete and in the next works we intend to study prosodic possibilities of contrastive emphasis in political speeches and prosodic peculiarities of emotionally coloured part of political debate.

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Ecocritical Echoes in William Wordsworth's *Tintern Abbey*

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Abstract

As one of the great Nature poems of Wordsworth, Lines Composed a Few Miles above Tintern Abbey on Revisiting the Banks of the Wye during a Tour (1798) sheds light on the way Nature affected Wordsworth's memory and enabled him to reach mental growth through his philosophical interconnection with it. Through an ecocritical study of the chosen poem, Tintern Abbey, the present paper aims to take the clash between the Yale School critics, the New Historicists, and the ecocritics into consideration to show how the contradictory views of the afore-mentioned critics led to a Green reading of the poem in the light of Ecocriticism. Accordingly, it can be inferred that throughout the poem we witness Wordsworth's concern about man's neglectful treatment of Nature and his struggle to originate a concordant relationship between humans and their environment which is grounded in holism and mutual respect. As a result, the main conclusion that can be drawn from this short study is that Wordsworth's main aim in this poem is to inaugurate a harmonious bond between man and Nature and emphasize the helpful effect of Nature on man's getting experienced, which is accompanied by imagination and profound thought and bridges the gaps between human beings and Nature.

Keywords: Nature, Ecocriticism, Metamorphosis, Tintern Abbey

Introduction

Published in 1798, Lines Composed a Few Miles above Tintern Abbey on Revisiting the Banks of the Wye during a Tour (1798) is considered as one of nature poems of Wordsworth which addresses mortality, faith in Nature, familial love, and other issues. The poem is a source of environmental recognition which sheds light on the sense of belonging to the place in an interdependent ecological community. The narrative of Tintern Abbey according to McKusick, "consists of the growth of the poet's mind as it evolves from an immediate sensation of pleasure in natural objects toward a more mediated response that exults in the power of imagination to modify and recombine the objects of perception" (2000, p. 25). The stress on the word "Nature" is much more than rivers, trees, rocks, etc.; besides by these points Wordsworth "means a power, a force, a dynamic principle that animates, that molds with plastic might the physical furnishings of the universe" (Poetry of Wordsworth, 1965, p. 84). Thus, within this ecological study, I will focus on the viewpoints of the Yale School critics, the New Historicists, and the ecocritics to unravel the ecocritical echoes that have strengthened the green reading of the poem to show the effect of Nature on the reciprocity of Human-Nature bond.

Discussion

As a key term in the literature of Romanticism, Nature serves as both "a locus of imaginative energy" and "a potent source of intellectual ideas" (McKusick, 2000, p. 28) that acts as the guiding agent for the Romantics. Considering the role of Nature as the "potent source of intellectual ideas," the three stages of the poet's mental transformation in Tintern Abbey can be summarized as childhood, youth, and maturity. During the first stage, the poet's interaction with Nature is similar to that of animals when there is no conscious reaction to experience. The second stage can be explained as the process of mental and bodily activities when there is direct emotional reaction to life without any thought. Unlike the previous stages, the third stage can be analyzed as the meditation process and intellectual growth followed by profound thought. Though the poet expresses himself as the "lover of the meadows and the woods," (p. 103) his reaction to Nature is not the same as before. He is in a mature state and can feel the "sad music of humanity" (p. 91).

I argue that throughout the poem the frivolity of passed memories and interconnection with Nature is the savior of the poet's mind and life in the sordid days of adult life clouded with the inchoate modernity; for creating a barrier between oneself and one's society is out of the question, since humans are as much the product of their social environments as their natural environments. In fact, the impact of Nature on humans is so deep that it can lead people to self-examination through their communion with the natural surroundings, rather than seeking an unmediated relation with Nature. Nature is the agent that guides humans' souls and inspires the poet's creativity. Likewise, I claim that the poem unearths Wordsworth's concern about man's neglectful treatment of Nature. For such ecocritics as J. Bate, J. McKusick, and K. Kroeber the poem explains, "how all parts of human nature and physical nature interactively contribute to an inclusive vitality of being multiform but not hierarchized" (as cited in Tovey, 2011, p. 53-4). In an

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effort to counter the effect of the Enlightenment models that separated humans from Nature in a hierarchal tradition and brought about a gap between them whose offspring was dominion of man over Nature, Wordsworth, I strongly allege, sought to originate a concordant relationship between humans and their environment based on holism and respect.

As an important figure of the Enlightenment period in Europe, Sir Francis Bacon considered science as a means of "sovereignty, dominion, and mastery of man over nature" (Keller, 1985, p. 34). In his book, Imagining Nature (2002), Hutchings claims Romantics questioned "the traditional Western notion that humans should exercise a hierarchical and narrowly anthropocentric 'dominion' over the entire non-human portion of creation" (as cited in Matthews, 2008, p. 17). The notion of mastery of man over Nature stems from the three convictions that consider humans superior to Nature as first, classical Greek humanism which grants superiority to human beings over animals due to their rationality; secondly, the Cartesian mind/body dualism, which maintains that human beings, on the account of possessing souls, are superior to animals; and finally, the Judeo-Christian notion of creation as a "Great Chain of Being," which views human beings superior to animals and plants due to the hierarchal concept that God has given man a superior position in the "Great Chain of Being" (Britto, 2012, p. 721-2). Once again, I admit that this single poem is an effort to counteract such beliefs and goes to great lengths to emphasize that respectful coexistence of man with Nature inspires a love of self and natural surroundings that comes not only from observation of Nature, but also from the emotional interaction with it.

In fact, Romantics suggested that there was a possibility for the emergence of the "holistic concept of nature's economy" (Hutchings, "Ecocriticism in British Romantic Studies", 2012, p. 178), which brings to light the point that both humans and non-humans have intrinsic values regardless of any binary opposition. If the hierarchy between man and Nature is abolished or, at least, questioned, the division between man and Nature gets shattered and a cooperative relation will come into fruition whose product, as Mahoney asserts, is "one life" as the result of a marriage between "mind and nature" which is "a rich life and full" (qtd. in Matthews, 2008, p. 18).

Due to the clash between the New Historicists and the later critics, the ecocritical reading of Wordsworth's oeuvre came into being to the effect that "Romantic ecology," as Kroeber viewed, was an alternative for breaking the "spell of antagonistic oppositionalism" (as cited in Yu, 2004, p. 2) which allowed us to replace the "crude old model of Left and Right" (Bate, Romantic Ecology, 1991, p. 3) that had influenced the New Historicism. While the Green critics appreciated Wordsworth for nourishing his bond with Nature and gaining spiritual and mental progress, the New Historicists blamed him for his giving up on his political ideas and returning to Nature or solipsism, i.e. wordsworthian or egotistical sublime. In sharp contrast to the New Historicists' tendency to historicize all the poems of Wordsworth, concur with the ecocritics who are engaged in the self of the Romantic poet; as McGann in The Romantic Ideology (1989) argues, Romanticism "is dominated by a Romantic Ideology, by an uncritical absorption in Romanticism's self-representations" (as cited in Yu, 2004, p. 3).

In an effort to establish a harmonious bond between man and Nature and emphasize the helpful effect of Nature on man's getting experienced, Wordsworth sought to stress the true value of Nature as a result of what Beer calls, "passionate experience" (as cited in Matthews, 2008, p. 19) accompanied by imagination and profound thought that results in a profound bond with Nature. Kirwan believes that such a condition paves the way for humans' getting farther from the limitations of 'civilization' and going beyond "the labyrinth of history [and] customs" (as cited in Matthews, 2008, p. 19) and moving to the "sweet" "lore" of "Nature" that affects the human "heart". If the observer tries to "watch and receive" Nature open-heartedly, an understanding of the self and the ecological environments can be achieved. So, by rejecting socially constructed forms of knowledge one can reach an insightful understanding of Nature which is not achievable "in the dull and endless strife" of book learning (Tintern Abbey, 2006, p. 9).

In order to further clarify this point, I will take "Expostulation and Reply" (1798) into account to explain the power of Nature in granting man perception of life. In the poem, Wordsworth claims that being in tune with Nature in a state of contemplation and silence can be much more informative than learning from books. The poet maintains that wisdom comes from Nature, rather than from the human realm:

"The eye—it cannot choose but see;
We cannot bid the ear be still;
Our bodies feel, where 'er they be,
Against or with our will.
"Nor less I deem that there are Powers
Which of themselves our mind impress;
That we can feed this mind of ours
In a wise passiveness.
………………………
"— Then ask not wherefore, here, alone,
Conversing as I may,

I sit upon this old grey stone,
And dream my time away." (2006, 17-24, 29-32)

The speaker acknowledges that humans cannot prevent their senses from reacting to the external Nature. As expressed in the poem, our organs and sensations may act "Against or with our will". The emphasis on "will" intensifies the concept of "mastery" of man over Nature which serves as Wordsworth's critique of domination. The term "passive wisdom" shows Nature's tendency to act upon man. In a way, the poet suggests that natural powers are as active as human powers (Matthews, 2008, p. 21). As said by Beach, "The poet Wordsworth has been for a century synonym of wholesomeness and piety" (2013, p. 346). In conjunction with such views, I hold that Wordsworth's finding consolation in Nature and his emphasis on communion with Nature in Tintern Abbey has been a call to awaken people to the true value of Nature in humans' lives and give them a head start to brood over the ecocritical messages inherent in each line of his poetry to the extent that they can get at the truth of Human-Nature interdependency.

As we may acknowledge, Wordsworth's contributions to Lyrical Ballads are not "nature poems" in the traditional sense in that they do not offer "precise and detailed description of natural objects" (McKusick, 2000, p. 56). As an alternative, they reveal the possibility of a profound connection with Nature, where man is affected by natural surroundings, whose result is the formation of a harmonious relationship between man and Nature. McKusick asserts, "they [the poems in Lyrical Ballads] evoke a dynamic world through the vivid sensory imagery of its beholding by an engaged participant. It is the poetry of unmediated experience, not of detached description" (p. 56). The hope for an "unmediated

experience" of one's natural surroundings devoid of societal mediation is the ideal of Romantic poets, which as Kirwan views, serves as the prerequisite "to commune with nature" (as cited in Matthews, 2008, p. 22). Wordsworth's ideal has been to reconcile man with Nature and ameliorate humans' ecological horizons so that they will achieve a constructive self-exploration. In fact, I would argue that for Wordsworth, the impact of Nature on humans is so deep that it can lead them to self-examination through their communion with the natural surroundings, rather than seeking an unmediated relation with Nature.

In keeping with Ang's view, I contend that Romantic philosophy of Nature is a philosophy of human self in which "being was built up and strengthened in communion with nature" (as cited in Matthews, 2008, p. 26). Hence, Nature is the agent that guides humans' souls and inspires the writer's creativity. As a result, respectful harmony of man with Nature inspires a love of self and natural surroundings that comes not only from observation of Nature, but also from the emotional interaction with Nature. Thanks to the stress on interaction Wordsworth's poetry is considered as, "an evocation of lived experience, rather than a specific description of the natural world" (McKusick, 2000, p. 25). For this reason, we can infer that in Romantic philosophy and such poems as Tintern Abbey the unity between humans and their environment serves as the director of imagination and creativity so much so that Nature is viewed as the power that controls life on earth and life of the poet's mind.

Humans' readiness to receive Nature, results in a mediated relation between man and Nature owing to the wordsworthian poetic conventions. As Bowra declares, Nature "has much to give, if [humans] be only ready to receive it" (as cited in Matthews, 2008, p. 33). Tintern Abbey unlocks the wordsworthian view of Human-Nature attachment. McKusick refers to the opening lines of the poem as an instance of Wordsworth's emphasis on the "peaceful coexistence of human habitation and wildness in the same place" (p. 67):

. . . Once again I see
These hedge-rows, hardly hedge-rows, little lines
Of sportive wood run wild: these pastoral farms,
Green to the very door. . .. (Wordsworth, 2006, 14-17)

Though the poem reveals Human-Nature coexistence, the speaker contemplates the way in which humanity and Nature are "simultaneously connected and divided" (Tovey, 2011, p. 57). Toward the middle of the poem, Wordsworth discusses how contemplation of Nature brings a recognition of "The still, sad music of humanity" (2006, 91)—an observation that the "pleasant thoughts" of Nature "Bring sad thoughts to the mind" (3-4) in "Lines Written in Early Spring" (1798). For Wordsworth, Nature provides a contemplation of the state of mankind as well as a "respite" (Tovey, 2011, p. 57) from "The dreary intercourse of daily life":

. . .'tis her privilege,
Through all the years of this our life, to lead
From joy to joy: for she can so inform
The mind that is within us, so impress
With quietness and beauty, and so feed
With lofty thoughts, that neither evil tongues,
Rash judgments, nor the sneers of the selfish men,
Nor greeting where no kindness is, nor all

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The dreary intercourse of daily life,
Shall e'er prevail against us, or disturb
Our cheerful faith that all which we behold
Is full of blessings. (Wordsworth, *Tintern Abbey*, 2006, 123-34)

Nature's role—as a "guide", "nurse", and "guardian"—changed overtime as the poet gained maturity. In his "boyish days" (2006, 73), when he first visited the Wye Valley, Nature "was all in all" (2006, 76) to Wordsworth. But, the poet says, ". . . That time is past, / And all its aching joys are no more" (2006, 84-5).

As a result of his historical experience, which may be considered as an allusion to Wordsworth's retreat from his political stance, the poet has learned "To look on nature, not as in the hour / Of thoughtless youth, but hearing oftentimes / The still, sad music of humanity" (2006, 89-91), which leads him to feel, "A presence that disturbs me with the joy / Of elevated thoughts; a sense sublime …" (2006, 94-5). Throughout these lines we clearly saw the prevailing sense of belonging to Nature, where it [Nature] is presented as the crucial stimulus that lightens man's path to self-recognition through his reliance on the natural environment.

I believe that Wordsworth describes this "presence" something that is "far more deeply interfused," which can be seen everywhere, even in the mind of man. Wordsworth's emphasis on the existence of this profound presence in the mind of man proves the fact that man and Nature are connected in the experience of a "sense sublime". After explaining this sublime sense, Wordsworth mentioned that although he could not view Nature with the sensuous joy, as he did in his childhood, he is ". . . still / A lover of the meadows and the woods, / And mountains. . ." (2006, 103-04) and all the natural elements in that Nature is the facilitator of an interconnection between man and a "sense sublime". His being "still" a lover of Nature is an important point here, since Nature is both a source of pleasure for the poet and a mirror that feeds the poet's imagination and reflects past memories and elevated thoughts.

Wordsworth was a poet whose poems stressed human ecology and humanity's connection with Nature for he believed an understanding of Nature teaches man an understanding of suffering and humanity, which serves as a means of lessening the "burthen of the mystery" (2006, 38) and making endurable ". . . the heavy and the weary weight / Of all this unintelligible world" (2006, 39-40). As an ecocritical poem, Tintern Abbey as Durrant holds is "a landscape poem in the eighteenth century tradition" (as cited in Britto, 2011, p. 722). Landscape is the symbol of Nature and environment and the emphasis on "landscape poem" showcases the concepts of ecopoetry and Human-Nature connectivity. Besides, it is also an ecopoetry since it is "not a description of dwelling with the earth, not a disengaged thinking about it, but an experiencing of it" (Bate, Song of the Earth, 2000, p. 42).

I agree that Wordsworth's main argument in Tintern Abbey is to reveal to the reader, "a poem of emancipation and enlightenment, discovering and celebrating the harmony—indeed, unity—of man and Nature" (Christie, 2013, p. 72). Wordsworth's return to Nature in Tintern Abbey is, in fact, a "therapeutic transition to the country" that represents "the cause, the condition, and the symbol of salvation" (ibid 72-3). The rudiments of Tintern Abbey, which were the products of men's hands, add much to the beauty of the picturesque landscape. However, from an ecocritical perspective, the ruin can be discussed as, "a metaphor that refers to culture (that which is manmade), symbolizing the human domination over Nature, which results in the destruction of Nature" (Britto, 2011, p. 722). In contrast, I assert that the inhabitants of a house are the ones who grant meaning to life in that house. Therefore, when men feel superior to Nature and destroy it, Nature hits back and the result is what we see in Tintern Abbey, which is devoid of human race (p. 722-3). Conversely, if human beings understand the true value of peace in Nature, it will provide them with a harmonious life. Wordsworth's withdrawal to Nature and the ruins of Tintern Abbey after a considerable amount of time, in effect, is an effort to renew the concordant Human-Nature pact. Newman (2005), in Our Common Dwelling, discusses that Wordsworth's deep interaction with Nature enabled him "to feel 'the purer and nobler sentiments of the heart' together with the common people;" due to this he was reputed to be "a poet of liberty" (p. 80).

Though we can analyze the poem as an instance of philosophical and mental transition in the poet, wherein we can see the wordsworthian "strategy of displacement" which can be summarized as the "characteristic way of evading deeply significant political events and social realities, taking refuge instead in the cheap comforts of the romantic ideology of natural supernaturalism" (p. 74), I claim that Wordsworth's taking refuge in Nature was a feather in his cap due to which he is called "the Prophet of Nature" toady (p. 71).

Some New Historicist critics, like McGann, maintain that during the "five years" mentioned at the beginning of the poem, Wordsworth "lost the world merely to gain his own immortal soul" (as cited in Yu, 2004, p. 139). He accuses Wordsworth of what Keats calls "egotistical sublime" (as cited in Ramazani, 2011, p. 328) and holds that Nature is only a means to lead Wordsworth to that end. In opposition to this

perspective, Simpson in Wordsworth's Historical Imagination (1987), avers that it is "most productive" to "regard the Wordsworthian subjectivity as a medium . . . that was, by virtue of its openness to the energies of language and experience, extraordinarily articulate about the pressures and tensions that we may with hindsight regard as central to the culture at large" (as cited in Yu, 2004, p. 140).

What I would argue is that critics such as Bloom saw the ruins of the abbey as a facilitator between the poet and his mind which enables Wordsworth to reach reciprocity between his mind and the external world. So, we will be in debt to Wordsworth if we just read Tintern Abbey on the surface and jump to conclusion by accusing him of the oft-quoted phrase "egotistical sublime;" for it requires a sharp mind of quick understanding to uncover what lies beneath the surface of the poem. One such reading is Bloom's summarizing the theme of Tintern Abbey as, "the nature of the poet's imagination and . . . imagination's relation to external Nature" (as cited in Ho, 2002, p. 1).

In an effort to back Wordsworth, bate in The Song of the Earth (2000) contends that the New Historicism's "potential for wider political use . . . outside the academy" is very limited, whereas Romantic ecology serves much better to "politicize Romanticism . . . in a way that speaks to our present discontents" (p. 8). In Bate's reading, Tintern Abbey celebrates "a cottage economy which does not 'disturb' the ecosystem;" Wordsworth's well-known "pantheism" is defined as the view that "the whole earth is a single vast, living, breathing ecosystem" (p. 146). I share my view that this new angle of vision, having recourse to contemporary ecological discourse, emphasizes "regional specificity" in Wordsworth's Nature poems in order to claim that Wordsworth's patriotism is rooted "in a tradition of local defense of poetry" rather than being "knee-jerk jingoism" (Song of the Earth, 2000, p.219, p. 215). Wordsworth's "critical regionalism," Bate tries to convince us, is opposed to a "Napoleonic, expansionist" imperialism "with an investment in the denigration and even extinction of other countries" (p. 225).

Bate's reading of Wordsworth's Tintern Abbey is double-edged; on the one hand, he tries to save Wordsworth of the Yale School and New Historicist critics and on the other, affirms Wordsworth's position as an "ecopoet" by "linking his linguistic style to an environmental ethic" (Yu, 2004, p. 146) in the hope of focusing on the literary value of the poem in contrast to the aesthetic one. In Bate's view, the poem serves as a critique of the picturesque tradition popularized by Gilpin which shows an anthropocentric inclination towards Nature and the abbey. Bate adds that Wordsworth's "pursuing of the picturesque" reveals the Cartesian division of the mind from the body (Song of the Earth, 2000, p. 141). Thus, the absence of the abbey from the poem is explained as a refusal to accept the "picturesque assumption that "artificial" features such as ruins . . . may be classed as part of nature (p. 144). Bate, furthermore, focuses on the ". . . wreaths of smoke / Sent up, in silence, from among the trees" (p. 17-18) and renders a Green reading: as an ecopoet, Wordsworth's "feeling of connectedness leads him to suppose that it might not come from the Cartesian ironwork observed by Gilpin but from the fires of 'vagrant dwellers in the houseless woods,' " that is gypsies as wise practitioners of "sustainable productivity," "who know the moment when they have taken enough from a particular spot of earth and must therefore move on" (Song of the Earth, 2000, p. 146).

As mentioned earlier, there has always been a clash between different critics about the Romantics' relation with Nature and their views about it. Before coming into fruition of the Green movement, i.e. Ecocriticism, the Yale School critics maintained that Wordsworth used Nature to transcend his mind and imagination. Whereas, the New Historicists, as Bate asserts, stressed that Wordsworth valued poetic imagination to do away with history and society (Romantic Ecology, 1991, p. 8). For McGann, all the social and political issues of the time have been elided in Tintern Abbey into the descriptions of the natural landscape so that, by the end of the poem, "the mind has triumphed over its time": Consequently, the poem concludes in what appears to be an immense gain, but what is in reality is the deepest and most piteous loss.

Between 1793 and 1798 Wordsworth lost the world only to gain his immortal soul" (as cited in Noble, 2013, p. 74). Contrary to McGann's, Abrams' Natural Supernaturalism (1971) begins and ends with the readings of Wordsworth, who is deemed as the exemplary Romantic poet whose writings contain the basic tenets of Romanticism. He claims that by "consummating a holy marriage with the external universe," Wordsworth creates "a quotidian and recurrent miracle, a new world which is the equivalent of the paradise" (1989, p. 28). Similarly, bate in Romantic Ecology (1991) buttresses a return to Wordsworth's Nature: "The time is now right to allow Wordsworth to become once more what he imagined

himself to be, what Shelley called him, and what he was to the Victorians: 'Poet of Nature'" (p. 9). Due to such foundational studies as Bate's, Romantic Ecocriticism has flourished. Undoubtedly, Romanticism is a logical basis for environmental studies due to its association with the natural world more than any other literary movement.

Many poems of Wordsworth, besides the one which was the main subject of this paper, characterize different aspects of ecocritical studies. Poems like Tintern Abbey are pregnant with ecocritical messages and are praised in environmental mode in that they "conform to" the ecocritical code: "a code that focuses upon problems and solutions" (Noble, 2013, p. 78). Taken seriously, poems of Wordsworth have a lot to offer, if only readers try not to read them solely for pleasure. The "profound yearning for transcendent unity" is a "vital element" in the poetry of Wordsworth (Heffernan, 2013, p. 605). In the poem, Tintern Abbey, Wordsworth described the unifying power of Nature as:

A motion and spirit, that impels
All thinking things, all objects of all thought,
And rolls through all things. . .. (2006, 100-02)

Byrd, in "Metamorphosis and Tintern Abbey: Two Notes" (1983), summarizes the whole poem in one word, "metamorphosis" which he clarifies as, "the spiritualization of nature, the perception in nature of a transcendent life that the poet can share" (p. 29). Bloom pictures Wordsworth's poems as, "scaffolding for a more imaginative vision, and not ends in themselves" (as cited in Lipman, p. 1). Likewise, he believes that Romantic poets use a "map of the mind," and this "map can be put to a saving use" (p. 1). If we are to link up Bloom's "map of the mind" with Wordsworth's Tintern Abbey, we reach the point that being conscious of one's self and having awareness about one's identity, especially in relation to the external world, is the poet's main contention in the poem (p. 1). Moreover, my impression is that throughout the poem we witness the reciprocity of human mind, memory, with Nature which ends in the poet's meditative self-reflection and self-analysis.

Put simply, I conclude that Tintern Abbey can be taken into account as one of Wordsworth's landmarks which can teach the readers that it is only via seclusion that we can learn how to connect with each other, planting within humans' hearts the hope of remembering what one once was through one's concordant relation with the spiritual power of Nature. This notion verifies that this ecological approach, i.e. Ecocriticism, "analyses and promotes works of art which raise moral questions about human attractions with nature, while also motivating audience to live within a limit that will be binding over generations" (Gomides, as cited in Farooq and Chandra, 2012, p. 114).

Conclusion

To conclude this discussion, I made every effort, as the chief objective of this short research paper, to prove that it is through considering Wordsworth's Tintern Abbey on its own merits that we can deduce that Wordsworth was, undeniably, a poet who was truly ahead of his time and sought to draw man back to integration with Nature which is the unifying agent that hooks up man and his neighboring environments. His memorable attempt was to make it perfectly clear that man "is neither master nor slave to it [Nature], but simply one part of an intricate system" (Klue, 2008, p. 1). Despite the existing gaps in recent studies, I strived to pinpoint that Wordsworth was a unique Romantic poet who put on view the inner soul of Nature as well as the external charm of it. Time and again, we have noticed Wordsworth's fame as a worshiper of Nature. Subsequently, his love of Nature has made him the forerunner of the humanistic approach and guaranteed him the first and foremost place in the literature of Romanticism and the ecological studies.

Since the emergence of Ecocriticism, the poem has yielded itself to the icons of ecocritical studies where we can see the vivid role of Nature as the catalyst for the advent of a peaceful bond between human being and Nature whose product is enforcing the human society to think of the importance of Nature for the human survival. Also, it intensifies the notion that any act against Nature yields the destruction of the humanity at large. Careful analyses of such points and poems of Wordsworth highlight his chief role as a true poet of Nature, who originated a Green movement long before the rise of Ecocriticism. All over this ecological study, I sought to prove that Wordsworth was not a self-centered poet; rather he used Nature as a

source of elevation of his mind and soul. L. and S. Linchman in "What We Owe the Romantics" (2007) further explain this conviction as, "Wordsworth and his contemporaries preferred rustic settings not so much because they were anti-modern, but because they sensed that the life-world was more intact there. . ." (p. 350).

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Severity Differences across Proficiency Levels among Peer-assessors: A FACETS Approach

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Abstract

Prior research has shown that alternative assessment is more aligned with objectives of language education for the various advantages it may offer, including catering for the needs of language learners. Recent years in language assessment has witnessed an increased attention to alternative assessment procedures. One of these procedures is peer-assessment, which enables students to evaluate the work of their peers, thereby involving them in the learning process. This study intended to find what kinds of language components peer-assessors attend to when rating their peers' essays and to investigate whether proficiency levels of peer-assessors made a difference in terms of severity and leniency they exercised. Fifty-eight student raters at Imam Khomeini International University in Qazvin rated five essays, using an analytic rating scale. Paper-based TOEFL test and five-paragraph essays were used to collect data. FACETS (version 3.68.1) and SPSS (version 24) were used to analyze the data. The results of Facets analysis indicated that advanced peer-assessors had more variability in their severity compared to intermediate peer-assessors. Moreover, the majority of peer-assessors were, on average, more severe than lenient. The results also revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between the ratings of intermediate and advanced peer-assessors. Based on the findings of the present study, task achievement (TA) was the most attended assessment criterion, but grammatical range and accuracy (GRA) was the least attended assessment criterion. The findings may carry implications for language teachers and curriculum developers.

Keywords: Proficiency Level, svereity diffeences, FACETS, Peer-Assessors

1. Introduction

Alternative assessment has been proposed to refer to evaluating L2 learners' performance which allows us to come up with a more holistic approach to student assessment (Ross, 2005). Moreover, the last two decades have witnessed a huge alteration in how language performance is assessed (Saito, 2008). Alternative assessment creates conditions to support students' learning (Black & Wiliam, 1998). There are different types of alternative assessment procedures including, checklists, journals, logs, self-assessment, teacher assessment, and peer assessment (Brown & Hudson, 1998; Huerta-Macías, 1995).

One of the most commonly used alternative assessment procedures for formative assessment, peer assessment is "an arrangement for learners to consider and specify the level, value, or quality of a product or performance of other equal-status learners" (Topping, 2010, p. 62). Peer assessment contains students' judgment and remarks of other peers (Boud, Cohen, & Sampson, 2001; Brown & Glasner, 1999; Brown & Knight, 1994; Brown, Bull & Pendlebury, 1997; Brown, Race & Rust, 1995) using some pre-established criteria (Loddington, 2008). It is a procedure that has been used at university levels (Vickerman, 2009; Wen & Tsai, 2006).

Peer assessment has some advantages. Firstly, it increases the tendency of learning from peers (Gibbs, 1999; McDowell & Sambell, 1999). Secondly, in the case of the adult learners, it establishes relationship between teachers and students (Leach, Neutze, & Zepke, 2001). Thirdly, it develops cognitive thinking (Cheng & Warren, 2005; Davis, 2009). Finally, it reduces teachers' workload (Topping, 2009).

The advantages notwithstanding, peer-assessors may exercise severity and leniency when rating essays. Matsuno (2009) argued that peer assessors were more lenient compared to self-assessors. By contrast, Esfandiari and Myford (2013) found that peer-assessors were more severe than self-assessors in their ratings. McNamara (1993) stated that the degree of leniency differs from one rater to another one. Since some raters are harsher than the other raters, it may threaten the reliability of the ratings. In order to eliminate this bias, Elder, Barkhuzien, Knoch, and Randow (2007) suggested providing raters with training sessions to have more reliable ratings both in first and second language contexts. Comparing the raters' ratings before and after training, Weigle (1998) stated that training helped raters reduce severity and leniency.

It is very important to know what criteria are used in peer-assessment (Dannefer, Henson, Biere, Grady-Weliky, Meldrum, Nofziger, 2005). If students do not receive training about how to use criteria, they may have problems in applying the criteria in their ratings (Orsmond, Merry, & Reiling, 1996). Further, there are no details regarding the quality of the criteria which are used in particular contexts of peer-assessment (Dancer & Dancer, 1992; Cho, Schunn,

& Wilson, 200). Even though the students are taught the criteria, they may find the criteria difficult and avoid using them, or they may be unable to apply the criteria (Orsmond et al., 1996). The present study tries to find out what kinds of language components peer-assessors attend to when rating their peers' essays and to investigate whether proficiency levels among peer assessors make a difference in terms of severity and leniency. Therefore, the following research questions were formulated to meet the objectives of the present study.

1. To what extent can peer-assessors be severe or lenient when assessing the essays of their peers?
2. Does proficiency level make a difference in peer-assessors' rating of EFL essays?
3. What assessment criteria do peer-assessors attend to when rating EFL essays?

2. Review of Related Literature

2.1. Alternative Assessment

The notion of alternative assessment can be regarded as "an alternative to standardized testing" (Huerta-Macías 1995, p. 8). Likewise, Hargreaves, Earl, and Schmidt (2002) defined alternative assessment as the way that intended

to motivate students to take more responsibility for their own learning, to make assessment an integral part of the learning experience, and to embed it in authentic activities that recognize and stimulate students' abilities to create and apply a wide range of knowledge, rather than simply engaging in acts of memorization and basic skill development. (p. 70)

Alternative assessments have been considered from four perspectives, namely, technological, cultural, political, and postmodern (Hargreaves et.al. 2002). Concerning the technological issues, the way of measuring results and achieving implementation are struggles for teachers; from a cultural perspective, developing assessment criteria with students and explaining them reasonably, and emphasis on interaction between beliefs and values are of highest importance; furthermore, political perspective of alternative assessment considers the act of power and its possible supervision rather than allowing people; and, finally postmodern perspective of alternative assessment concerns the concept of authentic assessment whose meaning remains questionable.

There are positive characteristics for alternative assessment. Students perform, create, produce, or do something; use real world situations; focus on process and products; and are given information about their strengths and weakness (Huerta-Macías, 1995). Alternative assessments require problem solving and higher level thinking and involve tasks that are worthwhile as instruction activities (Aschbacher, 1991). Herman, Aschbacher, and winters (1992) identified different set of characteristic of alternative assessment, stating that "alternative assessments (a) tap into higher level thinking and problem-solving skills; (b) use tasks that represent meaningful instructional activities; and (c) call upon teachers to perform new instructional and assessment roles" (p. 6).

There are different types of alternative assessment procedures including, checklist, journals, logs, self-assessment, teacher assessment and peer assessment (Brown & Hudson, 1998; Huerta-Macías, 1995). However, Brown and Hudson (1998) viewed procedures like portfolios, conference, diaries, self-assessment, and peer assessment not as alternative assessment but rather as alternatives in assessment. Brown (2004) compared various alternatives in assessment like portfolios, journals, conference, interviews, self-assessment and peer-assessment in terms of principles of assessment and argued that self- and peer-assessment have low reliability, but high validity.

2.2. Peer-assessment

Peer assessment can be defined as "an arrangement of peers to consider the level, value, worth, quality, or successfulness of the products or outcomes of learning of other of similar statues" (Topping, Smith, Swanson, & Elliot, 2000, p. 150). Products can include writing assignment, portfolios, projects, oral presentations, test performance or other skilled behavior (Topping, 2009). Topping argued that peer-assessment can vary in a number of ways, such as the participant constellation which can be the assessor and assessed in pairs or in groups; directionality, for instance, one way or reciprocal; and objectives, that is, the teacher may target cognitive or metacognitive gains, time saving, or other goals. Peer assessment is an approach in which the members of a group decide to what extent each member deserves an amount of group mark (Goldfinch & Raeside, 1990).

Based on the Pope (2001) and Weaver and Esposto (2012), peer assessment can take three forms: Peer nomination, identifying the act of the best and the worst members of the group by group members; peer ranking, ranking all individual group members from best to worst against a given set of criteria; and peer rating, assessment of each member, by the rest of the group, based on a set of performance or assessment characteristic. It is this last form of peer-assessment which is used in the present study.

Some theoretical frameworks have been cited in support of peer-assessment, for example: theories of language development and acquisition such as Vygotsky's (1978) scaffolding and zone of proximal development (ZPD); and also, interactionist theories of second language acquisition such as Long's (1985). According to Vygotsky's (1978)

belief, the collaborative nature of peer-assessment activities offers chances for learners to be "scaffolded" in learning through interaction with more knowledgeable peers. The advocates of interactionist theories focus on the communicative nature of group work and on the opportunities of peers to negotiate meaning, which promote comprehension and acquisition. Similarly, Mendonca and Johnson (1994) DiGiovanni and Nagaswami (2001) concentrated on the interaction side, and they believed that students are able to negotiate meaning, to ask for clarification, to give suggestion, and to practice a wide range of language skills.

Peer-assessment also takes support from the change to an "assessment culture" that aims at "assessing the acquisition of higher order thinking processes and competencies instead of factual knowledge and low-level cognitive skills" (Lindblom-Ylänne et al., 2006, p. 52). In spite of all of this theoretical support, Topping (1998) remarked "establishing a single overarching theory or model of the process seems likely to be difficult" because of the "many different types" (p. 254) of peer assessment and the great discrepancy in how the expression is used.

Significant benefits of peer-assessment have been identified by researchers, teachers, and peers themselves (Brown & Glasner, 1999; Saito, 2009; Topping, 2009). Students concern themselves about producing excellent work; therefore, they realize they may be judged by their peers (Searby & Ewer, 1997). Peer-assessment helps students to improve certain skills in communication, self-evaluation, and self-criticism (Dochy & McDowell, 1997). Peer-assessment is useful educational strategy for developing learning and has been found to strengthen student's engagement (Bloxhom & West, 2004). Peer-assessment encourages broad interaction in relation to a task; therefore, through this interaction, teacher and students can comprehend each other well (Boud et al., 2001). Peer- assessment can be appropriate for independent learning; also, it requires students to make independent judgment and provide analyses on the perform of their peers (Boud, Cohen & Sampson, 2001; Brown, Bull & Pendlebury, 1997; Brown & Glasner, 1999; Brown & Knight, 1994; Brown, Race & Rust, 1995).

Some other benefits of peer-assessment may include negotiation and verbal communication skills as well as expressing and accepting criticism and awareness of assessment criteria (Topping et al., 2000). Peer-assessment in the classroom enhances students' critical thinking (Sims, 1989). Peer-assessment encourages students' motivation to learn (Topping, 2005). Peer-assessment may have a positive impact on group work and group relationship (Druskatand & wolff, 1999). Peer- assessment fosters reflective learning through monitoring others' performances and becoming aware of concrete criteria (Fulchikov, 1986). Peer assessment can act as a formative academic tool or summative assessment tool (Topping, 2009). Peer assessment enables a deep approach to learning rather than a surface approach (Gibbs, 1992).

Finally, the practical benefits from peer-assessment are developing problem-solving skills, saving teacher's time, generating understanding of nature and process of assessment, increasing motivation, and making it easier for the student to reject/interact with feedback (Hansen, 2014).

There are also some drawbacks of peer-assessment. According to the results of Ballantyne, Hughes, and Mylonas (2002), peer-assessment is time-consuming for both teachers and students. Students using peer-assessment may be severe about themselves (Brown, 2004). Peer assessors may be unfair in assessing peers and giving grades (Brown & Knight, 1994). Ethical challenges emerge in relation to making judgment on peers' work (Boud et al., 2001). Peer-assessment may cause tension among peers, including feelings of hurt or infidelity resulting from comments or unpredicted marks (Brew, 1999). Students may be unwilling to assess peers (especially if students are friends), students may not have enough confidence in their own language skills to give feedback. Peer-assessment not be accurate, reliable, and professional (Hansen, 2014).

2.3. Severity and Leniency of Peer-Assessment

Before delving into the details of severity and leniency, it is needed to explain various rater effects that researchers have studied and gained a historical perspective on how these effects are conceptualized and operationally defined. Generally, researchers have focused their attention on describing and measuring four rater effects (1) leniency/severity, (2) halo effect, (3) central tendency, and (4) restriction of range. Other effects are less frequently mentioned because they invested as much time or effort in studying those effects and they are more difficult to detect or to measure, such as (1) inaccuracy, (2) logical error, (3) contrast error, (4) influences of rater biases, beliefs, attitudes, and personality characteristics, (5) influences of rater/ratee background characteristics, (6) proximity error, (7) recency (or primacy) error, and (8) order effects (Becker & Cardy, 1986; Cooper, 1981; Fisicaro, 1988; Murphy & Balzer, 1989; Murphy, Jako, & Anhalt, 1993).

Further, severity and leniency effect is the most serious error that a rater can introduce into a rating procedure (Cronbach, 1990). Generally speaking, severity refers to being harsh and leniency has to do with being relaxed. However, in rater-mediated assessments, severity and leniency assume specialized meanings. Myford and Wolf (2004) defined rater severity as

a rater's tendency to assign ratings that are, on average, lower than those that other raters assign, even after the performances of the particular ratees that rater has evaluated are taken into account. According to this definition, severe raters underestimate the level of ratee performance across the entire performance continuum. They do not accurately assess the level of performance of ratees at any point along that continuum. Rather, they tend to assign ratings that are consistently lower than those that other raters would assign the same ratees. (p. 194)

Moreover, they defined rater leniency as a

rater's tendency to assign ratings that are, on average, higher than those that other raters assign, even after the performances of the particular ratees that that rater has evaluated are taken into account. By this definition, lenient raters tend to overestimate the level of ratee performance across the entire performance continuum, assigning ratings that are consistently higher than those that other raters would assign the same ratees. When researchers use the term "leniency/severity effect," it is often with this intended meaning. However, a leniency/severity effect can present itself in other ways, some more subtle than this. (p. 194).

Several strategies have been proposed to try to minimize the impact severity and leniency may have on the measurement of ratings. These strategies are summarised in Myford and Wolfe (2003) as follows:

1. Help the rater by specifying clearly the definitions of the traits and, if possible, provide anchor descriptions for various scale categories, so that the rater will have a clear idea of what each scale category means and will be better able to distinguish between the different levels of a trait.

2. To counteract raters' tendencies to be lenient, devise rating scales that have several scale categories on the positive side and few scale categories on the negative side, providing sufficient room for the raters to differentiate between various levels of performance along the upper end of the continuum.

3. Train raters to be aware of the leniency/severity effect and the impact it can have on their ratings so that they can attempt to guard against this tendency.

4. Ask raters to assign ratings using a forced distribution, having them place a pre-specified number of ratees in each rating category. As an alternative, have raters rank order the ratees, a process that forces raters to spread out the ratees and discriminate among them.

5. Use several raters to rate each ratee and average their ratings to attempt to balance out the effects of those individual raters who tend to be more severe or more lenient.

6. Use statistical techniques to adjust ratees' scores for differences in rater leniency/severity. (pp. 394-395)

2.4. Criteria in Peer-Assessment

To judge their peers' performance, peer assessors need to use some criteria. Sadler (1987) defined a criterion as "a distinguished property or characteristic of anything, by which its quality can be judged or estimated, or by which a decision or classification may be made" (p. 194). Moreover, Dochy et al, (1999) discussed that development of criteria through active cooperation between teachers and students was the critical factor for peer-assessment. They found that firstly, "in peer assessment criteria should be determined beforehand; Experiences show that it works well if these criteria are determined jointly by staff and students" (p. 346). Secondly, "peer assessment criteria should be presented in operational terms with which all students are familiar" (p. 346).

Boud (1989) used a nominal group process to identify the criteria that students suggested. They involved students in group exercise to find a common set of criteria and then to use the criteria for judging individual performance in classroom. He found that "students need to be able to assess themselves in situations in which they have only partial knowledge of the criteria to be used by others and when they may not fully accept the criteria which others will apply to them" (p. 22).

Orsmond et al., (1996) reported the method which allows peers to rate products against the individual criteria. The results showed that "there was no significant difference between the tutor and peer mark, for the 'self-explanatory' and 'clear purpose' criteria" (p. 244). Even though students were instructed about how to use the criteria, they were unable to recognize them.

Most recently, Aryadoust (2016) investigated how raters' severity/leniency toward oral performance related to their gender and academic major. This study included 66 science students. Each student evaluated his or her classmates' oral presentation and the instructors evaluated the students' evaluations. Generally, the scores of the student raters fitted to MFRM, but there was some over estimation in evaluating the presentation of the opposite sex. Another bias was observed when the students rated their peers in the same major, and their ratings were underestimated. He concluded that "academic majors likely have a greater effect on raters' severity than student presenters' oral proficiency" (p. 11). He concluded that gender may be an important factor affecting raters' severity level.

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

The present research included a paper-based TOEFL test and an IELTS scale. Regarding the writing, 58 Iranian EFL students were asked to write a five-paragraph essay. The participants of this study consist of 58 students, 17 male and 41 female BA students majoring in English Language Teaching and English Translation at Imam Khomeini International University in Qazvin, Iran.

The participants were divided into different groups. The students who obtained 70% of total scores were classified as advanced peer-assessors, those scoring between 46% and 69% as intermediate peer-assessors, and those whose scores were below 45% were grouped as beginning peer-assessors (Phakiti, 2003). In the present study, only intermediate and advanced peer-assessors were used to assess the essays of their peers, so the peer-assessors whose scores were below 45% (in this study below 19) were omitted. Seven beginning peer-assessors were left out. The participants' mother tongue included a wide range languages from 31 provinces of Iran. They differed in their age ranging from about 19 to 33. The participants with BA degrees, ranged from about 1 to 18 years of learning English.

3.2. Data Collection Methods

Two assessments instruments were used in this study: students' essays and a rating scale. A detailed description for these instruments is given below.

Fifty one five paragraph essays collected from undergraduate (BA) students were used in this study. The students were enrolled in essay writing courses at Imam Khomeini International University in Qazvin, Iran. The students in Essay writing classes were taught features of a well-written five-paragraph essay such as organization, content, transitions and coherence. The students in these classes were also taught various patterns of development, including comparison and contrast essays, cause and effect essays, and enumeration essays. After eight meetings, the instructor told his students that they would take the midterm exam the following week. During the exam, students had 40 minutes to write a five-paragraph essay in 250 words at least.

The first instrument used in this study was a paper-based TOEFL test (appendix B) to divide students into two proficiency levels. This test included 40 grammar items, 50 listening comprehension items, and 50 reading comprehension items. The second one was five-paragraph essays. The third instrument was IELTS scale (public version) to rate students' essays. This is a 9-band scale, including four criteria to evaluate IELTS essays. The criteria include task achievement, coherence and cohesion, lexical resources, and grammatical range and accuracy. Descriptors were used to help raters to assign ratings (Appendix C). Following Marefat and Heydari (2016), the present researchers used Content to stand for Task achievement, Organization for Coherence and Cohesion, Vocabulary for Lexical Resource, and Grammar for Grammatical Range and Accuracy. Therefore, in the present study, they are used interchangeably.

3.3. Data Analysis Procedures

First, descriptive statistics were used to analyse the assessment criteria peer-assessors attended to. Independent samples t-tests were used to test whether levels of proficiency made a difference in attending to those assessment criteria. An independent samples t-test was used to ensure two groups of peer-assessors differed on the ratings they awarded to their peers. In order to ensure the proper functioning of rating scales and to analyze the ratings for severity/leniency, FACETS (version 3.68.1, Linacre, 2011) was used. Facets was also used to identify severe and lenient peer-assessors. Average severity and leniency measures were determined for both intermediate and advanced peer-assessors. Moreover, facets calibrated individual severity and leniency measures for individual peer-assessors to flag those peer-assessors who are extremely severe or lenient. IMB SPSS Statistics (version 22) was also used to compute total raw scores to assign peer-assessors into intermediate and advanced groups. Percent figures were used to tally the number of times peer-assessors used assessment criteria.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1. Investigation of the First Research Question

The first research question asked to what extent peer-assessors could be severe or lenient when assessing the essays of their peers. To answer this question, the researchers used the many-facet Rasch measurement. The following paragraphs describe the answer to this research question.

The raw scores, on a 9-point scale, assigned to the essays by the peer-assessors were submitted to FACETS to model the relationship between the three facets of analysis: the peer-assessors (25 intermediate peer-assessors, 26 advanced peer-assessors), the essays (n = 5), and the assessment criteria (4 assessment criteria: task achievement (TA), coherence and cohesion (CC), lexical resources (LR), and grammatical range and accuracy (GRA). This relationship can be expressed as follows: A peer-assessor + an essay + an assessment criterion → a rating.

Figure 1 is the graphical representation of the relationship between the facets of the model. In this figure, which is technically referred to as Vertical Rulers, furthest to the left is the measurement ruler, labeled Measr. The values of this ruler are in logits, ranging from −3 to +3, with zero being the mean, negative values showing ratings falling below the mean and the positive values displaying ratings positioned above the mean. Then, each of the other columns shows the elements of a facet positioned on the measurement ruler.


```
+-----+-Peer-assessors                              |+Peer-assessor proficiency |-Essays|-Assessment criteria|- - - -+
|Measr|-Peer-assessors                              |+Peer-assessor proficiency |-Essays|-Assessment criteria| RS1   |
+-----+                                             |                           |       |                    |- - - -+
  3 +                                               *                           *       *                    * (9)   |
    |                                               |                           |       |                    |       |
    |                                               |                           |       |                    | - - - |
    |                                               |                           |       |                    |       |
  2 +                                               *                           *       *                    *   8   |
    |                                               |                           |       |                    |       |
    |                                               |                           |       |                    | - - - |
    |   46a                                         |                           |       |                    |       |
  1 +                                               *                           *       *                    *   7   |
    |   21i 23i 47a 49a 51a                         |                           |       |                    | - - - |
    |   10i 11i 15i 1i  22i 26a 29a 2i  39a 48a 44a 50a 5i 8i                   |       | 1 2 | 4            |   6   |
    |   28a 30a 48a 7i  9i                          |                           |   4 5 | 2 3                |       |
  0 * |   12i 14i 31a 41a 45a 4i                    * advanced    intermediate  *       | 1                  *       |
    |   19i 27a 32a 33a 6i                          |                           |   3   |                    | - - - |
    |   20i 35a 36a 3i                              |                           |       |                    |   5   |
    |   17i 24i 25i 34a 37a 38a 42a                 |                           |       |                    | - - - |
    |   13i 16i 18i                                 |                           |       |                    |   4   |
 -1 +                                               *                           *       *                    *       |
    |   43a                                         |                           |       |                    | - - - |
    |                                               |                           |       |                    |   3   |
    |                                               |                           |       |                    |       |
 -2 +                                               *                           *       *                    *       |
    |                                               |                           |       |                    | - - - |
    |                                               |                           |       |                    |       |
    |                                               |                           |       |                    |       |
 -3 +                                               *                           *       *                    * (2)   |
+-----+                                             |                           |       |                    |- - - -+
|Measr|-Peer-assessors                              |+Peer-assessor proficiency |-Essays|-Assessment criteria| RS1   |
+-----+                                             +---------------------------+-------+--------------------+-------+
```

Figure 1. Variable map from FACETS showing the relationships between peer-assessors, proficiency of peer-assessors, essays, and assessment criteria

Note. i = intermediate peer-assessor, a = advanced peer-assessor, 1 = task achievement, 2 = coherence and cohesion, 3 = lexical resources, 4 = grammatical range and accuracy

The column labeled + peer-assessors represents severity/leniency, ranging from −2 to +2 logits for advanced peer-assessors and -1 to +1 for intermediate peer-assessors. This means that the advanced peer-assessors showed more variability in their severity compared to intermediate peer-assessors. Except for advanced peer-assessors 43 and 46, all the other peer-assessors are between -1 and +1 logits. This implies, generally, peer-assessors showed less variation in their severity. Also, the most lenient peer-assessor was the advanced peer-assessor 43, and the most severe peer-assessor was the advanced peer-assessor 46.

Column three shows proficiency of the peer-assessors. Although both intermediate and advanced peer-assessors roughly fall on the mean, implying they may be neither severe nor lenient, they exercise differing levels of severity, as shown in this section.

The next column, labeled + Essays. The essays above the mean received low ratings while those below the mean received high ratings. As can be seen, essays 1 and 2 received the lowest ratings, essays 4 and 5 average ratings, and essay 3 the highest rating. The column labeled + Assessment criteria represents item difficulty based on the four rating criteria. It can also be seen that assessment criterion 4 was difficult for students to receive high ratings on; by contrast, assessment criterion 1 was easy for students to receive high ratings on. Finally, the last column shows the IELTS 9-point rating scale, ranging from 0 to 9.

FACETS also produces detailed reports about the performance of individual peer-assessors in terms of total scores and logits (Table 4.1). It should be noted that total score is the sum of raw scores, on the IELTS 9-point scale, each peer-assessor gave to all the essays for each assessment criterion ($5 \times 4 \times 9 = 180$). The peer-assessors are ordered from the most severe, on top, to the most lenient, at the bottom of the Table.

As shown in Table 1, advanced peer-assessor 46 was the most severe peer-assessor of all the 51 peer-assessors at +1.23 logits and a total score of 70. Moreover, advanced peer-assessor 43 was the most lenient peer-assessor at −1.28 logits and a total score of 150. More than half of the intermediate peer-assessors (14) were severe, assigning lower ratings to the essays of their peers while 11 intermediate peer-assessors were lenient, assigning higher ratings to the essays of their peers. Like intermediate peer-assessors, more than half of the advanced peer-assessors (15) were severe, but 11 advanced peer-assessors were lenient. These findings suggest peer-assessors, regardless of their proficiency level, assessed the essays of their peers severely, awarding low ratings to the essays.

The separation index for peer-assessors (N = 51) was 2.60, which suggests that there were about three statistically distinct levels of severity within that peer-assessors. The reliability of the peer-assessors was .87, further confirming the distinct levels of severity among peer-assessors. These severity measures are statistically significant ((χ^2 (50) = 376.1, p < .05).

Table 1. Measurement report for individual peer-assessors

Peer-assessors	Total score	Logit	Error
46a	70	1.23	.18
47a	89	.68	.17
23i	92	.67	.17
21i	93	.64	.17
49a	92	.60	.17
51a	94	.54	.17
2i	72	.42	.19
5i	99	.47	.17
50a	97	.46	.17
22i	100	.44	.17
39a	98	.43	.17
44a	98	.43	.17
11i	101	.41	.17
26a	101	.41	.17
10i	102	.38	.17
15i	103	.35	.17
29a	101	.34	.17
1i	104	.32	.17
8i	104	.32	.17
40a	102	.31	.17
30a	105	.22	.17
9i	109	.17	.18
28a	107	.16	.17
7i	110	.13	.18
48a	108	.13	.18
31a	110	.06	.18
45a	110	.06	.18
4i	114	.01	.18
14i	114	.01	.18
12i	115	-.02	.18
41a	113	-.03	.18
6i	118	-.12	.18
32a	116	-.12	.18
33a	116	-.12	.18
19i	119	-.15	.18
27a	118	-.19	.18
35a	122	-.32	.18
36a	122	-.32	.18
20i	125	-.35	.18
3i	128	-.44	.18
17i	130	-.51	.18
25i	130	-.51	.18
37a	129	-.55	.18
34a	131	-.61	.18
38a	131	-.61	.18
42a	132	-.65	.18
24i	128	-.67	.19
13i	137	-.74	.18
16i	137	-.74	.18
18i	138	-.78	.18
43a	150	-.128	.20

Note. Separation = 2.60, Reliability = .87, Fixed(all same) chi-square = 376.1, df. = 50, significance(probability) = .00

In addition to individual performance, FACETS generates detailed pieces of information of group performance of peer-assessors. Table 2 compares the overall ratings of the intermediate and advanced peer-assessors. As can be seen, the intermediate peer-assessors have a positive logit value of .01, while the advanced peer-assessors assessed the essays at -0.06 logits. However, this does not mean that intermediate peer-assessors were significantly more severe than advanced peer-assessors in their overall scoring (p = .07). In addition, the Separation Index for the two groups of peer-assessors is 1.48, showing that the variance among the severity of the two groups is about one and a half times the error of estimate. Furthermore, the reliability index of .69 indicates that the analysis is somewhat reliably separating peer-assessors into different levels of severity. The Table also shows that both groups have infit and outfit mean square values ranging between .80 and1.20, indicating an acceptable fitness of data (Wright & Linacre, 1994).

Table 2. Overall measurement report for intermediate and advanced peer-assessors

Proficiency level of peer-assessors	Total score	Logit	Error	Infit		Outfit	
				MnSq	ZStd	MnSq	ZStd
Intermediate peer-assessors	2930	.01	.03	.86	-.2.3	.87	-2.2
Advanced peer-assessors	2761	-.06	.03	1.14	2.1	1.14	2.2

Note. Separation = 1.48, Reliability = .69, Model, Fixed (all same) chi-square = 3.2 d. f = 1 significance (probability) = .07

The average severity measures for the two groups of peer-assessors, along with their respective standard errors, were as follows: intermediate peer-assessors (0.01 logits, 0.03) and advanced peer-assessors (-0.06 logits, 0.03). The results from the chi-square test of homogeneity indicated that the average severity measures for the proficiency levels of peer-assessors were all the same, after allowing for measurement error ($\chi2(1, N = 51) = 3.2$, p > .05). An independent t-test showed that the average severity measures for the intermediate peer-assessors and advanced peer-assessors were not statistically significant (49) = 1.6493, p = 0.105, 95% CI [-0.0153 to 0.1553].

Based on the information in Table 1 and Table 2, although individual peer-assessors showed statistically significant levels of severity differences, no statistically significant differences were found between intermediate peer-assessors and advanced peer-assessors, suggesting the ratings they award, on average, can be used interchangeably.

4.2. Investigation of the Second Research Question

The second research question of this study aimed to explore whether proficiency level make a difference in peer-assessors' rating of EFL essays. Using SPSS software, an independent-sample t-test was run. Table 3 presents the results.

Table 3. Independent-Samples t-test for level of proficiency

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
TRs	Equal variances assumed	.134	.715	.338	49	.737	1.52923	4.52994	-7.57	10.63
	Equal variances not assumed			.337	48.802	.737	1.52923	4.53209	-7.57	10.63

The significance level for Leven's test is (.715). This is larger than the cut off of .05. Therefore, the assumption of equal variance has not been violated. The sig (2-tailed) value is above .05 (sig= .737). Hence there was no significant difference on scores for intermediate (M= 112.76, SD=16.36) and advanced (M= 111.23, SD=15.98; t (49) =.338, p =.737). Therefore, the second research question of the study is confirmed, indicating that there is no statistically significant difference between the scores of intermediate and advanced learners in rating.

4.3. Investigation of the Third Research Question

The third question of this   at finding the criteria which peer-assessors attend to when rating EFL essay. The mean of all the ratings for each criterion was calculated to answer this research question. Mean values are shown in Table 4. As shown in the Table, mean values are very close to each other. Peer-assessors attended to Task Achievement more than they did to the other criteria. Cohesion and Coherence was the next most attended criterion. Lexical Range was the third most attended criterion for peer-assessors. Grammatical Range and Accuracy was the least attended criterion.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics for criteria

Criteria	TTA	CC	LR	GRA
Mean	28.5882	28.4708	27.8627	27.0588

Four independent samples t-tests were used to examine whether intermediate and advanced peer-assessors used each criterion differently. The results are presented below.

Table 5. Inferential Statistics for TTA

Independent sample test for TTA

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig.(2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. Error Difference	lower	Upper
TTA	Equal variances assumed	.060	.807	1.291	49	.203	1.98	1.53	-1.10	5.07
	Equal variances not assumed			1.293	48.844	.202	1.98	1.53	-1.09	5.06

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the Task Achievement scores for intermediate and advanced peer-assessors. As shown in Table 5, there was no statistically significant difference in scores for intermediate students (M= 29, SD= 5.21) and advanced students (M= 27, SD= 5.74; t (49) = 1.29, p= .20).

Table 6. Inferential Statistics for TCC

Independent sample test for TCC

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig.(2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
TCC	Equal variances assumed	.587	.447	.682	49	.499	.88154	1.29	-1.71	3.48
	Equal variances not assumed			.680	48.343	.499	.88154	1.29	-1.72	3.48

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the Coherence and Cohesion scores for intermediate and advanced peer-assessors. As shown in Table 4.6 there was statistically significant difference in scores for intermediate students (M = 28.92, SD = 4.79) and advanced students (M = 28.03, SD = 4.44; t (49) = .682, p = .499)

Table 7. Inferential Statistics for TLR

Independent sample test for TLR

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig.(2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
TLR	Equal variances assumed	.120	.731	-.519	49	.606	-.59	1.14	-2.89	1.70
	Equal variances not assumed			-.518	48.579	.606	-.59	1.14	-2.89	1.70

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the Lexical Resource scores for intermediate and advanced peer-assessors. As shown in Table 7 there was no statistically significant difference in scores for intermediate students (M = 27.56, SD = 4.19) and advanced (M = 28.15, SD = 3.97; t (49) = -.519, p= .606)

Table 8. Inferential Statistics for TGRA

Independent sample test for TGRA

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig.(2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
TGRA	Equal variances assumed	.000	.988	-.610	49	.545	-.74	1.21	-3.19	1.70
	Equal variances not assumed			-.610	49	.545	-.74	1.21	-3.19	1.70

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the Grammatical Range and Accuracy scores for intermediate and advanced peer-assessors. As shown in Table 8 there was no statistically significant difference in scores for intermediate students (M = 26.68, SD = 4.25) and advanced groups (M = 27.42, SD = 4.43, t (49) = -.610, p = .545)

4.4 Discussion
The present study aimed to determine to what extent peer-assessors could be severe, or lenient, when assessing the essays of their peers. The study also intended to examine whether proficiency level would make a difference in peer-assessors' rating of EFL essays. Finally, it was attempted to find out what assessment criteria peer-assessors would attend to when rating EFL essays.

First, it was found that although individual peer-assessors showed statistically significant levels of severity differences, no statistically significant differences were found between intermediate peer-assessors and advanced peer-assessors, implying that, irrespective of their proficiency levels, peer-assessors assessed the essays of their peers severely awarding low ratings to the essays. Further, according to peer-assessors' severity/leniency logits, for advanced peer-assessors, the ranging was from -2 to +2, and -1 to +1 for intermediate peer-assessors This suggests that the advanced peer-assessors showed more variability in their severity compared to intermediate peer-assessors.

This finding is in line with the findings of some other studies (Esfandiari & Myford, 2013; Nakamura, 2002; Saito & Fujita, 2004, 2009). Generally, these studies showed distinct levels of severity/leniency within peer-assessors. Esfandiari and Myford found that the average severity measures for the peer-assessors were not statistically significant. Moreover, assessor separation index for the peer-assessors (N = 136) was 3.7, which suggests that there were about three statistically distinct levels of severity within that assessor type. Further, they found that peer-assessors tended to rate significantly more severely.

Further, the results of present study confirm the findings of Hanrahan and Issacs (2001), who obtained that peer-assessors were more severe because they were more critical of peers in assessing the essays. Moreover, Nakamura (2002) found that peer-assessors were more severe in rating essays.

This finding is not consistent with that of Brown (1995), who reported that raters with different levels of proficiency did differ in perceiving the assessment criteria and applied the criteria differently. Further, in the study of Weigle (1994) unexperienced raters were more strict and inconsistent than experienced raters. Saito and Fujita (2008) indicated that level of proficiency does not make a difference in peer-assessors' rating. At the same time in the study of Berg (1999), after rater training which made students more proficient than before the training, they did not find any difference in their ratings. Moreover, in the study of Saito and Fujita (2004), who examined the severity and leniency of peer-assessors, they found that peer-assessors were comparatively more lenient than severe.

The findings of quantitative data analysis revealed that the level of proficiency was not an important factor, and there was no statistically significant difference between the ratings for intermediate and advanced groups. This was one of the major findings of the study which demonstrated that proficiency level did not make a difference in peer-assessors' rating of EFL essays. Lumley (2002) noted that level of proficiency does not necessarily lead to differences in the ratings of peer-assessors, arguing that even after rater training for unexperienced raters, no significant change was observed.

The next finding of this study was that peer-assessors paid highest attention to TA and the least attention to Grammatical Range and Accuracy. In other words, they were more concerned with Content and Organization than Grammar and Vocabulary. These findings support the finding of Lee (2009) on Korean raters. He found that raters were more concerned with content and vocabulary than other criteria. Similarly, Kuiken and Vedder (2014) reported that Dutch and Italian raters attached more value to discourse (organization and content) than surface (grammar and vocabulary) features.

These results are not consistent with those of Connor-Linton (1995), who compared the American and Japanese students' ratings and noted that they tended to focus on surface-level features. Similarly, Marefat and Heydari (2016) found that Iranian raters perceived grammar and vocabulary as the most important criteria and content and organization as the least important criteria to rate EFL essays.

This last finding is surprisingly unexpected because peer-assessors attached the most considerable importance to Content; by contrast, Grammar was the least attended criterion for peer-assessors. This finding does not fit the Iranian context and goes against some of the studies conducted in the Iranian setting as outlined in the preceding paragraph. Possible explanations for this tendency of peer-assessors in this study may be attributed to the following factors. First, raters' ability to understand and respond to the characteristics of a rating criterion may affect their beliefs about the criteria. In other words, raters do not have a clear understanding of a certain criterion (Marefat & Heydari, 2016, p. 32). Second, raters may find one criterion difficult and then attach less importance to it, or perceive one criterion easy and pay more attention to it (Lee, 2009). Peer-assessors in the present study may have perceived content easy and grammar difficult, thereby attaching the highest importance to the former and the lowest importance to the latter.

5. Conclusion and Implications

According to the findings of the present study, it may be safe to conclude that proficiency of peer-assessors may not be an important factor to invest in because severity measures of both intermediate and advanced peer-assessors, on average, were not statistically significant. This may imply the ratings for these two groups of assessors can be used for achievement purposes when language learners are tasked with evaluating the products of their peers. Further, as the findings of the study showed, regardless of proficiency level of peer-assessors, most peer-assessors were severe.

Severity of peer-assessors may stem from some other factors. Personality traits, rater training, gender, and rating strategies may affect severity measures. For example, Fahim and Bijani (2011) found that the training program was very

effective for peer-assessors. In their study, they showed after rater training their level of severity were changed: "training reduced raters' severity and harshness to a great extent but did not eliminate it. Training also reduced raters' bias but did not eliminate it altogether, that is, training seems to have brought the extreme scores within a moderate range of biasedness" (p. 11). One tentative conclusion which can be drawn may have to do with longer duration of training programmes to reduce significantly severity differences.

Peer-assessors were more concerned about content and organization and less attentive to grammar and vocabulary. Although both surface features (e.g, grammar) and discourse features (e.g., content and organization) can be used for rating purposes, discourse features should be prioritized when peer-assessors are engaged in assessing the works of their peers. The tendency of putting more importance on content and organization was that raters had "more emphasis on how well a writer presents what he/she wants to convey" (Lee, 2009, p. 393).

The findings of the present study can be beneficial for training purposes to instruct peer-assessors to best use the rating scale criteria and the guidelines about how to rate essays. Actually, teachers can add new trends to traditional testing and exams. This study can provide support for teacher and students' more cooperative and communicative work in classrooms. Educational setting such as language institutes, schools and universities can also take advantages of the present study. They can use peer assessment to take responsibility for taking part in assessment of their classmates and also to change a traditional way of evaluation (teacher-to-students) to peer-assessment evaluation.

The study can benefit students to raise their proficiency and to develop their quality of education and life. They can understand about how to reduce more cases of severity and leniency if their ratings are to be used for summative judgments. Indeed, students can receive rich feedback regarding their ratings so that they will incorporate in their ratings.

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Metaphor in Poetry: From Word to Existence

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Abstract

The metaphor in traditional rhetorics has been raised as one of the main topics of the science of expression by the scholars of ancient rhetorics, including Abdul Qaher Jorjani, in the valuable book "Asrar albalaqah" and the Scientists after him. Traditional rhetorics, as we know, has expressed a variety of metaphors, all based on the removal or the presence of pillars of likeness. Our purpose in this research is not to examine and analyze metaphors from the perspective of old rhetorics or the metaphor based on Cognitive Linguistics that has been developed in new research.in fact, we seek to analyze the intellectual foundations of metaphor from the perspective of philosophical ontology, as well as the function of this metaphor in the production of meaning which opens the metaphor against a Small and limited aesthetic in the word and sentence.The metaphor in the old rhetorics focuses on the word. it should be considered as a kind of thinking and released the beauty of the word. with such a look, metaphor goes beyond the scope of cognition and cognitive science. because knowledge depends on previous experiences, while metaphor is based on a philosophical and future-oriented ontology.

Keywords: traditional rhetoric, metaphor, word, existence, philosophy

Introduction

From the perspective of ontological philosophy, the metaphor has crossed the limit of the word and with the influence of a thought that considers the whole language as metaphor, poetry reaches the text world as the widespread and sometimes dynamic world of poetry text. The meaning of the text universe here is a large intellectual foundation that translates the whole of the language into metaphor. Philosophical ontology-based metaphor seems to be a good platform for analyzing the text world from this perspective. Ontological metaphor is formed on the basis of philosophical ontology. The author believes that metaphor is equal to the whole language. and if we examine metaphor with ontological look, we have provided a vast semantic meaning for some of the poems and with this kind of thinking, the concept of beauty is transformed.

1.Metaphor in the beauty of the word

It is not surprising that any serious study of metaphor is almost obliged to start with the works of Aristotle. Aristotle was interested in the relationship of metaphor to language and the role of metaphor in communication. (Ortony,1993,3) Metaphor focuses on the appearance and form of the word in traditional topics and if you want to look deeper into this content it can be said that metaphor in this thought, is summarized in the word and the metaphor is still limited to the goal of beauty. in this part meaning does not have depth and the framework of meaning and image in general is specific and limited. This kind of metaphor is limited in words and its function is limited in beauty which is readily understood by the limited aesthetic experience of the reader.

2.Metaphor and language

In this context, the relationship between language and metaphor is in fact the same as the general concept of metaphor as a kind of thinking. from this perspective, metaphor enjoys profound philosophical foundations and is by no means limited to traditional aesthetics or even cognitive science.

Here the metaphor derives from the metaphysical and ontological origins, and the metaphor from this perspective is placed against the attitude of analytic philosophy that focuses on literalism and precision in the vocabulary. (Fathzadeh,2011,1-2) on the other hand, our metaphor goes far beyond metaphor based on poetic language because such an approach brings it into the traditional aesthetic realm and as we said, we are not looking for this kind of metaphor.

Davari Ardakani in explaining the relation between language and metaphor explicitly states that "metaphor is not merely a literary industry, but a metaphorical language".(Davari Ardakani and others,2012,8) He believes that language is originally from the metaphor and emphasizes the essential role of language that is inherently metaphorical because language gives knowledge to human and human beings with language can express their relation to the origin of existence and the world And such a language is a living language And the living language is also metaphorical (The same source,14 and 15) in this regard, Hawkes believes that talking about metaphor from point of view "Irish

Richards", "The language is definitely not a garment that covers the stature of thought; That is, there is no medium through which we pass on information about the reality that exists in the "real world" ahead of us. on the contrary, language makes that reality ... "(Hawks,1998,89) In his view and in explaining Richards's vision, the main use of metaphor is the expansion and development of language because the language is reality and the metaphor of the expansion of reality (The same, 95) This means the Liberation of the metaphor that Derrida has put forward. it should be noted that "Meaning does not control language from outside, of course, Meaning is the result of a metaphor; The metaphors that form the basis of language "(Fathzadeh,2011,14) with this statement, Lakoff and Johnson concluded that Metaphor, contrary to traditional views in philosophy, including rationalism and empiricism and also, unlike Kant's thinking, it works to understand human beings and from this perspective, metaphor is a mechanism for creating a new meaning and new realities in life.(Lakoff and Johnson,2015,293-294)

It is clear that metaphor from this perspective as the basis of language can have the function of fundamental creation in the production of meaning, and in particular poetry because "the poet is actively engaged in the process of" expanding meaning "with the conscious use of metaphor and by virtue of these new areas of reality, discover new areas for language, records a new dimension of experience, and it is expressed by the new language "(Hawks,1998,95) One of the important sources that the author of this article finds is the book(An Interdisciplinary Perspective on the Congnitive Meaning of Linguistic Metaphor, compiled) by Zur Erlangung des. In this book, the author initially looks at the metaphor from the traditional point of view and within the framework of Aristotle's perspective. subsequently, in later stages, he analyzes the metaphor from the perspective of Saussure's structuralism, the Pragmatism, and then philosophically. and it turns out that metaphor is inherently philosophical, and then goes on to the philosophical dimensions of metaphor.

However, language is generally ambiguous and signs are arbitrary by nature. Hence metaphorical meaning does not differ from ordinary speech with regard to it's semiotics. The relation between linguistic signs and the objects they signify is generally arbitrary and established by convention. (Zur Erlangung des,1997.74) but the nature of metaphor.it's identification and interpretation have intrigued philosophers ever since language has been examined, but until recently. Metaphor was regarded as deviance from the normal, literal use of language. (The same, 105) There are so many poems in Arabic and Persian that has such a property. in this view, we can say that the language is the same metaphor and the metaphor of the same language.the results of this article becomes more pronounced in poetry, because the metaphorical nature of the language in the poem is more evident and here we can say that from a philosophical point of view we want to understand poetry from the perspective of metaphor. a metaphor that is the basis of the existence or existence of a poem. The more poetry is dynamic, the better for our purpose.

3. Metaphorical thinking in terms of philosophical ontology (text universe)

The metaphor in this section has a wider scope and is abandoned from the small world of word and the whole language is metaphor. here, metaphor Looks at the world of poetry as a dynamic world. The meaning of the text universe is a broad intellectual foundation that transforms the entire language into metaphor. Philosophical ontology-based metaphor seems to be a good platform for analyzing the text world from this perspective. As we said before ontological metaphor is formed on the basis of philosophical ontology and this is known from its name.

This is the exact opposite of the traditional look because in classical theories of language, metaphor was seen a matter of language, not thought. (Ortony,1993,202) The function of the ontological metaphor is, in fact, to present a new ontological domain or state to the general concepts in the destination domain. This kind of metaphor from the source region presents a limited cognitive structure. Using this kind of metaphor can create new abstract concepts. (Kovecses,2014,63-64) from this angle, in the case of literary texts, and especially poetry, the ontological metaphor can lead to the production of dynamic meanings.

The metaphor will not be made up of a word or phrase. but in Lakoff's expression, the metaphor emerges from an ontological similarity between the two domains of origin and destination. Hence, metaphor does not depend on language, but on thought. The role of language in this field is secondary and similarity has a primary role. The ontological similarity exists between elements of two realms. But the relations of other elements of the realm are in the work .(Davari Ardakani and others,2012,34)   The ontological metaphor is related to the issue of Existence. in simple terms, the domain of origin in this metaphor draws the reader into the realm of being as a destination. It is clear that in this kind of metaphor of poetry, and in particular semantic poems, it can create a vast destination territory. and the ontological metaphor enters an unknown stage. If the territory of destination is hermeneutical in that case, it can be said that the peak of the metaphor in this kind of ontology is defined.

Lafont in his book (Heidegger, language and world-disclosure) emphasizes the role of language and its place in Heidegger's Being and Time. here it may be argued that the concept of metaphor relates to the concept of Dazein in Heidegger's view. the understanding of being(Existence) is considered as always pre-given to Dasein because Dasein

shares a language that accomplishes a world-disclosure. (Lafont,200.24) Persian and Arabic mystical poems and some contemporary semantic poems such as Adonis, Sohrab Sepehri and ... can be good examples for analyzing our metaphor and its role in the dynamics and presence of poems. many of Hafez, Sa'di, Rumi's, Ibn Farez's poems are metaphors that try to discover the origin of human being and the universe. this is the basis of Sufi poetry such as Adonis or Sepehri, who are themselves influenced by great poets. The realm of this knowledge is endless,

As previously stated, from the philosophical point of view and attitude of ontology to metaphor, poetry can be understood from the perspective of metaphor as the basis of the existence or existence of poetry. now, the more dynamic the poetry is, the closer it will be to our purpose and it will be more suitable for such an attitude. Many semantic poems and mystical poems both in Arabic and Persian can be metaphors arranged by the poet so that the poet seeks expression indescribable. The world and his expression is the goal of this poets. The spirit of world is the metaphor for the future. understanding such a metaphor does not rely on beauty in similarity or cognition but this kind of metaphor does not fall into a particular definition and for man, in addition to intuition and understanding, it is the expansion of understanding. this world can not be defined and the poet only tries to make this indescribable expression. So all that this poet seeks for is a metaphor of Their world.

Results

In this paper it became clear that the metaphor in traditional rhetorics is limited in terms of word and appearance. but metaphor takes on a different and broader conception of the ontological philosophy. by applying this kind of metaphor to meaningful poems in addition to expanding the arena of meaning and the concept of text, beauty and identity will change. and ultimately, such an attitude leads to the growth of thought and culture. this paper proposes a fundamentally ontological metaphor and the continuation of this path requires new research.

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Exploring EFL Students' Perception of Teachers' Rapport-Building Strategies

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Abstract

Current body of research on teacher-student rapport, while demonstrating its positive impacts on students' achievements and classroom learning outcome, fails to address two fundamental questions of what is exactly perceived by the students as a real instance of rapport-building strategy and how these strategies take place in real-life situation. Besides, students can have different experiences in the same classroom context which entails the need for considering each individual student's feeling towards a teacher's strategy in order to ascribe rapport to that strategy. Therefore, this study aims to qualitatively explore Iranian EFL teachers' rapport-building strategies through delving into the teacher-student interactions in an Iranian classroom context employing motometers filled by the students during each classroom session, semi-structured interviews conducted with each of the students, video-taped classroom sessions. For the qualitative purpose of this study, we decided a limit of nine participants comprised of eight university students of Computer Engineering (CE) who were attending their General English (GE) course class and their teacher who was a Ph.D. holder in the field of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). The content analysis of the gathered data through MaxQDA software and Critical Incident Technique (CIT) indicated that the teachers' rapport-building strategies would take place in different ways, revealing seven themes: (1) teacher's self-disclosure (2) teacher's sense of humor (3) teacher's mitigating feedbacks and judgments (4) teacher's attentive behavior (5) teacher's off-task informal talk (6) teacher's role as a counselor (7) teacher's affable behavior. This study offers insight into the teacher's behaviors which students perceived as the teacher's rapport-building strategies and provides practical guidelines for teachers and teacher trainers on how to build rapport with their EFL students through the provision of real-life instances of rapport-building strategies and how to avoid rapport-hampering activities.

Keywords: Teacher's rapport-building strategies, Teacher-student interactions, Critical Incident Technique

1. Introduction

Rapport is mostly identified as a sense of mutual trust, emotional connections and attractions, and the ease of communication during an interaction (Faranda & Clarke, 2004; Gremler & Gwinner, 2000). High-rapport in an interaction can be characterized as deep mutual interests and care about one another among the participants of an interaction (Tickle-Degnen & Rosenthal, 1990). Establishing rapport in teacher-student interactions is one of the most significant teachers' teaching responsibilities, indicating that they should build a friendly and motivating classroom atmosphere to help EFL students feel confident, relaxed, and ready to learn (Doff, 1988; Krashen & Terell, 1983; Tsui, 1996), and this would not be achieved unless their instructional role is counterbalanced by their interpersonal role.

The teacher's interpersonal role, as the one who is the main determiner of dominant type of classroom discourse, is crucial in the establishment of a friendly and relaxed atmosphere in the classroom (Park, 2016). Although the instructional role is the most important role of a teacher (Fagersten, 2012; Nguyen, 2007), the teacher's interpersonal role has been asserted to be a significant factor in helping the students feel relaxed, gain voice, and learn better (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Worley, Titsworth, Worley, & Cornett-DeVito, 2007). On the basis of Affective Filter Hypothesis (Krashen, 1985), second language (L2) learners cannot take in comprehensible input and produce the language unless they feel relaxed and comfortable. Furthermore, Rodriguez, Plax, and Kearney (1996) in their Affective Learning Model (ALM) argued that positive teacher behaviors arouse affect toward the teacher and the class, which improves students' learning.

Moreover, teachers' utilized classroom discourse plays a crucial role in creating a friendly atmosphere in the classroom context (Park, 2016). Classroom discourse comprised of two main functions of language which overlap continuously. These functions are the transactional, which refers to the transfer of information, and the interactional, which refers to the establishing and maintaining social relationships (Brown & Yule, 1983). Although, the transactional function of language plays the main role in classroom discourse (Ellis, 2004), several studies underlined the role of interactional function of language in classroom discourse and its impact on students learning process (e.g., Coupland, 2003; O'Donnell, Hmelo-Silver, & Erkens, 2013; Placencia, 2004; Wenger, 1998). The goal-oriented nature of the classroom discourse is not purely instructional (Park, 2016). Teachers strive to motivate student learning and to

establish a satisfying relationship with students (Ellis, 2004). While resorting to the interactional function of language, they apply the off-task talk which is less instructional and more conversational in nature (Markee, 2005). Off-task talk in the classroom discourse is the way for L2 learners to experience interpersonal interaction through real world communication (Markee, 2005). This type of classroom discourse provides the opportunity for teachers to build a positive and comfortable classroom atmosphere, which leads to a higher students' participation in the classroom as a community of practice (Doff, 1988; Lave & Wenger, 1991).

Interactions in instructional settings were almost always been the focus of attention and research studies. For instance, Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) and Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) have received lots of attention by several scholars (Gourlay, 2005; Lee 2007; Lemke, 1989; Nassaji & Wells, 2000; Nystrand, 1997; van Lier, 1996). Likewise, interactional strategies, such as pair work, which are relevant to the communicative language teaching, have been the focus of several research studies (Foster & Ohta, 2005; Mori & Hasegawa 2009). Not surprisingly, much less attention has been paid to those less legitimate moments in which the teachers try to build up a kind of rapport with their students through the application of various strategies such as off-task talk (Markee, 2004) or humor (Pomerantz & Bell, 2007) specially in EFL classroom context.

Although the extremely positive impacts of establishing rapport in classroom-interactions on achievements and classroom learning outcomes of both first and second language students have been demonstrated by several studies (e.g., Dewaele 2013; Frisby & Myers, 2008; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope 1986; Roach, Cornett-Devito, & Devito, 2005; Schrodt & Witt, 2006), an in-depth look at what is exactly perceived by the students as a real instance of rapport-building strategy and how these strategies take place are almost missing from the body of research (Frisby & Martin, 2010; Webb & Barrett, 2014). Current body of research lacks an appreciation of what EFL teachers practically can do to build rapport with students while teaching, at least in the context of Iran; that is, a practical exploration of the mechanisms by which rapport is built and maintained in an Iranian classroom context. Furthermore, almost all studies on this topic fail to address one fundamental issue that is rapport is a sense that should be emotionally felt by the students in a real-life situation. A strategy cannot be called rapport-building strategy unless its emotional effect is felt directly by the students in that specific context. Moreover, simple cause and effect explanations and the prescription of simple solutions for problems are of limited value (Larsen-Freeman, 2016). According to Larsen-Freeman (2016), classroom ecology comprised of not only teachers, students, thoughts, actions, attitudes, etc., but also physical and temporal aspects. It means, even a simple change in temperature of the classroom can potentially influence the final outcome. Besides, it should be taken into account that "Individual students can have quite different experiences within the same classroom" (Nuthall, 2004, p.297) which entail the need for considering each individual student's feeling towards a teacher strategy in order for ascribing rapport to that strategy.

Rapport-building strategies used by teachers can be a way through which methodological conventions are counterbalanced by creativity. These strategies can be explored in a specific cultural context. Therefore, this study aims to qualitatively explore an Iranian EFL teacher's behavior perceived by the students as rapport-building strategy through delving the teacher-students interactions in Iranian EFL classroom context.

2. Review of literature

Despite the wide application of the term rapport in both academic and non-academic publications, very few studies present a specific definition of rapport. In some cases, the dictionary definitions are used (e.g. Nguyen, 2007). Tannen (1991) attempted to define rapport as "a way of establishing connections and negotiating relationships in which the emphasis is placed on displaying similarities and matching experiences" (p. 77). Kohlan (1973) asserted that teacher's rapport is a more stable characteristic over time than other course characteristics. Lowman (1994) defined interpersonal rapport as the teachers' ability to communicate with a positive attitude, to lead their classes with a democratic leadership style, and to run the class in a predictable manner (i.e., a well prepared and organized teacher).

Teacher rapport as one of the most important aspects of teaching influential on student course ratings (Cranton & Smith, 1986) is the emphasis of this study. Ethic of caring plays a significant role in defining what is an effective teacher (Rogers & Webb, 1991). Therefore, rapport between student and teacher can be considered a significant indicator for measuring teacher effectiveness (Elzey, 1998).

One of the initial methods of measuring teacher effectiveness was the application of Student's Evaluation of Seminary (SES), which was first implemented in 1964 (Richins, 1973). The main purpose for the application of this scale was to assess teacher recruiting volunteers. Elzey (1998) further concluded that this scale was a generalized rating of whether students liked their teacher (i.e., a rating reflecting teacher rapport). However, this sort of scales failed to examine the specific behaviors teachers used to develop rapport with their students. Although, there exist several research studies which illustrate the students' belief in the importance of rapport in teaching effectiveness (Faranda & Clarke, 2004), lots of these studies where based on the students' perceptions of the teachers themselves (Frisby & Martin, 2010).

As it was mentioned before, the teacher-student relationship is the combination of interpersonal and instructional relationships (Dobransky & Frymier, 2004). On the other hand, rapport is based in a relationship which means it is experienced in an interpersonal relationship (Jorgenson, 1992).

In providing teachers some explicit guidelines for building rapport, Brown (1994) suggested that teachers can develop a sense of mutual trust and respect with their students by (1) showing concern for her students, (2) being attentive to individual student's progress, (3) encouraging students to talk about their thoughts and feelings, (4) respecting and appreciating students' ideas, (5) having a sense of humor, (6) cooperating with students as a team, and (7) showing happiness when students succeed. However, these suggested guidelines on teacher-student rapport ignore three significant issues. First, a combination of instructional and social functions in the classroom context is really a demanding job. Teachers' instructional role brings up many situations that are face-threatening for students (Brown & Levinson, 1987), such as asking students to answer questions and correcting students' mistakes (Manke, 1990). The teachers' instructional role puts them in a higher position than the students which potentially create distance between the teacher and students. To remove this distance, teachers' instructional and the interpersonal role should be involved simultaneously. The second issue is the real depiction of rapport in real classroom context. Rapport is cumulatively constructed in contextualized and specific interactions among the participants. The decontextualized guidelines and recommendations lists can hardly show how rapport can be built, in other words, how a teacher can create, develop, and maintain rapport in ongoing classroom interaction. And finally the third issue is the consideration of students' immediate feelings and ideas before ascribing any sort of rapport-building effect to a strategy.

Therefore, this study aims to extend this line of research and provide teachers with the real instances of strategies, perceived by Iranian EFL students as rapport-building strategies, which were used by an Iranian EFL teacher to encourage and develop rapport in the classroom context. This study tries to provide concrete examples of teacher-student interaction through which rapport is created through qualitative exploration of real teacher-students interactions and the observation of teachers' utilized strategies and their effects on the students' perceived rapport within an Iranian EFL classroom context. Consequently, this study aims to answer the following questions:

- What specific teacher behaviors do Iranian EFL students view as rapport building strategies?
- In what ways do the teachers apply these rapport-building strategies in real classroom context?

It is hoped that by looking at rapport-building strategies in EFL classroom context using CIT, this study will not only expand the pedagogical contexts in which rapport-building strategies are explored but also complement the existing perspectives in this area. In particular, this study hopes to achieve a fine-grained understanding of how teacher-student rapport is built at the pragmatic level and what it accomplishes in situ.

3. Methods
3.1. Participants

The current research was conducted in English language department of Faculty of Humanities in Shahrekord University, Iran over a period of two months and within eight classroom sessions, in academic year of 2018-2019. For the qualitative purpose of this study and in order to allow for the intensive concentration and observation in part of the researcher, a limit of nine participants was decided comprised of eight university students of Computer Engineering (CE) who were attending their GE course class (four males and four females) and their male teacher who was a Ph.D. holder in the field of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) with nine years of teaching experience. The teacher was a full-time, experienced teacher and was considered by his colleagues and students to be highly competent, creative and humorous. The number of participants was thought to be sufficient and kept small in order to keep the data collection and analysis manageable and to delve into individual, contextual, an interactional factors influencing students' perceived rapport carefully (Ritchie, Lewis, Nicholls, & Ormston, 2013; Waninge, De Bot & Dornyei, 2014). The selection of participants was done based on convenience sampling.

We emphasized that the students' participation should be voluntary and their withdrawal will be possible at any time and informed consent was obtained from the participants before the research study began. The student participants' demographic information is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Demographic information of the student participants

	Age	Gender	University year	Major
Fatemeh	22	Female	3	CE
Shabnam	21	Female	3	CE
Maryam	22	Female	3	CE
Sara	22	Female	3	CE
Omid	23	Male	3	CE
Majid	22	Male	3	CE
Ali	25	Male	3	CE
Mohsen	22	Male	3	CE

3.2. Instrumentation

On the basis of the main purpose and the qualitative nature of this study, different types of data collection tools were applied by the researchers to record ongoing observations to ensure the data collection is done thoroughly. The data collection tools are as follows:

3.2.1. Motometers

Motometers were filled by the students during each classroom session for online measurement of their felt rapport in the classroom. Gardner and his colleagues (2004) used motometer for the first time to measure students' motivation. In this study, motometer was designed in several equal parts based on time intervals in a classroom session. In another study which is conducted recently by Waning, De Bot and Dornyei (2014), motometer was utilized in order to explore the motivational dynamics in three aspects of change, stability, and context.

In the current study, motometer was based on 7 time intervals of 10 minutes. It was an A4 size paper sheet comprised of thermometer-shaped figures - each of which was representative of a time interval - horizontally divided into 11 parts and each part showed a level of rapport (0 indicated the lowest level of rapport and 10 indicated the highest level of rapport). The students were instructed to indicate level of their perceived rapport based on time intervals of ten minutes. There was some free space at the bottom of the motometer for the students' probable elaboration on their contributions. An example of motometer could be seen in Appendix A.

3.2.1. Video-taped classroom sessions

Simultaneously, the researcher video-taped the classroom sessions to unfold the classroom activities, interactions, tasks, assignments, and track the students' motometers on its basis.

3.2.1. Semi-structured interview

This type of interview is the most used type in applied linguistic research and it has flexibility in treating different respondents differently without any deviation from the overall framework of data collection. It also has an open-ended format to allow for elaboration on the issues emerging during the interview (Dornyei, 2007).

This study draws on participant interviews to access learners' perceptions of teachers' rapport-building strategies and their perspectives on the influence of these strategies. According to van Lier (2008), applying introspective data can add to the depth of interactional analysis. It is assumed that understanding learners' beliefs and expectations of their teachers' rapport building strategies can help the teachers align their strategies with the students' expectations and this alignment determines the ways in which participants can establish a stress-free learning environment. The interview guide was on the basis of the students' filled motometers and they were supposed to elaborate on the justifications for their attributions of high or low rapport. The interviews were voice-recorded.

3.2. Procedure

This study was conducted within eight classroom sessions. At least first three sessions were supposed to be initial observations in order to acclimatize the teachers and their students to the presence of videotape equipment and the researcher, and at the same time these three sessions were used to prepare the subjects for the process of the research and to make them familiar with motometer. In these three sessions there was no actual data collection.

The classes were 80 minutes long, and the videotaping and filling motometers stated 10 minutes into the lesson which means each taping lasted 70 minutes. Data included videotaping of teacher-student interactions and one-on-one participant voice-recorded interviews. Videotaping of interactions captured the participants' verbal and nonverbal actions during interaction. After each classroom session, a semi-structured interview was conducted with each of the students. The data elicitation benefits of the interviews design were twofold. First, they were designed to elicit students'

expectations and attitudes towards their teachers' rapport and rapport-building strategies which provided a holistic perspective on the types of rapport-building strategies. Second, the interviews were also designed to help the students elaborate on their filled motometers and express their personal opinions on the rapport-building strategies used by the teacher. Each interview lasted approximately 10–20 minutes.

3.4. Data analysis

The data obtained from video-taped classroom sessions, motometers, and semi-structured interviews, were subscribed, given to the interviewees for validation, read, coded and revised by taking advantage of MAXQDA software program (Belous, 2012). Following qualitative analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994) and grounded theory approach (Strauss & Corbin, 1994), the transcripts were read several times to identify salient themes. The themes that emerged were included as the expected and perceived teachers' rapport-building strategies. We utilized grounded theory approach (Strauss & Corbin, 1994) in this study and we were moving back and forth between the gathered data and theory construction and searching for the patterns and clusters to successively and gradually emerge from the data (Gan, Humphreys, & Hamp-Lyons, 2004). We labeled students' perceived teachers' rapport-building strategies through open coding, then we categorized them through axial coding of the data and we grouped the sub-categories under one axial category. Ultimately, through the application of selective coding, we select the inclusive variable which reflects all elements of the analysis (Corbin & Strauss, 2014; Shawer, Gilmore, & Banks-Joseph, 2009). In the codification process, one independent coder who was an expert in this area was invited to code students students' perceived teachers' rapport-building strategies and it resulted in an inter-coder - the independent expert and one of the researchers - agreement of 92.3% which surpassed the threshold of 90% endorsed by Miles and Huberman (1994).

Moreover, this study focuses on identifying and analyzing moments of interactions in which students believe their teachers use rapport-building strategies. Therefore, CIT was employed to examine moments of teacher-student interactions wherein teachers' rapport building strategies are noticed by the students and become visible in their interaction. Analysis of the moments when teacher-student relationships are jointly constructed can provide empirical evidence of interactional practices that teachers perform in the process of doing teaching which provides the students with a friendly atmosphere. CIT, which was first developed by Flanagan (1954), is a qualitative research method that can be used in order to involve observed critical incidents and significant instances of the activity which is under study. Analysis of critical incidents helps researchers to gain insight into how and why people take part in the activity (Hughes, 2012). CIT is regularly utilized in order to provide researcher with students' view of teaching practice (Phelan, 2012), and to refine pedagogical effectiveness (Kain, 1997).

The unpredictable, dynamic, and unfolding nature of the social interactions was taken into account in this study. There exist moments in the interaction when the teacher-student interactions seem to revolve around social and interpersonal relationship rather than teacher-student relationship. Therefore, to make the application of CIT possible, the classroom interactions were all videotaped. Thereby, the inspection of every single cases of verbal and non-verbal interaction was made possible. Consequently, every observable interactional resource out of which, rapport was established and developed by teachers was detected.

4. Results

The analysis of the gathered data based on the students' interviews indicated that they believed the teachers' rapport-building strategies took place in different ways which were categorized in seven themes: (1) teacher's self-disclosure (2) teacher's sense of humor (3) teacher's mitigating feedbacks and judgments (4) teacher's attentive behavior (5) teacher's off-task informal talk (6) teacher's role as a counselor (7) teacher's affable behavior. Finally, the students' interviews revealed some teacher's rapport-hampering behaviors which are included in this table in order to be considered by teachers.

Some real instances of teacher's rapport building strategies from the students' perspective found in each category are discussed below. Table 2 delineates seven themes and their examples, which are driven from students' interviews, filled motometers, and video-taped classroom sessions.

4.1. Teacher's self-disclosure

The teacher-students interactions analysis indicates that the teachers occasionally integrate self-disclosure in instructional phases of the classrooms by telling stories to help clarify the materials. Self-disclosure is any self-message which is communicated to another person (Wheeless & Grotz, 1976). This strategy was applied by the teacher for several times and the succeeding students' interviews indicated that it was also perceived by the students as a rapport-building strategy.

Excerpt 1 provides an instance of a student's idea about the teacher integration of self-disclosure into his instructional discourse. Omid explained that, this strategy took place shortly after the start of the class which was held early in the morning. The students were supposed to talk about transportation problems.

Excerpt 1:

I am not good at speaking tasks, or it's better to say that I'm not good at the tasks which require vocabulary knowledge and it is related to my previous poor background knowledge. Moreover, I didn't want to be different from my classmates. I thought that others were not answering the question and, if I did, there would be a weird sense of being different. But after some silence, when the teacher started to talk about his own experience of getting seasick, everything changed. The silence was broken and everyone was talking and sharing ideas. Speaking proficiency was not important and our teacher helped us to explain our experiences about the topic. I felt great about this and shared a lot on the topic. (Omid, Interview 4, November 3, 2018)

The teacher's integration of self-disclosure with institutional talk removed students' affective barriers and involved them in the discussion and made a cooperative stress-free classroom environment.

4.2. Teacher's sense of humor

This study illustrated that the teacher tried to alleviate his instructional role by raising his sense of humor during the classroom interaction in order to help students overcome their negative feelings.

In excerpt 2, Majid talked about the teacher's sense of humor while he was talking about one of the characters in the American English File book who was jealous of his girlfriend's attention to a man. It should be noted that talking about the relationship between boys and girls is considered nonconformist and eccentric in Iranian educational context.

Excerpt 2:

Well, he started the class with a sense of humor and he was very energetic which made the class atmosphere happier and even his behavior changed my mood. Let's say ... Um, we were a little bit surprised by the first topic and the way the teacher talked about it ... Although the topic was a peculiar one, he managed to subtilize it through joshing the topic and mixed it by our own customs. Shortly after, we were supposed to comment on "what if we were in the young man's shoes?" (Majid, Interview 5, November 10, 2018)

Although, the results of motometers and various EFL students' interviews demonstrated its overall positive effect on the students felt rapport, in some cases the results revealed the negative effects of teacher's sense of humor on the teacher-student rapport. This was evident in session three where the teacher tried to be humorous by talking about the stereotype of the city of Isfahan which is being stingy. The topic for the discussion was about bargaining for a lower price. The discussion started a few minutes after managing a friendly talk about "shopping smart". Five student participants of this study were from Isfahan province and the effect of that naïve application of humor was clear inside these students' motometers and a quarrel started between students. The composite data display chart, which is based on students' filled motometers of the third classroom session, is presented in Figure1.

Excerpt 3:

Since I think it is the teacher's responsibility to explain the topic and its grammatical points, I will not do the writing task. You know what I mean...So, instead of talking about Isfahan and mocking its people characteristics, he can focus on his teaching responsibilities. Therefore, I will wait for the teacher to do his job. (Maryam, Interview 3, October 27, 2018).

Table 2: Themes with examples derived from students' interviews and motometers.

	Function	Examples from students' interviews
Teacher's self-disclosure	Rapport-building	I was really excited to hear about his personal experience of traveling abroad.
		His story gave me a hint on how to answer his question.
		His experience of military service was so exciting that it grabbed everyone's attention.
	Rapport-hampering	He spoke arrogantly about his travels … I think it was a waste of time.
Teacher's sense of humor	Rapport-building	He makes jokes out of something serious … he can sweeten the topic tactfully.
		He is a fun man. His sense of humor makes a friendly atmosphere in the class.
		He amusingly impersonate Trump … he

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		conveyed his criticisms satirically through his funny role-play.
	Rapport-hampering	Instead of talking about Isfahan and mocking its people characteristics, he can focus on his teaching responsibilities.
Teacher's mitigating feedbacks and judgments	Rapport-building	He didn't blame me for my wrong answer. I didn't do my assignments but I was very lucky. He asked for volunteers to answer the questions.
Teacher's attentive behavior	Rapport-building	He answered my question immediately. He changed the topic when he understood that we didn't like it. I thought he wouldn't care about our topic preference but I was wrong. He let us choose the topic ourselves. He didn't blame me for the missing assignments … he just offered me help for the part I couldn't understand
Teacher's off-task informal talk	Rapport-building	When sharing of personal ideas and experiences carried out, the class atmosphere became very friendly and active. Talking about the soccer match changed the atmosphere, my stress decreased … He is really friendly …
	Rapport-hampering	I think he should understand that most girls are not interested in politics. I think that was a waste of time.
Teacher's role as a counselor	Rapport-building	He could have forced us to do the assignment, but he didn't. Instead, he tried to convince us by changing the topic and teaching us how to deal with it. I didn't know how to justify my idea. To tell the truth I knew but I couldn't say. He helped me through giving tangible examples.
Teacher's affable behavior	Rapport-building	He is really friendly and sociable. I could easily talk to him about my problem … He is a caring teacher. When he [one of the students] said the word [a taboo word], the teacher immediately distracted us by asking a question. [He didn't give the student a bad reaction.]
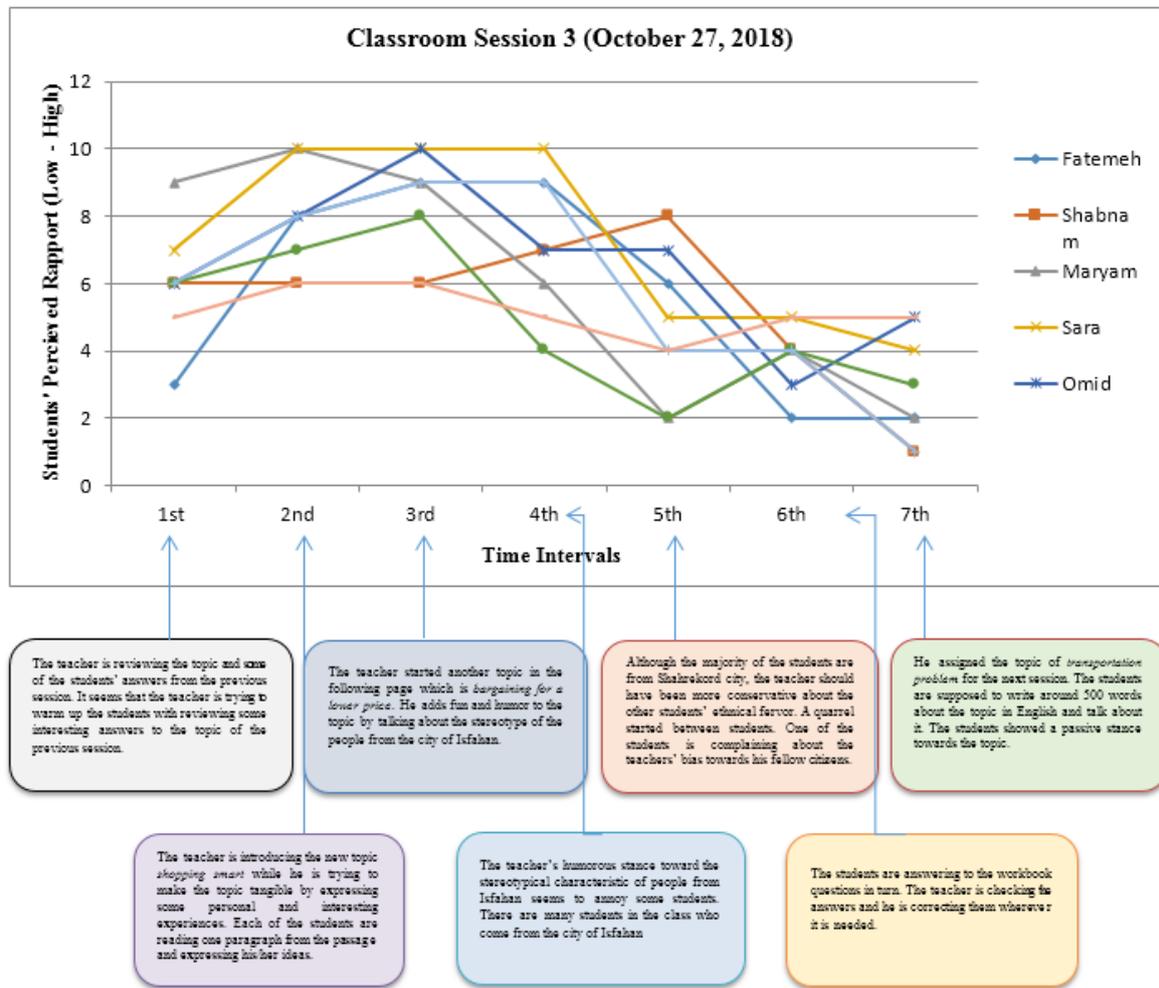
Fig. 1. Composite Data Display Chart Sample Based on Motometers

4.3. Teacher's mitigating feedbacks and judgments

There exist lots of instances in which the teachers tried to avoid giving direct and harsh feedback and judgment to the students' errors through the application of different strategies. In excerpt 4, Fatemeh highlights the ways in which the teachers tried to soften the impacts of correction and evaluation and subsequently avoid rapport deterioration in the classroom environment. Offering a positive evaluation by the teacher before any kind of correction can help the teacher build and develop rapport with his/her students. This classroom session revolves around answering to the workbooks questions and the students were supposed to answer the questions in turn.

Excerpt 4:

I raised my hand for several times because our errors in these classroom tasks are not counted towards our course grade so…um… I didn't worry about my speaking deficiencies. In fact, not only he doesn't take notes of our errors, but also he helps us in answering the questions whenever needed. (Fatemeh, Interview 1, October 13, 2018).

4.4. Teacher's attentive behavior

An attentive teacher demonstrates behaviors which offer his personal interest and recognition to students. Through the demonstration of truly attentive behavior the teacher tries to show that he understands and supports his students. Teacher gives students the chance to comment on how they feel. The teacher is responsive and attentive to each comment and shows his interest to help his students overcome the negative feelings which might block their learning. Also, some other behaviors of the same category might be calling students by their first names, demonstrating his concern for his students' future job, showing willingness to meet his students outside of the classroom and educational context, and indicating a sense of commitment toward the students' achievements and success.

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The results which were elicited from the students' filled motometers and their interviews and the observed teacher's strategies in videotaped classroom sessions clearly approved the rapport-building effect of this strategy among the participants of this study. The teacher demonstrated his attentive stance toward his students in several ways. For instance, whenever he noticed a bad mood in a student facial appearance, he tried to show his concern by talking to the student privately to see whether he could be of some help.

In classroom session 4, Sara was about 15 minutes late. The teacher asked for explanation for the delay. As soon as he noticed the problem, he tried to alleviate her stress by ensuring her that he would help her to cope with the problem. This behavior had an evident effect on Sara's filled motometer and excerpt 5 testifies to the depth of this effect.

Excerpt 5:

I really don't know what is wrong with my way of clothing. I was debarred from entering the university by the security office ... they took my student card then they let me in. it is really an oppressive situation and I'm really worried about it ... he [teacher] told me that he can help me to get my student card back ... He is a kind and caring man. (Sara, Interview 4, November 3, 2018)

4.5. Teacher's off-task informal talk

There are several instances in the observed classes where the teacher engaged students in off-task informal dialogues which are mostly based on students' topic related experiences and created a conversational frame during instructional frame. This strategy displays teacher's interest in the student's activities and experiences. This interest can help the teacher to establish teacher-student rapport (Waring, 2014). This strategy seemed to be highly effective in the involvement of the students and the removal of the barriers in the teacher-students relationship.

In excerpt 6, Mohsen presented his point of view about an example of these informal conversations in which the teacher develops a conversational frame by inviting the student to talk about the place in which they prefer to spend their summer. When the students were sharing their personal experiences, the teacher paid such an attention and enthusiasm as if he is one of the students in the class and no positional barrier was felt by almost all of the students.

Excerpt 6:

Ok..., I don't like to show off or to preempt others, um..., so I usually wouldn't answer questions more than once. You know, sometimes my friends wanted to talk but they had nothing to talk about, but somehow today they had a lot to say. When sharing of personal ideas and experiences carried out, the class atmosphere became very friendly and active. He [teacher] shared his own experience about the topic and then everyone tried to share something. That was sort of fun ... he was enjoying listening to our ideas ... I couldn't help it. I kept sharing one after another. Yeah..., I really enjoyed the class today. I think the topic was interesting and everyone had something to share. (Mohsen, Interview 2, October 20, 2018)

4.6. Teacher's role as a counselor

Teacher assumes the role of a counselor when he recognizes the threatening situation which learning new materials can bring about and consequently supports his students in their struggle to learn. Counseling behaviors include the teacher's credibility and clear communication with his/her students in which he/she shares information, give advice, and clarifies his/her expectations regarding student responsibilities. This teacher is even supportive in his/her nonverbal communication behaviors such as nodding and making eye contact with students.

This strategy was pointed out by different students in different ways. For instance, Ali elaborated on this aspect of teacher' behavior for several times and he considered this behavior as a kind of rapport building strategy. Excerpt 7 presents an instance of his comments on teacher's rapport-building through empathizing with his students. Toward the end of the classroom session 2, as soon as the teacher told the students their assignments for next session, the students started to complain about the amount of assignment. The teacher indicated an empathetic stance toward the situation and tried to convince the students that it is an easy job to accomplish the assignments in the allocated time. He tried to teach his students how they could plan for a successful accomplishment of their assignments in a friendly way. Besides, he used self-disclosure by telling his students a real instance of his simple but successful plan for dealing with his university courses.

Excerpt 7:

By the way, you know that complaining about the amount of assignments is common among the students. We tried to decrease the assignments as much as possible and usually this made the teacher annoyed ... fortunately, today, he [teacher] convinced us that the assignments were not too much and he even read one of the passages to assure us that it wouldn't take more than ten minute ... At the beginning of the semester he gave us his phone number and dedicated one hour a day to answer our questions about the course. (Ali, Interview 2, October 20, 2018)

4.7. Teacher's affable behavior

Affable teachers display honesty and respect to students. These teachers show supportive, flexible, consistent, and fair behaviors and they are willing to listen to their students and they create a classroom atmosphere in which their students can speak openly. An affable teacher respects and answers students' ideas and questions. Excerpt 8 presents Shabnam's idea about the teacher's respectful and friendly stance towards the students' ideas and opinions.

Excerpt 8:

You know that the question was "discuss clothing do's and don'ts". Actually, it was really interesting. Um…, I couldn't even imagine such a diversity of ideas among my classmates. Everyone shared a specific idea, respected the others ideas and reasons behind the ideas. During this semester he [teacher] somehow created an atmosphere of trust and respect in the class which made it easier for us to talk about our ideas and opinions without the fear of being judged or laughed at (Shabnam, Interview 5, November 10, 2018).

5. Discussion

The significance of establishing rapport in teacher-students interactions has been discussed in several research studies. (Brown, 1994; Coupland, 2000; Doff, 1988; Placencia, 2004). This study qualitatively explored Iranian EFL teachers' rapport-building strategies - as they were perceived by the EFL students - through delving the teacher-student interactions in Iranian EFL classroom context and provided teachers with the real instances of these strategies. The research questions guided this study were, "What specific teacher behaviors do Iranian students view as rapport building strategies?" and "In what ways do the teachers apply these rapport-building strategies in real classroom context?" To answer these questions, eight university students of CE who were attending their GE course class were chosen to take part in a qualitative study with three sources of data collection: motometer, video-taped classroom sessions, and semi-structured interviews.

The analysis of the gathered data found that the Iranian students participated in this study viewed seven different teacher strategies as rapport-building ones: teacher's self-disclosure, teacher's sense of humor, teacher's mitigating feedbacks and judgments, teacher's attentive behavior, teacher's off-task informal talk, teacher's role as a counselor, and teacher's affable behavior. According to the students' attitude towards the teacher's self-disclosure, although a few instances of rapport-hampering effects were seen in the gathered data, the students' attitudes towards their teacher's self-disclosure were surprisingly positive and mostly they were interested to hear about their teacher's personal experiences in different situations. It has evident positive effect on students' perceived rapport in classroom context. This finding is in line with the research studies done by Mazer, Murphy, and Simonds (2007), and Nadler (2007), which associated teachers' self-disclosure with positive classroom outcomes and rapport. This finding provides valuable insight into the importance of the teachers' tactful application of personal experiences and messages in establishing and maintaining rapport in their classes.

One strategy, which was discussed in several studies as a rapport-building strategy, is the integration of humor in the process of instruction (e.g., Boerman-Cornell, 1999; Gorham & Christophel, 1990; Nguyen, 2007; Park, 2016). The findings of this study also illustrated positive effect of resorting to the sense of humor in creating rapport in the teacher-student relationship, but it should be done with complete care about the students' religious and ethnic fervors, otherwise, this strategy will backfire and will result in rapport-hampering situations.

The finding of this study supports the idea of the rapport-building effect of any sorts of activities or behaviors which mitigates the students' error correction and judgments by teacher (Park, 2016; Pomerantz, 1984). This can be achieved through highlighting the positive aspects of student's contributions, giving a positive evaluation of the student's response before addressing the trouble, and making correction a kind of collaborative task among the students themselves.

The fourth most often mentioned behaviors perceived by the students as the rapport-building strategies were categorized under the attentive behaviors. This type of teacher's behavior was also emphasized by Burden and Byrd (1999), and Waring (2014). This finding reveals the students need to be treated as individuals and their need to see their teacher's concern about their attitudes, problems, and feelings. Arousing positive feeling and emotions among the participants in an interaction is the prerequisite for establishing rapport between those participants, thus an apathetic teacher, who does not emotionally involve the students, fails to establish this rapport among his students.

Another kind of behaviors, which students believed and perceived help teacher build rapport in the classroom context, are categorized under the theme off-task informal conversation. Coupland (2000) asserted that sharing personal information and details is a crucial part of establishment and confirmation of rapport in relationships. Students' sharing of personal experiences and knowledge seemed to create a sense of belonging and collaboration among the students and helps the pursuit and confirmation of rapport in the classroom context.

Chesebro and McCroskey (1998) claims that "clear or immediate teaching can help reduce student state receiver apprehension" (p.453). The students' interviews clearly revealed the positive effect of the teacher's clear stance and

expectations towards students' assignments and course evaluation. Even the teacher's devotion of a specific time out of the classroom ours for solving his students' problems reflected positively in students' interviews. Besides, the counseling behavior of the teachers seemed to soften the instructional role of the teacher and enhanced the intimacy between teacher and students.

Last but not the least, the final issue to be taken into account by the teachers is their affability towards their students which means creating warm, supportive, respectful, and open classroom atmosphere in their classes. Borich (1996) also emphasized that teacher's courtesy has positive effects on teacher-students relationship.

The findings of current study and several others illustrate that rapport is built in the teacher-student relationship through different and sometimes inter-related strategies and behaviors. But it should be taken into account that rapport can be destroyed much easier than being built in a relationship.

6. Conclusion

This study contributes to the existing body of knowledge on rapport by offering insight on specific teacher's behaviors and strategies which students perceived as the teacher's rapport-building strategies. These real-life strategies provide practical guidelines for teachers and teacher trainers on how to build rapport with students. It also provides some useful hints on the rapport-hampering activities to be avoided by the teachers.

A careful scrutiny of the rapport-building strategies presented in this study reveals the significance of the teacher's interpersonal role in establishing an atmosphere of trust and intimacy in class. In such classroom atmosphere, student's affective filter is at its lowest level and he/she gains voice, feels confident and ready to learn and flourish.

The rapport-building behaviors discovered in this study have practical implications for teachers at any level and can provide useful information for training and the evaluation of teachers. As it was mentioned before, rapport building is certainly one of the most significant criteria for teaching effectiveness (Catt, Miller & Schallenkamp, 2007) and its positive impacts on the students' achievements have been consistently demonstrated (e.g. Bean & Eaton, 2001; Coupland, 2003; Frisby & Myers, 2008; Zhang, 2004). Therefore, providing teachers with the real instances of strategies and behaviors which can improve rapport in classroom context is a crucial part of any kind of teacher training activity. The findings of this study put forth some real instances of the behaviors and activities which were directly perceived by the students as rapport-building strategies and they can be offered as suggestions for teachers on how to develop rapport in their classes. The provision of these examples especially for novice teachers can be a great help for them in the successful implantation of these strategies at the beginning stages of their teaching career.

Furthermore, the application of motometers along with semi-structured interviews and video-taped classroom sessions provided qualitative support to past research studies on rapport effects on students learning outcomes through the depiction of the extensive effects of students' felt rapport on their emotional stances and attitudes towards their teacher and classmates.

The current study, like any other study, bears a number of limitations. In fact, the current study did not investigate how students' age, gender, and fields of study can influence their perceived rapport and their impressibility of different kinds of teachers' strategies and behaviors. Besides, the teacher's years of experience and gender can also affect his/her applied strategies and behaviors in the process of establishing rapport. It would be a valuable topic for further study to investigate rapport-building strategies with regards to the students' age, gender, fields of study, teacher's gender, and his/her years of experience.

It should be taken into account that, most of the rapport-building strategies must be examined from different aspects in advance. For instance, an inopportune utilization of humor in the instructional process can create a chaotic situation in which rapport is rather hampered than built. Certainly, investigating different behaviors and strategies which may lead to shaky and rapport-hampering situation in classroom context can be a valuable topic for further future studies.

Appendix.

Please rate the degree of rapport that you feel inside the classroom.

High Rapport

10	10	10	10	10	10	10
9	9	9	9	9	9	9
8	8	8	8	8	8	8
7	7	7	7	7	7	7
6	6	6	6	6	6	6
5	5	5	5	5	5	5
4	4	4	4	4	4	4
3	3	3	3	3	3	3
2	2	2	2	2	2	2
1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Low Rapport

Comments:

1- …….

2- …….

3- …….

4- …….

5- …….

6- …….

7- …….

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Increasing the Effectiveness of Russian Language Teaching for Special Purposes (to the Problem of Integration of Language Training with Information Technology Courses)

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Abstract

The article is devoted to the problem of increasing the efficiency of language teaching for the special purposes of foreign students in studying Russian at a technical university. Particular attention is paid to the training of foreign students in the skills of working with information using the latest computer technology. The conclusions of the work are based on the analysis of the results of teaching Russian language at the Bauman Moscow State Technical University, including various methodological materials, programs and manuals on the scientific style of speech. Due to the fact that information technologies are part of general professional training for all specialties of a technical university, and also provide a wide range of opportunities for language learning and real professional communication, the authors believe that a modern program of the professionally oriented language training should reflect not only traditional integration with special disciplines of students, but also, of course, integration with the disciplines of the Information Technology block. The authors propose an innovative didactic approach based on the integration of language training with information technology courses in the aspect of the formation of communicative-linguistic competence of students in Russian. The structure and tasks of creating a handbook for teaching professional communication in the field of informatics relevant for students of various majors are considered.

Keywords: Language teaching for special purposes, information and computer technology, professional Internet communication, virtual e-learning environment

1. Introduction

Mastering the discipline "Russian as a foreign language" is aimed at the acquisition by foreign students of the skills and abilities necessary for listening to lectures in Russian, reading scientific literature on general educational and educational majors; obtaining the skills and abilities required for participation in seminars, laboratory work, writing essays, course and diploma projects; for passing tests and exams, communicating in extracurricular situations, solving everyday issues, processing personal documents.

The solution of these tasks requires the organization of a new type of learning material, a new structure of educational activities aimed at improving its efficiency, creating a didactic system that would provide high-quality mastery of modern technologies, enhancing students' cognitive activity through the acquisition of skills in the use of modern scientific and technological potential (Karpov, 2015). Therefore, in the framework of professional training of foreign bachelors and undergraduates, along with the development of traditional, well-established practical approaches to professionally oriented language training at the Bauman Moscow State

Technical University, special attention should be paid to teaching students the necessary knowledge and skills to work with information using the latest computer technologies (Obrazovanie..., 2010; Dunaeva, 2006; Begalieva, 2007; Kulikova, 2011), which will help young professionals update their knowledge, using additionally the resources of professional Internet communication.

2. Purpose of the study

According to previous research, the use of virtual environment can develop students' creativity and self-education, which cannot be achieved with traditional learning methods. Thus, the main goal of this study is to present one of the possible approaches to the problem of increasing the effectiveness of teaching foreign students to Russian for special purposes (RSP). The authors see their task in developing and deepening the concept of the professional Internet communication and proposing the idea of developing a program for teaching RSP based on the method of integration of language training with information technology courses.

However, this study is also aimed at attracting the attention of teachers to this innovative method, as a way to enhance students' motivation to learn the language with the support of the latest computer technologies.

3. Literature Review

In the university practice there is a lot of experience in using innovative teaching methods in organizing students' independent educational activities, which can be implemented by means of computer technology. The main problem of using such promising information and educational environments is associated both with the need to create modern computer distance learning tools and their implementation in practice, and with the tasks of information technology training of teachers in their professional activities. For this reason, teaching methods in a high-tech information environment are gradually becoming the subject of comprehensive study and professional reflection by teachers in higher education (Azimov, 2012; Noskova, 2007; Zhanf, 2008; Skorikova et al, 2016).

3.1. Educational communication environment

The main advantage of information technologies, in our opinion, is in the formation of a specialized educational communication environment - a virtual learning environment (Bogomolov, 2008). Such environments are being developed today at all levels of education for a wide range of disciplines, including Russian as a foreign language, and represent a "structured network environment of participants in the educational process, including a complex of printed and electronic teaching tools, reference, information and educational resources, instrumental and communication tools "(Bogomolov, 2008, p. 325).

The structure of specialized virtual environments is determined by the specifics of this subject area - a practical orientation and a communicative activity basis of learning. Such virtual language environments allow students to effectively use various information and educational and training electronic resources, as well as interactive search services of Internet technologies for organizing remote interaction between all participants in the educational process.

The virtual language environment is structured depending on the goals and content of the training (the teacher selects and combines elements of the environment, actively interacts with it, updating its content depending on the dynamics of learning, is in mediated contact with students through the environment.

Modeling the virtual language environment of distance learning in Russian as a foreign language taking into account the professional needs of students can be viewed as an attempt to implement a new educational model emerging under the active influence of information technology.

The development of these technologies, the formation of a single information space has led to a change in the process of professional communication, making it accessible and operational. Today, professional communication in the global network is a combination of person-oriented communication and fragments of various types of institutional discourse (business, scientific, etc.). The use of information technology removes temporal and spatial limitations of the interaction of specialists with each other, facilitating their professional development (Kulikova, 2011).

3.2. Enhancing the cognitive activity of students in terms of informatization

In modern university education, great attention is paid to the development of research competences and skills of students (Ivlev V. et al, 2017; Inozemtsev et al, 2016), which corresponds to the global trends in the development of education and academic research (Karpov, 2015, 2017a, 2017b). In the practice of language training of non-philological students, the leading place is taken by the problems of an integrated approach to modeling the content of education, the main part of which is the formation of a culture of oral and written academic scientific speech (Kirsanova, Lazarev, 2018; Romanova, Skorikova, 2018).

Recently, a special interest has arisen to the problem of enhancing the cognitive activity of students. This is due to the fact that in the conditions of informatization there are qualitative changes in the organization of educational activities of students. The design and development of new expanded, variable information educational environment becomes a priority in learning. A significant part of this environment is a virtual educational environment that functions on the basis of computer technologies. The technical basis of this environment is computer networks with a developed infrastructure and social services, within the framework of which subjects of educational activities are given the opportunity to "be always in the classroom", regardless of the current time and location.

When a student has the opportunity to purposefully plan his own actions, transform and construct the objective content with which he works, then he will be able to actively build and change his activities. Such work expands and deepens the knowledge gained, forms independence, creativity, conviction, contributes to the education of socially significant personal qualities necessary for a modern specialist. The latter include acquired ability for self-improvement by well-defined selection, processing and assimilation of information.

The problems of using computer technologies in the higher education system were studied in order to increase students' cognitive activity in the process of mastering their professional knowledge in accordance with modern requirements. In connection with the widespread use of information educational technologies, ways to improve the creative abilities of future specialists need further research.

It is known that educational and cognitive activity is organized as a search. Here are observed didactic techniques based on the use of problem-based learning, business games, etc. In general, when teaching scientific personnel, the most effective methods for constructing a didactic process are the analysis of the results of research, the formulation of problem tasks, and the research activity of the students themselves. Only the correct choice of the method of organizing learning management ensures the completeness of the didactic process.

4. Method

The conclusions of the work are based on the analysis of scientific linguistic literature on teaching the language of the specialty, as well as the analysis of various educational and methodological materials on the culture of professional communication. The authors use the data of communicative-pragmatic research of scientific discourse and features of professional communication on the Internet. In order to identify the genre forms of professional online communication and the patterns of its linguistic organization, the information content of a number of web sites of the network addressed to one or another professional community was analyzed.

5. Results

5.1. The formation of the communicative-language competence of foreign students in Russian university

The most important aspect of studying Russian language by foreign bachelors, undergraduates and graduate students at a higher education institution is the formation of their communicative and language competence in the chosen subject area and preparation for the writing of independent scientific work (diploma, master's and PhD thesis) in Russian. After studying discipline "Russian as a foreign language", the student should acquire the following knowledge and skills in the field of research and development activities corresponding to the competencies determined by the basic educational program:

- the ability to process and execute the results of research work;
- the ability, based on analysis, to see and correctly formulate the result, to prepare scientific articles and reports for publication;
- the ability to competently use the language of the subject area;
- the ability to analyze the task on the basis of the selection and study of literary, patent and other sources of information;
- the ability to make a description of the research and development projects, to prepare data for the preparation of reports, reviews and other technical documentation;
- the ability to participate in the development of technical specifications and programs of experimental work;
- the ability to participate in the development of technical documentation;
- the ability to draw up the results of their research activities in Russian in the genre of theses, report, article, master's and PhD work in accordance with the norms of the scientific style of speech and the compositional and language requirements of a particular genre of scientific communication.

In order to develop the above-mentioned skills and knowledge, students must master sufficiently the techniques of searching and processing scientific information from primary sources, including using Internet technologies and the teaching potential of the electronic educational environment.

The main problem faced by teachers and methodologists is how to improve the efficiency of language learning for specific purposes due to the growth of global informatization in the field of scientific communication and research activities, including university education.

5.2. Ways to improve the effectiveness of language learning for specific purposes

One of the most important conditions for the effectiveness of learning a foreign language (including Russian as a foreign language) at a university is the orientation of the study program to the educational needs of specific groups of students. These needs are primarily related to the use of language as a means of professional communication, therefore the focus of attention of methodologists and teachers is professionally oriented language training. This kind of training motivates students, but at the same time it requires teachers of the Russian language to have a definite orientation in the disciplines studied by students, from which they, because of their humanitarian education, are often very far.

Another important aspect of modern approach to the study of the language of students' specialization is its integration with information technology courses. This is necessary because, on the one hand, information technologies are part of general professional training for all specialties, and, on the other hand, they provide a wide range of opportunities for language learning and real professional and scientific communication.

Thus, modern professionally oriented language learning program should reflect not only the traditional integration with the special disciplines, but also with the disciplines of the information technology block. The peculiarity of information technology courses for those areas of training where computer science is not a specialty is that their

content, as well as the content of Russian language courses, must meet the requirements of students' professional training.

From our point of view, the content of the information technologies block in the professionally oriented language training should consist of a basic course and courses in students' specialties. The basic course includes the following modules: "Basic concepts and tasks of informatics", "PC user", "Internet information resources", "Basics of the Internet", "Computer technologies in preparing presentations", corresponding to the supporting topics of the course on fundamentals of informatics (Osnovy informatiki: ucheb. posobiye, 2009).

The practice of using such integrated professionally oriented language program requires the teachers of Russian as a foreign language to work extensively in structuring the content of each unit, engaging specialists in both the training profile of students and the field of information technology. Only such integration provides maximum opportunities for the development of students' professional communication skills.

5.3. Relevance and objectives of creating a course "Introduction to the specialty: information technology (language of professional communication)"

To most effectively develop communication and professional skills of foreign students, organize independent research work and increase their cognitive activity, we draw attention to the need of creating a language course "Introduction to the specialty: information technologies (language of professional communication)", in which the content of training is relevant for students of different majors. This course is designed to help the student become familiar with the basic concepts of computer science; technical means of information, computer networks, basic work on the Internet, the main and promising areas of development in the field of information systems and technologies.

As a result of training, students must acquire skills in working with computers and computer technology; use of information and other resources provided by the university; work with the Internet, e-mail, editors and word processors; writing essays, term papers, etc. In addition, students learn information retrieval technologies; methods of orientation and interaction with the global Internet resources, learn to evaluate the course of the educational process in a virtual information environment and carry out professional communication in this environment in Russian, participate in online discussions within their subject area.

As part of the study, in preparing the course "Introduction to the specialty: information technologies (language of professional communication)", it is planned to test and introduce into the educational process special motivational training in order to prepare students for participation in the annual open scientific (real and virtual) conference.

Thus, a special section of the course will be devoted to the development of students' communicative skills when working with information to prepare an article or report using the Internet technologies of professional communication. We believe that such training based on the requirements of academic writing and rhetoric rules undoubtedly contributes to the growth of the professional qualification of the future specialist in the chosen subject area of knowledge while studying at university.

6. Discussion

Considering the problem of increasing the effectiveness of language teaching for specific purposes, we emphasize the importance of discussing such issues as: 1) the Internet space as a special area of communication, 2) active development of Russian-language communication in the electronic environment, 3) the concept of professional Internet communication, 4) professional Internet communication as a new type of electronic discourse, 5) hypertext and new technologies of understanding the text. We believe that the solution of these questions will contribute to finding the best methods for increasing the effectiveness of professionally oriented language teaching.

6.1. The Internet space as a special area of communication

One of the most important specific characteristics of computer communication is the virtual communicative space in which only communication of this type is possible. This interpretation requires the development of two areas of research: first, the applicability of the term "space" to communication through a computer and, secondly, the identification of parametric characteristics of computer space. Both directions of research are possible with the understanding of space as a lingo-semantic and, more precisely, communicative (discursive) category.

Internet discourse is a complex text system determined by extralinguistic sociocultural factors and the specific situation of entering into language contact through a computer and other electronic devices, both users with each other on the Internet and users with discursive Internet space (Crystal, 2006; The Multilingual Internet…, 2007). The language used in computer discourse has a number of features of functioning: natural Russian speech in electronic communication is characterized by the adaptation of the means of speaking (its intonation and phrase-accentuation characteristics) to the written form (which uses underlining, text highlighting in color, different fonts and capital

letters). Another important feature of the presentation of text in electronic form is the use of various visual tools (drawing, photography, font, color, graphic symbols, etc.).

In the linguistic aspect, a special scientific interest in this area is the study of the cognitive mechanism of ways to search and process information by the network user, which is not only an important problem of modern theoretical and applied linguistics, but methods of teaching Russian as a foreign language in general, and for special purposes in particular.

An attempt to describe the cognitive and speech strategies of a user formulating a query in natural language addressed to a search system (as one of the main services of the information genre) is presented in E. U. Raspopina's article differential and genre features of computer Interner-discourse (Raspopina, 2010).

For the method of teaching Russian as a foreign language fundamental is the conclusion that the search query has the three-layer conceptual structure, each layer of which successively conceptualizes the name of the search subject, its specifying characteristics, and the relation of the search subject to other objects and phenomena that the query generator (user) knows about. The nature of the knowledge of generator query about the subject of the search (reliable, probabilistic) is updated by means of semantic, syntactic and pragmatic markers of search information, each of which has a certain set of language forms and meanings.

6.2. Active development of Russian-language communication in the electronic environment

In connection with the active development of the Russian-language electronic communication environment in recent years, "it is possible to say with confidence that the Internet is a special environment for the functioning of the Russian language, in which there are no geographical restrictions" (Azimov, 2006, p. 10). More and more publications began to appear on the problems of language functioning on the Internet, on the use of Internet resources in teaching Russian as a foreign language and Russian as a native language. In this work, the authors take into account the results of studies of such famous scientists as E.G. Azimov, A.A. Atabekova, A.N. Bogomolov, L.A. Dunaeva, I.N. Rozina (Azimov, 2006, 2012; Atabekova, 2001; Bogomolov, 2008; Dunaeva, 2006; Rozina, 2004).

With the increased interest of researchers to the dynamically developing Internet environment and Internet communication, some aspects of this area are still not well examined. In particular, insufficient attention was paid to the role of the Internet in modifying the regulated forms of communication related to institutional discourse.

The study of the characteristics of the tactical and strategic behavior of communicators - participants of various types of institutional Internet communication is seen as particularly relevant due to the expansion of virtual communication into professional activities. The Internet is playing an increasingly important role in the structure of educational and scientific and professional communication, since scientists, teachers and students of Russian universities are regular Internet users.

6.3. The concept of professional Internet communication

In electronic communication systems, two types of communication are most often used.

- professional and business-related and so-called phatic, implemented primarily in chat rooms and forums and characterized by mixing different types of elements - written literary language and oral-spoken, since chatting is a written fixation of oral speech.

The genres of professional-business communication on the Internet, included in the system of any other activity, are: professional publications, materials of scientific conferences, electronic journals, electronic stores, etc. Of particular scientific interest is the study of genre features of communication when using computer networks by specialists (this is the so-called computer-mediated professional communication).

Based on the definition of professional communication, we formulated the concept of "Internet professional communications", which means computer interaction in the virtual space of equal representatives of a certain profession. The content of this communication is professionally determined exchange of information for the establishment of relationships between colleagues, contributing to the professional development of its participants and focused on creating a joint scientific and methodological (educational) product.

The linguistic description and, therefore, recommendations on the compilation of electronic texts and the training of professional communication in the Internet environment can be made based on the following characteristics (Asimov, 2006, p. 43):

- interaction goal;
- correlation in the text of such components as communication, impact and self-expression;
- type of interaction (business / phatic) within each of the components, correlation with a specific genre (business letter, congratulations, scientific discussion);
- text size and specification of the text structure (stereotype composition);
- communication conditions (delayed or real-time communication);

- stylistics (linguistic design) of a web page.

Compared to chat rooms and other forms of online communication, which are spontaneous conversational speech, the texts of the web page refer to prepared, preserving norms of the literary language in its functional varieties such as official business, scientific and mass media speech.

Communication here is presented as distant, designed for interaction within the frameworks proposed on this web site (participation in forums, surveys, choosing a given answer option, studying the information resources of the site by following the specified hyperlinks, etc.).

Professionals and students of various specialties most often turn to informational and educational sites containing comprehensive i data on some subject area. Sites of this type contain many articles by various authors, as well as services such as polls, voting, mailing (for example, websites of news agencies). The purpose of such sites is informational and communicative.

6.4. Professional Internet communication as a new type of "electronic discourse"

In modern linguistic studies, there is a tendency to consider communication and features of professional interaction from the point of view of discourse, which is understood as communication through the text, taking into account the communicative and significant circumstances of its implementation.

Understanding of discourse is closely connected with the concept of a communicative situation, "speech immersed in life" (N.D. Arutyunova), with an understanding of communication defined by the formula: speech + action, in addition, a distinction is made between between traditional, professional, pedagogical discourse (status-oriented or institutional discourse) and its modification in the electronic environment - "electronic discourse" (or "network discourse").

Professional Internet communication refers to this - a new type of electronic discourse, with such a striking feature as the group form of information interaction in the electronic environment. One type of group communication is the community of specialists that form relatively closed subspaces according to a certain professional specialization or interests. The result of their activity in electronic networks is the formation of new forms of communication between people, functioning as network, virtual or Internet communities (Internet-community).

This new type of social groups is a self-organizing community of people who communicate with each other on certain topics and use Internet technologies as the main means of communication for organizing group interaction among community members. The most common Internet technologies, on which academic network communities are mainly built, include the following:

1) electronic discussions or forums that allow you to discuss a particular topic, get a delayed in time answer for your question

2) Internet conferences with the possibility of discussing the articles and reports placed in them;

3) teleconference in real time;

4) electronic journals that provide expert information on the state of the subject area (feedback from the author is most often organized through e-mail);

5) electronic libraries, as a combination of communication specialists, organizations and technologies containing bibliographies, electronic versions of books, articles, documents (Rosina, 2004).

In order to optimize the study of the Russian language for specific purposes, we consider it necessary to train foreign students and graduate students who are potentially active members of academic Internet communities to various Internet technologies for professional communication in the electronic environment.

6.5. Hypertext and new text comprehension technology

As is well known, information on web pages is presented as hypertext, which also consists of pages. First, the user gets to the main page, from which he learns about the structure and content of the site. A web page is formed by hyperlinks represented by special language tools that perform certain functions: focused impact, interactivity, audience control, and obtaining information about consumer interests (Atabekova, 2001, p. 14).

The functional load of hyperlinks that regulate the direction of information retrieval and set the meaningful "coordinates" of this search seems to be particularly significant. In this regard, hypertext as a new text understanding technology, as a way of organizing text, in which it is linked by reference to other texts, is a new kind of text, opposed to the usual for a number of parameters (openness, nonlinearity, dispersion of structure, lack of authorship, removal of the opposition between author and reader, heterogeneity and multimedia, in which all means are used from font to sound and animation).

Hypertext is based on computer technologies that support the following basic functions (Baranov 2003, p. 36): quick viewing of an information array, processing ща reference relationships (calling a piece of text or other information to which a link is made); hypertext navigation, the possibility of forming a normal linear text as a result of hypertext

movement, the addition of hypertext with new information, etc. Hypertext technologies continue to develop, ensuring the formation of computer-mediated discourse in electronic communication of specialists.

The linguistic design of the web page, which includes the design of the page using the hyperlink system, organizes the medium for presenting information on the site, reflecting the stereotypical knowledge and scenarios of activities (mainly professional) of a native speaker in a particular subject area. Thus, the web page design explicates a fragment of the cognitive base of a specialist in thematic and situational-pragmatic professional contexts. Students, reading in Russian pages linked by the hypertext principle, determine the relationship between the blocks of information and identify their hierarchy. Work on the language of a web page involves learning the choice and organization of language units designed to express certain meanings and communicative intentions of knowledge representation. In this regard, the awareness of the educational potential of the linguistic design of a web page is seen as a special methodological problem in the field of Russian as a foreign language.

7. Conclusion

The leading goal of the course in teaching Russian for specific purposes in the field of information technology is to promote the development of the professional competence of foreign students of a technical university by mastering the main technological approaches to designing their own virtual educational environment. The expected result is the formation of students' readiness to use the knowledge of modern problems of science and education in solving educational and professional problems; readiness to develop individual educational routes using modern computer technologies in Russian.

The use of electronic communications based on web services (forum, chat, conference, e-mail) in Russian between teacher and student, between students in an academic group, allows to develop the interactive competence of foreign students, which is a necessary factor for successful preparation of a future specialist to complete Internet communications in the professional sphere.

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Constitutive Features of the Russian Political Discourse in Ecolinguistic Aspect

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Abstract

The article offers a comparative description of typological mechanisms used in political communicative practice and methods of verbal explication of its axiological and symbolic constituents determining universal mental features of individual/collective consciousness. The research position based on a systemic multilevel analysis of the component structure of discourse facilitates the identification and characterization of linguistic and sociocultural dominants of political interaction organized by a certain language system, with semiotic and literary genre specifics of legitimate communicative acts taken into account.

The methodological concept, aimed at modeling institutional interactions in the context of ecological compatibility/toxicity of the transmission of ethno-sociocultural components, allowed the authors to characterize the ways and mechanisms of representation and transformation of the sign structure of political communication and determine the algorithms of verbal and discursive behavior. The combination of methods applied in discourse analysis, linguistic and cognitive projection, linguistic and cultural interpretations and functional-pragmatic consideration of text units made it possible to identify and qualify linguistic and semiotic elements of legitimate/illegitimate political practices and to carry out ecolinguistic typology of basic linguistic components of political communication.

The results of the study indicate a special communicative range of Russian political discourse, with language diffusion/re-contextualization, persuasive techniques, semiotic consolidation of institutional reversion, various verbal indicators of social asymmetry (from metaphorization, euphemization, nominalization to the tactics of disintegration and manipulation) as key markers. They not only actualize linguistic and cultural resources of ideologically charged discursive practices, but also significantly expand the area of possible communication risks. Modern political logosphere as a part of the ecosystem, synergetically included in all spheres of human communication, forms new contextual concepts, assessment stereotypes, verbal behavior norms (often restricting norms) for all subjects included in it and communicative traditions of the universe as a whole.

Keywords: Political discourse, Ecolinguistics, Legitimate political practices, Social and linguocultural dominants, Communicative risks.

1. Introduction

Modern geopolitical conditions distinguished by the processes of migration and integration actualize numerous problems in the semiotic-semasiological arrangement of social communicative system – from outlining the principles of its axiological components' formation in a bi-/multicultural or bi-/multilingual environment to the description of verbal behavior rules, typical for a particular language universe. This explains why a multi-aspect and a determinant nature of the factors (ranging from ethno-historical to psychological), that trigger language formation, becomes the subject of redefinition for philosophers, philologists, political and cultural scientists, etc.

The expansion of information field and the consolidation of the Internet as the main communication channel have had a significant impact on the functioning of a natural language (in a broad sense) in a modern linguocultural situation. The global virtual space not only demonstrates a new type of verbal relations, characterized by the complication of its semantic sphere and connotative elements, but also determines the vector of the rule-making process. The fusion of Russian literary language with sociolects and colloquial speech, accompanied by a simultaneous activation of English language units, results in a clear narrowing of the scope of Russian literary language. Codified variants are being replaced by the so-called "information language norms, in which the form is of secondary importance and orthoepical, lexical, grammatical and stylistic errors are not taken into account" (Bozhenkova, Bozhenkova, & Romanova, 2017, p. 69). Public speeches carried out by individuals with an insufficient level of language competence (which the audience often takes for a model!) lead to the "erosion" of rules of verbal behavior and speech aesthetics and create a new reality that requires a competent evaluation and interpretation.

Thus, the emergence of *ecolinguistics*, a new field of study, formed at the intersection of environmental and linguistic issues, becomes particularly logical. Its research subjects are: (1) the state of the language as a semiotic system affected by various extralinguistic factors that influence social linguistic consciousness and speech culture; (2) means of protection of the language (as a component of communicative interaction) from a negative impact and its simultaneous preservation, enrichment and development. It is noteworthy that the reasons for the formation of ecolinguistics and the problems it solves are universal (relevant for any language community), since the axiological

dominant of the new scientific field focuses on "the preservation of the identity of an ethnos, moral well-being of its society and national security of the state" (Bernatskaya, 2014, p. 28).

On the one hand, this methodological position turns linguistics from an analytical descriptive science into a practice-oriented science, focused not only on the characterization of linguistic representation of social interpersonal/public activities and problems of non-linguistic reality, but also on the identification of social and communicative technologies for resolving the issues of unjustified (taking linguistic multifunctionality into account) verbal behavior. On the other hand, it forms a wide range of tasks that imply a specific research view. "The peculiarity of the approach to language and speech facts from the standpoint of ecolinguistics is their social assessment based on historical conditions and trends in the development of this language, system and norm factors, sociocultural, political, economic, ethical and aesthetic criteria" (Skovorodnikov, 2013, pp. 207-208).

The range of ecology-related problems the Russian language singled out by various academicians is undoubtedly voluminous. Moreover, they cannot be static, because the ecolinguistic situation itself is a diffuse phenomenon. Nonetheless, despite the absence of a unified metalanguage apparatus and a large variety of nominations, the following statements are clearly distinguished:

• lexical and semantic loss (primarily due to archaization of literary lexis and the "deposition" of a considerable number of paremiological units from native speakers' language consciousness) and simultaneous retrieval of historic lexical units, i.e. words and idioms that resume functioning in the language with a change/expansion of their semasiological component;

• speech pollution due to the intrusion of jargon[*]/ and vulgar words (especially in the media) and an abundant application of foreign verbal units (usually of English or American origin), which are perceived as barbarisms;

• erosion of ethic and aesthetic norms in speech communication due to a certain value loss of Russian (and not only Russian) classical literature and coexistence of dialectically unrelated phenomena (for example, invective/obscene speech units and pretentious statements in general) in a large number of modern texts;

• reassessment and defamation of verbal signs that represent national symbols (public authority, historic victories, ethno-cultural involvement, etc.);

• manipulative use of sociocultural terms and connotative ambivalence of the transmission of ideologically charged units, determined by latent goals of audience management rather than by communicants' principled political attitudes;

• conceptualization, reproduction and often monetization of discursive practices that have a harmful impact on society's world outlook, values and behavior models, especially among younger generations (involving discursive practices of radical and criminal communities, discourses, associated with the promotion of suicide, child molestation, etc.).

Obviously, the range of ecolinguistic problems listed above covers all spheres of human life. However, they become especially apparent in the space of political communication, since, being an integral part of the ethnic culture of any society, political communication explicates a multilevel system of ideas, objectives and interests pursued by the state.

In a broad sense, the word "policy" refers to an action program of a public institution or human activities aimed at managing something or somebody (organization policy, family policy, education policy, etc.). This lexeme can be also used to describe a set of actions and measures applied to achieve certain goals. Thus, modern political field becomes a "conglomerate" of diverse phenomena; it includes political actors and communities; institutions and organizations; normative subsystems, traditions and rituals; political culture and ideology, methods and techniques of political activity, information means, etc. However, the absolute verbalization is their core and unifying feature: transforming the linguistic material accumulated by the society, the policy can be carried out only in the process of language interaction, the task of which is to create a certain picture of the world in this society.

The nature of political language remains unknown to date. What metaphors and proverbs does the modern political language use? What linguistic and extralinguistic factors have a negative (or positive) effect on speakers' linguistic consciousness? What discursive practices represent it and how is it transforming? Finally, is it possible today to talk about a special communicative range of Russian political discourse of the XXI century? These general questions in the aspect of ecolinguistic views determine the need to describe the essence of modern political discourse, to identify its categorical units and to formulate a number of linguopragmatic laws, which we aspire to extrapolate to the solution of environmental problems of the language as a whole.

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[*] Undoubtedly, in some cases, the exclusion of jargon vocabulary from journalistic repertoire and colloquial speech is impractical since its expression and precision turn out to be irreplaceable by other means. Sometimes, however, the authors demonstrate a lack of "sense of proportion".

2. Literature Review

Political interaction as a social and communicative sphere, where the main motive for development is the struggle for power, becomes the focus of Russian scientific interest in the last third of the 20th century, when post-perestroika innovations in the Russian language acquired the character of ethno-cultural features. Today, the connection between ideology and language, mythologization and metaphorization of political communication and verbal manipulation are attracting the attention of an increasing number of domestic and foreign linguists[*]. It should be highlighted that a number of academicians believe that political activity is in essence no more than linguistic activity (Dieckmann, 1981; Ealy, 1981), whereas in modern political science there is a tendency to consider language as a component of the political field rather than means to reflect political reality. This is due to the fact, that politics, unlike other areas of human activity, is clearly discursive in its nature.

As well as in the situation with the definition of discourse as a whole, academicians' attempts to give a correct definition to the concept of **political discourse** led to the emergence of a large number of definitions. Political discourse was described as "the discourse of politicians implemented in the form of government documents, parliamentary debates, party programs, politicians' speeches" (Van Dijk, 2013, p. 47); "the combination of all speech acts used in political discussions, as well as the rules of public politics set by tradition and verified by experience" (Baranov, & Kazakevich, 1991, p. 8); "a specific, explicitly pragmatic kind of ideological discourse"(Sorokin, 1997, p. 57); one of the fields of applied linguistics, the essence of which is expressed by the formula "discourse = sublanguage + text + context", where "text" stands for "the text under development + previously created texts"[†], and the context includes the situational and cultural components (Sheigal, 2001, p.15). Moreover, in modern linguistics, some researchers (Chudinov; Lazar, etc.) use the term *political discourse* as given a priori; others (Baranov; Sheigall; Van Dijk; Wodak, etc.) use it as synonymous for *political communication*, *political language*, *language of politics*; and still others (Parshin; Stepanov, etc.) refuse to recognize its solely linguistic meaning. The ambiguity in academicians' opinions is explained by the fact that political discourse is an extremely complex object for research, since "it lies at the intersection of different disciplines, namely political science, social psychology and linguistics, and is associated with the analysis of the form, objectives and content of discourse, used in certain ("political") situations" (Demyankov, 2001, p. 118). The semantic structure of the lexeme "politics" consists of the following components: political events, views and beliefs; principles of behavior; political course, i.e. ideas and activities carried out in order to gain power in the country or abroad (Kara-Murza, 2005). At the same time, "polity" means the form of government, social or political system and its arrangement (Habermas, 2001). Finally, it refers to the art or science of influencing ideas and beliefs of individuals or society as a whole. It is due to the complexity of the semasiological field of the lexeme, that today we are observing a multi-vector nature of political discourse analysis, including the study of totalitarian language; the study of verbal facts containing "politics" as a component in the Russian language in the late 20th century; the study of intergovernmental communication, etc. However, from the point of view of the authors, the most interesting aspect of the study is the identification of language system mechanisms used to adapt to conditions of certain non-ecological political practices. On this basis, we can speak about the "intoxication" of consciousness caused by the impact of social environment.

3. Methodology

The methodological concept of the study was based on both humanitarian methods (dynamic and taxonomic analysis, modeling method, explanatory description) and linguistic methods (the method of segmentation of specific verbal phenomena or facts, their categorical and contextual analysis, generalization and characterization of underlying ethno-mental entities). It aims at a multi-aspect research of ecolinguistic issues in discursive practices, dependent on a multidimensional set of components of the socio-communicative field.

The scripts of public speeches made by representatives of Russian political elite became the material for studying legitimate political discursive practices. This choice was due to two factors: on the one hand, foreign and domestic policies of the Russian Federation, given the current geopolitical situation, are of increasing interest to academicians, including linguists; and on the other hand, the speeches of prominent Russian politicians largely form a global political discourse. Thus, the analysis of these speech products, or speeches, facilitates the presentation of an objective picture of the application of common and specific communicative techniques in linguistic and cultural universes. An additional criterion for material selection was the genre and thematic unity of speeches; therefore, special attention was paid to press releases published in official sources, comments and interviews with opposite ideological positions, demonstrating common character of linguistic and semiotic constituents in the political space (over 1000 text units).

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[*] See works of Altunian, A.G.; Budayev, E. V; Karasik, V.I.; Klochko, N.N.; Lassan, E.; Levin, Yu.I.; Norman, B.Yu.; Olyanich, A.V.; Chudinov, A.P.; Lakoff, G.; Anderson, S.R.; Benoit, W.L.; Wodak, R.; Wee L. and others.

[†] This factor is extremely important for the ecolinguistic approach as it shows the consolidation of the "rule-making" act.

According to the authors, the integrity of the proposed model of studying communicative interaction (focused not only on the category of national values, but also on tense aspects of institutional communication, which serve as basis for public consciousness manipulation), the volume and the representative nature of the research material provide credibility to the conclusions of the analysis.

4. Results

Ecolinguistics, being an anthropologically oriented branch of research, takes a special place in the scientific paradigm of modern linguistics. It aims at studying text units in terms of their impact on individuals and society as a whole, characterizes the role of the language as a complex semiotic system in possible violations of ecolinguistic situations and detects ways to eliminate negative consequences. The range and scope of ecolinguistic problems today are extremely wide; however, these problems become particularly visible in the space of political communication, since modeling methods and communication channels, essential for establishing a dialogue in the "power – society" system, are of significant scientific importance. Political discourse as a separate spatiotemporal formation and at the same time a systemic phenomenon that explicates multidimensional linguistic material becomes a means of ordering, evolution and transformation of political reality into an ecolinguistic space, which can serve as a verbal code to identify modern integrated reality and linguocultural experience of the nation.

Verification of the methodological concept of the study enlarged by methods of cognitive projection, linguistic and cultural interpretation and pragmatic consideration of textual units enabled the authors:

• to define and substantiate the principles of ecolinguistic modeling a modern communicative space;

• to qualify and classify identifiers of non-ecological political discursive interaction, to compare their semantic and pragmatic characteristics;

• to detect indicators of social asymmetry in ideologically charged discursive practices;

• to study the processes of language diffusion and recontextualization and methods of speech influence;

• to single out new linguistic and cultural resources of institutional communication practices and define areas of possible communication risks.

5. Discussion

From the authors' point of view, ***political discourse*** is speech activity carried out by subjects in the spheres of political institutional communication, determined by a certain social and role hierarchy and objectified in the form of politically oriented text units in their entire genre and functional diversity (Bozhenkova, Bozhenkova, & Bozhenkova, 2017). Being a type of institutional discourse, political discourse comprises a number of constitutive features (consistency, functional completeness, absence of severe structural restrictions, communicative certainty) and fulfills general discourse functions, namely informative, delimitative, argumentative, group-forming and persuasive functions. The agonal function (from Greek *agon* – competition, duel), the function of social identification (differentiation and integration of group policy agents), the function of control (including manipulation of public consciousness) and the function of interpretation (the setup of "language reality" in the politics field) are specific for political discourse (Parshina, 2005). This list also include the functions acknowledged by D. Graber: the function of "information distribution", the function of "agenda setting", and the function of "projection to future and past" (Graber, 1981, p. 198). These characteristics, expanding their action within the framework of political communication, determine the basic feature of political discourse – its use as an instrument of political power, its preservation and redistribution. Thus, the distribution of information on the state of affairs in the political community is one of the most important functions of political discourse with regard to the civil society. This is due to the fact, that its members normally do not come into direct contact with the world of politics, and their experience in this area is not based on their own political engagement, but mainly on the verbal "pictures" offered to them. Status reporting can take diverse forms (as descriptions, comparisons, opinions and conclusions) and actualizes in a wide variety of genres (as official statements, messages to congress, press conferences, interviews, informal conversations, etc.). Along with evident, explicit information, these messages may include elements with an implicit connotation (emotionally charged keywords expressing basic political orientations and values, patriotic symbols, euphemisms, etc.). Implicit information can also be obtained by "reading between the lines" and generalizations; chronotope characteristics of the verbal act, its relationship with historical, cultural and axiological factors and paralinguistic components are extremely significant. Consequently, political discourse attaches sense to all constituents of the social field: they either constitute the object of communication (its referential aspect), or act as elements of the pragmatic context, including pragmatic presuppositions.

A specific picture of the political world is determined by differential characteristics of the political discourse. These include a peculiar institutional character, semantic uncertainty, the restoration of which is possible due to the inextricable connection between political texts with sociocultural, ideological, historical, psychological components of

the communicative situation, in which they have been created, as well as with the system of cognitive and pragmatic attitudes of the addresser interacting with the addressee. This brings up the question about the specifics of the language techniques of political discursive practices and the existence of professionally oriented signs: verbal, nonverbal and "semasiologically hidden" (the authors' term). According to V.Z. Demyankov (Demyankov, 2001), the "individuality" of the language of politics is due to the following features: a frequent use of peculiar speech techniques; an expansion of precedential texts and statements thesaurus; an original sound or written presentation; an abundance of terms in a political vocabulary; and a particular ideological charge of common verbal units, as compared to regular language. A significant number of scholars, however, deny the uniqueness of political discourse, emphasizing that unique linguistic features of political discourse are not always subject to identification and typically "do not go beyond the relevant idioethnic languages" (Parshin, 2001, p. 193).

Exterior "ordinariness" of political communication, from the authors' point of view, is due to the fact, that politics is the only professional sphere in which communication targets mass addressee. Thus, media become both an environment and a means of its existence, thereby political language is deprived of corporate properties inherent to any professional language (Sheigal, 2001, p. 30). This way, media transmit ideas of public authorities and interests of social institutions, they express opinions and views on behalf various social, professional, age and other groups, and at the same time mass media often act not only as a agents that cover issues in modern politics, but also as subjects of political activity. Moreover, some editions and media channels have gained sufficient recognition to claim their right to an independent position on topical social issues, which allows us to regard them as political institutions and mass consciousness and public opinion influencers. Accordingly, modern political discourse is becoming more diverse, it includes new group of speakers, uses a wider range of discursive practices that enable maintenance, actualization, transmission and popularization of political activities, especially those that have not previously received legitimate expression and have not provided us with an opportunity to observe the diversity of communicative interaction in the political sphere.

At the same time, the agonal character of political discourse, which is its main feature, remains a semiotic constant (along with the functions of orientation and interpretation) and constitutes a property, which separates political discourse from similar communicative phenomens. Moreover, an explicit competition in interpersonal/institutional/cross-cultural political interaction and the immutability of this quality of the political discourse determines its ecolinguistic specificity. Political discourse implies a certain conflict potential as a result of collision of interacting entities expressed by means of language; contributes to the emergence of disintegrative communicative strategies and tactics and verbal/non-verbal signs with an invective capacity; involves a lower communicative case, etc. However, a conflict of interests in politics, unlike many other spheres of human interaction, is deliberate, so both parties perceive it equally. This is why political conflicts do not exclude cooperation between its participants, which determines the intensity of political communication and defines its format: a discussion, a debate, a duel, a conflict, an information/psychological war, etc. The majority of agonal tactics in political discourse constitute its communicative norm and belong to political interaction, whereas extreme forms of communication in the sphere of politics are regarded as a mindset for confrontation and destruction of the previously achieved unity, agreement and cooperation and suggest, from the authors' point of view, a forced introduction of ecolinguistic control.

New tools and technologies give rise to new genres and methods of information transmission. This phenomenon leads to the emergence of new mono- and polysemiotic communication systems that adjust political communication, expanding its thematic boundaries, changing its discursive parameters and methods of linguistic explication (see forums, social networks, political blogs, etc.). A display text as a form of network media possesses special differential features: a polycode/multimedia character, non-linearity (a complex network, absence of beginning and end), interactivity (direct communication with the addressee of the text and a reverse impact on the text structure). These features directly affect the macrostructure of political discourse and its language components. Thus, 1) the volume of discourse is increasing at a rate that impedes an adequate comprehension of information; 2) the language of politics is gaining ambiguity and its units are becoming disorderly; 3) the meanings of many words (and even terms!) are being diminished to the condition of an empty "shell" (the so-called "amoeba"-words, term used by S.G. Kara-Murza), which can be re-filled with any other, and often an opposite sense. As a result, the adequacy of text perception is significantly reduced, which causes ecolinguistic issues, while toxic communication practices, supported by the global network, have a significant impact on the cognitive and psychological capacity of an individual and the target audience as a whole.

The modification of the functional charge of political discursive practices is probably the most interesting (and the most complicated) aspect of ecolinguistics. The three main parameters (information, manipulation and control*) are complemented by the forth parameter – audience entertainment, which was formerly (since the appearance of printed and audiovisual media) typical of mass media. Thereby, the importance verbal and non-verbal means releasing the "tension" in the context increases at the stage of dialogical communication establishment in a legitimate or illegitimate

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* All the previously listed functions are within this triad.

political environment. A certain institutionality often determines the impossibility to explicitly mark fundamental premises, which results in the inclusion of a large range of precedential situations and peculiar language techniques in political text and speeches. Consequently, it enables the authors to outline the most important features of political discourse: an extensive use of metaphors; euphemistic nature; ideological content (with apparent "good and bad", "friend or foe" dichotomies); the presence of emotional propagandistic slogans; irrationality, based on rituals, traditions and polysemic denotations; the proclamation of "the ultimate truth". Thus, political discourse as a form of social communication identifies the culture of a society with its ideological attitudes, axiological symbols and other mental signs. Moreover, the language of politics is integrating social interaction among civil masses, so the elements of political discourse can be observed in the "culture of everyday" as well as in speech acts seeking to involve audience in the illegitimate activities and illegal communities (Araeva, Katyshev, Osadchiy, & Olenev, 2018).

Legitimate political discursive practices, being the main stage for expression of ideological postulates by certain social elites and at the same time a platform for the formation of public opinion on various issues, have numerous ways of explication, serving the mission to preserve and reproduce the social institution of power. In political sciences, legitimacy is as a qualitative characteristic of power relations associated with maintaining public conviction that existing political institutions and relations correspond or should correspond to society values and normative evolution of political communications and public sphere (Zavershinsky, 2016, p. 8). Nonetheless, the study of power communications is inevitably reduced to the analysis of symbolic structures in the cultural environment of a certain political power as well as forms, methods, strategies and tactics of political communication. Therefore, linguistic research registers current trends in the implementation of political communication; identifies typical speech features in the interaction between power institutions and the society; determines its objectivity and its existence prospects given the development of modern society; and thus ensures a successful legitimization of political decisions.

In this regard, it seems logical that discursive acts, in which at least one of three components – the subject, the addressee or the speech product content – belongs to the sphere of politics, should be attributed to legitimate political practices (Sheigal, 2001). Under this approach, primary genres (program documents, official speeches, election debates, etc.) come to the forefront, placing secondary, or convergent, genres that combine elements of political other types of discourse (analytical articles, commentaries on political speeches, political statements, letters to the editor, cartoons, parodies, etc.) in the background. However, a more detailed analysis of constitutive features of this type of discourse reveals that the three components mentioned above are insufficient since the subject and the addressee, despite being political figures, can also be engaged in a purely domestic dialogue. Accordingly, it is necessary to add two important elements – the objective and the perlocutionary effect – to the three parameters named previously, as these components allow the qualification of a communication act as a legitimate political practice. In addition, it is impossible to talk about an interactional communication model without taking an objective and a perlocutionary effect of the speech act into account.

In legitimate political practices, goal-setting and perlocutionary effect should ideally coincide since the achievement, the "semiotic anchoring", the transmission of value and pragmatic experience (the goal) and the deliberate re-transmission of certain axiological dominants by the audience (the perlocutionary effect) together secure normative public relations and a social coercion, which are the most important components of the "power – society" antinomy. At the same time, the ratio dichotomy of these categories deserves particular attention. On the one hand, political discourse produces and explicates the standards of status/role behavior, consolidates binary relations of normality/abnormality, positive/negative features, acceptable/unacceptable features, the good/evil, etc., expressed in moral imperatives, traditions, rituals, codes of conduct, legal acts, etc. On the other hand, the social institute of politics produces and transmits new discourses (in the form of ideas, principles, images and other symbolic figures) that provide a framework and focal points of reality comprehension and interpretation. (Ruzakova, & Ruzakov, 2008, p. 194).

In that perspective, the dictionary of political reality providing descriptions of socially significant meanings (codes), symbols, concepts and ways of their representation is of special relevance. Modern political life is profusely marked by negatively charged concepts that comprise a significant part of everyday information: *sanctions, cyberattacks, corruption, exposure, provocation, contract termination, schismatic church, threats, isolation of Russia, attack on Russia, "death" of Skripal, spire, Nazi slogans, terrorist attacks, interference with elections, conspiracy, impeachment*, etc. In media texts, designed to form mass consciousness, words and expressions that denote negative phenomena of our time become dominant: *murder, shooting, robbery, violence, explosion, fire, plane crash, flood, natural disaster, epidemic*, *impoverishment, bankruptcy, terrorism*, etc. As a result, text units shaping a communicative and ideological environment of modern people obtain a distinct invective coloring.

The analysis of the frequency with which Russian verbal units are used in modern texts demonstrates that a considerable amount of lexemes, denoting essential concepts of Russian culture and humanistic ideas, have been shifted to the periphery of Russian lexicon: *compassion, pity, mercy, participation, sympathy, mutual understanding, conscience, justice, joy, honor, shame, modesty, kindness, virtue*. Its former greatness and sublimity are fading, and so

does the content of the words *homeland, patriotism, hero, pride, human dignity, achievement, feat*. They are familiar to native speakers, but the range of their functioning is getting limited, their use is becoming automatic, and "their content is getting formalistic, turning these words into clichés subject to enantiosemy" (Ionova, & Shakhovsky, 2012, p. 139). According to sociolinguistic studies, the curve demonstrating the use of the keyword *Homeland/homeland* in Russian political discourse, which reached its peak in the 30s - early 60s (the construction of socialism, the Great Patriotic war, the conquest of space), is on the decline since mid-60s, with a slight increase only in 2014. In this regard, the speech of radio presenter K. Larina is highly illustrative:

I am so sick of the word "patriotism" I might vomit worms and cherry stones. … Patriotism is destructive. It creates nothing but chatter, lies, charlatanism, hypocrisy. Patriotism is not compatible with freedom; it kills freedom of thought, freedom of creativity, and freedom of self-realization. Patriotism in itself is the religion of yesterday, the religion of the dead (K. Larina, Echo of Moscow blog, February 3rd, 2014)

The word *patriotism* is often filled with the opposite content: *old ideology, pseudo-patriotism, the last mayhem of villains, our slogan, the same as extremism,* etc.

A word always depicts speaker's image of the world, thus, a rapid reduction of vocabulary and change in the semasiological field of political concepts indicate a significant narrowing of the vision and the reality comprehension by native speakers. Notwithstanding, it is worth to mention that today there is a gradual return of traditional semantics of this word in the political discourse:

There are various components in the feeling of patriotism, we cannot list them all. Therefore, we will single out only its main vectors. It is love for your country. It is respect, and under certain circumstances, it is love for your state. It is love for your people. Here we understand love not just as "a delight of the senses," but as a desire and willingness to bring a particular benefit to the object of our love. We do not have and cannot have any other unifying idea than patriotism. (speech by V. Putin, https://www.putin-today.ru/archives/20531).

Communicative activation of such concepts as *homeland, patriotism, national idea, heroism, salvation, protection, unification* not only testifies to the appearance of a new phenomenon in legitimate discursive practices – an "aestheticization of politics", but also demonstrates the value-oriented component of these concepts. This determines their place in official political information: "Homeland is a model of a beautiful and a much beloved community in contrast to civil society which is transparent and rational" (Sandomirskaya, 2001, p. 3).

Another attribute of legitimate political practices is the emergence of new ways to reduce positive public consciousness. They encompass: 1) the inclusion of language units of an international character and characterized by "blurred universality", or minimum/zero content (*progress, public opinion, a path towards consolidation, true justice*, etc.); 2) the formation of oxymoron composites (*the fiend of good, the horror of delight, love-hate, killer love, the achievement of failure*, etc.) introducing a positive component in a negative idea (Ionova, & Shakhovsky, 2012, p. 141); 3) a specific euphemization that turns into dysphemia (*to impose constitutional order, polite people, the introduction of democratic principles, our Western partners*, etc.), when reaching the addressee. The combination of these verbal signs receiving a metaphorical refraction in social and communicative reality, as a rule, creates sustainable connotative negatives and constructs an "information hierarchy", which transmits proposed topics, problems and opinions "from above" and forms public opinion in a single-way communication. Thus, it is no wonder that many researchers[*] have dubbed current events in the media political field *"the war of wordings"*. Accordingly, the term used to denote an active part of the population – *civil society, protest electorate* or *the source of the ruling regime* – determines the development of public policy. In this regard, the role of phraseological journalistic clichés, evaluative nominations, and precedential phenomena involved in the field of interpretation and making up the "knowledge of the world", common for the speaker and the addressee, significantly increases. For example, in a news story about the Russian-Georgian spy scandal (broadcast by Echo of Moscow radio station, Echo news program, November 5th, 2010) reported by an on-site correspondent, nominations such as *spies* and *conspiracy* from the first lines form a correlating evaluation field. Furthermore, the thematic expression *spy scandal* introduces the frame *"recruitment – integration – encryption – secret information – liaison – secret operation – disclosure – exposure – evidence – public disclosure*, implemented by subsequent messages of the block. The *evidence* are associated with a *documentary movie*, however, the lexemes *spy* and *movie* activate ideas about a *spy movie* in the consciousness of the addressee, inducing him or her to consider the reference episode as part of a certain scenario and question its credibility (Saakyan, & Severskaya, 2017). In a comment by A. Orekh on another story in the program a story on political prospects of the "Yabloko" ("Apple") party in the case of its coalition *with a rating Pear*, the expansion of the reference meaning is due to metaphorical nominations and precedential texts: "*It will no longer be an "Apple", but Apple Jam at best, but it is still better to turn into jam than into apple peel*". In gastronomy, a distinctive property of *jam* is its uniformity, lack of a pronounced structure; in jazz and music improvisation, it is the spontaneity (professional musicians perform without

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[*] See works of Solganik, G.Y; Voinova Y.A.

rehearsals and primarily for their own pleasure, which is common on the political stage). *Peel* stands for the *waste* of political process, while the *apple* and the *pear* do not only represent two types of political *figures*, but also denote certain mental signs. If you remember the beginning of the famous song "Katyusha" (*Apple and pear trees were in bloom, and the mist was floating upon the river*...), it implicated multiple concepts in this context: the metaphors of war, uncertain future and hope. In an interview with I. Khakamada (broadcast on Liberty radio station, September 28th, 2009) the focus of contrast is explicated in a *matrix* that combines the designation of software and hardware for simulating the virtual world and the system of interconnections in a certain state of reality. For instance, "*real life is in deep trouble*"; "*political PR hits rock bottom in the invention of new words, messages, technologies*"; "*we begin to live in a matrix*"; "*in this global or Russian matrix Medvedev is trying to occupy a competitive position with Putin*"; "*this wave has also reached the province*"; "*I think this micromatrix will soon spill out everywhere*"; "*the matrix gradually through mass media absorbs a person's worldview*"; *etc.* Constant "predicates" of legitimate political practices charging their variable "subjects" metaphorically transmit ideological constants and stereotypes consciously/unconsciously set in the society and in the mental field of the ethnic group.

It is noticeable that the rhetoric of Russian political discourse in recent times aims at "reformatting" subjectivity, ideology and history as a whole. On the one hand, new symbolic attributes are being created and old ones are being updated (cf. *Crimea is ours*! vs. *Party of crooks and thieves*!), and the range of precedential texts and names of historical figures (*St. George's ribbon, Alexander III*) is expanding. On the other hand, numerous linguistic and semiotic constituents (slogans, emblems, awards) are being discredited and even abolished because of a considerable number of editorial, cinematic and other texts with unilateral negative characteristics of these symbols. At the same time, we note that "the symbol never belongs to any single synchronous cross-section of culture; it always pierces this cross-section vertically, coming from the past and moving into the future" (Lotman, 2010, p. 185). Respectively, its removal from the consciousness of the society modifies dominant meanings produced and consolidated in the language space and generates a new image of the world.

The third attribute of legitimate political practices is its inherent manipulative orientation. Undoubtedly, in political discussion people tend to avoid answering tough questions, to conceal undesirable facts, and at the same time, to influence the interlocutor, to impose their opinion on the interlocutor, and even to offend the interlocutor. However, the language itself, as noted by T.M. Nikolaeva, "has a sufficient set of interactive, composite, syntactic, grammatical tools for these purposes. In other words, language has a property of self-manipulation" (Nikolaeva, 1990, p. 225). This property allows speakers to interpret the reality in various ways. One of the most effective mechanisms of manipulation in Russian is nominalization, i.e. the replacement of nouns by adjectives or verbs (cf. *the police brutally cracked down on demonstrators* is replaced by the phrase *a crackdown on demonstrators*; *to act cowardly – a coward*). Another effective method is the so-called "language demagogy" (the term was introduced by T.V. Bulygina and A.D. Shmelev) – a technique of indirect impact on the recipient, when ideas are not expressed directly, but they are introduced discreetly with the help of tools provided by language mechanisms. The essence of this technique is a disguise of subjective assertions as judgment perceived as common knowledge (presupposition); it is usually labeled by constructions such as "As *you all know*", "*It is a well-known fact*," "*It is a common knowledge*", *etc*. The third technique is *perseverance* – a tactic of multiple persistent repetition (an integral part of diverse suggestive and theatrical discourses), which affects both linguistic consciousness and subconscious of the addressee of information messages.

The fourth attribute of legitimate political practices actualizing ecolinguistic problems is a certain institutional reversion (Ionova, & Shakhovsky, 2014). Despite the expansion of opportunities for public participation in social interaction, communicative interaction between the society and the government is commonly built "from above down". This promotes the elaboration of special speech clichés and consolidation of special language signs. The majority of political subjects perceive them as obligatory prescriptions; however, civil society's loyal attitude often levels the imperative nature of the manifestation of will. Moreover, authoritative communication is often justified, since it defines positive values, norms and behavior patterns – *tolerance, legitimacy, efficiency, victory,* etc. Presupposition field actualizing ideological slogans (*"No backing down!", "No black wings will fly over the Motherland!"*) and constructions fostering safe labor conditions (*"Do not touch", "Turn off before work", "No trespassing"*) naturally transform verbal prohibition formulas into patterns of discursive political practices: *require, must, meet requirements, on demand, impossible, forbidden, not accepted, not authorized, guilty*, etc. Minor inclusions of language units denoting the actual appointment of public authorities – to perform the role of institutional "public servants" (*to create conditions, to facilitate, to provide aid, to report, dear, if you would be so kind, please, let me, thank you, etc*.), is treated as a special personal attribute conditioned by upbringing or education. These units, from the authors' point of view, are indicators of a developed authoritative dominant in the language and factors of the effective implementation of the impact function, which sometimes violates ecolinguistic space of political actors.

Both a cause and a consequence of institutional reversion is a shift in social roles and the substitution of the concepts "rights" and "duties" in application to different participants of interaction: people are endowed duties, while the

authorities are endowed with rights. This is why we observe the replacement of the "power" seme by the "domination" seme – *omnipotence, domination, rule, dictatorship, hegemony, master, crown, throne*, etc., whereas in the linguistic consciousness of institutional "grassroots" the assessment of authorities' actions is expressed the following way – *dominance, rulers, pantocracy, those in power, power brokers*, etc. We should underline that the problem of "nomination and power" vs "the power of nomination" does not demonstrate the capabilities of language system, but primarily determines the proposition of the construction and the vector of further incorporation of the sign into other discursive fields. This is why Confucius instructed governors to start the board by correcting nominations – in order to comprehend the essence of things.

Today, the expansion of institutional reversion in the political space (where social institutions come in direct contact with those individuals for whom they were created) is aggravated by the accentuation of the negative/reduction of the positive field of communicants' linguocultural consciousness and the simultaneous expansion of statements' reference meaning (by metaphorization, euphemization, nominalization, various manipulation tactics, including the substitution of symbolic constructs). This leads to the formation of a new reality, the mechanisms of which are able not only to limit the legitimacy of political decisions, but also to shape other contextual concepts, verbal behavior norms, assessment stereotypes and communicative traditions of the universe as a whole. As a result, the composition and the structure of legitimate political practices becomes closer to illegitimate and even illegal ones.

6. Conclusion

A word is a phenomenon subject to constant development and incessant research, since a language, as a basic attribute of a person, distinguishing him in the ecosystem, is a key marker of the relationship between the object and the environment and, accordingly, "must preserve all signs of humanity" (Bernatskaya, 2014, p. 28). However, a centuries-old history of verbal signs demonstrates the expansion of the semantic capacity of the word and the formation of new semasiological fields in discourse as a global communicative event. This is due to the fact, that diverse discursive practices are in a state of interdependence and reciprocal complementarity and exert mutual influence and interpenetration determined by mental, behavioral, ethno-cultural components of social relations. In this regard, political discourse, the main goal of which is to conquer, exercise and preserve power, turns out to be especially sensitive to various kinds of transformations, which contribute to the "toxicity" of the political space and thus cause damage to linguoecological system.

The reasons for this phenomenon have both intralinguistic origins (the expansion of the boundaries of normative language due to the growing sophistication of verbal communication formats; the quantitative and qualitative complication of speech communication spheres since the Internet determines the creation of new discourse types; liberalization of journalistic style due to the wide "migration" of language constituents and a certain tribute to the speech fashion) and extralinguistic origins (globalization and integration of linguistic and cultural components of different ethnic groups which results not only in positive, but also in an impressive number of negative consequences, from a lowering level of individual verbal sophistication level to the activation of illegitimate communicative practices). The main factor, however, is the unrestricted power political actors have over psychological and even mental state of a particular person, carried out through a competent leveraging of various (and often illegitimate) communication techniques. The values derived from semantic-semiotic associations and generated due to the usage of certain strategies, tactics, verbalized and "semasiologically hidden" ways to express/conceal participants' intentions, gradually develop and enter adjacent discursive fields. There they establish new semantic connections and form a complex text/discursive unit with a multi-level semantic charge and the highest expressive and emotional potential. Thus, the political logosphere as a part of ecolinguistic system is not only a product of society's activity, but also its modifier. It penetrates all levels of the human logosphere and actively forms the norms of speech interactions for all subjects included in it, determines their socio-hierarchical structure and the linguoethnic universe as a whole.

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Intercultural Competence Formation: Teaching Reading of Profession-Related Texts in a Foreign Language to Agricultural Bilingual Students

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Abstract

The paper deals with the features of teaching of profession-related texts reading in a foreign language to bilingual students in agricultural higher education institution. Article's purpose was to analyze the technology of intercultural competence formation by means of profession-related texts reading. The method of intercultural competence formation included using the profession-related texts containing intercultural information of native language (L1-Yakut), second language (L2-Russian) and foreign language (L3-English). The conclusion about the importance – when teaching reading to bilingual students, the skills of intercultural reading to be formed while intercultural competence formation process on several levels depending on its components. Revealed teaching reading to bilingual students, ethnic features of bilingual students were taken into account. Discussed in the article technology of intercultural reading skills can be used as a strategy of intercultural competence formation to bilingual students of agricultural higher education institution.

Keywords: Intercultural competence, Bilingual students, Reading teaching, Intercultural reading

1. Introduction

The Federal State Educational Standard (hereinafter FSES) for higher education is aimed at communicative competence formation at teaching foreign languages, at the same time it is profession-related. According to FSES intercultural competence (hereinafter ICC) is a part of communicative competence.

Therefore, the paper deals with the problem of intercultural competence formation to agricultural bilingual students in the foreign language teaching process.

Federal state budgetary educational institution "Yakut State Agricultural Academy" (hereinafter YSAA) trains personnel for the North-east of Russian Federation and the most of its students are from country-side where live indigenous people of the Republic of Sakha (Yakutia). The country-side of the Republic is a source of native language, national culture and mentality.

The foreign language studied at the Academy is English (hereinafter L3) and the students are bilinguals. The students' first language is Yakut (hereinafter L1) and the second is Russian (hereinafter L2) and "the whole educational process in non-language higher education institution goes on the situation of national-Russian bilingualism, and the bilingual students' intercultural competence formation in the process of foreign language teaching in educational trilingualism situation" (Borisova, 2015).

In this paper we defined intercultural competence consisting of four components (linguistic-sociocultural, discursive, strategic and substantive-professional) and work on its formation has an integrated character.

The development of the subject-professional component of the ICC is determined by the future professional communication sphere of the future specialist, therefore it is necessary to refer to profession-related texts (hereinafter PRT) that potentially contain professionally relevant information for the future agricultural specialists. In this context one of the important tasks is intercultural teaching of reading of profession-related texts.

The study of the theoretical and pedagogic- psychological frameworks of the intercultural competence formation to bilingual students in a non-linguistic higher education institution, which determined the need to substantiate the content of pedagogical activity on this issue served as a prerequisite for the technology development of ICC to bilingual students by means of profession-related texts.

As a result of the analysis of work on this issue, when selecting a profession-related text for the formation of an ICC to agricultural bilingual students, we took into account the following traditional principles of text selection:
-the principle of dealing with psycholinguistic features and mentality of bilingual students;
-principle of professional value;
-the principle of authenticity;
- principle of intercultural value.

In this regard, authentic agricultural texts in English, with a substantive sociocultural component were selected, culturally adapted and empirically tested and the source of which were scientific-journalistic and publicistic media texts from Internet sources.

2. Literature review

When defining the essence of the concept "intercultural competence", we relate it to the notion "personality's readiness for activity", which currently does not have a single interpretation. This concept is defined as the presence of certain abilities (B. G. Ananiev (2001), S. L. Rubinstein, V. A. (1989) Slastenin (1992) etc.).

In scientific publications, the concept of "readiness" is often associated with the concept of "competence" (I.A. Zimnyaya [2003], Blinov V.I., I.S. Sergeev [2007], Yu.G. Tatur [2004] and others).

Competence is a person's readiness to mobilize knowledge, skills and external resources for effective activity in a specific life situation. It is a willingness to act in situations of uncertainty. (Segeev, Blinov,2007) Yu.G. Tatur (2004) defines competence as a person's willingness to use their potential.

Recognizing the publications of educators and scientists, who noted that intercultural competence means readiness and ability to intercultural communication, it is worth underlining the works of the researchers G.V. Elizarova (2005), I.G. Gerasimova (2010), I.L. Pluzhnik (2003).

According to I. G. Gerasimva (2010), ICC is the ability of the individual to carry out successful professional communication with partners from other cultures. As stated by I.L. Pluzhnik (2003), ICC is the ability to interact with people of another culture, on the basis of taking into account their values, norms of ideas and choose communicative and appropriate methods of verbal and non-verbal behavior at the macro and micro levels.

Subdividing native and imitative bilingualism, and underlining the works of researchers L. V. Sherba (1974), G. M. Vishnevskaya (1997), E. K. Chernichkina (2007), etc.) it is determined that our subjects are native coordinative and subordinative bilinguals and the process of their formation is in the conditions of the national-Russian bilingualism

As follows from the work analysis of researchers and taking into account their scientific perspective on this issue, we defined the concept "intercultural competence of bilingual students" as an integral personal quality, expressed in readiness to interact with representatives of different cultures through mutual understanding by overcoming interference and using transference at all structural levels of intercultural competence arising in intercultural communication in the context of Yakut-Russian-English trilingualism.

We proceed from the fact that intercultural teaching of reading follows the patterns of the traditional communicative teaching of reading in a foreign language and they complement each other.

First of all, the text as a communicative unit is characterized by "the presence of a communicative task (most important task, if we are talking about the indirect impact on the addressee ...)" (Folomkina, 2005) and the student learns through the texts "knowledge, social values and norms, to a variety of information accumulated in the course of practical and practical and theoretical activities, which is important for him to participate in social life, for social activities with other people"(Dridze, 1984).

I.A. Giniatullin notes (2010) notes that communicative reading is the activity of perceiving a written text as a speech message with its understanding at the level of meanings and at the level of connotation and intercultural reading is a cognitive-productive activity. Then, intercultural reading is, on the one hand, a part of text understanding, and on the other hand, it is actions of using information retrieved in reading that are continuation of the understanding processes, as far as they can correct and deepen the previously achieved understanding of text content phenomena.

3. Methodology

The methodological background of the study is formed by a sociocultural approach in accordance with the principles personality-oriented approach.

While intercultural competence formation in the process of learning a foreign language, not only three languages come into contact, but also three cultures, where native culture is of paramount importance for bilingual students.

As can be seen, of all the currently existing cultural approaches, in our opinion, the most rational for formation of intercultural competence on a cognitive basis can provide a sociocultural approach, as stated by, V.V. Safonova (1996) allows interrelated learning of language and culture.

The advantage of the sociocultural approach is that the selection of educational material is carried out on the principle of similarity between the culture of the native language and the cultures of the second and foreign languages.

In the context of a sociocultural approach, learning through the language the cultural values of other peoples, students learn more about their own value systems and the norms of language use determined by the national culture.

By technology of forming competences, we understand "the system of ways of organizing the teacher's activities and a student, which forms a programmed (automated) process of their interaction, aimed at achieving the planned learning outcomes (in the competence format) by increasing the efficiency of the educational process due to its

maximum optimization" (Sklyarenko 2011). The main goal of the developed technology is the formation of the ICC to bilingual students. ICC formation implements in the teaching process of PRT intercultural reading.

When developing technology, we were guided by the following pedagogical principles that allow us to realize the goal in practice:

- completness, implemented through the development of common approaches to the selection of training content and ensuring the interconnection of various components aimed at the realization of the goal - the formation of the ICC;

- integrativeness, which implies the integration of knowledge from various general professional disciplines, various approaches, forms, methods and means of education;

- culturally-related study of a third language - a foreign (English) in the context of bilingualism;

- comparison of languages and cultures based on a comparison of cultures, in which the native culture is the basis for mastering the country culture of the learning language;

- phasing, implying a consistent learning process from simple to complex activities: perceptual-reproductive, reproductive-productive, productive and creative.

Taking into account the fact that the ICC formation is carried out in the process of learning to read by means of PRT, accordingly, when describing technology, we should concentrate on teaching of intercultural reading using PRT.

By intercultural reading, we understand cognitive-productive reading activity, which includes "cognitive actions of perception, recognition, comparative interpretation of another culture phenomena, as well as productive actions of applying the results of such interpretation in subsequent speech and non-speech activity" (Giniatullin 2010).

Professionaly related text is a source of cultural phenomena. When developing the technology, the four-component structure (linguistic-sociocultural, discursive, strategic and substantive-professional) of the ICC was taken into account and the following activities of perception, recognition, comparative interpretation of PRT were highlighted on every level:

1. On linguistic-sociocultural level they represent the skills and abilities of perception and recognition of phenomena and linguistic, lexical, grammatical units with national and cultural specifics: 1) native language (L1) culture; 2) second language(L2) culture; 3) foreign language (L3) culture.

2. On substantive-professional level they include the skills and abilities to perceive and recognize vocabulary, terminology, realities of agricultural professional subjects and culture, reflecting:

1) national-regional specificity including subject knowledge of professional practice area of L1 (the Republic of Sakha (Yakutia);

2) regional and branch specifics, including subject knowledge of professional practice area of L2 (Russian Federation);

3) foreign culture specifics of. professional practice area of L3 (foreign countries)

3. On discursive level they include the skills and perception, recognition and comparative interpretation of the language design of authentic PRT.

4. On strategic level they include the skills of perception, recognition, comparative interpretation of the "external" and internal "plan of the text content: concepts, intentions, norms and rules characteristic for authentic agricultural PRT.

The success of intercultural teaching of reading of profession-related texts is due to the methodically focused process management of the intercultural competence components' formation.

The technology includes three stages: motivational-incentive, analytical-synthetic and realizing-control. At the same time, intercultural reading with the use of PRT is considered as an object of study, and the ultimate goal is ICC formation. Teaching of reading of profession-related texts in order to form intercultural competence to bilingual students consists of sequential and interrelated stages within one thematic unit, which allow gradual "introduction from the familiar realities of the professional field to the unfamiliar" (from simple to complex).

Each thematic unit contains texts on levels of language accessibility, reflecting national-regional and branch subject knowledge from the professional field:

1) agriculture of the Republic of Sakha (Yakutia);

2) agriculture (Russian Federation);

3) agriculture (foreign countries).

After the methodical organization of selected texts, teaching intercultural reading was based on the use of texts on the basis of a set of exercises and assignments to them, aimed at the formation of the above mentioned knowledge, skills and abilities.

4. Results

The experiment was conducted from 2015 to 2018 among first and second-year students.

Theoretical and empirical methods (observation of students in the study of foreign language, questioning of students), and a pedagogical experiment were used in the research.

Four bilingual student groups of bachelors of the Yakut State Agricultural academy were selected for the research: 1) experimental group (hereinafter EG); 2) control group (hereinafter CG). The groups were selected because they had special course of study "Profession-oriented English".

The purpose of the research was to form ICC to bilingual students in the process of teaching reading of authentic. profession-related texts.

The following components were selected as indicators of formed intercultural competence: linguistic-sociocultural, discursive, strategic and subject-professional.

To identify the formedness of ICC in bilingual students, the following methods were used:

-evaluation of the indicators (knowledge, skills and abilities) of intercultural competence, observation of the students' answers when carrying out the tasks;

-analysis of the obtained results.

The diagnostic method of the bilingual students employs a questionnaire consisting of 4 intercultural competence components and ready-made answers.

The experiment consisted of three stages: ascertaining, formative and summative. At the first stage, the teacher were questioned to identify which technologies were used in teaching of intercultural reading; students were questioned to identify formed ICC; it included primary diagnostics of intercultural reading abilities at the basic level.

At the second stage favorable conditions were created (compilation and use of traditional reading exercises combined with especially developed intercultural ones), using modern pedagogical approaches, methods, technologies and tools, which were aimed at the formation of intercultural competence to bilingual students.

At the third stage, the level of the increase in intercultural competence was controlled and the obtained results were analyzed.

The components of ICC of bilingual students include: 1) linguistic-sociocultural component – knowledge of language and its structure; knowledge of the phenomena, the realities of culture with national and cultural characteristics; the ability to find, recognize and interpret phenomena, cultural realities with national cultural characteristics; 2) substantive-professional component - -knowledge of professional vocabulary with national and cultural specifics; knowledge of communicative behaviors with national-cultural specifics of professional communication partners; the ability to find, recognize and interpret them; 3) discursive - the ability to compare, interpret realities, cultural phenomena, communicative behavioral models with cultural identity; 4) strategic - knowledge of the strategy and tactics of the communicative process; the ability to apply speech strategies; the ability to display personality traits that give mobility in professional communication.

By the end of the experiment, summative assessment was performed (2017-18 academic year). Tests and tasks were conducted to check the quality of acquired knowledge, skills and abilities in intercultural reading, indicating the formedness of bilingual students' intercultural competence.

According to the results of the summative assessment, at the final stage of the experimental work in the experimental group, students were redistributed according to the levels of ICC formation among bilingual students.

Table 1. Results of ICC at the beginning and at the end of the experiment, in%

Components of ICC	Level of ICC formedness	Experimental group	
		Ascertaining assessment %	Summative assessment %
linguistic-sociocultural	high	0%	8,9%
	sufficient	10,7%	48,2%
	average	42,9%	35,7%
	low	46,4%	7,1%
discursive	high	0%	7,1%
	sufficient	8,9%	46,4%
	average	41,1%	37,5%
	low	50%	8,9%
strategic	high	0%	7,1%

	sufficient	12, 5%	50%
	average	44,6%	35,7%
	low	42,8%	7,1%
substantive-professional	high	0%	5,4%
	sufficient	10,8%	55,4%
	average	57%	33,9%
	low	32,2%	5,4%
СП		1,68	2,57
ΔСП		0,89	

The mean value (hereinafter MV) of EG at the beginning of the experiment was 1.68 and at the end of the experiment 2.57, where Δ MV means the absolute increase of MV reflecting the difference between the beginning and final importance of MV.

4. Conclusions

Based on the research, the following conclusions were made:

To form intercultural competence to agricultural bilingual students while studying foreign language it is required:

-to take into account individual characteristics and personal qualities of students based on a student-centered approach;

- apply educational technology on a sociocultural basis;

-to use teaching methods of different reading types of authentic professionally –related texts

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Selection of Foreign Language Teaching Content in Russian Master of Laws (LLM) Graduate Programs

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Abstract

Master`s degree was integrated into the system of Russian Higher Education several decades ago, however, teaching foreign languages at this level still needs further analysis and investigation. Whereas undergraduate programs were almost entirely based on those developed for the previous "specialist degree", developing master`s graduate programs required radically new approaches. The content of foreign languages teaching to postgraduate law students is fraught with additional difficulties caused by a wider variety of training fields, the inter- and intra-professional communication situations; complexity and specific characteristics of the corresponding sublanguage and, in particular, by the features of legal texts and discourse in general, as well as the sociocultural and sociolinguistic codes. The article investigates the principal components of foreign language teaching content in light of legal training of postgraduate students (considering the case of the English language). The methods used to obtain and interpret the data include the analysis of regulatory and standard-setting documents, linguistic analysis of legal texts; content analysis of textbooks and other teaching materials used for Master`s programs; methods of analysis and synthesis, classification and descriptive methods, theoretical analysis of methodological and applied research literature. As a result of the study the basic teaching content components were revealed, standardized and described, including linguistic, textual, speech material; professional, linguistic, intercultural knowledge; the corresponding reproductive and productive skills. The findings also reflect principles according to which the content is selected. The factors defining the content of education as found by the investigation are: fields and types of the relevant professional activities of graduates (law making, law enforcement, expert, consulting, organizational, managerial, research and pedagogical issues); professional duties; purposes and teaching duration; requirements as for the training output.

Keywords: Foreign language teaching, master of Law Programs, Teaching content components

1. Introduction
1.1 Problem Statement

An in-depth knowledge of foreign languages in the modern world is becoming a prerequisite for the development of professionals. Mastering foreign languages requires language acquisition skills including inter alia independent learning skills as well as their further application in real-life professional situations. This is especially significant for graduates in the humanities, as a good command of foreign languages at the level of professional communication, language reflection and language intuition enables them to achieve results in the chosen area and enhance their professional skills. This serious and daunting task logically requires a revision of educational practices, creation of differentiated language teaching systems depending on the level of education, which inevitably raises the questions of reviewing teaching foreign languages at university, its methodological basis, methods and forms, control and assessment, as well as content of teaching.

Higher Education (HE) reforms in Russia related to the multi-level structure transition to Bologna standards, having generated a lot of debate, did not lead to the development of uniform concept of masters language training at non-linguistic (humanitarian) faculties which follows from investigating academic papers, official documents, analysis of the educational process, etc. Postgraduates are guided into specific professional areas, as well as into methodology and methods of information processing and research. However, various aspects of foreign language teaching at master`s level still cause controversy and debate. Our practice of foreign languages teaching at law faculties confirms that it is fraught with multiple difficulties related to the variety of training fields and directions, jurisdictions and aspects of law under study, the complexity of legalese and culture specific notions. All these issues definitely demand further analysis and research in light of setting the corresponding content of teaching.

1.2 Purpose of Study

The article seeks to analyze the problems and special features of foreign language teaching at Master's level in Russian higher school, to identify the factors determining the selection of foreign language teaching content and, finally, to identify the content structure and describe its components in a generalized way applicable to Master of laws (LLM) programs of Russian state universities.

Researchers reveal factors that still have an impact on content selection claiming that current situation in a non-linguistic university does not meet nowadays demands due to some reasons. As for N.N. Shiryaeva (Shiryaeva, 2016) such factors reflect the incomplete correspondence of foreign language class goals and the content of modern concept of master programs, insufficient development/lack of relevant content mastering aids and assessment system. K.G. Chiknaverova (Chiknaverova, 2017) notes that difficulties arising in the foreign language classroom are primarily caused by:

- insufficient standardization of requirements for bachelor and master training in similar professional areas of different universities, especially those concerning the structure and the content of foreign language professional communicative competence, control and measuring system;

- discrepancy of the objectives and the content of a foreign language teaching in Master's level;

- insufficient specification of the competencies formed at Master's level, their incomplete compliance to those that are formed in foreign language classrooms.

Master students are mostly Russian and foreign universities' undergraduates specialized in various professional areas, from wide range of humanitarian areas to technical ones. As for referring to the teaching of these students it is by all means a difficult task, since educational program requirements to the students' language proficiency at different universities largely differ from those identified at universities where they are enrolled. Such differences include forms of education, assessment and control etc. This situation creates additional hurdles in setting and adjusting the content of foreign language teaching in master's programs, including LLM Graduate Programs.

There are different approaches to the content setting of foreign language learning. Some experts analyzing the cases of practical language application point out the relevance of interviewing employers, supervisors and professors of corresponding departments in order to fix the skills, abilities, personal qualities, behavioral and communication strategies serving as the bases for carrying out professional and scientific foreign language activities at the appropriate level (Prismotrova, 2016; Nelyubina & S.R Abzalova, 2012). Others practice surveys and interviews of masters to find out applicable and significant foreign language topics, texts and situations (Krutskaya & Nurtdinova, 2014; Prismotrova, 2016). Many teachers following the method of content analysis identify common types of special educational texts as well as relevant situations supporting and developing speech acts. Needs of target audience are also of paramount importance, along with the study of the Federal State Educational Standard of Higher Education (FSESHE) and academic communities' requirements to the level of students' language proficiency. At the same time, we find it significant and necessary to investigate and single out the factors determining appropriate content-setting in accordance with the objectives of educational programs, including Master of laws (LLM) Graduate program, teacher`s and administrators` experience.

2. Literature Review

Prior to our research on content of teaching foreign languages to LLM students, we focused on the concept of teaching content in general. It should be noted that for the purpose of this study we relied on Russian methodologists as the theory behind concept of teaching content is significantly different from that of Anglo-Saxon and other Western European researchers. These differences are partly due to a great extent of Russian experts' isolation before the collapse of the Soviet Union. After the 1990-s significant changes can be traced in the approaches applied to foreign language teaching in general and content of teaching in particular. To make these approaches and changes clearer below we provide a short historical overview of the basic concepts and approaches.

As for works relevant to our study we should primarily mention contributions of L.E. Alekseeva, I.L. Bim, K.G. Chiknaverova, N.D. Gal`skova, Lysakova & Samarskaya, I.I. Khaleeva, S. Krutskaya & L. Nurtdinova, B.A. Lapidus, R.K. Min`yar-Beloruchev, V.L. Prismotrova, A.N. Schukin, N. Shiryaeva, V.L. Skalkin. Their findings sufficiently overlap with their counterparts in the Western countries such as D. Brington, D. Coyle, T. Dudley-Evans, J. Harmer and others.

Originally, the content was supposed to contain three layers, the first of which includes sounds, morphemes, words, word combinations, sentences; the second layer embraces frequent phrases, and the third one includes coherent texts and topics. Acquisition of this material at different levels is possible due to ad-hoc exercises (Bim, 1977). Content components also include not only knowledge mentioned above but skills and even the whole process of their development. Later this researcher claimed that the overall objective of such training is communication, based on objectives of education and development (Bim, 1988).

After periods of either focusing on the analysis of a foreign language rather than its practical usage, there were periods of emphasizing its practical application. In the 1970-1980-s investigators turned to studying foreign languages as a means that provides for complex development of the students` personality. This period is still referred to as pre-communicative. However, in some works features of communicative approach can already be traced (Skalkin, 1981). The expert came up with operational approach to selection of teaching content using an inductive and communicative method; and also coined the notions of communicative, speech and language environment and claimed that selection of teaching material at communicative and speech levels shall precede its selection at language level. Correspondingly, later in the middle of the 1980-s other researchers (Lapidus, 1986; Minyar-Beloruchev, 1990; Khaleeva 1989) started to include linguo-cultural and cross-cultural knowledge and the ways of its selection. By the 1990-x the concept of teaching content was further specified and researchers considered the possibilities of students development as personalities even after their graduation on the basis of knowledge and skills they acquired while learning a foreign language.

Most researchers point out that the overall system of education governed by the social demands predetermines the major components of educational process which in their turn dictate selection of teaching materials, forms used to introduce this material, methods and ways of teaching. According to others, teaching content is all that students are to learn for achieving a level of mastery that will comply with requirements of a particular university (Lapidus, 1986). Another expert (Alekseeva, 2007) claim that training will be effective if the content, structure and organization of a training course correspond to students` actual needs and their future profession.

In this respect at a particular stage of research Russian methodologists turned to the approach of content and language integrated learning, actively developed by numerous countries in the world proclaiming that every professional sphere is supposed to have its own course of foreign language designed in accordance with objects of this or that expert field (Alekseeva, 2007; Brinton, 1989; Coyle, 2007).

The mentioned works outline the latest research on foreign language teaching content. This problem at universities still needs specification which is caused by changing objectives of teaching foreign languages, depend on the social demands, national and international educational policy, conditions of teaching, as well as approaches to teaching foreign languages adopted at a particular stage. This view is based on analyzing the latest findings of Russian researchers on the issues of Russian HE transformation and those concerning foreign language teaching (Gerasimova, 2010; Glebova & Yasnitskaya, 2015; Obdalova & Sazonova, 2014; Gal`skova & Solovtsova, 1991; Gazizova, 2015). Special attention was paid to the features of job-oriented foreign language teaching at the Master degree level (Chikileva, 2018; Grichenkova, 2018; Dubinina & Kondrakhina, 2016; Chiknaverova & Gazizova, 2017) as well as principles, content requirements, methods and means of foreign language training in a non linguistic university (Chiknaverova, 2017; Lysakova & Samarskaya, 2014; Shiryaeva, 2016; Prismotrova, 2016; Krutskaya & Nurtdinova, 2014).

The analysis of both earlier and current researches clearly indicates that there is no single view on issues related to the content of teaching, its components and their priority as well as the process and order of their selection. We relied on the approach according to which selection of teaching content and specifically the order of such selection are of primary importance and that it should start from career content and be followed by real-content, as such teaching foreign languages is based on the content of professional disciplines.

3. Methodology

The methods used to collect and interpret the data include the content analysis of regulatory and standard-setting documents (Federal Educational Standards on Higher Education, syllabi of separate universities, master programs), textbooks and other teaching materials used for Master`s programs in MGIMO (Moscow), Kazan National Research Technical University named after A.N. Tupolev – KAI, Kazan Federal University; linguistic analysis of legal texts (including primarily authentic texts of legal documents; direct observation of students` activities. Methods of analysis and synthesis, classification and descriptive methods, theoretical analysis of methodological and applied research literature were applied in the study of factors determining the content-setting of LLM graduate programs.

4. Results

The results of the investigation show that the conditions of teaching foreign languages in Russian Master Graduate Programs are mostly dictated by the form of education (full-time, part-time, evening classes), forms of teaching (classroom and extracurricular work, group work project, etc.) and the relevant training field. The scope of the Programs is 120 credit units and the duration is 2 years regardless of the form of education, the educational technologies applied, including inter alia the network form, and the individual trajectories such as accelerated training. HE institutes are entitled to supplement the set of graduates' competencies provided by the FSESHE, taking into account the specific expertise and / or type (s) of master students' activity. The programs are of two components: the basic part, including

compulsory disciplines on specialization, and the variable part, consisting of practical and scientific work determined by the universities.

In Russia most master`s programs are designed for graduates planning to work in home country, thus, most programs focus on various aspects of Russian law. However, institutions / faculties specializing in international relations also include international as well as comparative law issues. These programs usually involve one or a combination of levels (international, federal, state, or private). Various legal documents studied by students are also determined by one of the levels mentioned above, involving international organizations, the people, the State Duma, the President of the Russian Federation, the Government of the Russian Federation, the ministries, the Legislative Assembly of the Duma, the governors of the regions, territories, presidents of the republics, the administration of the regions, territories, republics, local governments, organizations.

Below we speculate upon basic factors of selecting the content of foreign language teaching according to the current learning environment. These factors are determined by the following: the field of professional activity of graduates, types and areas of professional activity, professional tasks, requirements as for the output of graduates` training.

Generally, while developing and implementing master programs, universities focus on the specific type(s) of graduates professional activity (lawmaking; law implementation; law enforcement; expert and consulting; organizational, scientific and pedagogical practice) subject to the current situation of the labor market, objectives of training and competences (cultural, professional, etc.) to be formed. In the framework of law-making the students are engaged in preparation of regulatory legal acts. While exercising law enforcement they are expected to take decisions and substantiate them, as well as to take actions related to the implementation of legal norms, to draw up legal documents. Law enforcement presupposes ensuring the rule of law, law and order, security of the individual, society and the state; protection of public order; protection of private, state, municipal and other forms of ownership; prevention, suppression, detection, disclosure and investigation of offenses; protection of the rights and legitimate interests of citizens and legal entities. Expert and advisory activities embrace legal assistance, legal advice; legal expertise of regulatory legal acts.

The key factor of content-setting of LLM graduate programs primarily concerns mastering students' competences acquired during the previous level of education to solve professional tasks within their activities specified above. The output measured by means of competencies is presented in an excerpt from the FSESHE (Table 1).

Table 1. Competencies to be developed by means of LLM programs stipulated by FSESHE

Professional competencies	General professional competencies	General cultural competencies
lawmaking activity: the ability to develop regulatory legal acts; law enforcement activity: the ability to competently apply regulatory legal acts in specific areas of legal activity, implement the norms of substantive and procedural law in professional activities; law enforcement: readiness to perform official duties to ensure law and order, security of the individual, society, state; the ability to detect, suppress, disclose and investigate offenses and crimes; the ability to prevent offenses, identify and eliminate the causes and conditions conducive to their perpetration; the ability to identify, evaluate and help curb corrupt behavior; expert and consulting activities; the ability to competently interpret regulatory legal acts; the ability to take part in the legal examination of draft regulations, including those aimed at identifying provisions that create the conditions for corruption, to give qualified legal opinions and advice in specific areas of legal activity; organizational and management activities: the ability to make optimal management decisions; the ability to track, analyze and implement managerial	awareness of the social significance of their future profession, manifestation of intolerance towards corrupt behavior, respectful attitude to law and characterized by the sufficient level of professional legal conscience; ability to conscientiously perform professional duties, to comply with the principles of the lawyers` ethics; the ability to put into practice the acquired skills and abilities while organizing	ability to abstract thinking, analysis, synthesis; readiness to act in non-standard situations, to bear social and ethical responsibility for the decisions made; readiness for self-development, self-realization, use of creative potential; ability to freely use Russian and foreign languages as a means of professional communication;

innovations in professional activities;	research;
research activities: the ability to competently conduct scientific research in the field of law;	
pedagogical activity: the ability to teach legal disciplines at a high theoretical and methodological level;	readiness to lead the team in the field of their professional activities ;
the ability to manage the independent work of students;	
the ability to organize and conduct pedagogical research;	
the ability to effectively carry out legal education ;	

The competences are developed by a combination of classroom and extracurricular work aimed at developing the creative activity of post-graduates and their independence and self-confidence in improving language proficiency, expanding horizons and effective usage of background knowledge gained in the professional communication process. In educational process various forms are employed: individual, pair, group ones, stimulating motivation by imitating inter and intra–professional communication. Due to the variety of training forms learners are encouraged to apply collective research, jointly develop learning strategies, practice creative and research projects making, reflexive dialogues, polylogues, positional discussions.

The content of training forms various types of speech activity mediated by professional activity, specifically interaction and speaking, translation, writing, reading, listening. As for referring to the interaction, speaking and translation they include interpretation of negotiations, formal and informal meetings, other situations of professional communication and related documents (from English into Russian and vice versa); mastering of communicative skills; further development of the ability to adequately use of special language for the text annotation, both in English and Russian.

Writing develops the editorial skills in translating professionally-oriented texts to ensure their stylistic and terminological uniformity; translating papers and legal documents from Russian into English and vice versa; making an annotation and abstracting of texts, both in English and Russian. The improvement of listening skills is achieved by the practice of constant understanding of English-language messages (presentations, talks, reports, lectures, instructions; explanations, descriptions, as well as other listening materials). Reading stimulates information extracting and analytic skills (perception and processing in accordance with professional tasks) while studying different types of extracts: legal documents, summaries; reports, scientific and professional magazines.

4. Discussion

The purpose of this research is caused by the necessity of defining key components in the content of language education at Master`s level. According to experts examining mostly the problems of general and language curriculum design, the content of language education has to be based on the following: spheres of communication, related topics and situations, social roles, speech acts and speech material, language material, knowledge and a set of skills etc. (Gal`skova &Solovova, 1991). Analyzing various viewpoints, we have revealed the elements of content which are invariable and applicable to the conditions of foreign languages teaching in LLM Programs. Among the elements there are the following:

- language, professional and intercultural knowledge;
- the corresponding productive and receptive skills;
- language and speech material reflecting the subject matter of the foreign language professional communication.

As for the of content-elements of LLM Programs we have revealed the structure of professional and intercultural knowledge, applying the method of content analysis to the norm-setting FSESHE document related to competencies (general professional, professional, and general cultural) as well as other requirements to graduates output, which is provided below as table 2.

Table 2. Professional and intercultural knowledge designed to be developed within LLM courses

Professional Knowledge	Intercultural knowledge
-the system of law under study;	- the hierarchy of values;
-norm setting documents, their content and structure, including inter alia the difference in legal documents determined by the subjects adopting them at the international, federal, regional and local levels;	-algorithm of the comparative analysis of students` native and foreign culture; -background knowledge; national cultural components of semantics in
-the content and functions of lawmaking, implementing,	speech in situations of intercultural

enforcement activities; -fields of legal activities; -rules of implementing legal acts in particular fields of legal activities; -norms of procedural and substantive law; -rules of interpreting norm setting documents; -the essence of legal expertise of drafts of norm setting acts. the pattern of behavior, the requirements as for its conduct; -the content, structure and requirements as for perfection of qualified legal consultations in particular types of legal activities; -the pattern of identification of managerial innovations, their functions and potential as applied to the professional activities; -the pattern and requirements as for conducting legal research; -pedagogical, theoretical, methodological foundations of teaching law subjects; -the pattern and requirements as for the conduct of research in the field of teaching law and legal education	communication; -strategies for establishing contact with representatives of other cultures; -probable situations of intercultural communication; -the possible reasons for the violation of intercultural communication; -stereotypes; -culture of professional communication; -culture specific communicative behavior

Language knowledge mainly includes the theoretical foundations of professional translation, terms interpretation and basic ways of term making collocations and set phrases phraseological units; lexical and grammatical transformations; lexical and semantic, grammatical and stylistic peculiarities of the legal language (both Russian and English). It is also relevant for students to know the ways to translate terms, realia, proper names, and names of organizations, enterprises, academic and professional titles in the context of various documents, the rules of using common abbreviations. The teaching course also raises awareness in lexical and grammatical substitutions, modulations, generalization, syntactic assimilation, division of the sentence, antonymous translation, explication, implication, compensation, contextual substitutions, additions, omissions, pronoun repetition, deep transformations, as well as the techniques of translating culture specific vocabulary: transliteration, transcription, calquing, translation-explanation.

The second component of the language teaching content is developed within professional, language and intercultural knowledge and is related to lexical and grammar skills that are traditionally divided into productive (stipulating the speaking and writing skills development) and receptive ones (as a condition for the implementation of receptive types of speech activity: reading and listening) (Table 3).

Table 3. Language and intercultural skills

Language Skills	Intercultural skills
Lexical skills: -revealing the meaning of words using context or familiar affixation; -combination; -making wide use of the prediction; -enriching vocabulary; -choosing the right words / phrases in accordance with the communicative intention; -using lexico-semantic and lexico-thematic associations; -combining new words with those previously learned; -performing equivalent replacements. *Grammar skills:* -further development of recognition of the grammatical forms; -perception of the model, its imitation, reproduction (by analogy) including isolated and independent use of the learned model; -substitution; -transformation; -combination (transfer from model to model); -grammatical design of the generated text when speaking and writing; -making grammatical forms and constructions; -choosing and using grammatical constructions depending on the	-differentiating the hierarchy of values in different cultures; -critically interpreting these phenomena in conjunction with students` own outlook; -comparing and contrasting their own and foreign language culture; -using background knowledge, lexical units with the culture specific component of semantics in situations of intercultural communication; -flexibly using a variety of strategies to establish contact with representatives of other cultures; -predicting probable cases of intercultural communication; -acting as an intermediary between representatives of their own and foreign-language

situation of communication; -changing the grammatical structure of the statement when changing communicative intentions; -distinguishing between grammatical design of oral and written texts; -differentiating and identifying grammatical phenomena; -correlating the meaning of grammatical forms / constructions according to the context; -distinguishing between grammatical phenomena of similar form; -predicting the grammatical forms of words / constructions; -determining the structure of a complex sentences, the boundary of clauses (infinitive, participial, gerundial, definitive, adverbial, etc.); -establishing logical, temporal, cause-and-effect, and subordinating relations and connections between the elements of sentences; -establishing links between sentences within a paragraph or a complex syntactic whole	cultures; -determining the causes of violation of intercultural communication and effectively eliminating misunderstandings and conflict situations caused by intercultural differences; -overcoming existing stereotypes; -comparing and contrasting the culture specific notions under study.

The corresponding professional skills are not enumerated in the table above as they are provided for in FSESHE in the section stipulating professional competences (given above in table 1).

Abovementioned skills facilitate explication of context based on the students` knowledge and experience and contribute to the integrity of perception of the content of education. Further we elaborate on the component of teaching content related to the material used. When speaking about linguistic material we primarily mean words/ phrases specific to legal documents which are enshrined in the administrative and clerical speech (clericalism); terms, professionalisms and phrases of a terminological nature, idiomatic expressions, phraseological combinations, rarely used in general language; frequent elliptical constructions in typical documents, the form and content of which vary within small limits (summaries, reports, conclusions, etc.). Another specific feature is the predetermined usage of verb forms, figures of speech, clichés, special and general terminology in certain legal documents, homographs, homophones, synonyms, free collocations, using verbs primarily in the present, frequently present simple; widespread use of indefinite forms of verbs; specific usage of modal verbs and modal and passives constructions; latin words and expressions; anthroponyms, toponyms, abbreviations found only in legal documents, complex prepositions derived from nouns. This material is characterized by complex sentences where one fact is logically subordinate to another one. In addition to that, they can be sophisticated by homogeneous parts, participial constructions as well as parenthesis, wide use of one-word, attributive complexes, attributive word combinations with prepositions, verbal word combinations; lexical and phraseological combinations, combination of nouns without prepositions, complex noun phrases. The context specifies the culture specific information, depending on associative links and augmentation of meaning.

Speech material includes job-oriented texts, professional models, dialogues, themes. The authentic and educational texts constitute the key constituent of speech resources. Themes are determined by students` majors. They are selected in accordance with the general complexity, choice of specific vocabulary, sentence structure, quantitative characteristics of conceptual saturation (the correlation of the language chunks and the ideas they denote); the conceptual complexity, information nature of the topics/texts, their consistence with the syllabus of the training field.

The overall principles governing the selection of content include the increase of the complexity (including inter alia by progressively increasing the length of educational texts and other materials); change in the ratio of used and new components (the increase of new components in the linguistic, professional, social, socio-cultural and language material); variability; progressive introduction of new material (from general professional to narrow-professional).

The content of training forms various types of speech mediated by professional activities, specifically interaction and speaking, translation, writing, reading, and listening. Interaction, speaking and translation focus on interpretation of negotiations, formal and informal meetings, other situations of professional communication and related documents (from English into Russian, and vice versa); mastering of communicative skills; exercising adequate usage of professional language for text annotation, both in English and Russian.

Writing develops editorial skills in translating job-oriented texts to ensure their stylistic and terminological uniformity; translating papers and legal documents from Russian into English and vice versa; making an annotation and abstracting of texts. The improvement of listening skills is achieved by the practice of constant exposure English-language messages (presentations, talks, reports, lectures, instructions; explanations, descriptions, as well as other listening materials). Reading stimulates extracting of information and develops analytic skills (perception and processing in accordance with professional tasks) while studying different types of texts: legal documents, summaries; reports, scientific and professional magazines.

5. Conclusion

Currently, foreign language teaching in Russian LLM Programs is a multiaspect and complex task which is determined by priority objectives and the corresponding methodological basis of teaching languages. The basic principles of effective educational process take into account the selection of foreign language teaching content in LLM Graduate Programs, which in our research is described in terms of factors determining the process (graduates' professional activity, mastering their competences by FSESHE), and components in the content of language education (linguistic, professional and intercultural knowledge; the corresponding productive and receptive skills; language and speech material reflecting the subject matter of the foreign language professional communication), as well as analysis of the corresponding language and speech resources.

Offering internal practical approaches to the selection of foreign language teaching content in Russian LLM graduate programs, analyzing its content structure, and components we recommend colleagues to monitor the ever-changing social and economic conditions to identify constructive ideas on teaching foreign languages to master students.

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Context-Based Integrative Educational Technique in Profession-Oriented Foreign Language Teaching (Academic Model United Nations)

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Abstract

The aim of the article is to examine the Academic Model United Nations (Model UN) as a context-based integrative educational technique in profession-oriented foreign language teaching (FLT); to point out the context-based integrative nature of profession-oriented language learning and highlight the importance of using product-based educational techniques in FLT for developing students' future personal and professional autonomy; to identify the ways of integrating Model UN as a format of social mode of teaching. The article provides an overview of an experiment of implementing the Model UN format in the educational process, conducted in 2017 in the National Research University Higher School of Economics (NRU HSE), which proved that Model UN successfully serves as an "educational laboratory" that engages students in cognitive, research, creative and productive activities while using foreign language as a tool of solving problem-based tasks. The work includes the stages of integrating Model UN format in the educational process; analyzes a number of difficulties that may occur and suggests several ways of dealing with them; involves recommendations for preparing students for the roles of Model UN delegates and the criteria of participants' written and spoken speech assessment. The results of the research show that Model UN, as a highly flexible interdisciplinary educational technique, can be employed in various formats on different educational levels as a tool of modelling the context of students' future professional activities contributing to the development of their professional intercultural communicative competence (PICC), as well as their future personal and professional autonomy.

Keywords: Model United Nations, context-based learning, integrative educational technique, profession-oriented foreign language teaching

Introduction

There is no doubt that professional competence of modern specialists in almost any field directly depends on their ability to use foreign language as a means of professional communication, as well as a tool for solving various professional tasks. Therefore, it becomes obvious that future graduates' competitiveness on the labour market is ensured "not only by the fact that they possess deep knowledge and skills that can be applied in the specific professional field, but also by their readiness to deal successfully with concrete professional tasks in the situation of intercultural communication" (Khaleeva, 2014, p.11). In today's "scholarly works in the field of profession-oriented foreign language teaching and learning, in Russia in particular, (Koryakovtseva N.F., Baryshnykova O.V., Evdokimova M.G., Khaleeva I.I., Khomyakova N.P., Yarotskaya L.V.) the purposes, content and assessment of foreign language education are described in terms of professional intercultural communicative competence (PICC)" (Koryakovtseva, 2017). PICC is referred to as the "integrative ability of solving professional tasks with the help of foreign language". It is assumed that acquisition and effective development of PICC can be provided through engaging university students in productive learning activities: enhancing students' practical skills of employing obtained knowledge in the process of resolving problem situations conditioned by the goals and tasks of a particular type of activity; activating students' personal experience in this process; and creating "personally meaningful "knowledge-products" (Khutorskoy, 2000). The concept of "productive learning" that is based on the action theory by Lev Vygotsky (Vygotsky, 1982) is used here in opposition to "reproductive learning" – knowledge consuming mode of learning. Being involved in productive learning activities the learner does not automatically consume, but "creates something new in material or ideal dimensions, including new methods of acting" (Koryakovtseva, 2014, p.45). Product-based profession-oriented foreign language learning ensures:

— engaging learners as active participants into social and cultural contexts while solving profession-oriented tasks and activating students' individual potential;
— creating conditions for learners' self-expression and self-fulfillment; developing learning and cognitive activities;

— promoting students' understanding of the mechanisms of these activities as the basis for ongoing development; fostering students' creation of personally meaningful knowledge-products;

— creating autonomous learning environment that enables students to accumulate experience of resolving specific problems, which contributes to their independence as learners;

— providing opportunities for the development of students' creativity and their future personal and professional autonomy (Koryakovtseva, 2010).

The concept of learner autonomy that is traditionally treated by Russian researchers in the context of developing learning as a cognitive creative process and defined as a specific ability of the individual to manage his own learning, here in this research should be considered by implying the ideas of developmental learning that give a deeper insight into the nature of autonomy of the individual. In social dimension, definition of autonomy of the individual goes beyond the ability to manage his own learning and comprises the following components: autonomy of personal values and the need to have such values; affective dimension (emotional autonomy) and the need to have personal priorities; action autonomy, the need and ability for problem-solving, decision making, self-improvement, self-development, self-identification (Koryakovtseva, 2014).

Thus, engaging students into productive learning contributes to the development of their autonomy not just as learners, but their autonomy as individuals, ensuring their future personal and professional autonomy.

Productive foreign language learning requires implementation of product-based educational techniques in the process of profession-oriented education. This study discusses and describes the ways of implementing Academic Model United Nations (Model UN) into educational process as product-based educational technique in profession-oriented English language teaching.

Academic Model United Nations is an extremely popular and widely practised in the academic environment type of school, college and university conference that has been in focus in recent decades from the perspective of scaffolding learners' knowledge and bridging learning gaps in a wide range of fields such as International Relations, Politics, Economics, History, Diplomacy and other spheres of international cooperation (Dittmer, 2013; Fortin, 2012; Hazleton, Mahurin, 1986; Johnson, 1988; McIntosh, 2001; Muldoon, 1995; Obendorf, Randerson, 2012; Pettit, Craig, Walker and Rychly, 2017; Reitano, 2003; Zenuk-Nishide, 2014). Academic Model UN is generally defined as an operational simulation of a role-playing type, in which students assume the roles of diplomatic representatives of various countries, UN member states, as well as the roles of conference organizers, journalists and interpreters at simulated United Nations committees' hearings. The format of Model UN originated in the USA in the 1950-s after the United Nations organization had been created to replace its' predecessor – the League of Nations (Muldoon, 1995). Since then the Model UN has grown globally and today, "according to the United Nations Association of the United States of America (2012), over 400,000 students worldwide participate in a Model United Nations simulation each year" (Obendorf, Randerson, 2012, p.3). The biggest international Model UN in Russia, that is annually organized by MGIMO University, unites around 700 participants from all over the world in Moscow. "Churkin Moscow International Model UN" offers an opportunity to all students to become a Model's delegate or a member of organizers' team and provides a choice of any committee (out of 12 simulated committees) and a choice of the working language (out of 6 official languages of the United Nations: Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian or Spanish) that the delegates prefer to use during the sessions (2017a). Such encompassing popularity of the conference can be explained by numerous advantages it brings to its participants.

Although the benefits of using a Model UN format for the purpose of advancing learners' knowledge and practical skills required for the future IR-related specialists have been revealed and successfully introduced into various educational practices, importance of the format as a laboratory for mastering students' professional intercultural communicative competence is relatively underrated and not so thoroughly studied yet. However, scholars in the field identified a number of positive Model UN aspects and important functions that are crucial for understanding the way it may, as a product-based educational technique, contribute to the process of effective foreign language teaching and learning. According to Hazleton and Mahurin (1986), Model UN can be regarded as an "educational laboratory" that: activates students' cognitive activities; expands their knowledge; deepens their understanding of key concepts and complex nature of modeled situations; strengthens, changes and/or develops their attitudes to the debated problems. Model UN, as McIntosh argues, "shares many of the advantages of case-based instruction and Problem-Based Learning (PBL)" (2001, p.270). Fortin (2012), Obendorf and Randerson (2012), Reitano (2003) and other scholars highlight a great challenge of an individual and group work that students face while participating in the Model UN: "competitive challenge of the simulation engages participants emotionally and intellectually in ways that are far different and more extensive than more routine intellectual competition" (Reitano, 2003, p.4). Obendorf and Randerson (2012) stress that Model UN is a highly flexible simulation framework, suitable for various contexts and a wide range of learning levels, that advances development of basic academic and professional skills including research, analytical and cooperating

skills, as well as ability to produce knowledge and to apply acquired theoretical knowledge to solving particular practical issues. It is critical to point out that great flexibility and interdisciplinary nature of the Model UN format allows adopting it to a large number of educational contexts. It can be practiced in class or integrated as a part of extracurricular activities, or even become an elective course of the Debates in the Model UN format at both Bachelor's and Master's levels of studies.

At the heart of the Model UN debating process lies a necessity of finding a compromised solution to the discussed problem that activates the delegates' responsibility to not only plausibly express their ideas, but also bring their diverse opinions and arguments together. Engaging students into such social mode of learning, i.e. the one that involves future graduates' reflection of content and context of their upcoming social and professional activities, can be seen as a part of implementing the ideas of "contextual or context-based approach in education" (Verbitsky, Kalashnikov, 2013, p.2) that had been introduced in Russian educational theory by A.A. Verbitsky and "then has been further developed by many scholars (Agapova, O. I., Bakshaeva, M.D., Chomyakova, N.P., Dubovitskaya, T. D., Iljasova, N.A., Kalashnikov, V.G., Larionova, O. G., Russkasova. I.N., Scherbakova, O.I., Tenischeva, V.F., Trunova, E.G., Zhukova, N. V.)" (Galustyan, 2017; Verbitsky, Kalashnikov, 2013). The Model UN format seems to be a plausible way of modeling subject and social content of students' future professional activities that today consist mainly of various problem-based tasks. When at the Model UN participants are to act as social agents that means to cooperate in order to find a mutual solution to the issue on the agenda. So, they are expected to exercise such academically and professionally valuable skills as fast and argumentative articulation of their ideas, critical thinking, reflection on their opponents' opinions, cooperation and decision-making.

Thus, we can conclude that Academic Model UN can be regarded as an "educational laboratory" that possesses the following most prominent features of a context-based integrative educational technique:

— as a highly flexible technique it can be practiced in various educational contexts (on different educational levels – e.g. both Bachelor's and Master's; in various formats – as an elective course, extracurricular activity, two hours' seminar or several days' conference etc.);

— it serves as an interdisciplinary format that bridges learning gaps of various disciplines while employing foreign language as a tool of solving problem-based tasks;

— it integrates mastering professional intercultural communicative competence that expects students to create personally meaningful products while being engaged in a subject and social content of their future professional activities.

A Sample Study
Materials and methods

All above mentioned challenges that Model UN creates for its' participants moved us to conduct an experimental study of implementing Model UN format in educational process. An experimental study was conducted in 2017 with participation of NRU HSE School of Foreign Languages staff and 1st and 2d-year Bachelor students majoring in Linguistics (educational programme "Foreign Languages and Cross-cultural Communication"). The study involved 3 major stages that reflect the actual process of the Model UN format implementation in the educational process: preparation and training stage; simulation stage; assessment and evaluation stage.

As the Model UN is a highly flexible in scale format, for the purposes of conducting the second (simulation) stage of the study, the format of running experimental simulation of one working UN committee hearing was chosen. Participants were to model the work of the United Nations Social, Cultural and Humanitarian Committee (UN SOCHUM), issue on the agenda – "The Syrian Crisis. Protection of the Syrian Artistic and Cultural Heritage", working language – English. This up-to-date problem of international significance was chosen for the hearing's debates in accordance with students' English Language course syllabus – the topics that students had already learned before included "World Cultural Heritage", "UNESCO Heritage" and etc. The number of participants of the first (preparation and training) stage of the study was: 1 tutor and 45 students, the number of the second (simulation) stage and the third (assessment and evaluation) stage – 4 tutors and 16 students. Students' general knowledge about the work of international organizations, the UN in particular, the simulation agenda and procedure were evaluated during the first stage of the study with the help of observation and discussion methods, students' written and spoken speech in English was assessed before, during and after the simulation proper according to the designed criteria with the help of the simulation video recording. The final stage also included answering the questionnaire and the interviews with the participants of the study targeted at collecting their personal opinions about the effectiveness of the Model UN format for their current academic and future professional activities.

1. Preparation and training stage.

Before running the Model UN sessions, it is critical to find out if students are ready or, it is better to say, "to what extent" they are ready for it. It is obvious that hardly all students are well aware of all the necessary procedures and the missions of the UN and of the UN Models, and that was explored during the discussions held on the first stage of the study with the students before organizing the simulation. We faced the following difficulties when implementing the Model UN format: students possessed scarce and very general knowledge about the functioning of international organizations and conferences, the work of the UN and the Models UN in particular (some students had never heard of the Models UN before); students showed just surface knowledge of the problem on the agenda (The Syrian Crisis. Protection of the Syrian Artistic and Cultural Heritage); they lacked experience of taking part in the international conferences, forums and debates that require participants to work in English and comply with specific rules and regulations; students were also found to be poorly motivated to become a delegate.

Uncovering these difficulties enabled us to elaborate and test the following ways to overcome them before modeling the UN committee hearing:

- to conduct a series of classes that introduce students to the world of international organizations and Models UN (suggested topics: "History of United Nations organization; international importance of the UN in the 21st century"; "Creation and expansion of Model movement: scale, popularity and contribution"; "Global problems on the agenda"; "Becoming Model UN delegate: how to write "position paper" and "opening speech", rules of procedure");
- to guide students in working with the educational sources that offer the information on preparation and participation in the Model UN as delegates;
- to provide detailed instructions and study guides to prepare for the simulation;
- to explain students how they can individually grow within the Model UN – from a delegate to an organizer;
- to show students what opportunities and perspectives there are to become a delegate of national and international Models UN (Moscow Models at MGIMO and MSU; Harvard MUN, WordMUN, Global MUN abroad);
- to award the simulation participants: to record participation as a volunteer work; to award with Certificates of participation and Diplomas in different nominations - "Best Delegate", "Best Position paper", "Best Presentation", "Best Diplomat" etc.

The preparation and training stage involved elaboration of the instructions and study guides for potential simulation participants. The following recommendations can be used by teachers as the guidelines in creating the materials to prepare their students for participation in the Model UN format sessions.

1) To guide students in their pre-session research on the assigned countries' positions – for writing "position paper" and "opening speech":

✓ to formulate concrete requirements for writing "position paper" and "opening speech". This file should clearly articulate the requirements for the format, volume, content, organization and the language of the "position paper" – the written work that potential delegates prepare beforehand and submit to the simulation organizers as a proof of their participation and understanding of the assigned role. The same requirements should be set for creation and delivery of the "opening speech" – short monologue that every delegate presents at the opening of the committee hearing. General requirements for these research works are the following:

1. "Position paper" and "opening speech" are the documents written on behalf of the assigned country's delegation, in which the position about the issue on the agenda is stated;

2. "Position paper" is a one-page paper written in a formal style that usually includes three paragraphs presenting assigned country's position, while "opening speech" is a prepared in advance 1-1,5-minute monologue that briefly summarizes the key points of the "position paper";

3. The papers must involve general statements about the issue, recalling national and international Conventions and Declarations that deal with the problem; assigned country's contribution to solving the discussed issue, including any national policies or actions that had already been done by the country; realistic and practical solutions that assigned country could propose to tackle the issue; the papers must have at least two references to the official sources and documents that indicate the reliability of the information.

Criteria of assessing students' written and spoken speech performance must be based on the outlined and other requirements that we provide the simulation participants with. To ensure students are able to conduct a decent research and properly present it, it is essential to show them examples of "position paper" and "opening speech"; to provide them with a study guide that covers the issue on the agenda in a detail, lists the sources of the issue-related information that can be used for the research.

2) To guide students in their preparation for acting as delegates during the simulated UN Model Committee hearing it is helpful:

✓ to compile a booklet with general information on preparing for the Model UN that contains a programme of the future simulation: the issue (-s) on the agenda, committees presented, sessions' schedule, organizers' contacts and sources for additional information;

✓ to provide a document that explains the rules of the chosen committee sessions' procedure. All the working sessions of the General Assembly committees are similar in procedure. However, it is better to consult on the particular committee's regulations on the United Nations official website;

✓ to send the delegates an illustrative example of the "Working Paper" and "Final Resolution" – the documents that are supposed to be the final products of delegates' cooperative work during the hearing's debates. It is critical that students clearly understand the ultimate goal of their mission at the simulation – elaborating productive compromised solutions to the issue on the agenda in the process of cooperation with other states' delegates.

Thus, the "Model UN Delegate Toolkit" must include:
1) Instructions on writing Position paper and Opening speech;
2) Example of Position paper;
3) Committee Study Guide on the issue (e.g. "SOCHUM Study Guide "The Syrian Crisis. Protection of the Syrian Cultural and Artistic Heritage"");
4) Rules of Procedure;
5) Example of the Working Paper and Final Resolution;
6) General information on preparing for the Model UN.

2. Simulation stage.

On the second stage of the study the simulation of the UN SOCHUM Committee hearing was modeled. As the Model UN was the first experience for participating students, the roles were distributed the following way: 3 NRU HSE tutors acted as Chairs (The Dias) and Co-chairs of the hearing and 1 tutor provided technical support of the simulation; 16 NRU HSE students acted as delegates of the assigned countries.

Running the simulation required the usage of a computer, 2 laptops, speakers, projecting device, video camera and Model United Nations Software (MUNS) designed by Duisburg-Essen Model United Nations organizers (2017b).

Simulated hearing consisted of the following stages that can be used as an example for running the Model UN format sessions of the UN General Assembly committees: Introduction to the Debates; Opening of Debates; Speakers' list; Discussion; Elaborating Working paper; Voting Procedure (Draft Resolution); Closing Debates.

3. Assessment and Evaluation stage.

The final stage involved assessment of the students' written and spoken speech performance in English according to the designed criteria. Three types of activities were assessed:

1) written task – a research work in the format of "position paper" was assessed according to the following criteria: content, format (text structure and organization), vocabulary, grammar, spelling and punctuation;

2) speaking task 1 – presentation of the short monologue "opening speech" (prepared speech) was assessed according to the following criteria: content, format (text structure and organization), speech culture, grammar and pronunciation;

3) speaking task 2 – participation in the problem discussion (spontaneous speech) was assessed according to the following criteria: content, interaction, speech culture, grammar and grammar.

Results of the written and speaking tasks assessment enabled us to indicate the following general features that characterize students' performance during the preparation and participation in the Model UN format session:

- participants demonstrated understanding of the discussed issue, expressed nonstandard original opinions, referred to relevant examples and true facts during the problem discussion;

- speech of the participants mostly sounded clear and confident, complied with the time limits, as well as ethic and formal style norms;

- students used suitable vocabulary, the terms and abbreviations; their speech conformed to the B1-B2 levels;

- delegates sometimes failed to match the set requirements to the content and structure of the tasks;

- participants not always demonstrated the understanding of the regulations and hearing's procedure that resulted in numerous pauses and misunderstandings during the session;

- students not always managed to use their skills of argumentation and maintenance of the problem discussion.

Results of the criteria assessment of the participants' written and spoken works in English are of a great value for revealing strong and weak points of the students' overall performance in using English as a tool for solving specific

problems. Analysis of the results also indicates the main obstacles students face when they use the foreign language; these are the areas of concern for teachers to deal with during routine EFL classes.

To evaluate the effectiveness of the Model UN format as a context-based integrative educational technique, the simulation participants' answers to the designed questionnaire and interview were analyzed. Students' feedback illustrates that according to the delegates' opinions participation in the Model UN session helped them to practice and develop the following skills of:

-    searching various sources and analyzing the validity and reliability of the information in foreign language, including the search of the media and internet resources;
-    usage of information within a particular situation and given tasks;
-    defining and articulating the problem;
-    generating original and nonstandard solutions to the problem that does not have one definite resolution;
-    formulating the aims and tasks of the working process;
-    conducting and presenting research;
-    tracing the tendencies, differences and similarities of cultural, social, economic and political development of various countries;
-    employing bright examples and relevant facts as tools of argumentation and persuasion;
-    maintaining formal style of the discussion;
-    presenting ideas to the audience;
-    participating in a problem-based discussion.

Discussion and conclusions

-    As the study findings show, the Model United Nations format has proved to be an effective FLT technique, as it contributes to the productivity of the learning activities and the development of the students' professional intercultural communicative competence. As a context-based integrative educational technique, Model UN format:
-    allows developing and assessing learners' foreign language skills in writing and speaking;
-    ensures introducing learners to particular social and cultural contexts and situation of intercultural communication, expanding their knowledge about world history, culture, international economics and politics and foreign affairs, as well as introducing to the current global issues on the agenda and the current mission of the international organizations;
-    creates autonomous learning environment that enables learners to accumulate experience of resolving specific problems;
-    engages learners into problem-based discussion that requires skills of individual and group work;
-    advances learners' skills of delivering a public speech and presenting their ideas and arguments about an internationally important issue;
-    enhances analytical and research skills and stimulates cognitive activities;
-    develops learners' creativity and sense of responsibility, contributing to the development of their future personal and professional autonomy;
-    creates conditions for learners' self-expression and self-fulfillment.
-    Although, as the majority of alternative educational techniques, the Model UN format has its shortcomings – it requires a great deal of time and preparatory work from its organizers, as well as from the participants, – the technique is still of a great value in achieving its ultimate goal – engaging students in the process of creating personally meaningful knowledge-products with the help of the foreign language while mastering professional intercultural communicative competence.

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Gender Concept "Woman" in the Minds of the Russian People (Taking the Chinese as Reference) According to an Associative Experiment

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Abstract

The article is devoted to the study of language representations of the concept of "woman" in the minds of the Russian and Chinese people based on a comparison of associative experiments of two languages, identifying the dynamics of the concept in the language consciousness of the people, establishing the specificity of the concept in the Russian language picture of the world referring to the Chinese. Due to the specificity of the Russian language, we used the "Russian Associative Dictionary" (RAD) as the analytical material and the free associative experiment we conducted is a survey of modern speakers of Russian and Chinese – university students. The reactions, which characterize women, obtained in the process of the experiment, were examined according to semantic areas in three aspects: social, physical, individual. Experimental data shows that many associations that exist in the minds of native speakers can be influenced by personalities, which predetermines the variability in the content of the concept against the background of stereotypical representations. The materials of the experiment make it possible to reveal both the similarities and differences of the associative fields of the concept woman in the Russian and Chinese language pictures of the world. The linguistic representations of the concept "woman" presented in the experiments make it possible to reveal a specific national vision of the world against a different cultural background. The concept of a woman, reflecting the linguistic consciousness of modern Russian youth, differs from the concept of a woman recorded in the Russian associative dictionary, which was reflected in the 1970s. The differences between them correspond to the potential dynamic nature of the concept.

Keywords: concept woman, language picture of the world, public consciousness, associative experiment

1. Introduction

In modern science, the concept of a complicated mental complex has been established, which includes, in addition to the semantic content, assessment and the attitude of a person to a particular reflected object and other components which are universal, national-cultural, social, unitized and individual-personal (Maslova, 2004, p. 54-55).

A linguistic-cognitive description of a concept includes not only a procedure for describing lexicographic meanings, but also a procedure for describing a psycholinguistic meaning, which mainly uses the associative experimental method.

A person, creating a linguistic picture of the world, constantly compares one subject with another, and in the process of comparison, he creates associative connections between these subjects. As I.M. Sechenov noted: "Everything perceived by the senses, and everything that is the result of his mental activity, can be united in our consciousness associatively" (Zhao, 2003, p. 159).

2. Material and research methods

In the process of research, we used the method of an associative experiment, the data of which were subsequently subjected to qualitative linguistic interpretation. The essence of the associative experiment is that each subject is presented with a questionnaire, which contains the word-stimulus. The participant should respond to the stimulus word with the first word that came to his head and write it next to the stimulus. All of the reactions to the word-stimulus constitute its associative field.

There are certain types of relations that are objective and stereotyped in the language. This is achieved in a linguistic experiment, indicating that certain stable (stereotypical) connections, which are characteristic of language consciousness and developed in the practice of language communication, are established between these words. Such relations are considered as associative relations. Associative fields are also ethnically characteristic, which can be specific in different languages.

The associative experimental method is the most productive of all psycholinguistic methods used in the compartment of ethnic descriptions. An associative experiment has recently become the most common research procedure on the basis that linguistic knowledge allows for the understanding of consciousness, including the structures of language consciousness (Privalova, 2005, p. 320).

The associative field of all the results of the experiment is "a fragment of the image of the world of one or another ethnos, reflected in the consciousness of people having the 'average knowledge' a particular culture, and also a fragment of its motives, evaluations and its cultural stereotypes" (Ufimtseva, 1996, p. 140).

Our task was to find out how the concept *woman* was presented on the basis of an experiment and trace the concept dynamics in the linguistic consciousness of the people, establish the concept specificity in the Russian language picture of the world against the Chinese background.

Due to the specificity of the Russian language, we used the "Russian Associative Dictionary" (RAD) as the analytical material and the free associative experiment we conducted is a survey of modern speakers of Russian and Chinese (university students in Russia and China). Russian experiment - hereinafter referred to as rus., Chinese experiment - hereinafter referred to as chi.. Our experiment with native speakers of Russian and Chinese allows us to identify a specific national vision of the world against a different cultural background.

3. Comparison of Russian and Chinese associative experiment data

The analysis showed that the most frequent words (the first five reactions) in the associative fields of this concept in two language pictures of the world are: *man, beautiful, mother, in white, young* (RAD); *beautiful, love, mother, sex, children* (rus.); *beautiful, tender, mother, man, kind* (chi.). In the first five reactions of all three experimental results, the common reaction words were found — *beautiful and mother*. Differences of all three experimental results only in frequency: in the first place in the Russian associative dictionary — *a man*, the same word in the experiment of modern Russian and Chinese speakers - *beautiful*. The word *mother* in frequency occupies the same place (the third place) in three experimental versions. In addition, among the high frequency words of Russian students was *children*, reflecting the kinship and the function of women — reproductive. Among the high frequent signs of a woman in the Russian associative dictionary were in the social aspect — *in white* (the sign of the bride entering into marriage) and *young* (age), in the Chinese psychological aspect — *tender and kind* (inner qualities), in the Russian experiment — *love* (feeling between women and men) and *sex* (sex appeal).

Table 1. Associative field of the concept WOMAN (according to the Russian and Chinese experiment)

RAD	Russian experiment	Chinese experiment
мужчина (man) 71	красивая (beautiful) 145	красивая (beautiful) 91
красивая (beautiful) 66	Любовь (love) 100	нежная (tender) 44
мать (mother) 36	мать (mother) 92	мать (mother) 43
в белом (in white)19	секс (sex) 51	мужчина (man) 41
молодая (young) 11	дети (children) 49	добрая (kind) 22

It is worth noting that in the Russian experiment, male respondents, who account for 59% of general respondents, give the first five reactions in a slightly different way: *beautiful, love, sex, children, mother*. The first three words in accordance with the frequency are reactions that reflect sexually determined signs that cause pleasure in men (the so-called hedonism). Female respondents have a slightly different sequence of associates: *beautiful, mother, love, wife, children*. In the Chinese experiment, the data are as follows: for male respondents, the sequence of associates is *beautiful, mother / tender, man, wife, girlfriend*; for female respondents, *beautiful, man, tender, clothing, mother / good*. As for Russian women, in contrast to Russian men, the second association is *mother*, and the fourth is *wife*. Chinese men have the word *mother* in the second place, while Chinese women have the word *man* in the second place, and only among Chinese women, the word *clothes*, which is relevant to the appearance, appears in the fourth place.

Table 2. Comparison of the associative field of the concept WOMAN (according to the Russian and Chinese experiment)

Russian experiment		Chinese experiment	
men	**women**	**men**	**women**
красивая(beautiful)	красивая(beautiful)	красивая(beautiful)	красивая(beautiful)
любовь(love)	мать(mother)	мать/нежная (mother/tender)	мужчина(man)

секс(sex)	любовь(love)	мужчина(man)	нежная(tender)
дети(children)	жена(wife)	жена(wife)	одежда(clothes)
мать(mother)	дети(children)	подруга (friend/girlfriend)	мать/добрая (mother / kind)

This comparison shows the specificity of this fragment of the social group – Russian young students in the linguistic picture of the world against the background of Chinese and the differences from the reactions recorded in the Russian associative dictionary, which reflect the linguistic picture of the world of the previous generation of Russians.

Let us turn to this material and try to reconstruct the fragment of the image of the world that is associated with the words obtained during the experiments.

The meaning of the concept "woman" consists of the reactions in both languages. In this section, we considered associations that characterize women in semantic areas in three aspects: social, physical, and individual.

4. Description of the language data of the experiment

4.1. Social aspect

language data of the experiment reflects the social realization of women and their position in society in the following semantic domains:

1) Gender opposition woman-man. Peculiarities of the vocabulary of this subgroup are manifested in three directions: firstly, the associations of respondents of both countries reveal the basic definitions of the word "woman": a person (a human being) and a female (in Russian language a woman is a person of the female sex; in Chinese language – gender, the female sex), secondly, it should be noted that in both experiments we found more reaction words that reveal the gender opposition: "corresponding to a man" and "in contrast to a man" (in Chinese a woman is interpreted as not a man), in Russian it is absent. In the Russian language picture of the world, according to the Russian Semantic Dictionary, the position of a woman in society is determined by correlation with a man in the form of evaluative statements of a generalizing character: t*he best half of humanity, the fair sex* (positive) and *the weaker sex* (negative), the Chinese experiment reveals the reaction with a low evaluation "*weaker sex.*" In the associations of Russian students there are reactions of this meaning to the stimulus *a woman - a beautiful creature of the human species and the weaker sex*. In the Russian associative dictionary this meaning has not been found.

In the associations of Russian students there are words that reveal a high level of awareness of the idea of equality and equal civil rights with a man: *state, citizeness, Russia, Motherland, equality, freedom, independence, independent, self-sufficient, independent, right, save the world, feminism*. In the associations of Chinese student also emphasize a new point of the position of women in society: *women's rights, equality with men, civilization, freedom, business, successful, professional woman*.

The content of the reaction, indicating the role of a woman in the life of a man: in Chinese – *a helper, supporter that ensures success* – is positive; in Russian – *the most important thing for a man, the stimulus for a man – is positive*.

2) Occupation. The RAD contains a list of names of the type of occupation and professions: *doctor, soldier, gynecologist, designer, investigator, teacher, model*. In the associations of Russian students, the field of occupation is broadened: *actress, director, saleswoman, teacher, doctor, perfumer, microbiologist, poetess, accountant, seamstress, secretary, dancer, school teacher, job, work*. There presents a new profession of women – astronaut. The same reactions are found in both languages: *teacher, soldier, actress*. In the Chinese experiment, there are many words denoting the type of work that women do exclusively or in most cases, for example: stewardess, *nurse, housewife, actress, model, hotel staff, (pre-school) teacher*. In the modern linguistic consciousness of both Russian and Chinese students there is an image of a successful business woman. In the Russian experiment: *a business woman, successful, business, career, work*. Such reactions as *a successful, professional woman*, *a white collar, a female colleague, a female doctor (science), CEO*, show that in modern Chinese society a notion of "strong woman" has emerged – intelligent, educated, capable of making a real competition to a man.

The traditional types of occupations related to gender asymmetry are indicated by the same type of reaction of Russian and Chinese students: *housewife, household chores, kitchen, laundry, cleaning-sweeping the floor, cooking-baking*.

3) Family relationship. The same reaction words are found in both languages: *wife, husband, mother, mom, grandmother, family*. There are much more reactions in the Chinese experiment than in the Russian. This is due to the fact that in ancient times there is a huge tribal system in China. In contrast to the RAD and the Russian experiment, including the word *sister*, Chinese students used the differentiating traditional names *elder sister, younger sister*. The primitive social system of China was matriarchy, which is still inherent in the spirit of Chinese women. And now, even in many families, in accordance with the Confucian tradition, a woman predominates; therefore, there is an associate called *the householder*. We can see that among the reactions of Russian students there is a close notion of the head of the family, which does not correspond to the stereotypical notion of the position of a woman in a Russian family. It is

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absent in the RAD, but apparently it reflects a conversion in the role system of family relations of new age. A woman in China is especially close with all family members, which shows *a feeling for their relatives, love for their relatives*. Relatives are represented by lexemes *son, daughter, grandmother, aunt, etc*. In the Russian experiment there are wife's mother and husband's mother who are not represented in the RAD. The inalienable right of women in both the Russian and Chinese traditions is marriage, and the corresponding reaction words are present in the RAD and in both experiments: *marry, married, married woman*. The reflection of national-cultural specificity can be seen in the use of the words wedding and a church wedding by Russian students.

It should be noted that the reactions of this group in the Russian associative dictionary are less than in the semantic one. This means that in the consciousness of modern Russian people only *the wife, mother and sister* occupy important places in family relationships. And in the Chinese experiment it is much more than in the Russian, which indicates a greater significance of this category for the modern Chinese consciousness than for the Russian.

4) Reproductive function. The most important thing for a woman is to become a mother. In this subgroup, experiments in both countries give reaction words with a similar meaning: *child, with child, having children (RAD) – children, child, baby (rus.) – children, infant (chi.); motherhood (RAD) – birth, creativity, continuation of the race, life cycle (rus.) – procreation, woman creates humanity (chi.)*.

Now let us turn to the differences: firstly, in the Russian experiment the word with such a component of meaning as "*breastfeeding*" noted in the explanatory and semantic dictionaries was not mentioned, and in Chinese there is a word-reaction – *breast*. This may be due to the fact that now in Russia not many women are breastfeeding for various reasons. On the other hand, in Chinese questionnaires there is no word-reaction "*pregnancy*" appearing in Russian questionnaires. Perhaps this reflected the fact that this experiment was conducted among modern students who do not enter into marriage and avoid such reactions due to conservative traditional education.

Interestingly, in the Russian experiment, words-reactions *lullaby* and *diapers* appear, reflecting a warm maternal attitude to the baby, and a metaphor of the *beginning*. Reproductive function is not limited to procreation. It is connected with parenting and maternal qualities: *motherhood, the mother of children, the caregiver, the caring mother, the mother's hands, the parents* (rus.); *parenting, maternal love* (chi.).

4.2. Physical aspect

In this section we will discuss the following semantic domains:

1) Age. We found that in the experiments of both countries there are many similarities: first, in the description of women of a certain age: *girl, young = young woman, lady = lady, old (elderly, aged) = old woman = old age*; secondly, in the allocation of a time period characterizing the age of a woman. In the modern consciousness of Russian and Chinese students, a woman is associated with an age above 30 years old (in Russian, *a lady is older than 30 years old, the Balzac age, in RAD, is over 25 years old.*).

In addition, Chinese questionnaires describe the average age "not young": *mature, adult, middle age*.

In the experimental materials of Russian students, stereotypical metaphors of the Russian language consciousness figurative associations are *autumn* and *fallen leaves* as an expression of age.

2) Appearance. In both experiments there are multiple reaction words that characterize a woman's appearance. The materials of an associative experiment conducted among modern Russian students indicate a change in the value significance of the parameter appearance.

a) General appearance. The physical appearance of the person is perceived by the first impression emotionally and is evaluated from the point of view of beauty. Thus, the general assessment of appearance based on emotional perception is aesthetic.

In the two Russian experimental variants, a numerous series of reaction words are presented on the basis of "appearance." These are, first of all, reaction words that include the component "*beautiful woman*": *beautiful, beauty, nice, belle, beauteous, beautiful creation, gorgeous, dazzling, lovely, charm, charming, admiration, delight, etc*. In this subgroup all reaction words with the meaning "beauty" have a positive assessment, some of which are with a high degree of assessment. In the meaning of these words there is no description in the details of individual appearances. Aesthetic appraisals are associated with the satisfaction of the sense of beauty and form the core of the spiritual beginning of the human beings. Visual impressions of the conception also contain metaphorical reactions: *sunny, sunshine, the sun, little sun, the play of colors, the dawn, festival, the lightning, harmony*.

There is a similarity between reaction words in both languages: *belle, beautiful, beauty, attractive, pleasant, lovely, charming* – are also presented in the questionnaires of Chinese students. In addition, in the Chinese experiment there is a word with the meaning "not beautiful" – *ugly*. There are no words with a negative assessment in the materials of Russian students, an example of the reaction of Russian students: *there are no ugly women*. The evaluation vocabulary is fixed mainly in the questionnaires of female. In male reactions, examples are rare: rus. – *beautiful, beauty, lovely,*

bright as snow; chi. – *female beauty, charming, pleasing to the eye*. In addition, in the Chinese experiment among men, the appearance reaction without evaluation is repeated.

b) Figure. The features of the female figure appear in two languages with a designation indicating the opposite qualities: *fat – slender*. Corresponding lexemes are presented in the RAD, and in the Russian and Chinese experiments: *fat, plump, fragile* (RAD); *fat, slim, graceful, itsy-bitsy* (rus.); *fullness, graceful, itsy-bitsy* (chi.). In both experiments represent similar expressions about the need to pay attention to the figure – *weight-loss* (chi.), In the Russian experiment there is a larger set of expressions: *excess weight, pay attention to the figure, focus on the figure, lose weight*. In RAD, there is no such meanings. In the modern world, female weight loss is always associated with food, so the word "*diet*" appeared in the Russian experiment, which shows how to keep fit. The feature *slim* in the experimental data of the youth is obvious.

c) Body. The linguistic representations of both languages reflect the reactions based on the "part of the body": *face, eyes, hair, legs*. Russian students gave an even wider set of parameters: *lips, hands, fingers, nails, eyelashes*. In the minds of Russian male respondents, in addition to the words above, there are *hips, breasts,* and colloquial *boobs*. *Long hair* as a stereotype of female beauty is presented in the RAD and both experiments. Russian students also noted other characteristics: *soft hair, curly hair, haircut, hairdressing, hairstyle, curls, tendril, braid, blonde, brunette*. Similar expressions about the legs were found: rus. – *leggy*, chi. - *thin legs*; *bright eyes* are noted (chi.); *blue-eyed, beautiful, twinkling eyes* (rus.). These are all signs of female beauty. There are only two characteristics in RAD: *long-legged* and *long hair*. In the Russian experiment discovered a unique characteristic of the appearance of *freckles*.

d) Facial expression. In the Russian experiment, reactions on the basis of facial expressions are divided into three groups: smile (*always smiling, smiling*), glance (*views of a woman, languid look, kind look*). And in the Russian associative dictionary there is no such word, in the Chinese experiment there is only the word "*smile*".

e) Voice. This characteristic is noted only among Russian students: *melodiousness, pleasant voice, loud and unpleasant voice, a little deep voice*.

f) Sexual attraction. In both experiments, there are reaction words that reflect the psychophysical characteristics associated with the element of sexuality: *passion, sensual, charmer, desirable* (rus.); *sex, sexual* (rus., chi.). They reflect the men's views on women. In the Russian experiment, male respondents give the reaction words "*naked, naked woman in a sauna*", which represents the male view of a woman from the standpoint of sexual attractiveness.

g) Attributes. The associates represented in the answers of Russian students is much broader than that in the RAD and in the answers of Chinese students. In the Russian experiment, a greater number of words describing women's clothing and necessary things for the beauty of women, including jewelry, are presented. The category of clothing include clothes, clothing and other words with the assessment: a lot of clothes, beautiful outfit. The names of the types of clothing are diverse: *dress, skirt, coat and hat, fur, hat, scarf, underwear, pantyhose, puff on pantyhose, etc*. The most frequent were *dress, shoes (high-heeled shoes, heels) and swimsuit*. In RAD, there fewer names of things that only women use: *dress, skirt, shoes, with bags* — but there are flowers and color designations: *in white, in red, in black, in blue*. The color designation of the appearance in the reactions of Russian students is different: *white, green, pink*. Chinese students have two colors: *green and red*. In the Chinese experiment, the common name is clothes and the use of the meaning of "fashion" (*fashion, fashionable clothes*) is emphasized.Only skirts and shoes are about the types of clothing, including high-heeled shoes. Especially in the experiments presented many names of cosmetic accessories and procedures: rus. – *mascara, varnish, paint, mask, lipstick, etc.*, *whiten teeth, nail extensions*, which are absent in the RAD; *cosmetics, lipstick, perfume* (chi.). In the reactions of Russian and Chinese students there is a common name for *jewelry*, only among Russians there are types: *jewels, earrings, bracelets, gold*; in RAD only the word *ring*. In both experiments, words-reactions with the meaning of "presence / absence of clothes" turned out to be opposite: chi. – dress up, RAD – nude. From the world of things we note a special reaction *guy's machine* (rus).

In the experiment we found one more characteristic feature for women, which is noted in the list of favorite products of Russian students (female) – **taste preferences**, which are not mentioned in the RAD and the Russian semantic dictionary: *strawberries, borscht, jam, cream, cherries, cabbage, candy, pies, sweets, cakes, bread*; In the Chinese questionnaires only *chocolate* is noted.

4.3. Individual aspect

The material obtained in the course of experiments makes it possible to distinguish the following semantic domains, in which qualities and characters are presented:

1) General characteristics. A woman is identified as a person in the reactions of individuality, uniqueness (rus). The personal characteristic of a woman is represented by general vocabulary from the standpoint of value (Arutyunova, 1999, p. 198). In the RAD, Russian and Chinese experiments, a positive assessment was given to the stimulus of a woman – the reaction good. Unlike the results in the RAD, there is a negative assessment of the stimulus of a woman in the experiments of Russian and Chinese students – *bad*. The general characteristics in terms of conformity or non-

conformity with the ideal, standard and rules are represented by the following oppositions: on the one hand, *ideal* (RAD, Rus., Chi.), *real* (Rus.), *A woman is a woman* (RAD), on the other hand – *unusual, eccentricity* (rus.), *strange* (RAD, rus.). The meaning of typicality, stereotype is fixed in the lexeme of *femininity* and combinations of *female logic*, *female destiny, female happiness, female face* represented in the reactions of Russian students. The national specificity is in combination *a Russian woman*, also represented in the Russian experiment (not in the RAD). But there is no combination of "Chinese woman" in the associations of Chinese students. The lack of concretization of characters and qualities can be seen in the following reactions with the general meaning "unknowability by the perceiving subject": *mystery, mysterious* (RAD, rus.), *secrecy, obscurity, incomprehensible to others* (rus.). There is no such meaning in the Chinese associations.

2) Intellect and imagination. The core of this group of words is constituted by rational assessments of the qualities of perceiving subjects: *intellect* (rus.), *wisdom, clever* (RAD, rus., chi.), *capable* (*rus., chi.*). The meaning of the word *intellect* is "mental abilities of a person", *clever* is "having a highly developed intellect." Additional meanings are contained in other reactions, a number of which are more widely represented in the associations of Russian students, for example, wise (RAD. rus., chi.) And rus. – *reason, wit, brain, thoughts, understanding, education, development, versatile person, interesting personality*. Wisdom corresponds to a higher level of manifestation of the mind ("deep mind, knowledge experience"), *reason* includes semes "wisdom, ability, logic"; *wit* - "ingenuity, subtlety of mind", *versatile* - "a variety of abilities, knowledge, interests", *development* - "the degree of manifestation of the mind, intellect".

The word wisdom in the Russian experiment turned out to be high-frequency. This series of words is opposed by reactions with negative assessments: *stupid* (rus., chi.), *all stupid* (RAD), *not smart*, *bad thought* (chi.), *fool, illogical, lack of logic, blunt* (rus.). The ratio of the frequency of positive-colored words and negative-colored words indicates a high appreciation of the woman's intellect by modern Russians compared to the previous generation.

The psychological capacity for imagination, which is to create new ideas on the basis of existing ones through their transformation, is manifested in creativity. The vocabulary with this component of meaning is represented only in the reactions of Russian students: *imagination, creativity, talent, talented, inspiration, fantasy, magician*.

Defining the place of the category of *wisdom* in the universal opposition of body and soul as "high" and "low", A.A. Zaliznyak unites the intellectual with the physical and contrasts the spiritual. And he remarks: "What has been said, of course, does not mean that the mind in the Russian language picture of the world always belongs to the 'low' sphere and is evaluated negatively: this is only a certain tendency, the full picture is certainly more complicated (Zalizynya, 2005, p. 158-161). At the same time, he says that in the Russian word wisdom contains a different concept, wisdom appears as the highest ability of a person and is closer to the soul.

3) Will. In psychology, the will is understood as the conscious control by a person of his behavior and activities associated with overcoming internal and external obstacles (Gamezo, 2001, p. 202). Volitional qualities suggest activity, independence and strength. These qualities are traditionally perceived as masculinity.

On the basis of the presence / absence of will, the vocabulary is divided into two groups. The willful qualities characterizing women are reflected in the reactions of both Russian and Chinese students: *resolute* (rus., chi.), *firm* (rus.), *bold* (rus., chi.), *persistent* (chi.), *ambition, strength, confidence, self-confidence* (rus.); *progressive, independent, unconstrained* (chi.). In RAD no such expression.

The absence of volitional qualities is expressed in the general for two languages of the concept of meekness, meek (rus., chi.), in the RAD and rus. – *weakness, weak*, in rus. – *effeminacy, vulnerability, defenseless, protect, in need of care, dependence; patient, patience*; in Chinese – *obedient*. According to the latest reactions, the sign of weakness of a woman remains in the minds of Russians, but it does not belong to the frequency ones. The high frequency of the sign is strong (11), strength (9).

4) Feelings, emotions, mood. The temperament of the person reflects in the mood. In the materials of all experiments, positive characteristics are presented: *temperament, temperamental* (RAD, rus.), *happy* (RAD, rus., chi.), *laughs* (RAD), *laughter, laughing* (rus.), *cheerful* (rus.), lively (chi.).

It is believed that sensitivity and emotionality are typically feminine qualities. This is noted in the works of psychologists, in gender studies [Jung, Vilyunas, Kirilina, and others]. In the answers of the respondents, feelings and emotions, indicating increased sensitivity and emotionality, as well as typically female feelings, are reflected. There are general nominations of *emotion, emotionality, feeling* (rus.) and words indicating the degree of emotions: *depth of feelings* (rus.), *excitement, agitation, anxiety, nerves, temper, hysteria, rabies* (rus.), *in ecstasy* (RAD). There are no such reactions in the answers of Chinese students. Similar meanings of the specific variety of emotion are noted in rus. – *sadness, grieve*, in the chi. – *grief, miss*. All experiments impose a typical way of manifestation of feelings for women: *cry* (RAD), *crying* (rus.), *tears* (chi.).

Types of feelings and emotions are divided into two parts in relation to personal needs: depending on their satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Of all the variety of positive feelings in the reactions, there are only two main ones: *love* and

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happiness. These are universal concepts, they belong to the key ones in the Russian language picture of the world and are relevant for the Russian language consciousness. In the experiments, the concept of *love* is represented by a number of associations: RAD – *affection, love, beloved*; rus. – *love, beloved, loving, in love, fall in love, beloved wife, lover, "I loved you ...", etc*. The vocabulary with the meaning of "love" is also widely represented in the Chinese language picture of the world, which is reflected in the reactions: *love, gently love, loving heart, beloved girlfriend, love for relatives, lovers, love me, love you, motherly love*. Here we need to distinguish two meanings of the word: "hedonistic", associated with pleasure, and "altruistic" – the desire to do good to others (Zaliznyak, 2005, p. 209). They are in the given representations.

Happiness, according to A.A. Zaliznyak is also a very important concept in the Russian language culture. The author notes, as a tendency to move from the meaning of "*luck, sucess*" to the meaning "*higher satisfaction, earthly bliss*". In reactions to a stimulus, a woman is *happy* (RAD, rus.), *happiness* (rus.) contains the second meaning, *brings happiness* (Russian) - the first. In the same range of feelings, only one reaction is presented that is close in meaning – *joy* (rus.). The Chinese students recorded reactions: *happy, happiness, the pursuit of happiness*.

It can be concluded about the universality of the concepts of *love and happiness* for Russians and Chinese. But the concept of *love* is of greater importance for Russian students (second place in frequency) compared with Chinese (14th place). There are differences in the frequency according to our experiment and in the RAD (tenth place). That is to say that, the value of this concept becomes different for modern youth

5) Relations. This semantic domain occupies an important place in the Russian language picture of the world. This is evident in the diversity and number of representations.

a) Attitude towards people. The general concept indicating the parameter "relationship" is present in the reactions: *connection, relationship* (rus.). The criterion of the nature of attitudes towards people expressed in vocabulary is the presence or absence of the component "preference / indifference to people". Positive quality is reflected in Russian materials in a wide range of reactions, which in fact represent the concept of "kindness" in its semantic diversity: *kindness, kind* (RAD, rus.); *kindhearted, genuine, humanity, soul; sensitivity; responsiveness, attentive; care, caring, warm; help, mutual aid, helper, patronage; sacrifice*. Reactions, which include the component "evaluation by the perceiver": *you can rely on her, strong in relationships* (rus.). Describing the structure of the concept of "kindness", N.V. Safonova identifies eight subordinate levels in the taxonomic model of the concept (Safonova, 2007, p. 320). The reactions represent elements of all the levels it has selected. It can be considered that the basic meanings of the concept of "kindness" are present in the linguistic consciousness of modern youth. In the material there is the word "sacrifice", expressing the extreme degree of " preference towards people" – "focus on others, everything is for others."

The basic meaning of "preference towards people" is also in a series of tokens with a narrower meaning compared to the meaning of "kindness", "showing a certain feeling towards someone": *respect, trust, gullibility, love, pity* (rus.); *tenderness* (RAD, rus.), *tender, affection, affectionate, sweet* (rus.). In Russian students, the reaction to the stimulus of *a woman is tender* (35) exceeds the reaction *kind* (21). The reaction *tender* can be considered specific in the female characteristic. While, in the RAD a high frequency association is *kind*. In addition, we classified associations *friends, friends; acquaintance, neighbor, companion, classmate, people of the same grade* into the terms of the concept of "preference towards people" (rus.). N.V. Ufimtseva believes that "the Russian consciousness is the 'friend-orientation' consciousness. In the Russian consciousness attention should be paid to oneself and also to others, in which shows that a person caring about ***friends*** first is a good ***person***." (Ufimtseva, 2000, p. 160)

In the associations of Chinese students, the basic concepts with the meaning of "preference towards people" are also presented: *virtuous; caring, cordial; tenderness, tender, tender girl; friendship* (chi.). In contrast to the Russian data in Chinese associations, there is less variety, there are no reactions such as *sacrifice, sensitivity, reliability, pity, gullibility, help* (rus.). Defining the structure of values in different cultures, researchers note the differences between Western and Eastern cultures. For example, help in Western cultures is related to values of the most importance, in Eastern cultures – to non-essential values, i.e. to the last step (Savenkova, 2002, p. 132). Experimental language data confirms this difference.

Characteristics appearing in relationships are evaluated negatively presented in the same type of reactions: *evil* (RAD, rus.) and *evil, source of evil* (chi.), *snake* (RAD, rus.) and *serpentine* (chi.), *beast* (RAD)and *beast* (chi.), *fiend, vamp* (RAD) and *witch* (chi.). This series of words is the figurative use of language and gives an overall assessment.

In addition, in Russian associations there is a reaction with the meaning of "lack of preference towards people" - egoism (preference of one's interests to the interests of others) and association with the meaning of focus on the relationship, which can be understood but unacceptable: *strict* (RAD, rus.) = "very demanding", *harmful* (rus.) = "harmful", *cruel* (rus.) = "extremely severe, ruthless, merciless".

b) Attitude to ethics. Communicative qualities in communication are evaluated from the standpoint of norms of behavior, rules of decency, i.e. ethical qualities. They are formed in the process of education. In the reactions of Russian and Chinese students this concept is presented: *education* (rus.) = ability to behave; ***good manners*** (chi.). The concept

of communication and its significance for women is expressed in the evaluation of Russian students: *nothing attracts women as communication, women are good interlocutors*.

In the linguistic consciousness of Russian students there is an idea of ethical norms. On the stimulus of *woman,* they give the reaction: *polite* = observant of the rules of decency; *compromise* = make a concession; *euphemistic* = precautionary, mild in communication. The negative characteristics are: *prim* = overly strict, behave oneself meticulously; *impudence* = impudent = extremely impudent, unreasonable, neglecting the rules of decency; illoical. Chinese students only noted *annoying*.

There are a number of reactions characterized by communication: *conversation, talkative, talker, good speech* (rus.), chatter (RAD and rus.), *emphasis on pronunciation o* (RAD). In associations of Chinese students, words with a negative color: *chatting, grumbling, quarrelsome* (chi.)

Communication involves the use of a unit of speech etiquette – appellation. In the speech etiquette manifests the national-specific behavioral culture of the people. It is associated with social norms. Appellations are socially determined and reflect the attitude towards the person with whom they speak. In the materials of the Russian experiment, only one reaction to the stimulus of *woman — an impolite form of address* (7 reactions). In the Dictionary of Culture of the Russian Speech, it is noted as a derogatorg term and is not recommended for address someone (Formanovskaya, 2003, p. 380). It is important to know that they also do not accept the kind of address, respondents added.

c) Attitude to morality. In every society, there are conceptions about moral and ethical standards. The language reflects behavioral assessments in terms of these norms. They are formed with the influence of cultural-historical processes and religion and absorb new elements that are universal and national-specific.

The positive zone of the personality characteristics of the woman obtained the following reactions during the experiment: *decent, sincere, open* (rus.). Opposite qualities are evaluated negatively: *meanness, deception, deceit, cunning* (rus.), expressive assessment was given in the reactions: *bitch* (RAD and rus.), *bitchy* (rus.), *beast* (RAD). In Chinese reactions, there are no positive characteristics, negative ones – without a high degree of emotionality: *sly, viperous, fake*. In fact, all words with a negative assessment convey the meaning in the same way: hiding true intentions and achieve its goal by tricking it. The coincidence of lexemes may indicate the universality of the characteristics as typically female.

There are many words giving an assessment of women's behaviors in relation to the other gender in the moral and ethical aspect. The assessment of the attitude of a woman to marital relations is represented by the opposite: faithfulness - infidelity (rus.). In both experiments, we found similar words-reactions: on the one hand, words with the meaning of "strict morality": *chastity* (rus., chi.) and *innocence* (rus.), on the other hand, words with a negative assessment: *mistress* (rus., chi.), *prostitute* (RAD, rus., chi.), *fallen*, *slut* (RAD), *whore, jezebel, sinner, vice* (rus.) and a phrase *sex without commitment* (rus.). Semantic domain "sex", "sexuality", as we can see from the frequency, occupies an important place in the linguistic consciousness of young people – both Russians and Chinese. Russian students: *sex* – 51 reactions, sexual – 8, *passion* – 15, *desires* – 5, *sensual, intimate, seductive, desirable* – 3. The response also reflects specifically feminine behavior, reflected in the lexical component of "attracting the attention of men": *seductive* (AD, rus.), *coquette* (rus.), *coquetry* (chi.).

d) Attitude to material and spiritual values. Evaluation lexis in the Russian and Chinese versions belongs to the same type: *money, predator, self-interest* (rus.); *money, greedy, mean* (chi.). The basic meanings – enrichment, profit, inadmissible means of obtaining, personal gain. In the Russian experiment there is a more neutral implementation: *requiring material well-being*.

The opposite meaning, which is positive in the Russian representation is associated with the word *romance* (rus.), with the words *spirit, soul, kindness, holiness, God, religion*, relating to the spiritual side. But there is no direct opposition, such as the meaning of the word *altruist* (RAD) or *sacrifice* (rus.).

Associations that point to the sphere of interests: *dance, dancer, cinema, songs; poems, literature, theater, book, magazines; leisure, entertainment, dating; shops* (rus.), in Chinese reactions, two associations: *shops and art*, too.

e) Attitude to the career. Business qualities are represented by a small number of reactions: *accurate, responsible, hard worker, work, an industrious person, like a robot, can do everything, business, punctual, sleep, economic, centaur (rus.); hardworking, troublesome* (chi.).

5. Language representations associated with the figurative side of the concept of "woman. The precedent phenomena

Let us dwell on the features of representations associated with the figurative, symbolic side and reflecting the ethno-linguistic and cultural specificity of consciousness.

The national-cultural originality of the linguistic picture of the world consists of **figurative metaphoric** realizations. Metaphor means "a way to think about one region through the prism of another" (Pimenova, 2004, p. 82). A.P.

Chudinov emphasized: "the metaphorical mirror may not reflect the real state of things ..., but it can reflect its perception in the national consciousness" (Chudinov, 2003, p. 211). In the reactions of Russian students, there are imaginative associations from the realm of the natural phenomena, the plant, animal and objective world, religion, cosmos, etc.: woman – *fire, sea, air, earth; the sky, the dawn, the stars, the universe; tree; world, war; life, death; challenge, happiness; faith, icon, deity (rus.).* In the Chinese experiment, there are less words lika that: the woman– *world, scenery, angel.*

A woman is often compared with *flowers*, which exists in both experiments. *Rose* in the Chinese language picture of the world is associated with love. "*Not a magic tree*" means that a woman cannot earn a living with her beauty; "*vase*" is usually associated with a woman who has nothing except beauty; "*Women are made by water*" comes from the author's expression of the book "Dream of the Red Chamber". Such nominations have symbolic meanings.

A special place in the lexico-semantic system of the concept "woman" is occupied by zoonymic associations. The zoonimic code of each linguistic picture of the world has a different national feature. In Russian reactions: *cat, snake, crocodile, rooster.* In Chinese – *tiger, dinosaur, ant, dog.* The reaction words in Russian and Chinese linguistic consciousness are completely different. In the Russian language picture of the world, the images of *cat* are associated with either a gentle, affectionate woman, or dark powers – a witch; *crocodile* is associated with ugliness; *snake* – with deceit; *rooster* – with frivolity. In the Chinese view, *dinosaur* is associated with ugliness, *ant* with industriousness, *dog* – a symbol of honest family relationships, *tiger* – a symbol of a brute woman and in modern consciousness there is a song named "Woman – Tiger" associating with this concept.

But the most distinctive national and cultural features of the linguistic picture of the world are from the precedent phenomena. They play a special role in ethnolinguistic culture. The concepts behind the precedent phenomena are well known to the people of a certain culture, the people with the common ethnolinguistic cultural consciousness: "Knowledge of precedent texts is an indicator of of a specific era and its culture, while their ignorance, on the contrary, is a rejection from the corresponding culture" (Karaulov, 2002, p. 216).

Among the associations of Russian students, there are precedent names, including: a) the names of literary, folklore, mythological and religious characters – *Eve, Venus, Virgin Mary, Virgin Mary Margaret, Elena, Tatiana, Gertrude, Anna Karenina, Muse, Mary Popins, Baba-Yaga;* b) the names of real people, mainly actresses: *M. Dietrich, Greta Garbo, M. Monroe, Coco Chanel, Alla Pugacheva, N. Mordyukova, L. Gurchenko, Masha Mironova*. Among the reactions are the names of the country and the capital: *Russia, Russ, Moscow.*

In the experiment conducted with Russian students, most of the reactions are the names of movies, words of songs, proverbs, aphoristic expressions, slogans, etc. For example, in the Russian experiment: *"Find a woman", "Oh, what a woman!" "For all the women, I raise my glass." "I am a woman, and it means I ..."* a woman who sings, "call me, call me!", "A woman at the wheel is a monkey reading a letter", March 8, "Where there are women, there will always be men", "Motherland is calling! ".

The most frequent in the Russian experiment are *"Oh, what a woman!", "A woman at the wheel - a monkey reading a letter", "Find a woman."*

There are much more precedent names and statements in the Russian experiment than in the RAD and the Chinese experiment, for example: (RAD) *Diana, Eve, Venus, March 8, who sings, people's friend, as a woman, my dream;* (chi.) *Dream of the Red Chamber, Mother's Day, Women's Day (March 8).*

In the three experimental versions, the same reaction "March 8 (Women's Day) is included in both Russians and Chinese language picture of the world.

6. Conclusion

The analysis of associative experiments, ranking of associative reactions by frequency, allows us to make the following conclusions.

The percentage of quantitative data on aspects of the concept review shows:

1. Social characteristics predominate in the reactions of Chinese students: chi. – 25.2%; rus. – 17.3%. At the same time, the semantic domains "the opposition of the woman-man" and "family relationships" play the most important role in the linguistic consciousness.

2. Physical characteristics also prevail in the reactions of Chinese students: chi. – 30.6%; rus. – 23.3%. The features of age and appearance are significant to the research.

3. Personal characteristics make up almost the same proportion of all reactions: chi. – 34.1%; rus. - 33.9%. But the distribution of semantic domains differ from each other. Intellect and imagination turn out to be a more significant characteristic of the concept among Russian students, and the willpower among the Chinese. Feelings, emotions and attitudes are more meaningful for Russian students.

4. Figurative expression prevail in Russian reactions: chi. – 10.1%; rus. – 26.8%.

5. The results of the RAD is dominated by reactions with social characteristics (29.5%) and physical (31.1%). Judging by the data of our experiment, the ratio has changed in favor of personal characteristics: RAS – 22.8%; rus – 33.9%.

The common conceptual signs in the linguistic consciousness of Russian and Chinese students were as follow:

1. The common conceptual signs with the feminine characteristics: aesthetic evaluation is beautiful and pragmatic evaluation is tender.

2. In two cultures there is a socially significant conceptual sign of motherhood and the homemaker just like the old times.

3. The socially significant idea of equality with a man is reflected in both experiments, and the image of a successful business woman is strong, smart, educated, and able to compete with a man.

4. In the physical characteristics of the appearance, the sign slim, long hair are stereotypes of the female beauty.

5. In both experiments, a significant proportion of reaction words, reflecting the psychophysical characteristics associated with the meaning of sexuality: sensual, desirable, sex, sexual.

6. The material world, reflecting specific women's attributes is of great importance.

7. Among the personal characteristics in the linguistic consciousness of young people there are basic meanings of the concept of kindness, although it takes a larger part among Russian students.

8. The key concepts of Russian culture love and happiness are in both Russian and Chinese language consciousness.

9. The same way to express feelings – tears.

10. Moral values are equally important for representatives of two cultures, therefore meanness, deception, deceit and self-interest (cunning, greedy) are condemned, and these words reflect the bad attitude towards people.

Conceptual signs beautiful and motherhood, identified among the first five reactions can be regarded as the universal signs.

Differences in the world view of Russian and Chinese students are associated with the following conceptual signs.

1. The conceptual feature of the Russian woman – mysteriousness (mystery, secret, obscurity, incomprehensible), which is absent in associations of Chinese students, has distinctive national characteristics. Other differences are relative and concern not so much the content of the concept, as its volume.

2. In modern Chinese consciousness, family relationships are still more socially significant in the concept of a woman.

3. The external characteristic of the woman is different: The Russian woman is always smiling (many responses) and she has a pleasant voice. Chinese students do not record a sign of voice or a smile – there is only one response of it.

4. In the Russian language consciousness, conceptual sign intelligence takes a large proportion(clever). Only in Russian reactions signs of talent and creativity are noted.

5. In the Chinese language consciousness, a larger proportion is occupied by the signs of the semantic domain "willpower". At the same time, the signs without volitional qualities have a different semantic content. In the Russian linguistic consciousness, it is associated with defenselessness, vulnerability, and in Chinese there is only one reaction obedient.

6. The data of the language experiment confirmed the sign of help belongs to unessential values in the Chinese language picture of the world in contrast to the Russian.

Analysis of the data of the Russian associative dictionary and the data of the experiment conducted among Russian students revealed the following results:

1. There is a change in the role system of family relations: the woman - the head of the family, which is not represented in the RAD.

2. The reaction word man, which is the most frequent response in the RAD, is not included in the first five reactions of our experiment.

3. The frequency of the associate love is significantly different. In the reactions of Russian students, the word love ranks second, in the RAD – eleventh. The sign of sexuality and sex are not presented in RAD; in the experiment among Russian students it is fourth in frequency.

4. The significance of the parameter appearance has been changed. The quantity of associations about appearance in the Russian experiment is larger.

5. The material world is important for today's youth. A new semantic domain of taste preferences has emerged.

6. In contrast to result of the RAD (woman – good), there is a negative characteristic of a woman – bad in the experiments of Russian students.

7. The sign of national characteristic, represented in the words of "Russian woman, Russia, Rus, Moscow" was relevant to the modern consciousness.

From the results of the associative experiment of both languages, we can see that many reaction words associated with a woman are evaluative. In general, modern people of both countries prefer women with positive qualities, such reactions are much more than others.

The conclusion, considering the evaluative side of associations, is that the image of a woman is positive in the Russian and in the Chinese language pictures of the world.

The structure of the conceptual domains of this concept reflects the systemic connections and typical stereotypical reactions. However, most of the associations appear only once. In each case, they are motivated by some reasons, the individual life experience, his erudition, taste, and emotional state. It is not always possible to establish a test strategy. The experimental data also shows that many associations that exist in the minds of native speakers can be influenced by personalities, which predetermines the variability in the content of the concept against the background of stereotyped ideas.

The results of the experiment make it possible to reveal both the similarities and differences of the associative fields of the concept woman in the Russian and Chinese language pictures of the world.

The linguistic representations of the concept "woman" presented in the experiments make it possible to reveal a specific national vision of the world against a different cultural background. The concept of "woman", reflecting the linguistic consciousness of modern Russian youth, differs from the one in the Russian associative dictionary reflected in the 1970s, which corresponds to the potential dynamic attribute of the concept.

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A Comparative Study of Spider vs. Hierarchical Concept Maps in Enhancing Intermediate EFL Learners' Vocabulary Knowledge & Verbal Working Memory Capacity

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Abstract

Concept maps function as tools to organize information in graphical or spatial shapes. Since they are considered as an aid to understand and learn a foreign language, the present study was conducted to see if two types of concept maps, spider and hierarchical, can help EFL learners improve their vocabulary knowledge or not. Besides, this study aimed at finding which of these two concept map types can better support learners' verbal working memory capacity. To this end, 76 EFL learners at the intermediate level of language proficiency were selected based on non-random availability sampling. They were then assigned randomly into three groups, two of which were as experimental groups and received spider and hierarchical concept mapping as vocabulary learning strategies, and one group was considered as the control group with no treatment. Pre and posttests of vocabulary as well a memory test consisting of two tasks were administered before and after the instruction. The results of the comparison of the three groups' scores in the word memory test revealed that concept mapping can help EFL learners' verbal working memory. Besides, the results of data analysis indicated that hierarchical concept mapping could lead to the learners' word test outperformance.

Keywords: Concept Mapping; Hierarchical and Spider Concept Maps; Verbal Working Memory Capacity; Vocabulary Knowledge

Introduction

Bisra (2010) defined concepts as mental representations that help individuals to perceive ideas, images or words and find the similarities and differences between them. In order to teach concepts in a foreign language learning context, concept mapping strategy can be applied. There are different yet related definitions of concept maps. Novak and Gowin (1984) stated that concept maps are "schematic devices for representing a set of concept meanings embedded in a framework of propositions" (p. 15).

Vakilifard, Armand, and Baron (2006) stated a concept map refers to a graphic representation which can both transmit information and present the relationship among concepts. According to Morzetta et al. (2018), concept maps are considered as learners' visual road maps in cognitive structures that have multi-directional lines to link words and connect different concepts. They are mostly used as graphical advanced organizers. Using a map to connect concepts makes it possible for learners to memorize and retrieve information more easily, which can make it as an effective cognitive tool in education and language learning (Horton et al., 1993).

Kommers (as cited in McAleese, 1987) described concept maps as an instance of a mind tool that aids learners interpret and organize knowledge. In the same vein, it can be claimed that concept mapping roots in Ausubel's (1968) learning psychology on cognition. Within his theory, he highlighted that learning happens when there is an assimilation of new concepts into existing concept propositional frameworks known by the learner.

Learners' working memory is considered as the most critical memory system for incorporating knowledge. Anderson (1992) argued that all information is organized and processed in the working memory first through the interaction of information. A distinguishing feature of the working memory system is that it can process only a relatively small amount of information at a particular moment. To compensate for this, concept mapping can be used as a powerful tool to facilitate meaningful learning as it organizes and structures knowledge using interacting concepts. Stoica, Moraru, and Miron (2010) pointed out that meaningful learning takes place when learners consciously and explicitly tie new knowledge to relevant concepts in their working memory.

Novak and Wandersee (1991) believed that learners and teachers are usually surprised to observe this simple tool can enhance meaningful learning. Different representational forms are used to make diagrams in concept mapping (Jonassen, 1998) and although different kinds of concept map (e.g. hierarchical, spider, flew chart, system, and picture landscape, to name a few) have been presented in the literature, there is still relatively little known about how working memory processes the information and how knowledge will be incorporated into our brain.

There are empirical studies which support the role of concept maps in language learning. Based on the results of their study, Parker, Guillemard, Goetz, and Glarza (1996), for example, concluded concept maps to be effective reading

comprehension strategies. Gulmans (2004) and Lumer and Hesse (2004) found that teachers can use concept mapping strategy as a learning aid for students to organize their knowledge and hence learn better in the long run.

Moreira and Moreira (2011) studied concept maps as an instructional tool for knowledge construction in foreign language learning classes, in an attempt to help students, organize, interact, and share meanings derived from their reading of literary texts. The results supported the use of concept mapping strategy.

Although the integration of the meaningful learning theory (Ausubel, 1968) and cognition theory (Jonassen, Beissner, & Yacci. 1993) in concept mapping has resulted in the development of different concept map types (Passmore, 1999), there is a paucity of research investigating the role of spider and hierarchical concept maps on language learners' vocabulary knowledge and verbal working memory capacity. Therefore, the purpose of conducting the present study was three-fold: whether spider and hierarchical concept maps could help EFL learners at the intermediate level improve their knowledge of English vocabulary, whether these two particular concept maps could lead to an enhancement in intermediate EFL learners' verbal working memory, and comparing the function of these two concept maps, which one is more effective in EFL intermediate learners' vocabulary knowledge outperformance and verbal working memory capacity.

Literature Review

The history of the emergence of concept maps dates back to Stewart, Van Kirk, and Rowell (1979) who claimed that they proposed the idea of concept maps, but in fact within their concept map model, no propositions were formed from the concepts. In the same year, however, Novak published two papers where he presented examples on concept maps. It was then in 1981 that Novakian concept maps started being commonly known. Novak and Gowin were very influential in introducing the idea to the world (as cited in Åhlberg, 2004).

Then, the use of concept map strategy as a teaching tool became popular. The theoretical framework behind concept mapping was Ausubel's (1986) learning theory which emphasized the role of learners' prior knowledge on meaningful learning. According to this theory, learning is facilitated if there is a link or an association between what is already known with new information. In fact, concept mapping takes a constructivist view and considers both mapping and learning a dynamic process. Concept maps are the off-loading of thinking and show the result of engaging in knowledge construction (McAleese, 1998).

Literally, a concept map is defined as a graphical representation to show the conceptual organization of a particular idea or word and to grasp the learners' perceptions based on this knowledge structure (Huai & Kommers, 2004). It is generally defined as the technique or strategy for knowledge representation (Gulmans, 2004; Jonassen, Reeves, Hong, Harvey & Peters, 1998; Reimann, 1999). They facilitate organization of the mental representation of ideas and words (Salmerón & García, 2011). This function is very crucial for learners to process the information. The reason concept maps are effective teaching tools is that they display a coherent semantic organization of a concept (Gurlitt & Renkl, 2009).

There are research studies in the literature supporting the role of background knowledge and concept mapping. Roberts (1999) studied the use of concept mapping in in statistics education and Brandt and Elen (2001) in chemistry. The results of their studies indicated that this strategy can influence students' success positively. Similarly, Huai (2000) investigated relationships between cognitive styles, memory type, and concept mapping on learning outcomes, and she found a positive relationship among them. Oughton and Reed (2000) found a relationship between learners' learning styles and level of prior knowledge on concept mapping production. Franc (2004) and Kabaca (2002) studied the use of concept maps in the fields of science and mathematics, and, based on the findings, they suggested that students' success tends to increase with the use of concept mapping. In their study, Huai and Kommers (2004) investigated the role of cognitive styles, knowledge dimensions and concept mapping approaches on learning achievements. The findings of their study do not indicate any concept mapping role in learners' cognitive style level. Eppler (2006) studied the extensive use of concept maps in learning and knowledge sharing contexts such as meetings, problem solving, and discussions and demonstrated their positive effects on student learning for various topics and in various teaching situations.

Yet, there are some studies suggesting that a concept map may not be influential in learning. For example, Hofman and van Oostendorp (1999) found that compared to a list of concepts with no map, a concept map can play a negative role in the construction of some structures. In the same way, Vörös, Rouet, and Pléh (2011) investigated the effect of a concept map on learners' comprehension and concluded compared to an organization by lists can be even more effective than concept maps.

There are a few studies which investigate different types of mapping on the learning process. McDonald and Stevenson's study (1999), for example, revealed that a concept map can support better learning scores compared to a spatial map. Through their empirical study, Potelle and Rouet (2003) showed the positive effect of a hierarchical concept map on comprehension of information compared with a network structure for both explicit and implicit

information. Amadieu, van Gog, Paas, Tricot, and Mariné (2009) and Amadieu, Tricot, and Mariné (2010) studied different concept maps in learning text structures and found hierarchical structures more effective compared to network maps.

There are a number of studies on the role of concept maps in language learning in particular. Chularut and DeBacker (2003) studied on the effectiveness of concept mapping on language learners' achievement. The study involved learners' creation of concept maps and its relationship with their self-regulation and self-efficacy strategies for language learning. The results showed a positive relationship between concept mapping and the four variables: language achievement, self-monitoring, knowledge acquisition, and self-efficacy.

Tezci, Dermirli and Sapar (2007) studied the use of concept maps in L2 vocabulary acquisition. The findings indicated that concept maps can promote the knowledge of foreign words. They concluded that concept maps help learners learn a word and related vocabulary, the way words are used, and their grammatical structure.

Lee (2013) conducted a study on concept mapping as a pre-writing strategy to learn Korean language in a collaborative way. The results of the study revealed that concept maps could help learners in organizing content and vocabulary. Also, the findings showed that language use and mechanics could be improved in the collaborative group.

Torres, Kucharski and Marriott (2014) examined the use of concept maps as a pre-writing activity for post-graduate Education students. The results revealed better text comprehension, more confidence in writing scientific texts and in the production, structuring, and organization of ideas (as cited in Marriott, & Torres, 2016).

Considering constructivism and learning theory as the theoretical foundation and following Tezci, Dermirli and Sapar (2007), who supported the role of concept maps in teaching foreign language vocabulary and Stoica et al. (2010) who referred to meaningful learning being tied to working memory, the present study aimed at finding answers to the following questions:

1. Does concept mapping help EFL learners at the intermediate level improve their vocabulary knowledge?
2. Does concept mapping help EFL learners at the intermediate level improve their verbal working memory?
3. Which of the concept maps, spider or hierarchical can better lead to an outperformance in EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge and verbal working memory?

On the basis of these to research questions, three null hypotheses were formed:

H0: Concept mapping does not help EFL learners to improve their vocabulary knowledge.

H0: Concept mapping does not help EFL learners to improve their verbal working memory.

H0: There is no significant difference in the role of spider and hierarchical concept maps in improving EFL learners' verbal working memory.

Method
Participants
In order to select participants for the purpose of the present study, a non-random availability sampling was employed. 76 out of the 90 available EFL learners were chosen as being at the intermediate level. The participants were all native speakers of Persian, and they were learning English as a foreign language at the university. The age range of the participants was 19 to 24 years old, with the average age of about 22.

Instruments
The instruments used in this study were a language proficiency test before the instruction, and a vocabulary achievement test and verbal working memory test used before and after the instruction.

The first instrument used was Oxford Placement Test (OPT, 2005). It was used to select the intermediate level students from among all available EFL learners. It consisted of 55 items of grammar, vocabulary, and reading comprehension to be answered in 60 minutes. The OPT has been administered in many institutions around the world, and its reliability and validity have been ensured.

The second instrument used in the present study was a vocabulary test. It was a researcher-made achievement test as it was intended to measure the knowledge of English words students were expected to learn during the instruction. The test consisted of 25 multiple choice items. To see if the test enjoyed content validity, it was given to language professors to review the items for their content, and they reported it to have content validity. It was then piloted to ten students with characteristics similar to those of the participants of the study. The reliability of the scores obtained was calculated using Cron Bach's Alpha and turned out to be .83. Thus, the test was also considered a reliable one.

Among all verbal working memory (VWM) span tasks including the counting span, operation span, and reading span tasks which are the most widely used measurement tools (Conway et al., udy2005), the counting span and reading span tasks were used to answer the research questions in the present study.

VWM measures are created not only for information storage and rehearsal (such as word span), but also for information processing and comprehension (Turner & Engle, 1989). Therefore, the span tasks used in this study

interweave the to-be-remembered target stimuli, which are English words, along with a more demanding processing task including comprehending sentences and enumerating an array of words. It follows the original reading span task, developed by Daneman and Carpenter (1980) which taps the storage and processing functions of VWM. In the counting span task, the participants are simply required to listen to an array of words, and then repeat as many as they can. The number of words used in this test start with two and continue up to seven ones. In the reading span task, the subjects read sentences while trying to remember words and recognize they are semantically and structurally right or wrong. The sentences are presented in groups that range in size from two to six. This item number for both tasks were previously reported to be adequate for most college student populations (Conway et al., 2002; Kane et al., 2004).

Although different versions of the counting span task and the reading span task have been designed for both single-subject and group sessions, to decrease the potential error and check each participant's capacity to store and process vocabulary-related knowledge of English as well as the comprehension of the sentences, the tasks were administered to one student at a time.

The scoring measures of the present WMC test are straightforward and simple. There are two sources of data as one is from the storage component (the counting task) and one from the processing component (the reading span task). Correct responses to each part of an item are assigned one number, and all other responses are assigned a different one. That is, for every correct answer number 1 and incorrect answers, 0 is given, with no distinction among different types of errors such as mispronunciation. Therefore, the scoring is of an all-or-nothing nature.

With regard to the reliability of the tests used in the present study, Conway et al (2005) stated that both reading span and counting span have been administered to thousands of subjects in over a hundred independent studies, and the conclusion drawn from this body of research revealed that these measures have adequate reliability. All studies observed indices of reliability ranging from .70 to .90. In particular, Kane et al. (2004) reported coefficient alphas of .78 for the reading and .77 for the counting span. Internal consistency estimates of similar magnitudes have been reported in other studies such as Conway et al. (2002), Engle, Tuholski, et al. (1999), Hambrick and Engle (2002), and Oberauer, Süß, Schulze, Wilhelm, and Wittmann (2000). Considering the validity of the test, as evidenced by Conway et al. (2005), measures of WMC including counting and reading span, show considerable construct validity as they predict a participant's performance on tasks for which control of attention and thought is important.

Data Collection Procedures

From among all available EFL students to the researcher, 90 students were first selected. The OPT (2005) was administered, and based on the performance of the students in the test, 76 students were considered as being considered at the intermediate level. They made the sample of the study. The participants were then assigned to three groups randomly: one as the control and two as the experimental groups.

A researcher-made achievement test consisting of 25 MC items of vocabulary was administered in 30 minutes before the instruction, and the related scores were kept as the vocabulary pretest scores. It is worth mentioning that the test was piloted before it was used for the purpose of study for its reliability (r=.83), and the content was examined by two language professors for its content validity.

A verbal working memory capacity (VWMC) test was then administered to each participant one by one. The test included two tasks: the counting and the reading span tasks. In order to measure the students' ability for vocabulary storage, the counting span task was used. In this task, the participants were asked to listen to a number of words each time and repeat as many as they could. The task started with two word items, and the most number of words in each item was seven. The students received One (1) for each correct word they said. No number was assigned to words which were mispronounced. In the reading span task, the students first read sentences aloud. Then, they were asked to say whether the sentences were correct both in terms of meaning and structure or not. Besides, they were required to remember as many words within the sentences as they could. All words intended to be recalled were exactly the ones used in the vocabulary pretest. In fact, they were the words students were to be instructed later. No single sentence was read; instead the sentences were in groups of two to at most six sentences. The scores obtained from these two tasks was considered as the students' pretests.

For the instruction which took about two months, the students in all three groups were taught the English words used in the vocabulary test and VWMC test. For the control group, the researcher used the traditional techniques in teaching words including giving definitions, examples, and explanations on the meaning. For the two experimental groups, however, two strategies were used as the treatment. In the first experimental group, the teacher used spider concept maps to teach the words. In this strategy, the main word was put in the center of the board in the form of a diagram, and other words associated with it surrounded the main word in the shape of its legs or branches. An example can be for the word *kitchen*. The word was written in the center (enclosed in a circle or a box), and associated words such as *microwave oven, refrigerator, stove, word processor*, and *coffee maker* were put around it again in circles, just like its legs. The legs are connected to the main word using connecting lines which link the concepts to each other.

For the second experimental group, concept mapping was also used to teach new words, but for this group, the hierarchical maps were used. As a kind of graphic organizer, hierarchical concept maps were used when the main word to be taught was written with the related words being put at lower or higher levels in a hierarchical order. For example, in teaching the word *watercraft,* the teacher wrote the word *vehicles* on top (in a circle or box of some type), as it was the broad concept, and then she wrote the other related words in an ascending and descending hierarchical order. Out of the word *vehicle,* two sub-categories appeared under it as *motor vehicles* and *watercrafts.* Then, out of each of these two sub-branches, there were two other parts under them: for *motor vehicles*, the words *cars* and *trucks* were written, and for *watercraft,* the words *boats* and *ships* were given.

The instructional period for all three groups was about two months, two sessions per week. Then again, the vocabulary test and the VWMC test used at the beginning of the instruction were used as the posttest. The scores obtained from the pre and posttests of vocabulary and memory test in the pre and posttests were considered as the data for this study.

Results & Discussion

In order to choose intermediate EFL students, the OPT (2005) was administered to 90 available students. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics related to the students' performances in the test.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics on the Students' Scores in the OPT

		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Error	STD
OPT		90	21.00	99.00	59.4667	2.06989	19.63670
Valid (likewise)	N	90					

According to Table 1, the mean score and the standard deviation were 59.46 and 19.63, respectively. In order to choose the intermediate students, 76 students whose scores fell between one standard deviation above and below the mean (i.e., between 79.09 and 39.83) were selected as the participants of the study.

Classifying the participants into three groups, (26 students in the control, 27 students in the first experimental group receiving spider concept maps, and 23 students in the second experimental group receiving hierarchical concept maps as treatment), the researcher then administered a vocabulary and a memory test to check the homogeneity of the participants before the treatment. A One-Way ANOVA was run. Table 2 indicates the ANOVA related to the students' performances in the vocabulary and memory pretests.

Table 2
One-Way ANOVA Related to Vocabulary and Memory Pretests

Vocabulary Test	Sum of squares	df	Mean score	F	Sig.
Between Groups	91.775	2	45.888	.309	.735
Within Groups	10843.106	73	148.536		
Total	10934.882	75			
Memory Test	29.788	2	14.894	.781	.462
Between Groups	1392.252	73	19.072		
Within Groups	1422.039	75			
Total					

Based on the data in Table 2, there is no significant difference in the vocabulary and memory pretest scores of the research three groups as observed value (sig. for vocabulary = .735 and sig. for memory = .462) is greater than the significance level (sig. = .000, or p > 0.05). It can be concluded that all three groups were homogeneous and at the same level of vocabulary knowledge and working memory capacity before the instruction.

After the instruction, another posttest of vocabulary knowledge and memory capacity was administered. Table 3 shows the three groups' mean scores in the vocabulary knowledge posttest.

Table 3
The Three Groups' Mean Scores in the Vocabulary Posttest

Groups	N	Mean
Control	26	50.2308
Exp 1: Spider concept map	27	58.2593
Exp 2: Hierarchical concept map	23	69.5217

Table 3 indicates differences in the three groups' vocabulary posttests as for the control group, it was 47.03, for the first experimental group, it was 49.44, and that of the second experimental group was 49.60. A One-Way ANOVA was then run on the students' scores to see if the observed differences in the mean scores of the three groups were statistically significant or not. Table 4 represents the ANOVA results of the students' scores in the vocabulary knowledge posttest.

Table 4
One-Way ANOVA on the Students' Scores in the Vocabulary Knowledge Posttest

	Sum of squares	df	Mean score	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4559.987	2	2279.993	16.069	.000
Within Groups	10357.540	73	141.884		
Total	14917.526	75			

Table 4 indicates that there was a significant difference in the performances of the control and two experimental groups (sig. = .462, p < .05) in the posttest. To see how the three groups performed differently from each other, a Post Hoc Scheffe multiple comparisons was performed. Table 5 shows the results.

Table 5
Multiple Comparisons of the Three Groups' Vocabulary Posttests

Groups		Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
Control	Exp 1	-8.02849	3.27293	.046
Control	Exp 2	-19.29097	3.40969	.000
Exp 1	Exp 2	-11.26248	3.37992	.006

Table 5 indicates that the difference in the posttest of control group is significant, compared to that of the first experimental group which received spider concept mapping (sig. = .046, p < .05). It also reveals that comparing the posttest scores of the control group and second experimental group which received hierarchical concept mapping indicates a significant difference (sig. = .000, p < .05); the same happens in comparing the posttest scores of the two experimental groups (sig. = .006, p < .05). Back to Table 3, as the mean scores of the two experimental groups were higher than that of the control group, one can conclude that concept mapping led to an outperformance in the vocabulary knowledge of the participants. In other words, the first null hypothesis stating that *concept mapping does not help EFL learners improve their vocabulary knowledge* is rejected here.

Besides, comparing the mean scores of the two experimental groups reveals that the posttest mean score of the hierarchical group (mean = 69.5217) was higher than that of the other experimental group having spider concept maps as the treatment, it can be stated that hierarchical concept maps can better EFL learners in their vocabulary knowledge. In other words, the null hypothesis stating that *there is no difference in the vocabulary knowledge of groups using spider and hierarchical concept maps* is rejected.

To compare the memory capacity of the three experimental groups after the treatment, the posttest mean scores of the three groups are presented in Table 6.

Table 6
The Three Groups' Mean Scores in the Memory Posttest

Groups	N	Mean
Control	26	20.6923
Exp 1: Spider concept map	27	27.1481
Exp 2: Hierarchical concept map	23	34.3913

Table 6 reveals differences in the posttest mean scores of the three groups. The control group's mean score in the memory capacity posttest was 20.69 while those of the spider and hierarchical concept map groups were 27.14 and 34.39, respectively. To see if this difference was significant, a One-Way ANOVA was run. The results are in Table 7.

Table 7
One-Way ANOVA on the Students' Scores in the Memory Capacity Posttest

	Sum of squares	df	Mean score	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2290.260	2	1145.130	58.035	.000
Within Groups	1440.424	73	19.732		
Total	3730.684	75			

According to the results of the ANOVA in Table 7, which reveals a significant difference in the posttest mean scores of the three groups (sig.= .000, $p < .05$), one can conclude that the working memory capacity of the groups had a significant change after the treatment. To locate this difference, a multiple comparisons was done on the mean scores of the three groups through a Post Hoc Scheffe analysis. The results are in Table 8.

Table 8
Multiple Comparisons of the Three Groups' Memory Posttests

Groups		Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
Control	Exp 1	-6.45584	1.22054	.000
Control	Exp 2	-13.69900	1.27154	.000
Exp 1	Exp 2	7.24316	1.26044	.000

Table 8 shows a two-by-two comparison of the posttest mean scores of the groups. As it can be seen, the difference between the mean score of the control group and the two experimental groups, on one hand, and the difference between the posttest mean scores of the two experimental groups, on the other hand, were statistically significant as the significance was .000 and the value of p was lower than .05 in all three comparisons. Back to Table 6, which shows the mean scores, one can conclude that since the mean score of the control group (mean = 20.69) was lower than that of the two experimental groups (Exp1 mean score = 27.14 and Exp2 mean score = 34.39), one can conclude that concept mapping could result in an increase in working memory capacity of EFL learners. Thus, the hypothesis stating that *concept mapping does not lead to an increase in the working memory capacity of EFL learners* is rejected here. Meanwhile, as the mean score of the hierarchical concept map group was higher than that of the spider concept map group, and this difference was statistically significant, it can be stated that hierarchical concept mapping can better help EFL learners with their working memory capacity. In other words, the research hypothesis stating that *there is no difference in spider and hierarchical concept mapping with respect to the enhancement of working memory* capacity is rejected.

The aim of the present study was to find the role of concept maps in the improvement of vocabulary knowledge and verbal working memory capacity enhancement. The results of the data analysis revealed having similar verbal working memory capacity and vocabulary knowledge at the beginning, the intermediate EFL learners who used concept maps showed outperformance in both their vocabulary and working memory capacity posttests. The results also indicated that between two types of concept map, spider and hierarchical, used in the present study, the hierarchical concept maps could better help EFL learners not only with their vocabulary knowledge but also with their verbal working memory capacity.

The results of the present study are in line with Daneman and Green (1986) who confirmed that vocabulary learning correlates with working memory capacity. Learning vocabulary through concept maps helps individuals to use graphical representations as a problem solving tool (Jonassen, 2004) by which they can foster their working memory capacity although Jonassen and Marra (1994) had previously suggested that maps cannot "... adequately reflect what is really in the mind .." (p. 65). Concept maps can reduce the cognitive requirements for learning and comprehension. (Amadieu & Salmeron, 2014).

As concept maps have the potential to lessen the cognitive load (Sweller, Merriëenboer, & Paas, 1998), the results of the present study support Stoyanov and Kommers (2006) who confirmed that concept maps allow for mobilization of more resources in working memory. They added that concept maps aid the processing of incoming information through supporting the connections between the words or ideas. They agreed that this strategy can support the cognitive processes which are related to effective functioning of working memory.

Considering different types of mapping strategies such as mind maps, thinking maps, and conceptuatl, the graphical shape of concept mapping makes this strategy the most flexible and expressive one suitable for learning and teaching purposes (Alpert, 2004; Heeren & Kommers, 1991).

Comparing various concept map types, the results of this study are in line with Novak (n.d) who claimed that human brain basically organizes the knowledge in hierarchical order and thus the learning strategy that can help the process causes the learner to have an increased capability to learn. In line with the results of this study on the supportive role of hierarchical mapping, there are many studies which confirm the positive effect of hierarchical maps such as those conducted by Calisir and Gurel (2003), and Shin, Schallert, and Savenye (1994).

Conclusion

The purpose of the present study was to find whether spider and hierarchical concept mapping could play any role in the improvement of vocabulary knowledge and verbal working memory of intermediate EFL learners. Based on the results, it can be concluded that both types of concept mapping strategies can be considered as alternative techniques in language classes since they both enhance meaningful learning and help learners construct their vocabulary knowledge based on the information they already have. An additional conclusion obtained from the study is that concept mapping enhances learners' working memory capacity to hold and process words. Comparing the two concept maps, hierarchical maps are more effective than spider ones both in fostering verbal working capacity and vocabulary knowledge.

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Linguistic Audit as a Direction of Professional Activity

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Abstract

The subject of this research is linguistic (or: language) audit. The term is new and not being widely used so far. Linguistic audit, in particular, is offered as a service of linguistic-consulting agencies' activities. Modern linguistic consulting, according to the author, is a form of stimulating theoretical and practical development of linguistic ecology, a new branch of applied linguistics, which, in turn, predetermines development of communication ecology as a new direction of integrated humanitarian research.

Today, the most representative form of linguistic ecology is linguistic landscape, which, in the space of a certain society, demonstrates the most characteristic visual dialects of that society. Studying visual dialects makes it possible to judge the language situation in a society, the degree of vitality of languages represented in it; levels that its culture, science and education are at. The linguistic landscape has a high level of representativeness as well as a significant impact on the various circumstances of life and activities of a society, including its culture, religion, politics, science, education and even economy. Stability of a particular society as a whole can be determined by the level of linguistic landscape ecology. Linguistic audit is considered by the author from the functional and integrative point of view. Conducted by language means and aimed at studying and evaluating visualized forms of speech activity, linguistic audit (provided its algorithm has been systematically and conceptually developed) can become an effective tool to optimize language and communication ecology. Using the modeling methodology, the author offers and substantiates her own model algorithm of organizing and conducting linguistic audit institutions in the field of restaurant business in Moscow, Russia, to optimize their activities, improve their status and an optimal impact of their names on various aspects of their social interaction.

Keywords: *language ecology, linguistic landscape, visual dialects, linguistic audit, names of catering establishments*

1. Introduction

The problems considered in the article are related to the sphere of language ecology and in broader terms to problems of communication ecology as a component of culture ecology. The ecology of language as well as the ecology of communication are relatively young interdisciplinary areas of modern humanities (Hearn, Foth, 2007; Dzyaloshinsky, 2018; Communicative ecology. URL) although the concept "ecology of language" was formed in the early 1970s (Haugen,1972) and the concept "ecology of culture" (Likhachev,1985) in the 1980s. It is language that is a major functional component in each of the three areas: ecology of language, ecology of communication and ecology of culture. Being the denoting factor which relates to the denoted one (content and its functions, culture and communication) and reflecting a degree of culture and communication ecologies, it unites them in a system of linguistic landscape. In other words, culture and communication are realized in the linguistic landscape. If we look at the three ecologies (language, communication and culture) as intersecting research directions, the linguistic landscape is a visualized space, an available "field" for experimental observation, which by means of language reflects the state of culture and communication at a particular moment of existence of a particular community, its boundaries determined by the size of the data the researcher is interested in. The linguistic landscape is in fact the settings of a house people live in: the house could be private, communal, universal (from rooms to flats to states and the world at large). Any hierarchically built level of a community looked at in terms of linguistic landscape has its own house/home. Ecology (from ancient Greek οἶκος 'house'), literally, is a science about (one's) house/home. Its furniture, accessories and decoration are determined by the level of culture, education, individual aesthetic preferences, family traditions, the level of material security of its owner/owners and its logistics.

Linguistic landscape, being a visual realization of language ecology, communication and culture, is a fundamental concept that determines conditions of human existence, formed at the intersection of linguistics and geography. But while the geographical landscape could be understood primarily in the context of a descriptive approach, the linguistic landscape, understood as a dynamic formation (Cosgrove, 1998), assumes reflection implemented in hermeneutic and prescriptive approaches as a tool of its research. We not only try to interpret *what* is reflected in the linguistic landscape, *why* and *how*, but on the basis of that kind of analysis we also try to formulate recommendations to optimise its ecology, develop a transformation strategy (much like doing the household chores and repair works), think about what needs to be done to make it better, and give recommendations to our family and neighbours.

Linguistic landscape has become a subject of intensive research and study due to expansion and intensification of language contacts. As a result of cross-cultural interactions, certain groups of people in certain regions of the world began to notice that their language habitat was changing; for example, there appeared posters, etc in other languages or

other visual dialects (which may be cases of language interference, mixed morphological forms, odd borrowings, neologisms, etc.). Perception of these changes, its intensity and nature, could be different: from a simple statement to shock to indignation because of potential, or quite real, harmful effect on the native language. Similarly, people pay attention to the air they breathe when it becomes polluted. So, studies of the language landscape are associated with ethno-linguistic vitality (Landry&Bourhis, 1997), language conflicts (Pavlenko, 2009), and problems of multilingualism in general (Gorter, 2006).

Problems of studying the linguistic landscape provide a wide space for interdisciplinary integrative research. At the moment, the concept "linguistic landscape" includes a variety of visual means of constructing a territory both in the context of several languages, one language, different visual dialects and in the context of a collapse of the visual narrative. The linguistic landscape is being studied from a variety of perspectives – social, political, ethnic, economic, and social interaction perspective in the context of media technologies as well (Roushkoff, 2013; Bolton, 2012; Gorter et al., 2012; Kasanga, 2012; Puzey, 2012; Backhaus, 2006; Blackwood, 2011).

In Russia, and in the world in general, research from this interdisciplinary point of view is just beginning (Duridanov, 2018). Linguistic landscape is not our research topic in this article though; rather, here, it is intended to represent the object (field, space) in relation to which we will consider the issue of acceptability/unacceptability of applying linguistic audit in presentation and perception of information today, including expressed verbally.

Human civilization (or rather its exemplary, classical cultural values) formed in the Mediterranean and the Middle East back in the pre-Antiquity times. For thousands of years they have been the source of pride and an object of culture translation to preserve cultural continuity and cultural ties of generations, but now they are subjects of aggressive discredit and distortion, expressed in particular by a de-lexicalisation, examples of which are given in I. Klyukanov's article (Klyukanov, 2011).

Information society and digital communication offer us ways of seeing and interpreting the world that differ from those of previous generations. In fact, today's emphasis on information visualization, now a priority, is not new. It was visual forms of art (sculpture, painting, architecture) that informed educated citizens of ancient Greece city-states, and massively illiterate inhabitants of medieval European cities, would learn from about the world and its meaning, its laws, God and deities, man and nature; for the former from the standpoint of anthropocentrism, for the latter from the standpoint of theocentricism. Even the stone-carved inscriptions and the hand-written books (parchments with Homer's hexameters, or old manuscripts with Bible texts) were, first and foremost, to influence the recipient visually. The thing is that visual information in those days was an attempt to reflect the deep meanings aimed at forming initially given systematic understanding of the universe. Means of presenting visual information and the information itself in its particular content would be sort of puzzles; by arranging those in the sequence specified by a myth, or cult, the target receiver re-created in their mind a given pattern of the world order – a universal text, whose language it was necessary to be able to "read" (i.e. to interpret in two possible ways: rationally and/or aesthetically) to understand those meanings. The adopted forms, methods and mechanisms of "aesthetisation" of that information provided the depth of its understanding (without much rational understanding sometimes) formed adequate and consistent interpretation through emotional harmony, a kind of synesthesia of the author whose thoughts and mind had been organized according to a system and of the recipient whose thoughts and mind had been organized in much the same way (and in accordance with the given norm/algorithm at that). In using the term "aestheticization" (from 'aesthetics') we are guided by Alexey F. Lossev's understanding of aesthetics given in his works (Lossev defines aesthetics as the science of "expressive forms of being" (Lossev, 2000). "Expressive forms of being" cognition allows to think about the world systematically. In the consciousness of humankind, each visual image correlates with a common Idea, with the System of the world; and the main purpose of comprehending the world is its meaning understood as a synthesis. The Idea, the System, and the synthesis as a way leading to them, were treated as given. As for presentation and perception of information today, a significant part of humankind lives, according to American philosopher, Alvin Toffler; in a "clip culture" (Toffler, 1980). Perception of the world in the clip culture ceases to be systematic, since the world, although it is a hypertext, (i.e. obeys the law of the text unity) is not being thought of as a system from the point of view of individual consciousness; the world comprehension has turned divergent, it does not involve the synthesis of its ultimate goal any more, the world is perceived in a mosaic, fragmentary way and, as a consequence, superficially. In the process of endless browsing, we could just fail to put the puzzle together. Instead of the systematic thinking, built in the form of movement from a given algorithm of analysis to a given algorithm of synthesis, comes clip thinking (Girenok, 2014), where the world is perceived as a series of successive fragments, or "pictures", having a degree – greater or lesser – of influence, of attraction, which, ultimately, is the main reference point, determining directions of cognitive movements of individual consciousness. The world has been and remains "a stage", but "men and women" there increasingly turn from being "merely players" into just spectators these days. In clip thinking, the ontological essence of being has been lost, its unity and the essence of aesthetics as a field of "expressive forms of being" (where each visual image reflects the Idea and correlates with the deep meaning, and the force of attraction manifests itself precisely in the degree of correlation) has

been re-interpreted. The essence of the clip attraction, as some researchers believe, is the reaction "only to a blow" (Girenok, 2014). Established by researchers, clip thinking despite many an observation remains ambiguous. There are positive views of the phenomenon alongside negative ones (Cojocar, 2014; Dokuka, 2013).

To sum up

1. We argue that today information about the world is transmitted and perceived primarily visually. Modern visual perception (and the way of presenting visual information as well) is mainly clip, mosaic, and therefore superficial. The essence of attraction (arresting attention, creating a direction for browsing) is – "to land a blow". It is a "shock", an emotional blow, that can truly attract attention today and indicate directions of cognitive movements.

2. Universal, public space of producing, translating and receiving visual information is a dynamic linguistic landscape. And within its boundaries, a favourable ecology of language, culture, communication is being realized (or not realized), which can affect the following aspects of human communication:

• social, e.g. interaction with language and ethnic minorities

• political (affecting, e.g., levels and adequacy of a society's receptiveness of the authorities' steps and innovations)

• psychological (which is how close people feel connected to their habitat due to a comfortable, or uncomfortable, language landscape);

• ideological (e.g. how much voices of various-ideas groups are heard)

• physical aspects of communication and life (as expressed, for example, in the fact that health literally depends on the linguistic landscape, whether polluted or not).

The aim of this study is to show that in a society, combined efforts of linguists *can* build up a rational policy of positive impact on the linguistic landscape even though there exists that clip-specific translation and reception of visualized verbal information. Linguistic audit can be an effective tool used at the initial stage of such activities. The author considers it possible to use linguistic audit as a complex tool and direction of well-organized and purposeful professional linguistic activity. We believe that an extended version to the definition of linguistic audit and its functional paradigm as a specific tool of the linguist's professional activity can be offered, as well as an algorithm of its application. To demonstrate those, a model of linguistic audit of verbally expressed visual information of Moscow catering institutions (restaurants, cafes, bars etc.) is offered below. Recommendations after an audit has been completed could lead to solving social, political, psychological and other problems of inter-city communication.

Because of the usual way of carrying out work aimed at analysis and assessment of certain facts and events, there may arise a question about the ratio and certain functional equivalence of audit and monitoring. The author of this article insists that to optimize the ecology of culture and communication it is necessary to use audit as a tool, not monitoring, since these forms of activity differ in their organization and relationship with each other. It is important to remember that monitoring is a more general concept. Audit can be considered a monitoring tool, therefore audit cannot include monitoring. Monitoring is ambivalent: it can be conducted both continuously and discretely; audits, on the contrary, have exceptional discreteness. Independence and consistency (plan, regulatory documentation, etc.) are mandatory requirements for audit. Those requirements are not mandatory for monitoring. The actual practice of audit demonstrates its frequency and versatility in positions that are close to objectives of this study. Of course, most often audit is used in relation to financial (accounting) statements. However, "in the broad sense and in accordance with traditional business turnover, as well as business vocabulary, audit is a procedure of independent verification and evaluation of reporting accounting data and activities of an organization, as well as its system, process, project or product" (https://ru.wikipedia.org/wiki). There are various types of audit been documented: technical audit, operational audit, quality audit, environmental audit, linguistic (language) audit. The problem is that as a term for a comprehensive set of tools with a wide and diverse operational functions, audit has not yet been fixed lexicographically. We consider it necessary to raise the issue in our study.

2. Materials and Methods

Initial materials for writing this article were published studies (see above) aimed at addressing issues of language, communication and cultural ecology, ethno-linguistic vitality, linguistic landscape. The source of information about the linguistic landscape of Moscow and, in particular, of its catering enterprises were "field" research, observation and Internet data. The methodology of information collection, systematization and analysis was used. The comparative methodology of evaluating data obtained was also used in organising the study. For example, the use of the term "audit" outside its traditional accounting sphere was monitored and the recorded situations of its use in the tools of linguistics and communication studies were analyzed in comparative terms. The theoretical basis for choosing linguistic audit as a tool for ensuring ecology of a linguistic landscape was consideration of the concept "audit" in the context of the tools of various areas of linguistic consulting and ecology of communication, presented in the article by I.M. Dzyaloshinsky, which considers problems of the new research branch (Dzyaloshinsky,2018). Defining the structure communication ecology and referring to specifics of media communication, Dzyaloshinsky introduces the category of audit as a tool for

assessing a situation. He writes: "It is obvious that improving the quality of media content in terms of enriching it with a significant humanistic meaning involves introducing an ecological media audit. The concept has not yet appeared in any document. However, if no one doubts the existence of media ecology, sooner or later it will be necessary to raise the question of analysis methods of the media environment. There are already precedents of those: there are different types of audit such as informational, social, etc. The meaning of an ecological media audit should be checking the media and other subjects of mass communication processes for compliance of their activities with the requirements of national and international legislation, as well as internationally recognized codes of media practice. The purpose of the environmental media audit should be to assess the activities of the media to ensure the protection of the national and global media space from false, discriminatory and other inappropriate information" (Dzyaloshinsky, 2018, 31).

It was found out that in companies' practices, engaged in various types of linguistic and didactic, translation and other types of professional linguistic consulting activities the term "audit" has also been increasingly emerging in recent years. Thus, linguistic (language) audit is used by "EGO Translating" company, the term been defined as "a service that allows to carry out a comprehensive analysis of foreign language competences that have been formed. This analysis provides for reliable data of foreign language proficiency of employees who use the language in their professional communication" (Linguistic audit – https). It is in this sense that the term "language audit" is used by other agencies and companies, as a comparative analysis of the collected materials shows. Cf. also what the company "Interlingua", Voronezh, Russia, thinks about language audit: "Language audit is the basis for corporate foreign language training as it provides the necessary and sufficient information to form the content of corporate training. Language audit is also a tool for quality control and evaluation of the effectiveness of training, i.e. it performs a controlling function for the company's executive board. Language audit is quite a universal method which has a number of indisputable advantages: a high degree adaptability, reliability of its results, while demonstrating a wide coverage of the needs for intercultural foreign language professional communication...Traditional diagnostics of language competences does not allow a comprehensive study of the language needs for professional communication of the target environment. It is only the modern language audit technology, such as international LCCI exams (London Chamber of Commerce and Industry), that allows a comprehensive analysis of the language needs, including the language needs of the customer-customer and customer-consumer, and to meet the society's needs" (Zamenhof, https).

3. Results

The linguistic landscape of Moscow, like any modern metropolis, includes many components represented by different visual dialects in their frequency, form, content and pragmatics. The visual dialect of public catering enterprises can and should be considered as a specific component that occupies a significant place in the linguistic landscape of the city, equally using business and recreational spheres. The population of Moscow, with visitors included, is about 14 million people, according to statistics. As the electronic Atlas "2GIS" shows, more than 2,700 bars, cafes and restaurants are registered in Moscow, the visual presentation of which includes the name, advertising activities, design. In this study, we are only interested in the problem of naming. The study was based on a random selection, and its conclusions can only be considered as preliminary. It is an interesting fact that the names of those in the central districts of the city are, as a rule, correct and correlate with linguocultural realities (historical events, characters, myths, etc.) or precedent texts; they are often written in the old Russian graphics, sometimes having in their spelling letters removed from the Russian alphabet a century ago. In the names "Cafe Pushkin", "Dobrynya" (from Russian epics), "Gambrinus", "Oblomov", "Behemoth" (on Patriarch's Ponds), "Babel", "Golden Fleece", "U Pirosmani", for example, Russians recognise authors, works and characters of Russian and world classics, art, mythology. Some names even speak of rather well-informed minds of their owners and even offer a certain ambivalence, suggesting both generalized neutrality and, for insiders, connection with precedent texts at the same time. Examples of this can be stylized names of restaurants at quays on boats: "Lastochka" at Luzhnetskaya quay (Alexander N. Ostrovsky's *swallow*), "Chaika" in Krasnopresnenskaya embankment (Anton P. Chekhov's *seagull*). Of course, to interpret those names one needs to have sufficient background knowledge. There also a number of restaurants having meaningful place names in their names: "Berlin", "Minsk", "Caucasus", "Brighton", "Bodrum Lounge", "Tifflis", "Bonjour, Provence", "Bora Bora Café" (French Polynesia). Those who had offered the last two, written in Latin, hardly expected a recognition of the place presented in the name; more likely, as in most cases, the authors using foreign words in the names of restaurants, were counting on visual shock as a way to attract attention. In pursuit of a "landing a crushing blow" (cf. specifications of clip thinking mentioned above) pseudo-English labels are created often leading to obviously illiterate nonsense, both in English and in Russian: Brasserie Beerness (Serpukhovskoy Val), Bertram (Pr. Dezhneva). Alongside historical Russian names that, fortunately, have not changed since the pre-revolutionary times (a positive example is restaurant "Zagorodny" at "Shchukinskaya" metro station), or those that are preserved today rather as pseudo-vintage: "Poplavok" '*float*', "Veterok" '*breeze*', "Volna" 'wave', a significant part of the list are Italian or pseudo-Italian, as well as English or English names; the "Italian" group as a tribute to Italian

cuisine, the latter as an obvious result of globalization (La Piola, Terrazza del Sole, Il Canto, Pescatore, Belissima; Pub BeerNation, Beef Time, Humans Seafood Bar, The Mad Cook, Max's Beef for Money, to name just a few). In recent years, the wave of migration has also opened many national (of Former Soviet Union republics) restaurants. Restaurants and cafes of Georgian, Armenian cuisine are multiplying, some names are familiar to Moscow residents (like "Gayané" for example), others previously have not been encountered. Incomprehensibility of the latter could both attract and alienate visitors. Take the name of the authentic Greek restaurant "Molon Lava", which does not correlate with any possible associations in the Russian-speaking environment. There are at least two obvious discrepancies – or rather, absurdities – here in the name. First and foremost, what does a fact from the Greco-Persian Wars behind the name have to do with nutrition? And the story behind it runs as follows: the brave warrior King Leonidas, of Sparta, said: "Come and take" to the demands of the Persian King Darius the Great to surrender. Secondly, since that historical episode refers to Ancient Greece, the Greek text of this statement is usually read in the tradition of reading ancient Greek texts; so it is "Molon Labé", an option also more correct in terms of Russian-speaking reality because it does not cause unwanted associations with 'lavé' (slang for '*money*') or quite popular in the 1990s, and still not forgotten Viktor Pelevin's "LV" ('*liberal values'*).

There are sometimes problems with spellings: for example, "tchaikh*o*na" and "tchaikh*a*na" ('*teahouse'*). Some orientalists try to explain that particular case referring to specifics of transferring one and the same notion into Russian from more than one Eastern language.

Recent observations of catering institution names have shown that some owners did feel responsible when naming; given names correlate with cultural values, cultural characteristics, precedent texts and assume certain cognitive work in the process. However, most names, especially in places rather remote from the city center (including those where there are migrants from the FSU republics) will not care much about the pragmatics of Russian-speaking city or are solely aimed at the clip perception. Using names incomprehensible, inadequate to Moscow's linguocultural environment and meant only for shock attraction could, in certain situations, lead to tensions and misunderstandings of social, linguocultural and even medical nature (the already mentioned-above feeling of "polluting" the language landscape).

4. Discussion

Linguistic audit can be offered to optimize, among other things, the linguistic landscape in naming cafes and restaurants. The work can be structured in different ways and carried out centrally within a city and relevant city services, or within one big company (for example, NovikovGroup, which has an extensive network of catering enterprises in Moscow.) For linguistic audit the following universal model can be offered, which can be used to assess all components of urban linguistic landscape:

• preparing grounds for linguistic audit integration in the work plan of city services (or in the work plan of a company)

• meeting with heads of relevant city services (or company managers) to agree on the functions and determine the algorithm of interaction

• identifying problem areas and the scope of work needed

• developing methods and algorithms according to actual state of affairs in a city or company; preparing tools

• analysing the audit results

• reporting on the audit carried out, with recommendations on city/company policy in naming.

5. Conclusion

Linguistic landscape is an important component of modern life, being a complex space for implementing all forms of today's human activity. The quality of the linguistic landscape and its ecology determine the quality of modern life, as language permeates all its spheres. Linguistics as a professional activity should be focused on specific problems of man and life.

An important modern branch of applied linguistics could be development of a paradigm and effective linguistic audit as a comprehensive tool for assessing and correcting a given linguistic landscape from the perspective of all its visual dialects. On completion of a linguistic landscape audit, there could be formulated priority language policy directions in choosing names – to overcome adverse effects of clip thinking; also, new culturally valuable names demanding certain cognitive efforts from the target audience may be recommended. Important also is use of grammatically correct forms of lexical units; unacceptable are deliberately wrong orthography and punctuation as amplifiers of advertisement effect.

Development of proper educational programmes aimed at training specialists in linguistic audit could be of significance in the new branch.

6. Acknowledgments

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Noospheric Psychological-Educational Paradigm as a Methodological Basis for Teaching Russian-Language Business Communication to Foreign Students

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Abstract

In the context of the polyparadigmatic system of higher education, the noospheric psychological-pedagogical paradigm is considered, on its basis a lingvodidactic model is developed for the formation of professional-communicative competence (PCC) in Russian-language business communication among foreign students. The research focuses on the basic principles of the noospheric paradigm, which proclaims the co-development of a person, society and nature, the harmonization of students' verbal thinking, their personal and professional improvement. The article presents the structural and substantive features of the model of teaching Russian-language business communication based on the principles of noospheric education to foreign students majoring in economics. In the structure of the projected methodological product, three interrelated components are singled out: content-target, organizational-technological and control-evaluative. The content-target component of the model is considered in the totality of social phenomena, processes and circumstances, as well as the basic regulatory documents governing the parameters of the model, its conformity to the needs of society and the attitudes of existing educational doctrines. The organizational-technological component determines the pedagogical tools necessary for the implementation of its content taking into account certain key principles of the noospheric paradigm. The control-evaluative component of the model represents it in the aspect of the levels that differentiate the degree of formation of the PCC in the field of business communication. The noospheric lingvodidactic model allows providing natural conditions for the formation of students' motivation to learn the language of their future profession, to master effective speech-thinking and speech-behavior strategies of intercultural communication.

Keywords: Noospheric educational paradigm, professional-communicative competence, business communication, lingvodidactic model, Russian as a foreign language.

1. Introduction

The development strategy of modern Russian higher education is the formation of a set of competencies that ensure successful professional realization for a university graduate in his chosen social sphere, as well as readiness for self-education, personal and professional development throughout life (Gagarin 2018). These conceptual points of higher education are set by the legal framework, as well as the federal state educational standards of higher education (FSES HE) for specific areas and qualifications of specialists. In the field of teaching Russian as a foreign language (RFL), the functions of the FSES are carried out by the level standards governing foreign language teaching for foreigners in terms of general and special knowledge.

The legal framework that dictates the qualitative and quantitative parameters of the specialist's PCC, in turn, actualizes a specific psychological and pedagogical paradigm of education, that is, its philosophical and culturological concept, that best meets the requirements of the modern social demand in the society and solves problems of a content-concerning, organizational and technological nature in higher education.

The educational paradigm serves as a theoretical and methodological basis for designing the educational process at the university, since it provides an argumentative description and a prognostically valid explanation of the value-targeted priorities of educational activities that ensure the satisfaction of the state national interests and spiritual and material needs of the citizens. This study focuses on the characteristics of the noospheric psychological and educational paradigm, on the basis of which the training of foreign students in Russian-language business communication is designed.

2. Methodology

The orientation of the university's lingvodidactics towards subject-oriented and practice-oriented language teaching and the simultaneous formation of a multicultural personality of a modern specialist recognizes the development of students' professional-communicative and social and individual competencies as a priority in education (Balykhina 2011; Romanova 2011). In our case, the search for effective pedagogical tools for teaching Russian business communication to foreign students turns us to the question of choosing an adequate psychological and educational

paradigm, the value-oriented aims of which best contribute to solving these pedagogical tasks. In this regard, it seems appropriate to make a comparative analysis of well-known philosophical-cultural concepts of educational activities and substantiate the advantages of the noospheric paradigm as the basis for building an addressed lingvodidactic model.

The research focuses on the basic principles of the noospheric paradigm, which is aimed at the co-development of a person, society and nature, at the harmonization of students' thought-thinking activities, their personal and professional development. The article presents the structural and contents features of the model of teaching Russian-language business communication based on the principles of noospheric education and forming foreign students of economic specialties' PCC in the administrative-industrial sphere of activity relevant to them.

The principal feature of the model under consideration is its integrative character. Integrity as the main system-forming property of this model is present in all its components, and that activates the development of lingvocommunicative skills necessary for foreign students to become competent participants of Russian-language business interaction.

3. Results

3.1. Polyparadigmatic system of higher education as a reflection of dynamic processes in the modern society

Education as one of the most important social institutions tends to rethink its logical and argumentative basis (V. Ivlev, Y. Ivlev, Ivleva 2017), philosophical and culturological concepts, goals and content, methodological and technological tools in the interests of the society and scientific progress (Romanova, & Skorikova 2018). The modern world, reacting to dynamic processes in politics, economics and the sociocultural sphere, formulates ideological principles and values in educational paradigms that are focused on the development of a highly qualified specialist and his constant self-development.

Paradigms differ in the goals that society sets for the educational system, the ways of achieving them; representation of the learner's place in the educational process; the character of pedagogical interaction, etc. (Turchen 2012). Based on these criteria, the following paradigms are distinguished:

- knowledge paradigm (focuses on the transfer of the most significant elements of the cultural heritage of the human civilization, its experience to the descendants),

- rationalistic paradigm (focuses on practical adaptation of the young generation to the specific conditions of the existing society, training of narrow-profile specialists),

- humanistic paradigm (focuses on the interpersonal communication, the dialogue of the teacher and the student as equal subjects of the educational process),

- technocratic paradigm (focuses on the domination of technology, the interests of industrial production, economics and business over social and cultural values),

- non-institutional paradigm (focuses on learning outside traditional social institutions: using the Internet, in terms of distance learning, etc.),

- humanitarian paradigm (focuses on the improvement of the human nature in its relation to social norms and values, with culture),

- heuristic paradigm (focuses on the students' acquisition of knowledge about the world through an independent search for information, obtaining their own conclusions, new results),

- esoteric paradigm (focuses on following the path to achieve the Truth incomprehensible for the rational knowledge, implies the unquestioning adherence to the teachings of the Master, Mentor).

In addition to these philosophical and cultural concepts of education, some researchers distinguish some other paradigms relevant to higher education, they correlate to a certain extent with those described above (traditional and technocratic paradigms):

- cultural and value paradigm (focuses on learning basic values of the past generations through an in-depth study of the achievements of great thinkers),

- academic paradigm (focuses on the assimilation of the theoretical base of fundamental sciences),

- professional paradigm (focuses on the assimilation of not only the scientific knowledge on the subject, but also on familiarization of the students with samples of sociocultural and professional activities of a person).

Along with function and purpose criteria, there is another classification of educational paradigms, which takes into account, on the one hand, psychological and age and administrative differentiation of students, their achievement of a standard level of social and professional competencies established for this educational level; on the other hand, the achievement of the maximum level of realization of personal, intellectual and creative potential. On these grounds, the following paradigms are distinguished:

- pedagogical (focuses on training 'non-adult' subjects of the cognitive-educational process in the system of preschool and secondary general education, primary, secondary and incomplete HE: pre-university stage and junior

bachelor degree / 1-2 years of specialty studies; distinctive features of the paradigm are receptive activity and subordinate student's position),

- andragogical (focuses on training adults in higher education and forming their professional communicative and social competencies: upper stage of undergraduate studies / 3–5 / 6 years of specialty studies, graduate studies, postgraduate studies; the paradigm is characterized by the leading role of the student as an active subject of educational process in which the main thing is the process of learning, not teaching),

- acmeological (focuses on the improvement and maximum disclosure of the creative and personal potential of socializing subjects of cognitive and creative activities, their achievement of the pinnacle of self-realization) (Romanova 2008).

It should be noted that education, like other institutions of society, inevitably requires updating over time: "The change of paradigms is an important condition and prerequisite for social progress, allows us to more effectively and successfully influence the development of society" (Golosova, & Fedorenko 2016: 40). At that educational paradigms, replacing each other and evolving, to some extent and at some level, can all be used in the modern world. In this regard, education is currently considered in the frame of polyparadigmatic approach (Denisenko 2009; Starikova 2011), which implements the principles of multidimensionality, multivariance, nonlinearity and subjectivity.

Below (see Fig. 1) there is a schematic representation of a polyparadigmatic educational system, reflecting the capabilities of heterogeneous paradigms (or their components) towards convergence / integration within the educational space.
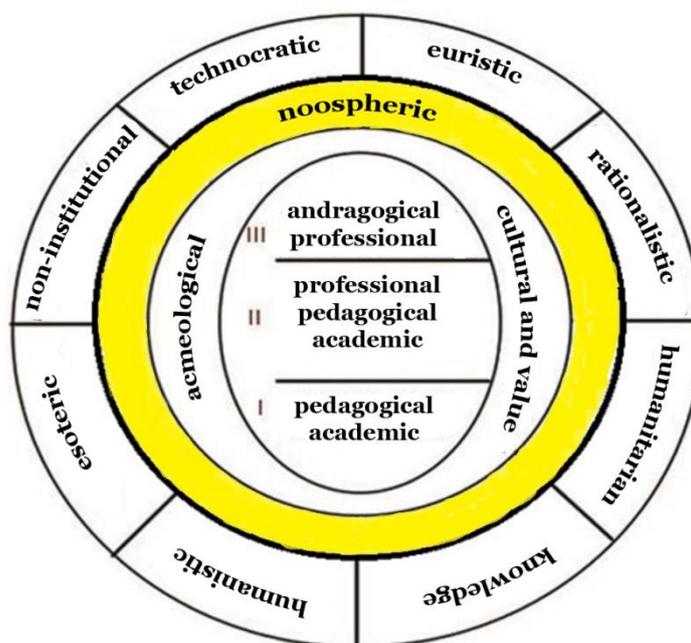
Fig. 1. Polyparadigmatic system of higher education

The central ('nuclear') position in the current educational system is occupied by academic, pedagogical, professional and andragogical paradigms (in their various combinations), which are individually discrete and correspond to a certain level of education, and at a sequential-level consideration represent a prolonged educational model capable of transforming into a continuous one (Romanova, & Amelina 2015).

The noospheric educational paradigm, aimed at the co-development of a person, society and nature, at the formation of students' holistic, that is harmoniously two-hemispheric, bio- and cultural-like thinking, in which "the vital needs of the future generations and the Universe are satisfied" (Maslova 2016: 7), occupies a higher position in the system under consideration due to the universality of its general humanistic principles and the possibility of projecting them into other models operating under other paradigms.

3.2. Basic principles of noospheric psychological and educational paradigm as a methodological basis for designing a lingvodidactic model for teaching Russian-language business communication to foreign students

Noospheric education, which has become an innovative pedagogical system of the 21st century, integrates all the best practices of the mankind in the natural sciences, pedagogy, psychology, philosophy and other fields of knowledge. The key concept 'noosphere', proposed by V.I. Vernadsky back in 1927, is interpreted today as "the environment and the era of unity of the individual and collective spiritualized mind, soul and intellect, culture and a new quality of holistic human thinking based on the Universal Laws of the World (fundamental principles of energy information evolution that were identified in quantum science)" (ibid.).

The noospheric philosophical and cultural concept's peculiarities are consistency, integrity in the perception of nature, World, man, nature adequacy, bio-adequacy, and that is expressed in such basic principles of this pedagogical concept as:

- greening (appeal to naturally inherent to men ways, methods and channels of information perception: sight, hearing, touch, smell),

- consistency (idea of energy-information unity of the World, the interconnected development of nature, society and thinking),

- humanization (transition from a technocratic educational model to a socio-cultural model, which opens up opportunities for a broad humanistic training of students),

- harmonization (use of technologies and methods of holistic, harmoniously functioning two-hemispheric thinking),

- instrumentality (possibility of applying knowledge and skills in all areas of a person's life: personal, interpersonal, social),

- personal orientation (freedom of choice of forms, directions, means of education, contributing to the realization of the creative potential of the subjects of education),

- forward-looking development of the educational industry (focus on the latest achievements of science and psychological and educational practice),

- simplicity of knowledge (appeal to familiar from childhood models, images of the world, nature),

- economy (use of technology and teaching methods that do not exceed the necessary social costs),

- potential intellectual security (compliance with a genetically determined method of cognition in education, which guarantees adherence to the principle of 'do no harm') (ibid: 9).

The listed principles of the noospheric psycho-educational paradigm, interrelated and complementary, together form the theoretical-methodological basis for designing a lingvodidactic model for teaching Russian-language business communication to foreign students. The integrity and systemic nature of the basic paradigm determine the integrative nature of the whole designed model and each of its constituent structural components.

3.3. Content and structure of the model for teaching Russian-language business communication to foreign students based on the noospheric psychological and educational paradigm

In accordance with the traditions of pedagogical design, the structure of the created methodical product consists of three interrelated components: content-target, organizational-technological, and control-evaluative (see Fig. 2). Each of these components performs its purposive function in this project, relies on certain sociocultural, legal, psychological and other factors and conditions, uses appropriate pedagogical tools (Romanova, & Amelina 2018).

The content-target component serves as the scientific-theoretical, methodological basis of the lingvodidactic model. In this regard, it is primarily considered in the aggregate of the factors that determine pedagogical design: social phenomena, processes and circumstances (at the international, state and intra-societal levels), as well as basic legal documents defining the subject area and regulated parameters of the designed model, its compliance with the needs of the society and certain categories of citizens, the installation of existing educational doctrines. Thus, in relation to the model under consideration, it should be noted that taking into account these factors actualizes the task of forming and developing PCC of future specialists in the field of business communication at various levels of world's higher education (HE) (Agarwal & Chakraborty 2010). In Russia, developing in the context of globalization processes and in the times when the number of foreign citizens receiving vocational training here is growing, the national system of HE is guided by the federal educational standards developed in accordance with the social demand. At the same time, psychodidactics of higher education requires taking into account the communicative and educational needs of subjects of educational activities (in our case, foreign students of economic specialties) in their mastering the basic laws of business discourse, in developing their skills of intercultural interaction in professional and social and personal spheres (Han Yu 2013), in the formation of readiness and ability to live and interact in the modern multi-polar world, 'read' and adequately interpret sociocultural information in the phenomena of authentic language environment (Kurilenko, Biryukova, Ahnina, Cherkashina, Romanova 2018), confidently orienting in it and successfully performing their communicative tasks, predicting possible interferences in the conditions of intercultural communication and ways to eliminate them.

Content-target component	**Factors of pedagogical design:** social demand, requirements of the Federal State Educational Standards of HE and Educational Standards of HE and RFL level standards, world globalization processes, professional and communicative needs of foreign students.
	Strategic goal: development of professional and communicative competence of students in the field of Russian business communication (based on integration of the content of subject and foreign language training). **Tactical goals:** - *educational*: expansion of knowledge about the principles and specifics of business communication; - *upbringing*: developing a tolerant attitude towards representatives of foreign cultures, a responsible attitude towards language as an instrument of intercultural dialogue; - *developmental*: formation of a multicultural language personality, the development of speaking skills, reading, listening, language guessing, memory, etc.; - *teaching*: expansion of professional vocabulary, formation of skills and abilities in the implementation of lexical and grammatical tasks, tasks for the extraction of information, the production of oral and written statements.
	Approaches: competence-based, personality-activity, cultural, system
	Principles: communicative and professional orientation, consciousness, consistency, systemic character, individualization, cultural congruence
	Thematic content of the course: 1. Business communication. Features of communication. 2. Speech etiquette. 3. Portrait of a business man. 4. Business conversation. Interview. Summary. 5. Business telephone conversation. 6. Business negotiations. Business letter (official). 7. Business negotiations. Receipt. 8. Business negotiations. Business letter (semi-official).

Organizational and technological component	**Pedagogical conditions:** lingvodidactic environment of the university (real, virtual); resource provision	
	Forms of organization of educational activities: individual-frontal, group	**Educational technologies / techniques**: case technology, exercises (search and drills, imitating patterns), speech situations modeling, role-playing games, discussions
		Means of education: authentic audiovisual media resources

Control-evaluative component	**PCC levels:** - *reproductive,* - *adaptive,* - *productive*	**Criteria:** - *linguistic,* - *sociolinguistic,* - *sociocultural,* - *speechpragmatic*	**Form of control:** test (choice of correct answer, open answer, free presentation, case study on the video material)
	Expected result: development and improvement of the PCC of foreign students of economic specialties in the field of Russian business communication		

Fig. 2. Integrative lingvodidactic model of teaching Russian-language business communication to foreign students of economic specialties

The following main point of the analyzed component reveals a pivotal pedagogical category, such as 'goal', which links together all the components of the designed model, building its logical structure, and determines the predicted result of pedagogical activity.

In accordance with the previously described basic principles of noospheric education, such as humanization, instrumentality and potential intellectual security, the multi-level goals of the lingvodidactic model are differentiated. The strategic goal of this model in relation to teaching Russian business communication to foreign students is defined as the development of students' professional and communicative competence through interactive educational technologies (in our case, through the integration of case technologies and audio-visual teaching aids - thematic feature films and TV-series). Tactical goals combine interrelated pedagogical tasks that are solved in the implementation of the designed lingvodidactic model: educational, upbringing, developmental, and teaching.

The question of the ways and means of achieving the set goals is decided in the aspect of the didactic categories of 'approaches' and 'principles'. Such previously mentioned principles of noospheric education, such as consistency, forward-looking development and personal orientation, determine the main approaches to the implementation of the model under consideration.

Competence-based approach reflects the response of professional education to changing socio-economic conditions, when, according to the latest FSES of HE, the main qualifying indicators of a graduate's readiness for professional activity are competencies, including metasubject, universal ones. Among them, communicative competence is recognized as the leading one, which means that a specialist, in particular, majoring in economics, has the skills to be fluent in a foreign language (in our case - RFL), which allow him to receive, evaluate and process topically relevant information from foreign sources, as well as effectively communicate orally and in the written form with colleagues from other countries (Inozemtseva 2017). Moreover, the pedagogical potential of foreign language education manifests itself in the development of such universal competences such as possession of the culture of thinking, the ability to perceive, analyze and compile information, to set goals and choose the ways of achieving them.

Personality-activity approach presupposes a subject-oriented organization of the educational process, in which students, perceived in the complex of their individual abilities, motives, desires and needs, are engaged in solving problems of different levels of complexity in order to develop professional practical skills (Karpov 2017).

Cultural approach in the process of training and education involves not only the values of national and world culture, but also the traditions of specific ethnos societies. As a result, the student, and subsequently the specialist, is able to solve both general cultural tasks (communicate with representatives of different nations, live and work in a multi-ethnic society) and professional tasks (take part in international projects, conduct foreign-language business correspondence and documentation, negotiate with experts from different countries).

System approach implies consideration of pedagogical activity as a whole, in which all its structural components are in inseparable interrelationship: the goals of education, its subjects (teachers and students), methods, forms and means of the educational process.

Along with the indicated approaches, the traditional didactic principles serve as the methodological basis for the projected model: communication and professional orientation, consciousness, systemic character, individualization and differentiation, cultural congruence. The pedagogical process, built on the combination of traditional and noospheric didactic principles in line with the aforementioned approaches, ensures the harmonious development of the student's abilities, his becoming a citizen, a professional and a creative person. The thematic content of the model, as shown in Figure 2, is designed in accordance with the situations of communicative speech interaction in the professional sphere that are relevant for students.

The organizational and technological component of the lingvodidactic model reveals the forms of organization of educational activities, technologies / techniques. Their choice is connected with such principles of noospheric education as greening, harmonization, simplicity of knowledge and economy, which in appropriate conditions determine the use in the educational process of different organizational forms - individual-frontal or group forms - to reveal the abilities of each student, to correct their understanding of the material, prepare students for future professional activities in a team.

Among the techniques and technologies in the considered lingvodidactic model, the preferred ones are simulation of speech situations, role-playing games, discussions, case-study tasks. The priority for noospheric education is the development of students' positive, creative thinking that is adequate to the nature of the brain, which throughout their lives will help them to expand their knowledge and develop their abilities. For continuous self-improvement, students should have such personal qualities as "initiative, reflexivity, ability to plan their actions, anticipate and correct results, adequately assess their capabilities and critically analyze them" (Shulgina 2016: 7). These techniques and technologies provide the development of these personal qualities.

Creation of pedagogical conditions that stimulate the learning process (quasi-professional developmental environment, integration of the content components of RFL and special disciplines (Kirsanova & Lazarev 2018), the use of case technologies in conjunction with authentic audiovisual means) allows students to increase the level of PCC by immersing into observable and analyzed situations of professional communication, which activates their cognitive activity.

The control-evaluative component of the lingvodidactic model represents it in terms of the levels of formation of the PCC in the field of business communication. Attestation of students in the analyzed model is carried out in the form of a test that includes tasks of a 'closed' and / or 'open' type (choosing the right answer from the suggested ones and / or giving their own answer), solving situational case tasks on the material of authentic audiovisual media, etc.

The learning outcomes of the model under consideration are evaluated on the basis of criteria adopted in lingvodidactics, such as linguistic, sociolinguistic, sociocultural and speech-pragmatic, which allow to differentiate the following levels of foreign students' PCC formation in the field of business communication, correlated with the academic assessment system adopted at a particular university when the achievements are expressed as a percentage:

- *reproductive* – the low level, which allows only a simple reproduction of knowledge using the lexical and grammatical units found in the proposed didactic materials (65-79%);

- *adaptive* – the middle level that demonstrates the transformation of knowledge in the framework of a new but similar situation (80-89%);

- *productive* - the high level, which involves the use of new ways of applying knowledge in any thematic situations (90-100%).

The practice-oriented nature of the final part of the model under consideration, which assesses the degree of formation of foreign students' PCC in solving typical tasks of their upcoming professional activity, significantly updates the function of pedagogical control as a resultant component of the systemic linguistic educational process.

4. Conclusions

Summarizing what has been said, we note that the choice of the noospheric psychological-educational paradigm as a methodological basis for foreign students' training in Russian-language business communication is expedient and scientifically grounded. This paradigm is progressive because it corresponds to the laws of natural evolution and human self-realization, and is also optimal for the formation of foreign students' PCC, since it minimizes errors in the process of their cognitive activity.

The integrative character that distinguishes the noospheric paradigm and each of its content-structural components allow us to successfully solve the complex educational task of university lingvodidactics - the simultaneous formation of professional-communicative and social-personal competencies of future specialists in the process of their foreign-language educational activities.

Designed on the basis of the principles of noospheric education, the lingvodidactic model provides natural conditions for the formation of students' motivation to learn the language of their future profession, to master effective speech-thinking and speech-behavior strategies of intercultural communication. Being a flexible and open system, it has a powerful methodological potential (Hechtel 2016), since it responds to the dynamics of the needs of foreign citizens in studying RFL as an instrument and means for initiating and maintaining international production and economic contacts, professional activity in a globalizing economy.

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A Contrastive Phonemic Analysis of Negation in English and Persian

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Abstract

As a part of language, negation plays a key role in expressing opposing ideas. It is a language universal founded in all known languages and is unique to human languages. Accordingly, the purpose of this paper was to make a contrastive analysis between English and Persian negation from a phonological point of view. To this end, the different phonological processes involved in the negation of English and Persian languages were investigated and their negative markers were analyzed and contrasted. The results of the study indicated that, as regards negative prefixes, both languages had variety; in English language, however, the number of them were more. With respect to phonology, English and Persian had several types of phonological processes; nevertheless, these processes in Persian were more varied. Additionally, in Persian, phonological processes covered all the negative prefixes; in English, however, these processes were not involved `in the function of several negative prefixes. Based on the findings of this study, it is revealed that substitution in Persian and assimilation in English are the most frequent types of phonological processes in negating the words of these two languages. Thus, it is clear that the primary focus of teacher in the field of negation should be on the phonological processes involved in the addition of negative markers in general and the aforementioned ones in particular. On the whole, the results of this phonemic contrastive analysis in the current study indicated that the differences between English and Persian negation were more than their similarities. Consequently, some errors may happen for Persian-speaking children intending to learn English, implying the fact that teaching English in general and introducing the negation topic in particular, assign a very pivotal responsibility to the English teachers.

Keywords: negation, contrastive analysis, English, Persian, phonological

Introduction

Persian language has its roots in the Indo-Iranian branch of the Indo-European languages but English language belongs to the West Germanic branch of the Indo-European family of languages (Campbell & Poser, 2008); accordingly, English and Persian have their own way of expressing different notions. One of these notions is negation which has different representations. In fact, it is the action or logical operation of negating or making negative (Merriam-Webster, 2004). So negation serves as a functional element (Pollock, 1989) and perhaps this functional role of negation leads to the emergence of different negative markers in the both above-mentioned languages.

This paper seeks to contrastively analyze English and Persian negation from a phonological point of view in order to investigate the similarities and differences that exist between these two languages; additionally, in the domain of phonemic analysis of negation, phonological processes have a considerable role. Thus, due to the purpose of the present study, the following research questions are raised:

1.What similarities and differences exist between English and Persian negation?
2.To what extent do the phonological processes play a part in the English and Persian negation?

Literature Review

The notion of negation has been the topic of a vast number of research papers and numerous studies have been conducted in this regard (e.g. Blanchette & Nadeu, 2018; Dennison & Schafer, 2017; Farghal, 2018; Khany & Bazyar, 2013; Notley, Zhou & Crain, 2016; Shafiei & Storoshenko, 2017; Tubau, 2016). In this area, for instance, stability and change in one adult's second language English negation had been one of the topics investigated by Hauser (2013). The research was concerning how Japanese speaking adults learning English made use of a negative formula "I don't know", against a background of relatively stable patterns of second language negation, and how they analyzed it into its component parts in interaction and began using "don't". Based on this study, repetition and self-repair were involved in the process and "don't" was used with the verb "like" and the pronoun "you".

In another research paper, the acquisition of English negation by bilingual (Spanish/Basque) learners in an institutional setting was studied by Perales, Garcia Mayo, and Liceras (2009). Three groups of learners with different ages of four, eight, and eleven were involved in the analysis, which all received a similar amount of instruction. The results of the study showed that placement of the negative marker seemed to be independent of the realization of tense and agreement features.

Negation in Persian was the focus of attention in another research by Kwak (2010). In this article, Persian negative elements were classified and negative structures, which consist of the negative elements, were analyzed based on Chomsky`s Minimalism and Distributed Morphology. According to the study, it was suggested that although languages tend to have either Negative Polarity Items or Negative Concord Items, Persian language have both.

Negation is not only investigated in a huge number of research articles, but also regarded by a large number of researchers for writing scholarly books (e.g. Anderwald, 2003; Iyeiri, 2010; Laka, 2016; Lindstad, 2007; Miestamo, 2005; Wallage, 2017). Taleghani (2008), for instance, considered negation as being interesting for linguists, especially semanticists and pragmatists, because of its unique position among the constants of classical logic as a functional connective and its complicated interaction with other logical operators such as quantifiers, tense, and modals. This book was concerning the interaction of negation and modals for a proper understanding of modality, structurally and interpretively.

In another work by Horn (2010), the expression of negation is considered and such issues as how negative sentences were realized and how that realization changed over time, how negation was acquired by children, and how it was processed by adults were the focus of attention.

History of English negation is regarded in another book by Mazzon (2016), who attempted to outline the phenomenon of English negation in its diachronic evolution and its present forms and variations across the English speaking world.

As shown, a considerable number of studies have been conducted on the notion of negation; however, a scant number of research projects have been devoted to a contrastive phonemic analysis of negation in English and Persian. This scarcity has been among the rationales behind conducting the present study due to the fact that every new research can bring new implications and outcomes in the field.

Methodology
Design and Procedure

For the purpose of this study, English and Persian negative markers are described and phonemically investigated in each language. Concerning the first question of the research, the process of negation in both English and Persian languages are examined and regarding the second research question all the phonological processes involved in English and Persian negation are analyzed. The below sections illustrates the procedure that the notion of negation is contrastively examined.

Negation in Persian. Persian negation is represented by several prefixes at the beginning of words. The prefixes that used in this regard are [na:], [næ], [bi:], [qeyr], [zed], [la:], and [pa:d] (Shaghghi, 2002). Some examples of the use of these prefixes are provided below.

a. [ʔa:ga:h] (aware)   [na:ʔa:ga:h] (unaware)
b. [ræft] (he went)   [næræft] (he did not go)
c. [næha:yæt] (finite)   [bi:næha:yæt] (infinite)
d. [ʔæxla:qi:] (moral)   [qeyreʔæxla:qi:] (amoral)
e. [yæhu:di:] (Semitic)   [zeddeyæhu:di:] (anti-Semitic)
f. [ʔæla:ǰpæzir] (curable)   [la:ʔæla:ǰ] (incurable)
g. [zæhr] (poison)   [pa:dzæhr] (antidote)

In some cases, Persian negation is not as simple as is shown above and phonological processes are sometimes involved in the negation of Persian words. The first case of these processes is regarding the prefix [na:]. As a matter of fact, omission is a kind of phonological process that happens in negating some Persian words with this prefix. The followings are examples of this process.

a. [da:na:] (wise)   [na:da:n] (unwise)

[da:na:]
        ↓
[na:da:n_]

As is shown, by prefixing [na:], the phoneme /a:/ is omitted from the end of the word.

b. [ša:yeste] (honourable)   [na:ša:yest] (dishonourable)

[ša:yeste]

[na:ša:yest↓]

In this example by adding the prefix [na:], the phoneme /e/ is dropped.

c. [ʔæmni:yæt] (safety)   [na:ʔæmni:] (unsafety)

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[ʔæmni: yæt]
↓↓↓
[na:ʔæmni:_ _ _]

The process of omission again has played a role here and the phonemes /y/, /æ/, and /t/ are omitted from the end of the word.

    d. [resi:de] (ripe)   [na:ræs] (unripe)

[resi:de]
   ↓ ↓↓↓
[na:ræs_ _ _]

In the negation process of the Persian word [resi:de], two phonological processes are involved simultaneously. The phonemes /i:/, /d/, and /e/ are left out due to the addition of [na:] to the first part of the word; and at the same time, this addition causes the replacement of the phoneme /e/ with the phoneme /æ/ as is shown above.

Phonological processes are also an important factor in the negation of some Persian words with the prefix [næ]. Regarding this prefix, the below examples are provided.

    a. [ʔofta:d] (it fell)   [næyofta:d] (it did not fall)

[ʔofta:d]
    ↓
[næyofta:d]

    b. [ʔa:mæd] (he came)   [næya:mæd] (he did not come)

[ʔa:mæd]
    ↓
[næya:mæd]

Due to the addition of the prefix [næ], the phoneme /ʔ/ is substituted with the phoneme /y/. This substitution is a kind of phonological process.

In respect of the Persian prefix [næ] another case of phonological process exists. The following examples illustrate this point.

    c. [mi:rævæm] (I go)   [nemi:rævæm] (I do not go)

[mi:rævæm]

[nemi:rævæm]

    d. [mi:xoræm] (I eat)   [nemi:xoræm] (I do not eat)

[mi:xoræm]

[nemi:xoræm]

According to these examples, the prefix [ne] is an allomorph of the Persian morph [næ]. In fact, when the aspect marker [mi:] is present at the beginning of some Persian tenses, the morph [ne] is substituted for the morph [næ]. In regard to phonological processes, the phoneme /æ/ is replaced with the phoneme /e/. So according to Yavas (2013), there is an alternation of different phonemes for the same morpheme (p.47).

Furthermore, the morph [næ] has another allomorph in Persian. As a matter of fact, the Persian verb [bu:dæn], which means "to be" in English, has a special negative form in the present tense. This is illustrated in the followings.

    e. [hæstæm] (I am)   [ni:stæm] (I am not)

[hæstæm]
  ↓↓
[ni:stæm]

    f. [hæsti:] (you are)   [ni:sti:] (you are not)
    [hæsti:]

↓↓
[ni:sti:]

As it can be seen, the morph [ni:] is an allomorph of the Persian morph [næ]. In these examples, the phonemes /h/ and /æ/ are replaced with the negative marker [næ], and simultaneously the phoneme /æ/ of this prefix is changed to the phoneme /i:/ for the sake of ease of articulation.

The last case of phonological process in regard to the Persian negative prefix [næ] is as follows.

    g.   [benevi:sæm] (I write)   [nænevi:sæm] (I do not write)

       [benevi:sæm]
       ↓↓
       [nænevi:sæm]

The Persian word is negated by substitution of the prefix [næ] for the prefix [be].

Elision, which is the omission of a sound segment that would be present in the deliberately careful pronunciation of a word, is another phonological process that happens here.

      [benevi:sæm]   [nænevi:sæm]
      [ben↓vi:sæm]   [næn↓vi:sæm]

As it can be seen, the phoneme /e/ is dropped in these examples.

    In respect to the prefix [bi:], phonological processes again exist in negation of Persian words. An example of this prefix is presented below.

   ➢   [mærbu:t] (related)   [bi:ræbt] (unrelated)

    [mærbu:t]

    [bi:ræbt]

Here, two simultaneous phonological processes has happened in the negation of this Persian word. The phonemes /m/ and /u:/ are omitted; and at the same time the phonemes /æ/ and /r/ are transposed. This latter process is called metathesis that means the sequences of phonemes can be reordered.

    [qeyr] is another negative prefix that used in Persian negation with a phonological process.

   ➢   [ʔæxla:qi:] (moral)   [qeyreʔæxla:qi:] (amoral)

    [ʔæxla:qi:]

    [qeyreʔæxla:qi:]

The above Persian words show that the phonological process of addition is involved. In fact, by adding the prefix [qeyr] to the word, the phoneme /e/ is added after the prefix to connect it to the word.

    The prefix [zed], like the previous one, has the phonological process of addition as it becomes negative.

   ➢   [yæhu:di:] (Semitic)   [zeddeyæhu:di:] (anti-Semitic)

    [yæhu:di:]

    [zeddeyæhu:di:]

As it is shown, addition again plays a key role in the negation of this word. With addition of negative marker [zed], the phonemes /d/ and /e/ are added to the word to make it negative.

    Conversely to the previous one, the phonological process of omission is involved when the negative prefix [la:] is added.

   ➢   [ʔæla:ǰpæzi:r] (curable)   [la:ʔæla:ǰ] (incurable)

    [ʔæla:ǰpæzi:r]

    [la:ʔæla:ǰ↓↓↓↓↓]

According to the above example, the phonemes /p/, /æ/, /z/, /i:/, and /r/ are omitted when the prefix [la:] is added.

The last case of phonological process is concerning the negative prefix [pa:d].

   ➢   [tæk] (attack)   [pa:tæk] (counterattack)

[tæk]

*[pa:dtæk]
↓
[pa:_tæk]

As it is shown, elision is the phonological process that happened here. As a matter of fact, the phoneme /d/ is dropped for the case of ease of articulation.

Negation in English. English language has a variety of negative markers studied in a considerable number of works (e.g. Crystal, 2003; Dzuganova, 2006; March, 2003; Spasic, 2011). The prefixes which are used in English as negative markers are a-, dis-, in-, un-, anti-, mal-, mis-, de-, non-. The followings are examples of negating English words by prefixing these negative markers.

a. Merit   demerit
b. like   dislike
c. active   inactive
d. trust   mistrust
e. payment   nonpayment
f. social   antisocial
g. fair   unfair
h. –archy   anarchy

Nevertheless, phonological processes play an important role in English negation. Dis- is a negative marker that undergoes different phonological processes. The followings illustrate these processes.

a. confident   diffident
   *disfident
   diffident
↓
Due to the phonological process of assimilation, the prefix dis- is changed to [dif]. In fact, before the consonant /f/, [dis] changed to [dif].

b. verge   diverge
   *disverge
   di_verge
↓
When the prefix dis- places before the consonant /v/, the phoneme /s/ of this negative marker is omitted.
According to the above, it is concluded that [dif] and [di] are two allomorphs of the negation morpheme /dis/; and at the same time, they are allophones of the negation phoneme.

Another prefix that is used in English negation is in-. Assimilation is the phonological process that happens in the below examples.

a. legal   illegal
b. mature   immature
c. regular   irregular
   *inlegal   *inmature   *inregular
      ↓   ↓   ↓
   illegal   immature   irregular

According to the assimilation process, the phoneme /n/ of the negative marker [in] is assimilates to the following sound. As a matter of fact, [il], [im], and [ir] are allomorphs of the negation morpheme /in/ and allophones of the negation phoneme.

In respect of the phonological processes, anti- is another example.

a. antacid
b. anthelmintic
      *antiacid   *antihelmintic
         ↓   ↓
      ant_acid   ant_helmintic

When this prefix is added to a word that has a vowel or the phoneme /h/ in its initial position, the phoneme /ɪ/ is left out from the negative marker anti- (In some accents of English antihelmintic is used).
Finally, a-, as a negative marker, is a variant of the prefix an-. The negative words "amoral" and "atonal" illustrate this point.

➢   *anmoral   *antonal
         ↓   ↓

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> a_moral a_tonal

The prefix an- loses its /n/ phoneme when it lies before a consonant.

Results

The findings of the phonemic contrastive analysis conducted in the current study indicated that there are several similarities and differences between English and Persian negation. More specifically, as regards negative prefixes, both languages have variety; in English language, however, the number of them are more. With respect to phonology, English and Persian have several types of phonological processes; nevertheless, these processes in Persian are more varied. Moreover, in Persian, phonological processes cover all the negative prefixes. In English, however, these processes are not involved in the function of several negative prefixes. Further, substitution in Persian and assimilation in English are the most frequent types of phonological processes involved in negating the words of these two languages.

Discussion and Conclusion

The main objective of this study was to investigate the similarities and differences between English and Persian negation and contrastively analyze the process of negation in English and Persian from phonological viewpoints.

Concerning the first question of the study, the variety that exists in regard to the phonological processes is the major similarity between English and Persian negation. On the other hand, the type of these processes are mostly different between English and Persian. According to these results, it can be implied that the notion of negation is a very demanding topic, so the English teacher has a crucial role in teaching the negation topic to the learners.

With regard to the second question of the study and on the basis of the findings of this research, it is revealed that substitution in Persian and assimilation in English are the most frequent types of phonological processes in negating the words of these two languages, implying the fact that phonological processes need a considerable precisely attention in teaching. As a matter of fact, the most focus of teacher in the topic of negation should be on the phonological processes of negative markers in general and the aforementioned ones in particular.

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Do Persian Formal Letters Have Superfluity in Contents Comparing to English? A Contrastive Analysis Approach

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Abstract

The opinion with respect to Persian formal letters is that superfluity in contents is one of the distinct features of Persian formal letters in comparison to English ones. Therefore, by adopting a contrastive analysis as the method, the purpose of this study was to compare English and Persian formal letters in terms of their contents to examine whether significant differences existed between them. Accordingly, Bly's (2004) Websters New World Letter Writing Handbook and Vahdat's (2004) Writing Letters in English were selected as English letter framework and Qolipur-Oskuei and Jolinis (2013) A Comprehensive Handbook of Letter Writing was considered as the framework for Persian. Based on the results, contents of English and Persian formal letters were mostly similar but not the same. As a matter of fact, the heading and body existed in two languages, though with some minor differences. Inside address and closing were the parts common in English formal letters but not in Persian. The title and receiver parts were present in Persian but not in English. Signature was the part that was exactly the same in two languages. Accordingly, it was concluded that neither Persian nor English is superior to the other regarding its more concise contents. More specifically, superfluity is not distinct feature of Persian formal letters as compared to their English counterparts. However, superfluity in contents is only seen in the opening part of the body of Persian letters and in general, the contents of English and Persian formal letters are to a large extent similar.

Keywords: Formal letters, English, Persian, Superfluity, Contrastive

1. Introduction

Since old times, written language has played a vital role in personal and formal relationships and only the mode of it has changed due to the developments in telecommunications. Centuries ago, people used to write their messages on the walls of caves and, later on, they used papers. But today, by the advent of technology, messages are sent via the computers and mobile phones and emails have taken the place of papers. In fact, written language has an undeniable role in conveying messages and one special means of establishing this language is writing letters, either on a paper or as an email.

Nowadays, due to the existence of Internet and globalization, letter writing has assumed more importance in telecommunications owing to technology and social media and it becomes an inseparable part of the social lives, which can exert a powerful influence over the contacts in society. As a matter of fact, every communication needs its adequate tool and each relationship has a series of rules which should be observed. For example, if a person uses a formal tone in personal letters, it undoubtedly causes severe problems. Consequently, letter writing needs a serious consideration.

On the other hand, as put by Ebadi and Saedi Dovaise (2015) that the organization of recommendation letters in Persian is longer and more formal than English, today the opinion with respect to the Persian formal letters is that superfluity in contents is one of the distinct features of Persian formal letters in comparison to the English ones. Thus, there is a need to investigate different aspects of writing letters. Accordingly, the purpose of this study was to compare English and Persian formal letters in terms of their contents to examine whether significant differences existed between them. To this end, contrastive analysis, which brings two or more language systems together and compares them in regard to some specified features (Yarmohammadi, 2002, p.6), can be a contributing factor for the aim of the present research.

Due to the purpose of the current study, the following research questions were investigated.
1. What are the similarities and differences between the contents of formal letters in English and Persian?
2. Do the contents of Persian formal letters have superfluity in comparison to the English ones?

2. Literature review

Letter writing is the topic studied in a huge number of research articles (e.g. Channa, 2017; Chohan, 2011; Christenson & Miller, 2016; DeCino, Waalkes, & Smith, 2018; Norton & Kastberg, 2012; Rashidi & Mazdayasna, 2016; Sparks, Stauss, & Grant, 2017). Specifically, the aims of a majority of papers were regarding the issues concerning the formal types of correspondence (e.g. Al-Ali, 2004; Giménez-Moreno, 2011; Hou & Li, 2011; Jalilifar & Yazdani, 2017; Kwai-Peng, 2016; Yunxia, 2000; Zhanghong & Qian, 2018).

For instance, Bagwasi (2008) conducted a research by adopting a contrastive analysis approach regarding the letters written by and to Batswana and the British administrators. The results of this study showed that letters written by British were more formal, more direct, had more emphasis on the information, and had little stylistic ornamentation. While, letters written by Batswana had more greetings and address forms that convey respect and politeness.

In another study, genre analysis of enquiry letters is addressed by Jalilifar and Beitsayyah (2011). In the article, the generic structure, lexico-grammaticality, and politeness strategies were investigated in English and Persian business letters. The findings of the study indicated that exchange of information was relatively similar in the two corpora but the use of positive and negative politeness strategies and applying different forms of directives were different.

Letters of recommendation are the focus of research in another study by Ebadi and Saedi Dovaise (2015). By applying a contrastive analysis approach, textual features, structure and content of English and Persian recommendation letters are studied. Based on the results of the study, Persian letters seemed less symmetrical than English concerning the textual factors. In addition, the organization of English letters was short and informal while the Persian ones were longer and more formal.

Esmaeli (2016), studied nonstandard linguistic patterns in Persian formal correspondence, indicated new findings in the realm of formal letter writing. The results of this research paper demonstrated that linguistic, technical, and rhetorical domains had the highest frequency for nonstandard uses.

The reviewed literature clearly shows that the topic of formal correspondence is studied by a vast majority of research papers but a scant number of them is devoted to Persian ones, suggesting the need to more exploration in this area.

3. Methodology

3.1. Materials and procedure

For the purpose of this study, Bly's (2004) Websters New World Letter Writing Handbook and Vahdat's (2004) Writing Letters in English were selected as English materials and Qolipur-Oskuei and Jolini's (2013) A Comprehensive Handbook of Letter Writing was considered as the Persian materials for the research.

Regarding the procedure of the current study, two parts are presented. The first part, in the data analysis section, is devoted to the description of the contents of formal letters in English and Persian and the second part, presenting in the result section, dealt with the contrast of the contents of letters in the two languages in question based on the description.

3.2. Data analysis

3.2.1. Layout of English formal letters

According to Websters New World Letter Writing Handbook (2004), English formal letters consist of heading, inside address, salutation, body, closing, and signature (p.518). The followings describe these parts in a more detailed way.

Heading. As Vahdat (2004) states, the heading of a letter gives the address of the writer and the date of writing it (p.28).

Inside Address. The name and address of the person, the company or organization to whom the letter is written are included in the inside address (Vahdat, 2004, p.28).

Salutation. As Vovshin (2003, p.27) states, in the case of writing a letter to a firm or group, the usual salutation is Gentlemen (for the USA) or Dear Sirs (for the UK). But when writing to a person whose only official position is known, the proper salutation is Dear Sir or Dear Madam. And finally in terms of writing a formal letter to an individual whose name is known to the writer the correct salutation is like Dear Mr. or Dear Dr.

Body. the content of a formal letter should be polite and succinct. In fact, the body can begin with a short introductory paragraph including a friendly statement followed by the main point of the letter subject. Then a longer paragraph is attached which expands the main point of the subject. The formal letter finally ends with a short concluding paragraph that summarizes the main points or outlines any action or recommendations (Chambers Harrap Publishers Ltd, 2005, p.5).

Closing. The ending part of a letter is named the complimentary close. In accordance with the words of Seglin and Coleman (2002, p.24), the following words and phrases are some examples that can be used in the closing part of a formal letter:

Yours sincerely,
Very sincerely yours,
Sincerely yours,
Sincerely,
Cordially,
Most sincerely,

Most cordially,

Cordially yours,

Signature. In this last part of a formal letter, the full name of the writer is signed by him/herself.

3.2.2. Layout of Persian formal letters

Layout of Persian formal letters consists of heading, title, body, signature, and receivers (Qolipur-Oskuei & Jolini, 2013, p.137). The followings present the detailed description.

Heading. The sign of country, name or sign of the organization, letter number, date of its writing and attachment are among the factors which can be written in the heading part of Persian formal letters.

Title. As Zarei et al. (2011) states, the title of some formal letters contains the receiver's name, writer's name and the subject of the letter. And in some other types only the position and name of the receiver and the subject of the letter are written (p.45).

Body. The content of a Persian formal letter can be either concise and in a few lines or long and in one or more pages (Qolipur-Oskuei & Jolini, 2013, p.138).

According to Zarei et al. (2011), in the case of the second type, the content of the letter divided into four parts: a) the first part is the opening of the body, which includes greeting; b) introduction is the second part of the body, that gives the receiver some information in regard to the previous letters concerning the subject; c) this part includes the main point or points in respect to the considered subject; and d) the concluding part of the content, which usually consists of an statement in justification of the subject or asked actions, emphasis on the request, encouraging the receiver to take actions, or official and affective justification of the subject (pp. 45-46).

Signature. A formal letter should be signed by the writer to gain credibility.

Receivers. In this last part of a formal letter the names of persons or organizations to whom the letter should be sent in order to reach to the main receiver are given.

4. Results

After describing the contents of English and Persian formal letters, it is worthwhile to contrast them. The heading in English letters consisted of the address of the writer and the date of writing it. On the other hand, in Persian, the sign of country, name or sign of the organization, letter number, date, and the attachment of the letter were the parts that can be included in the heading of the letter. In fact, heading existed in both languages though with some minor differences. Inside address, the second part of English formal letters, did not exist in Persian letters. The receiver's name and his/her position, writer's name and the subject of the letter were those written in the title part of Persian formal letters. However, English did not have such a part and included only a salutation. In respect to the body, English letters consisted of three parts: introduction, expansion and conclusion. While, the body of Persian letters consisted of four parts: opening, including

greeting, introduction, providing the necessary information, expression of the main subject, and conclusion, including justification or emphasis on the subject. Further, the closing part of the English letters did not exist in Persian. Regarding the signature part, no difference was observed between the two languages. And finally, the receiver part of Persian formal letters was not present in English.

5. Discussion and conclusion

According to the conducted contrastive analysis and on the basis of the obtained findings, the following concluding points can be made. Concerning the first question of the study, the contents of formal letters in English and Persian had not significant differences. In other words, they were similar but not the same. Specifically, the heading and body existed in two languages, though with some minor differences. Inside address and closing were the parts common in English formal letters but not in Persian. The title and receiver parts were present in Persian but not in English. Signature was the part that was exactly the same in two languages.

With regard to the second question of the research, it was revealed that superfluity was not the distinct feature of Persian letters in contrast to their English counterparts. However, Persian formal letters had superfluity in content only in the opening part of their bodies and in general, the contents of English and Persian formal letters were to a large extent similar.

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The Production of English Lexical Stress by Persian EFL Learners

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Abstract

The abstract of a research paper is a succinct summary of the article's purpose, main points, method, findings, and conclusions. The abstract's length should be a minimum of 200 words and a maximum of 300 words and be confined within a single paragraph. While the first line of the abstract is not intended, the line containing the keywords that directly follow the paragraph should be indented. Use the active voice and past tense in the abstract, but the present tense may be used to describe conclusions and implications. Acronyms or abbreviated words should be defined in the abstract. The American Psychological Association (APA, 6th Editions) is recommended for both abstract and full paper style sheet. Use Times New Romans Font 12pt for the text. This study examines the phonetic properties of lexical stress in English produced by Persian speakers learning English as a foreign language. The four most reliable phonetic correlates of English lexical stress, namely fundamental frequency, duration, intensity and vowel quality were measured across Persian speakers' productions of the stressed and unstressed syllables of five English disyllabic stress pairs which differed only in the location of stress, such as contract (noun)/ contract (verb). Results showed that Persian speakers' use of the prosodic cues to lexical stress, that is, fundamental frequency, duration, intensity was comparable to the use of the same cues by the American English speakers for both the stressed and unstressed syllables. There were, however, significant differences in formant frequency patterns (as the phonetic correlates of vowel quality) across the two language groups, such that Persian speakers did not manage to approximate the target native-like productions of the majority of the vowels in the experimental data both in the stressed or unstressed conditions. Comparisons of the vowel spaces between the two languages showed that in all cases in which Persian speakers showed considerable differences in formant frequencies from the native-like formant patterns, the vowels concerned were either missing from the Persian system, or had different qualities (different frequency patterns), which suggests that Persian speakers' native language experience with their vowel system interferes with their ability to produce qualitatively different patterns of formant frequency properties. Thus, this inability to correctly produce the formant frequency properties of the English vowels under both the stressed and unstressed conditions seems to be characteristic of Persian speakers' production of English vowel space, in a manner independent of the issue of vowel reduction in lexical stress production.

Keywords: lexical stress, vowel quality, vowel reduction, vowel space, formant frequency patterns, prosodic cues

1. Introduction

A large number of the languages of the world employ a structural parameter called stress that specifies which syllable in the word is, in some sense, stronger than any of the others. However, the properties of lexical stress can vary dramatically from one language to another (Beckman, 1986; Beckman & Edwards, 1994) . One source of variation is that languages encode stress differently in their phonological representations of words. In some languages like English and Spanish, stress is contrastive in that words can vary in only the location of stress, such as <u>object</u>/ob<u>ject</u>, while stress in other languages like French and Finnish, is positionally fixed (occurring on the last syllable in case of French and the first syllable in case of Finnish) (Dupoux, Pallier, Sebastian, & Mehler, 1997; Dupoux, Peperkamp, & Sebastian-Galles, 2001). Another source of variation is the phonetic properties by which the stressed syllable distinguishes itself from the surrounding unstressed syllables, as well as from the unstressed realization of the same syllable. Lexical stress is generally cued by multiple acoustic features such as fundamental frequency (F0), intensity, vowel quality and duration (Fry, 1955, 1958; Beckman, 1986; Beckman & Edwards, 1994). However, languages differ as to what degree each acoustic cue contributes to the phonetic realization of stress. In languages like English and Dutch, stress is cued not only by pitch movement (F0 excurssions) but also by intensity and duration (Fry, 1955, 1958; Sluijter & Van Heuven, 1996), while in the so called tonal languages like Chinese and Japanese, stress is mainly realized by F0 variation (Juffs, 1990; Hung, 1993; Chen, Robb, Gilbert, & Lerman, 2001; Zhang & Francis, 2010).

Native experience with a particular stress pattern can result in difficulties when trying to learn the stress pattern of a different language. For example, in a series of stress studies it was found that French listeners had difficulties in discriminating Spanish stress contrast and claimed that native listeners of languages with a positional stress system could experience "stress deafness" when exposed to a contrastive stress language (Dupoux et al., 1997; Dupoux et al., 2001). As suggested subsequently by Dupoux, Sebastian-Galles, Navarete, & Peperkamp (2008), non-native listeners' stress deafness results from their inability to encode contrastive stress in their phonological representation, that is, the

problem may be fundamentally linguistic. Nevertheless, phonetic factors may play a significant role in explaining the problem of native-like stress production and perception (Chen et al., 2001; Dupoux et al., 2001; Zhang & Francis, 2010). The interference of native phonetics on the acquisition of non-native segmental as well as suprasegmental features has been studied extensively, and results typically suggest that L2 learners have relatively greater difficulty producing and perceiving non-native contrasts that involve phonetic features dissimilar to those used in their native language (Flege & Bohn, 1989; Zhang, Nissen, & Francis, 2008; Zhang & Francis, 2010). For example, although English and Spanish both possess contrastive stress, vowel quality differences are associated with stress in English but not Spanish, and native Spanish speakers have been found to have problems using vowel quality to signal English lexical stress (Flege & Bohn, 1989). Also, Mandarin speakers learning English as a second language have been reportedly shown to have difficulties producing English lexical and/or sentential stress, and it has been argued that this difficulty results, in large part, from the influence of native suprasegmental (tonal) categories (Juffs, 1990; Hung, 1993; Archibald, 1997; Chen et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2008). In Zhang et al. (2008), native Mandarin speakers were asked to produce two-syllable English words differing only in stress position e.g. *record/record* and *contract/contract*. Results showed that participants either did not reduce the vowel or did not use an appropriate reduced vowel in many unstressed syllables, although they were relatively good at manipulating the other acoustic correlates of stress (F0, duration and intensity). Zhang et al. (2008) argued that Mandarin speakers' problems with reducing vowels might lie in the differences in vowel space between the two languages. For example, they observed that Mandarin speakers apparently aimed at producing the high lax vowel [I] for the unstressed syllable *de* in *desert* (verb), but their production of [I] was not close to that of their native English counterparts. That is, although their production was acoustically most similar to a canonical native English [I], it was not sufficiently close to [I] to be clearly identified as such by native speakers of English. This brought further evidence for previous findings in the literature that acoustic features used in the L2 phonological system but not in the L1 might be under-attended (Flege, Bohn, & Jang, 1997; Chen et al., 2001; Francis & Nusbaum, 2002).

This research is motivated to explore how the patterns of stress-related phonetic categories in Persian may influence Persian learners' ability to produce the patterns of stress-related cues in English. Thus, we may ask whether F0, duration and overall intensity, which are associated with stress both in English and Persian, would still prove as reliable acoustic correlates of stress in English if they were produced by Persian EFL learners, and whether, and to what degree, vowel reduction, which is associated with stress in English but not in Persian, might pattern differently in Persian learners' productions of English stress, and might influence the production of other acoustic cues. Given that the phonological issue of stress placement may have a confounding effect on the phonetic problem of native-like stress production, we attempt to dissociate the question of whether non-native speakers are able to apply phonological rules of stress placement, in order to focus on the question of whether they are able to correctly produce the phonetic properties that correlate with the English stress contrast under conditions in which they know unambiguously where stress is to be placed. Thus, the question is whether, or to what degree, Persian EFL learners are capable of producing native-like patterns of fundamental frequency, duration, intensity and vowel formant frequency associated with English stressed and unstressed syllables when there is no question of stress placement. An inability to produce these acoustic correlates of stress would suggest that their native language experience with producing the specific acoustic cue patterns related to Persian phonetic categories (segmental and suprasegmental) interferes with their ability to produce qualitatively different patterns of these same cues for the purpose of producing English stress distinctions.

2. English and Persian Stress

A great deal of research has been directed towards the acoustical representation of stress in American English (Fry, 1955, 1958; Beckman, 1986; Sluijter & Van Heuven, 1996; Campell & Beckman, 1997). Most of these studies have focused on lexical stress in disyllabic words in which the stress location on the first or the second syllable leads the word to be identified as either a noun or a verb, respectively. Results of such studies consistently suggest that stress in English is correlated with average fundamental frequency (F0), intensity, syllable duration, and vowel quality: stressed syllables have higher F0, greater intensity, longer duration and unreduced vowel quality.

In English, as well as other stress-accent languages, a speaker may present a word as communicatively important by realizing a pitch accent on the prosodic head of the word, i.e., the stressed syllable. For this reason, pitch movement has always been advanced as the most important correlate of stress in English (Huss, 1977; Beckman & Edwards, 1994). In addition, vowel quality, intensity and duration have been consistently reported as other correlates of stress in English that produce additive effects for a robust differentiation between stressed and unstressed syllables (Beckman, 1986; Beckman & Edwards, 1994). Beckman and Edwards (1994) suggest that F0 and vowel quality are the most prominent acoustic cues to stress in English, and present English prominence as a two-correlate system with four qualitative levels: the highest stress occurs on a syllable with a full vowel bearing a nuclear pitch accent; the second highest stressed

syllables contain a full vowel with a nonnuclear pitch accent; the next highest stressed syllables contain a full vowel with no pitch movement, and the lowest level (i.e., unstressed) syllables are reduced. Changes of vowel quality are identified using patterns of spectral frequencies (usually F1 and F2) (Fry, 1955, 1958; Beckman, 1986; Sluijter & Van Heuven, 1996; Campell & Beckman, 1997). Although vowel quality has not been extensively studied in cross-language studies, many researchers have discussed its importance in general terms. For example, the use of unreduced vowels in unstressed syllables has been argued to contribute importantly to foreign accent (Flege & Bohn, 1989), and is a strongly typical phenomenon in Spanish-accented English (Hammond, 1986). Either way, vowel quality is clearly an important acoustic correlate of stress in English (Beckman, 1986; Fry, 1965), and failure to appropriately produce an unstressed vowel may contribute to the perception of non-native accent (Fokes et al., 1984; Flege & Bohn, 1989). Intensity and duration have also been shown to correlate with stress both in the presence and absence of prominence-lending pitch movement (i.e., both when the target words are accented and unaccented). However, unlike duration, the precise measure of computing intensity is debated. Fry (1955, 1958) and Beckman (1986) identify average intensity over the syllable as a possible acoustic correlate of stress differences, while others (Sluijter & Van Heuven, 1996) argue that spectral tilt (i.e., difference in intensity over the frequency spectrum of a given vowel) is a more appropriate measure.

Stress in Persian, unlike English, is positionally fixed: The majority of lexical words in Persian are stressed on the final syllables (Fergusen, 1957; Kahnamouipour, 2003). Word-final stress pattern applies to nouns, adjectives, most adverbs, and simple verbs. However, prefixes in inflected verbs attract stress, resulting in a recessive stress pattern (Kahnamouipour, 2003). In addition, right-edge clitics, unlike suffixes, do not attract stress, leaving the stress pattern of the stem unaffected (Fergusen, 1957; Abolhasani Zadeh, Gussenhoven, & Bijankhan, 2010).

Phonetically, Persian differs from English in having considerably fewer words in which unstressed syllables are reduced. Unlike English, lexical stress in Persian is acoustically instantiated primarily in terms of pitch, then duration and intensity, and vowel quality is not an acoustic cue to Persian stress (Abolhasani Zade et al., 2010; Sadeghi, 2011).

3. Methodology

Following Zhang et al. (2008), five pairs of disyllabic words were selected. Each word pair consisted of a noun and a verb that had identical spelling forms and differed only in terms of stress position where the initial and final syllables were stressed in the noun and verb respectively. These pairs were formed from the following list of word forms: *contract*, *desert*, *subject*, *permit*, and *record*. These words are most commonly used in L2 stress production and perception experiments, thus we also selected the same words to provide for cross-language comparisons of our results. Each target word was embedded in the pre-final position in the carrier sentence *I said — this time*, and was accompanied by associated context sentences created especially for each word, which are shown in Table 1. Pre-final position helps avoid the confounding effects of boundary tones (rising and falling tones) on segmental structures (Sluijter and Van Heuven, 1996; Zhang et al., 2008).

Table 1: Stimuli and context sentences to aid in establishing the stressed syllable.

Target word	Noun/verb	Context sentence
contract	noun	They have agreed to sign the new *contract*.
	verb	Steel will *contract* when it is cooled.
desert	noun	They got lost in the *desert*.
	verb	Will he *desert* his team?
subject	noun	What is the *subject* of the text?
	verb	He may *subject* me to this boring practice.
Permit	noun	In order to park here, you need a *permit*.
	verb	Would you *permit* to stay longer?
record	noun	I got a copy of my health *record*.
	verb	He may *record* all songs you are going to sing today.

To identify the quality of vowels in the target words as produced by Persian speakers, a vowel mapping production task was first conducted. In this task, based on Chen et al. (2001) and Zhang et al. (2010), 9 familiar English words *beat, bet, bit, bat, bought, butt, put, boot,* and *father* were used to match English vowel space as produced by Persian speakers with that of native American English speakers. Similarly, a list of six Persian words was selected for the comparison of the Persian vowel space with those of English (as produced by Persian and American English speakers) to find possible cases of interference on an item-by-item basis. The participants were undergraduate students of English at Imam Khomeini International University (IKIU) in Qazvin, Iran. Their ages ranged from 21 to 26. They were all senior students (6th and 7th semester), majoring in English translation or TEFL. None of the subjects had any residence in an English speaking country. To select a homogeneous sample group for the research, initially, 106 students took a

TOEFL English language proficiency test. then, based on the result, 54 students (31 female and 23 men) scoring two standard deviations above and two standard deviations below the mean of 72.6 were selected. Finally, the 54 students were individually interviewed by the author, from whom 30 students (15 male and 15 female) with generally good productive skill were selected as the final participants. The stimuli were presented to speakers in two sets on a computer screen. The first set of stimuli was the English and Persian words of the vowel space mapping task. For this set of recordings, participants were asked to read the target words twice in isolation displayed on the computer screen. The second set included the stress pairs on the top of the screen together with a pair of corresponding context sentences and the carrier sentence below. The context sentences were used to familiarize the participants with the task (Table 1).

All acoustic measurements were made using Praat acoustic software. The acoustic parameters computed for each token of the first set of stimuli were the values of the first and the second formant frequencies (F1 and F2 in Hz), while those for the second set of stimuli included: Syllable duration (in ms), average intensity (in dB), average F0 (in Hz), and F1 and F2 measures in Hz). Segmentation boundaries for measuring syllable boundaries were determined in a straightforward fashion using the visual criteria described by Zanten et al. (1991). Average F0 measure was calculated as the average value over the entire syllable using a hamming window of 25 ms. Formant frequencies were determined by locating the strongest harmonic of the formants in a fast Fourier transform (FFT) spectrum. All vowel quality and intensity measurements were determined at the point where F1 reached its maximum. In some cases, it was impossible to determine a reliable value for F1, mostly for female speakers due to interference of F0 with F1. Unreliable F1 measurements were excluded from further data processing.

4. Results

4.1 Vowel space mapping task

Figure 1 shows the American English vowel space (adopted from Ladefoged and Maddison's study (1996)) as well as Persian and English vowel spaces produced by Persian speakers, i.e., the participants of this study, averaged across both male and female speakers. As can be seen, the overall structure of the vowel space of American English is quite different from that of Persian. First, while English employs five vowels in the more central area, namely I□□E□□Y□□ℓ□□and□□□□Persian employs only two,□□□and□□□□Second, even when the two languages employ the same vowel categories, their qualities seem to be quite different due to the great magnitude of the distance between them. The production of Persian □□□, for example, is farther back (in the sense of having lower F2) compared to the American English □□□. It has been documented that the American English Production of □□□ is considerably higher than similar phoneme productions in many other languages (For examples, compare vowel charts for various languages presented in IPA, 1999), which may be the result of a more advanced tongue placement (Maddison, 1986; Ladefoged and Maddison, 1996). English □□□ and □□□ are considerably lower (in the sense of having higher F1) than Persian □□□ and □□□. The lower productions of □□□ and □□□ in American English compared to similar vowel productions in other languages have also been reported in Ladefoged and Maddison (1996). In addition, □□□ in Persian is further front (having lower F1) than □□□□in English, though the magnitude of the distance is smaller than those for □□□, □□□□and □□□. Furthermore, Persian □□□ and English □□□, though both considered as the mid-back vowels, are sharply different in that □□□□is considerably lower (having higher F1) than □□□□□Indeed, English □□□ is considerably closer to Persian □□□□than □□□, and is more likely to be identified as a vowel more similar to □□□ than □□□□by Persian speakers. In contrast, the mid-front vowels □□□ and □□□ are quite close, with □□□ being to a very small extent lower than □□□. Thus, unlike the back equivalents, these two front vowels seem sufficiently close to be identified as the same vowel in the two languages.

4.2. Prosodic cues

Using the originally measured values for each of the prosodic acoustic variables, i.e., average F0, duration and intensity, a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed with stress (stressed and unstressed) and gender as the independent factors. All post hoc (LSD) tests were performed with a critical ρ value of 0.05.

Average F0: Results of analysis of average F0 showed significant main effects of stress [$F_{(1, 26)}$= 97.66, ρ<0.001] and gender [$F_{(1, 26)}$= 183.54, ρ<0.001]. The F0 of stressed syllables, averaged across males and females, was significantly higher than that of the unstressed syllables (stressed: 170, unstressed: 139). In addition, female speakers produced significantly higher F0 than male speakers averaged across stressed and unstressed conditions, as expected (females: 186, males: 124). There was a significant interaction between stress and gender [$F_{(1, 26)}$ = 16.38, ρ<0.001].

The difference between the stressed and unstressed syllables was greater for female than male speakers. Similar results have been reported for native speakers' productions of English lexical stress pairs (Beckman, 1986; Fry, 1965; Zhang et al., 2010). It has been suggested that English speakers produce stressed syllables with a significantly overall

higher average F0 than unstressed ones, and that the mean average F0 is significantly higher for female than male speakers.

Duration: Results of analysis of syllable duration showed a significant effect of stress [F(1, 26)= 119.75, ρ<0.001], but no effect of gender [F(1, 26)= 2.89, ρ<0.093], and no significant interaction [F(1, 26)= 2.37, ρ<0.158]. *Post hoc* tests showed that for both gender groups stressed syllables had a significantly longer duration (females: 285 , males: 279) than unstressed syllables (females: 246 , males: 241). The results agree with those for native English speakers, differing only in that while gender did not prove significant for Persian speakers, it has been found significant for American speakers (Beckman, 1986; Fry, 1965; Hillerbrand et al., 1995; Zhang et al., 2010). In addition, although gender showed no significant main effect for Persian speakers, the differences followed the same trend as female speakers, on average, produced longer syllables than male speakers.

Intensity: Analysis of average intensity showed a significant effect of stress [F(1, 26)= 12.48, ρ<0.005]. Gender did not show a main effect [F(1, 26)= 3.27, ρ<0.074], and the interaction of stress and gender was not significant [F(1, 26)= 1.29, ρ<0.241]. *Post hoc* tests showed that stressed syllables had a significant higher intensity than unstressed syllables for both male and female speakers. The results generally agree with those for American speakers in that the intensity of speech produced by both language groups was, on average, 4 to 5 dB higher for stressed than unstressed syllables (see Hillerbrand et al. (1995) and Zhang et al. (2010) for American English data).

Fig. 1: Comparisons of three vowel spaces of American English, Persian and American English as produced by Persian speakers.

4.3 Vowel reduction

For each syllable in each word, F1 and F2 values were measured, averaged across male and female participants. The average formant values for each vowel were then, converted to bark scale values. These values were used to compute Euclidean distances for each stressed and unstressed vowel produced in the experimental words and those from the vowel space mapping task (English and Persian productions of the vowels in the vowel space mapping task). In other words, the vowel in each stressed and unstressed syllable was interpreted in terms of the magnitude of the distance from the English and Persian speakers' productions of the mapping vowels. The results were compared with those of Hillerbrand et al. (1995) and Zhang et al. (2010) for the American English speakers' productions of the same stressed and unstressed syllables in the same disyllabic words to show if Persian speakers' productions of stressed and unstressed vowels pattern significantly and unambiguously with those of native American English speakers.

The distance measures in F1×F2 space between Persian speakers' productions of the stressed and unstressed vowels and Persian speakers' productions of English vowels in the mapping task are shown in table 2. Overall, the results suggest that although Persian speakers employ nearly the same vowel categories as the English speakers, their productions of the target syllables do not pattern with those of native English speakers in that they fail to produce the majority of the vowels with the expected F1 and F2 values in the same way that they failed to produce in the vowel space mapping condition.

Table 2: Euclidean distance in F1×F2 space (measured in Bark) between Persian speakers' stressed and unstressed vowels in the stress pairs production task and Persian speakers' productions of English vowels in the vowel space production task. Note: smallest distance is indicated in bold.

		ι	I	E	α	A	□	Y	υ	℘
con	STR	5.41	4.12	2.13	0.46	**0.21**	0.63	3.73	3.75	0.32
	UNSTR	2.76	2.27	**0.42**	1.34	1.49	1.33	2.46	2.75	1.33
tract	STR	5.39	4.59	1.56	**0.16**	0.78	1.43	4.48	4.71	0.43
	UNSTR	5.32	4.44	1.43	**0.28**	0.89	1.48	4.44	4.70	0.69
de	STR	2.27	1.72	**0.13**	1.73	2.08	1.78	2.54	3.13	1.66
	UNSTR	0.71	**0.39**	1.52	3.82	3.86	2.91	1.61	2.26	3.19
sert	STR	2.34	1.71	**0.21**	1.66	1.82	1.64	2.44	2.87	1.68
	UNSTR	2.27	1.65	**0.33**	1.70	1.84	1.59	2.34	2.77	1.70
sub	STR	4.83	3.91	1.66	0.64	0.28	0.49	3.24	3.26	**0.11**
	UNSTR	4.06	3.14	1.30	0.85	0.59	**0.43**	2.65	2.74	0.47
ject	STR	2.36	1.80	**0.09**	1.62	1.84	1.65	2.55	3.14	1.66
	UNSTR	2.42	1.84	**0.17**	1.56	1.76	1.59	2.51	3.08	1.63
per	STR	2.29	1.77	**0.14**	1.66	1.92	1.96	2.53	3.11	1.68
	UNSTR	2.47	1.81	**0.23**	1.53	1.69	1.54	2.44	2.98	1.57
mit	STR	0.74	**0.41**	1.49	3.78	3.81	2.86	1.53	1.96	3.39
	UNSTR	0.93	**0.46**	1.47	3.59	3.56	2.50	1.42	1.81	3.12
re	STR	2.35	1.79	**0.07**	1.63	1.84	1.70	2.56	3.22	1.66
	UNSTR	0.98	**0.53**	1.27	3.20	3.31	2.45	1.54	1.96	3.07
cord	STR	2.94	2.21	1.88	2.36	1.71	**0.96**	1.18	1.22	1.67
	UNSTR	2.41	1.72	0.84	1.07	1.52	**0.78**	1.83	1.83	1.36

5. Conclusion and discussion

The acoustic analyses of prosodic cues indicated that just like English speakers, Persian speakers used the acoustic correlates of F0, duration and intensity to cue lexical stress in English. Previous results reported for native speakers' productions of English lexical stress pairs suggest that English speakers produce stressed syllables with a significantly overall higher average F0, longer duration and greater intensity than unstressed ones (Beckman, 1986; Fry, 1955; Zhang et al., 2010); similarly, Persian speakers produced stressed syllables with a higher F0, longer duration and greater intensity than unstressed syllables. Quite interestingly, the quantitative variations of average F0, duration and intensity across the stressed and unstressed syllables of the target stress pairs produced by the Persian speakers were almost comparable to those produced by English speakers.The similarity may be explained by the fact that lexical contrasts in Persian are cued by the same properties as average F0, duration and intensity with similar quantitative variations across the stressed and unstressed syllables, and that Persian speakers are able to transfer the use of these prosodic properties from the lexical stress domain in Persian to the lexical stress domain in English. This suggests that Persian speakers are able to produce English stress contrasts without a discernable accent so far as prosodic cues to lexical stress are concerned.

The results for vowel reduction showed that Persian speakers, although clearly aware of the importance of vowel reduction as a cue to stress, systematically fail to produce English-like vowel targets across different words and vowel categories, in a manner consistent with the transfer of properties characteristic of the Persian vowel space. This observation is consistent with the proposal of Flege and Bohn (1989), who suggested that L2 learners acquire L1 patterns of vowel reduction only after they have acquired English-like patterns of prosodic cues to stress (F0, duration and intensity), and that their inability to reduce vowels in unstressed syllables does not influence their ability to employ prosodic cues to lexical stress contrast.

As to the implications of the study, Zhang et al., suggests that the incorporation of L2 patterns of phonetic and phonological categories into course materials contributes to improving learners' pronunciation skills. Thus, the results of the study might be specifically worthy of attention for material developers to adequately and thoughtfully incorporate native-like patterns of phonetic categories of stress in some exercises and tasks that are intended for learning pronunciation, specifically the features dissimilar to the ones used in the L1 like the process of vowel reduction. It is further suggested that teachers explicitly make students aware of the importance of segmental (vowel quality) and suprasemental (F0, duration and intensity) cues to lexical stress in English employing some relevant pedagogical activities and tasks.

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Teaching Proverbs to Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners through Story-based, L1 Translation, and Whatsapp Emoticon Puzzle-Solving Techniques

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Abstract

The mastery of idiomatic forms of expression, including idioms, collocations and proverbs is among significant concerns in language learning. This study aimed to find out if there are any statistically significant differences among the effect of story-based, L1 translation, and Whatsapp emoticon puzzle solving techniques on proverb learning by Iranian intermediate EFL learners. From among 90 female intermediate level learners at two language institutes in Qom, Iran, 60 homogeneous students were chosen following the administration of a sample of Nelson proficiency test and a pre-test. The 60 participants were then assigned to three experimental groups, equal in number. The experimental group 1 was instructed using story-based technique; the experimental group 2 was taught through L1 translation; and the experimental group 3 was exposed to Whatsapp emoticon puzzle solving. Subsequently, all three groups took part in a proverb post-test similar to the pre-test. The data were analyzed by ANOVA. The results showed that Whatsapp emoticon puzzle solving was significantly the most effective, and that the students' level of learning proverbs was influenced by story-based technique more than L1 translation technique. The findings of this study can contribute to technology-enhanced language teaching.

Keywords: proverb, story-based technique, translation, Whatsapp emoticons

1. Introduction

Language is the most essential tool that provides people with communication. Alavinia (2016) emphasized that "as a social and cultural phenomenon, language is a main medium for developing culture awareness. Social and cultural values are often articulated and clearly reflected through language" (p.3). Learning a language doesn't mean learning only its grammar or vocabularies. Ever since language is the bridge between society and culture, the significance of language in transferring the culture is essential. Culture has an important role in foreign language teaching and learning studies as (Cakir, 2006) believed that it has been widely recognized that culture and language is used as a main medium through which culture is expressed (as cited in Alavinia, 2016).

One of the most considerable elements in transferring culture is the use of proverbs. Yellin (2012) stated that, "proverb is a positive avenue and door opener for engaging students of diverse cultural backgrounds and interacting from a prior knowledge" (p.100). Every culture has a collection of proverbs that offer advice about how to live. Likewise, Nabifar (2013) has mentioned "proverbs, which are composed of relatively simple idiomatic expressions, reveal cultural and social aspects of a language" (p.2288). As it is clear, people around the world with having various languages and cultures utilize proverbs in their real life conversation to communicate their concepts, thoughts, or opinions transferring from generation to generation because they are ancient formulas and remedies for living common human experiences.

Although previous researchers such as Gorjian (2006), and Othman (2013) have studied various strategies and techniques for teaching proverbs, there has not been adequate research concerning the use of technology enhanced teaching of proverbs. And also, less attention has been paid to the use of Whatsapp emoticons to create puzzles to engage learners on learning proverbs. There are some studies focusing on mobile learning and some skills, components, or other idiomatic expressions not proverbs. To be more specific, main reason for this study was to answer what type of techniques (story-based, L1 translation, and Whatsapp emoticon puzzle solving) could be more beneficial for EFL learners on learning proverbs.

2. Review of the Literature

Honeck (1997) expressed that "A proverb can be regarded as a discourse deviant, relatively concrete, present tense statement that uses characteristic linguistic markers to arouse cognitive ideals that serve to categorize topics in order to make a pragmatic point about them" (p.4). Proverbs are "statements that capture the shared values, beliefs, and wisdom of a

society" (Nippold, Uhden, & Schwarz, 1997, as cited in Santos, 2000, p.2). A proverb is defined as "a pithy and popular expression that presents an idea of experience, knowledge, advice, morality, truth, virtue, genius, irony, etc" (Gorjian, 2006, p.1).

Norrick (1985) distinguished five types of figurative proverbs: "synecdochic, metaphoric, metonymic, hyperbolic, and paradoxical" (p.45). Cook (1993) assembled proverbs into categories such as "peace of mind, happiness, acceptance, forgiveness, helping other people, a higher power or God, faith and belief, self-acceptance, self-knowledge, self-reliance, simplicity, the past, the present, hope, etc." (as cited in Yellin, 2012, p.100).

Mieder (2006) noted that a proverb is a traditional saying that "sums up a situation, passes judgment on a past matter, or recommends a course of action for the future" (p.11). Proverbs are rich wisdom sayings in all cultures that pass on values. Nowadays, the transfer of these cultural elements according to Guven and Halat (2015) is the most important subject that is included in teaching foreign language programs. In other words, as proverbs are part of any culture, learning any target language cannot be considered apart from its culture. Up to now many scholars and researchers in different languages have studied the role of proverbs in teaching different subjects in which it could be a useful tool. Proverbs play an important role in language teaching. For now, they are effective to learn more about the gained knowledge of different cultures and they need a specific level of language understanding for the learners to be able to understand and use them (Alavinia, 2016; Guven & Halat, 2015).

Schmidt (2010) believed that one must attend to both the linguistic form of utterances and the relevant social and contextual features with which they are associated. Dunnett, Dubin and Lezberg (1986) has noted that the syllabus should be placed on transferring cultural elements, just like on teaching grammar and vocabulary; foreign language classes should be designed in the manner that provides the time that enables the transferring of cultural elements (as cited in Guven & Halat, 2015). Mieder (2004) claimed that the use of proverbs in the teaching of English as a second or foreign language is important for the learners' ability to communicate effectively "from friendly chats, powerful political speeches, and religious sermons to lyrical poetry.

According to Can (2011) claim that proverbs are grouped as a communicative function to convey a message and perform indirect speech acts. Ashipu (2013) claimed that one of the major aims of using proverbs in a speech is to "create an impact in the thinking of the listener toward the speaker's desired goal" (p.11). Mieder (2006) believed that proverbs have always played a major role in human communication. Alavinia (2016) stated that instructors can use proverbs to engage students in learning, improve their understanding of other cultures and languages, and promote a "globally-sensitive community" (p.10).

Three techniques (story-based technique, L₁ translation, and Whatsapp emoticon puzzle solving) towards learning proverbs are explained in the following:

Ellis and Brewster (2014) defined storytelling "as a way to create an acquisition-rich environment and ideal learning conditions" (p.6). It is "the act of using language and gesture in colorful ways to create scenes in a sequence" (Gere, 2002, as cited in Soleimani & Akbari, 2013, p.4005). Inala and Cakirb (2014) claimed that a story based technique "can kill many birds with one stone". In other words, "stories can provide students with fun and enjoyment" that motivate them positively towards the lesson and help them learn new information in an unforgettable way (p.679). On the role of storytelling in the foreign language classroom, Al-Mansour and Al-Shorman (2011) recommended storybook reading as a respected activity in educational setting. A story-based technique is an effective tool to engage learners with the content and is a natural part of communication regarding. Wright (2004) pointed out that "stories provide meaningful contexts and natural repetition" (as cited in Rokhayani, 2010, p.32). In the same way, Colon-Villa (1997), Ellis and Brewster (2014), Martínez, (2007), Rokhayani (2010), Wright (2004), and Yazdanpanah (2012) believed that storytelling develops communication skills and is used in education to convey knowledge of all genera, to arouse interest and increase motivation among students, to fill the gap between language study and language use, and to develop students' motivation and interests.

Researchers like Baharian (2014), andSadeghi, Vahid, Dastjerdi, and Ketabi (2010) have mentioned that the contextualization can be much effective in the comprehension of idiomatic expressions such as idioms and proverbs. In teaching proverbs through story-based technique, students are given a variety of proverbs from which to choose their favorite and explaining to their classmates what it means and why they chose it. It is a way of entertainment why all students are encouraged to take part in activities assigned by teachers. To this point, Norouzzadeh Chegini (2014) found that many of proverbs are result of stories, whether they are real or not. Ebong (2004) claimed that matching proverbs and explaining the meaning through listening activity; learner can retell the stories they listen to in the class.

Neubert and Shreve (1992) pointed out that "Translation is forcible replacement of the linguistic and cultural difference of the foreign text with a text that will be intelligible to the target reader" (as cited in Othman, 2013, p.19). Nida and Taber (1982) believed that the meaning of a text cannot be conveyed unless the message of the ST is provided in the TT. It is through translation as a means of communication that learners can communicate, exchange knowledge, and benefit from research written in foreign languages. Learning proverbs may show a significant misunderstanding and mistranslation by reason of translating or finding equivalent one to them of the source language.

Not all proverbs have direct equivalents in another language, because some proverbs are culture specific and cannot be understood in another culture as Dabaghi, Pishbin, and Niknasab (2010) believed that "it is not reasonable to translate a proverb while just looking at the first meaning of its words in a dictionary" (p.813). Gorjian (2006) maintained that, "proverbs are structurally, pragmatically, conceptually, culturally and contextually sensitive" (p.7). The nature of proverb as a category of formulaic language makes resistant to literal translation as Khodabakhsh, Sadeghi, and Bakhshi (2013) have mentioned that "the target language may not use lexical formulas that are directly equivalent to those used by the source language to express the same meanings or at least not with the same frequency" (p.245).

The combination of technology into language learning and teaching has become increasing, and the educational multimedia tool has been to promote English language education. Gasmi (2014) mentioned that technology has transformed the field of higher education and more specifically the field of English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching. To this regard, Tawiah and Nondzor (2015) have believed that social media is now everywhere and learners have come to appreciate the attitude of using the tools to enhance them differently and expressively.

Internet in language education has been reflected a serious methodology. Web-based exercises are an excellent way of reviewing vocabulary as students receive immediate feedback for their responses, and can review the material at any time from any computer with Internet access. Khany (2013) claimed that social networking (SNs) is an outstanding tool for fostering new social relations between the learners, resulting in improving their proficiency. He stated that "When online social networking of students combines with their education, their education can get innovative and entertaining" (p.197).

Whatsapp is a new and very popular mobile application, convenient, effective and reliable which enables learners to communicate using instant messaging from different modes and elements that can incorporate in the chunks of digital. Rambe and Chipunza (2013) have claimed that "students conceived Whatsapp as a lever for bridging access to peer-generated resources, heightening on task behavior and promoting meaningful context-free learning" (p.331). To this case, Aburezeq and Ishtaiwa (2013) pointed out the important feature of the Whatsapp as "the offline messaging" in which all messages convey when the device is off or when it is (p.166).

The use of Whatsapp for language learning has five features: text, photo, video, audio and emoji. A small emoticon as a symbol of picture, is equivalent to some words. It can make message very clear to receiver which even many words may not be able to do verbally. Nowadays smart phone users are posting very interesting puzzles combination of Whatsapp emoticons and share them with their friends on Facebook or other social networking websites. The users can create many puzzles through emoticons like guessing movie, song, actors, cars, animals' names, etc. Students can create interesting emoticon puzzle through Whatsapp application in their smart phones to sending text messages as an imaginative illocutionary of pragmatic competence to meaningful negotiation of interaction in real life.

Teacher as a facilitator could create a social networking group via Whatsapp and engages students to learn English through emoticon puzzle solving. Puzzles can be used to support a variety of different types of learning depending on the type of puzzle. The more complexity and challenging of the puzzle, the more learning will be. According to Sargin, Baltaci, Bicici, and Yumusak (2015), "puzzles promote recall, recognition, location and linking, which level versions stimulate analysis, synthesis and evaluation, with help of interesting, motivating, nice problems they analyze the main.

Among the previous relevant studies, one can refer to Yazdanpanah (2012), Soleimani and Akbari (2013), Dabaghi, Pishbin, and Niknasab (2010), Khomeijani Farahani and Ghasemi (2012), Fotovatnia and khaki (2012), and Motallebzadeh and Ganjali (2011).

3. Methodology

This study was designed to explore the effect of story-based technique, L₁ translation, and Whatsapp emoticon puzzle solving on proverb learning. The present study was a quasi-experimental research. The independent variable was the type of techniques; i.e., story-based technique, L₁ translation, and Whatsapp emoticon puzzle solving. The dependent variable was the participants' performance on proverb learning. Language proficiency of the participants was the control variable since they got homogenized through Nelson proficiency test. All the groups of participants took the same pretest and posttest to check if any differences existed among the three experimental groups based on their performance on proverbial knowledge. The particular design of this study was pretest posttest design in which the participants were given a pretest prior to the treatment and a posttest to compare the effect of the treatments.

The sample of this study included 90 female EFL learners of intact classes, who were non-randomly selected from Mehr and Tanin language schools, two language institutes in Qom, Iran. At the time of the study, the proficiency level of the participants was intermediate and the *Topnotch* series were the materials they were studying in both language schools. Most participants had previously passed the starter, elementary and pre-intermediate classes. They aged within the range of 15 to 20 years.

In the present study, the sample selection was done at two stages. At the first stage, among a sample of 90 intermediate EFL learners the Nelson proficiency test 200A (Flower & Coe, 1976) was administered. Following the administration of NPT, 66students whose score were between 26 and 40 were selected. At the second stage, in order to

have a homogeneous sample in terms of proverb knowledge, they took part in a teacher-made proverb recognition pretest. From the total 66 learners, six learners, who answered at least one question correctly were excluded. Then, the 60 subjects were randomly divided into the following three experimental groups, equal in number: (G₁) receiving the learning proverbs in the story-based; (G₂) receiving the learning proverbs in the L₁translationtechnique; (G₃) receiving the learning proverbs in the Whatsapp emoticon puzzle solving technique.

The tests used in this study consisted of: a proficiency test 200A and two proverb tests, the pretest and the posttest. The materials used in this study consisted of: a story book including 41 English proverbs, the English to Persian dictionary of proverbs, and Whatsapp application mobile.

The 90 participants in this were asked whether they had Whatsapp application mobile on their mobile phones and how frequently they used them. All of the participants had this application and used it frequently. The model and the features of mobile phones were not important but installing the Whatsapp application was an essential necessity in this experiment. Prior to launching the study, the participants were tested for their linguistic homogeneity, through the administration of Nelson proficiency test 200A (Flower & Coe, 1976). The purpose of the NPT was to homogenize intermediate level participants. The 66 out of 90 EFL learners whose scores fell within the range (26 to 40) of one standard deviation (7.25) above and below the sample mean participated (33.23) in this study.

The pretest was administered to measure the EFL learners' knowledge of proverbial expressions. Following the administration of pretest, those participants who answered the questions correctly were assumed to know the majority of the target proverbs and were thus omitted as the target sample. Then, they were randomly assigned into three experimental groups with 20 in each. Students in the first experimental group were exposed to proverbs through story-based technique. In the second experimental group, students were exposed to proverbs through L₁ translation technique. The third experimental group were exposed to proverbs through Whatsapp emoticon puzzle solving. All classes lasted about one month, three times a week of 10 totally sessions. Each session lasted for 45 minutes during which the participants were presented with five proverbs through three different techniques and illustrate in the following.

The first experimental group was the story-based treatment group. In order to instruct learners, 40 English stories including the proverbial expressions were used to teach the English proverbs. The activity for learners was telling the stories consisting of the English proverbs at the end in front of the class (they had time to prepare five stories in advance as homework) and to review the learned proverbs in the next session.

The second experimental group was the translation-based treatment group. Since both English and Persian are expressive and rich languages in proverbs, the researcher in this study tried to find the best translation equivalent. To this end, the researcher used Persian translation and English definition of the 40 English proverbs. The teacher used L₁ translation accompanied by a brief explanation and definition in L₂. The description was followed by a simple example. The examples were mostly extracted directly from the dictionaries mentioned in materials of the study in order to be completely sure about the appropriateness of their use. Then, the researcher gave Persian translation equivalents and focused on English proverb's literal meaning in Persian for non-equivalents or near equivalents

The third experimental group was the Whatsapp group. The Whatsapp application mobile was applied to teach emoticon puzzle to the 40 proverbs. All the learners were online at a specific time (11 p.m.) out of the classroom setting. The researcher created puzzle proverbs via emoticons of Whatsapp application mobile, saved the puzzle images and shared them on Whatsapp. Each session included an image of five puzzle proverbs in the number from 1 to 5 and along with five texts consisting of the English proverbs used in an image.

For instruction to the third experimental group, the teacher shared an image and five proverbs in a group of learners and the participants were asked to match the proverbs with the correct number of their puzzles in an image. The learners shared their comments and then, the teacher shared the answer key, descriptions, and examples of proverbs based on oxford proverbs dictionary. The descriptions and examples were chosen as short as possible, so that the students could read these messages on their small screens without having to scroll down many times. In the following sessions in order to review of the taught proverbs, the teacher shared some images of puzzles and the learners were asked to type the right proverbs in a group. Totally the 40 proverbs and eight images were sent as an instruction during eight sessions. At the end of the study, in the tenth session a posttest was administered which was similar to the pretest, except in order of the questions and choices.

In order to compare the effects of the three different treatments for teaching proverbs, the means of the three groups were compared through one-way ANOVA. Also the Tukey Post Hoc test was conducted on the data to determine the difference more exactly.

4. Results

As it was stated in chapter three, a Nelson English Language Test was used to select a homogeneous sample of the participants for the study. To select the participants, all initial 90 students took part in the Nelson English Language

Test and students whose scores were between one standard deviation below and above the mean participated in the main study.

In order to have a homogeneous sample in terms of proverb knowledge, following the administration of pretest, those participants who answered at least one question correctly were excluded. The 60 participants from the total 66 got zero on pretest exam, thus no descriptive statistics was calculated for the participants' pretest scores.

Table 4.1. presents the descriptive statistics of the participants' posttests in the three groups of the study.

Table 4.1. *Descriptive Statistics of Posttest Scores of the Participants in the Three Groups*

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Posttest in G1	20	13	25	18.05	3.154
Posttest in G2	20	9	22	14.60	3.604
Posttest in G3	20	17	25	21.25	2.511
Valid N (list wise)	20				

A pre-required assumption for running the parametric test of one-way ANOVA is the normal distribution of the data across groups. In order to make sure about the normal distribution of the posttest scores in all groups, the researcher ran a One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test on three sets of scores. Table 4.3 presents the results of this test.

Table 4.2.
One Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of Posttest Scores in the Three Groups

		Posttest in G1	Posttest in G2	Posttest in G3
N		20	20	20
Normal Parameters[a,b]	Mean	18.05	14.60	21.25
	Std. Deviation	3.154	3.604	2.511
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.156	.149	.107
	Positive	.156	.149	.102
	Negative	-.070	-.084	-.107
Test Statistic		.156	.149	.107
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.200[c,d]	.200[c,d]	.200[c,d]

a. Test distribution is Normal.
b. Calculated from data.
c. Lilliefors Significance Correction.
d. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

As it is indicated in Table 4.2, *p*-value for each set of scores is higher than 0.05, therefore, all sets of scores are normally distributed and the parametric test of one-way ANOVA can be used.

To investigate the existence of statistically significant differences among the effect of story-based technique, L_1 translation, and Whatsapp emoticon puzzle solving on proverb learning by Iranian intermediate EFL learners, a one-way ANOVA had to be run. In order to conduct one-way ANOVA some underlying assumptions must be met. The first assumption is the normality of the scores which was checked in previous section. The second assumption is independence of observations. It means that there must be different participants in each group with no participant being in more than one group and no relationship between the observations in each group or between the groups themselves. This assumption was also met based on the design of the study and assignment of the participants to three different groups. The third assumption is the equality of the variances across groups which was inspected by Levene's test. Table 4.4 displays the results of Levene's test of equality of error variances.

Table 4.3.
Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

Levene Statistic	Df$_1$	Df$_2$	Sig.
.657	2	57	.522

Table 4.3 confirms that the assumption of homogeneity of variances for the one-way ANOVA had met *p* = 0.52. Having been ensured that the required assumptions were met, the researcher ran a one-way ANOVA, the results of which are presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.4.
The ANOVA of Posttest Scores of the Participants in the Three Groups

	Sumof Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	442.433	2	221.217	22.699	.000
Within Groups	555.500	57	9.746		
Total	997.933	59			

It is clear from Table 4.4 that there is a significant difference among the three groups. Therefore, it was required to conduct a Post Hoc test to determine the differences more exactly. The Tukey Post Hoc test was run on the data to serve the purpose, the result of which are presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5.
The Tukey Post Hoc Multiple Comparisons of Posttest Scores

(I) Major	(J) Major	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
G1	G2	3.450*	.987	.001	1.47	5.43
	G3	-3.200*	.987	.002	-5.18	-1.22
G2	G1	-3.450*	.987	.001	-5.43	-1.47
	G3	-6.650*	.987	.000	-8.63	-4.67
G3	G1	3.200*	.987	.002	1.22	5.18
	G2	6.650*	.987	.000	4.67	8.63

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 4.5. displays that the G_1(story-based) participants' posttest scores differed significantly from both G_2 (L_1 translation), (*p*=0.001<0.05) and G_3(Whatsapp emoticon puzzle solving) (*p*=0.002<0.05) participants' posttest scores. In addition, it is clear that the posttest scores of the participants in G_2 (L_1 translation), and G_3 (Whatsapp emoticon puzzle solving) were also significantly different (p=0.000<0.05). The comparison of the mean differences indicates that the participants in G_3 (Whatsapp emoticon puzzle solving) outperformed both the participants in G_1 (story-based) (I-J= 3.20) and G_2 (L_1 translation) (I-J=6.65). Furthermore, the participants in G_1 (story-based) had a better performance than their counterparts in G_2 (L_1 translation) (I-J=3.45). Therefore, the null hypothesis of the study was rejected

5. Discussion and Conclusion

In the present study the researcher attempted to compare the effect of three types of techniques, i.e. story-based, L_1translation, and Whatsapp emoticon puzzle solving on proverb learning. The research was done to see if there were any statistically significant differences among the effect of story-based technique, L_1 translation, and Whatsapp emoticon puzzle solving on proverb learning by Iranian intermediate EFL learners. Then, the research was conducted to come up with an answer to this question. The homogenized participants were received pilot pretest at the first of the study, then assigned to three experimental groups and receiving a posttest after the study.

In order to answer the research question, the researcher applied one-way ANOVA, and its results revealed that there were significant differences between the levels of learning proverbs of these three groups. That is to say, the students who received Whatsapp emoticon puzzle solving technique had more progress in their level of learning proverbs than the students in the other groups and the students who received story-based technique had more improvement in their level of learning proverbs than the students in the group who received L_1 translation technique. Based on the comparison among the experimental groups, it can be said that students who were in L_1 translation class had less improvement in their level of learning proverbs than both story-based and Whatsapp emoticon puzzle solving classes at the end of the study. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

The findings support the view that proverbs play a role in cultural understanding and support development of English language teaching. The literature showed that the importance of the type of techniques that teachers choose and focus on in the classroom to improve learners on learning proverbs. In specific, the use of mobile applications as effective learning tools to expand learners' attitude towards language learning have also supported the findings of the present study.

In this regard, the results of this study agreed with Basal, Yilmaz, Tanriverdi, and Sari's (2016) research on the effect of the mobile application in teaching idioms. Both the participants in the control and the experimental group significantly improved their knowledge of the target idioms independent of the activity type used in their respective groups. However, based on the posttest results, participants in the experimental group who learned idioms through the use of the mobile application achieved significantly better than their counterparts in the control group with traditional activities. Both studies have proved the effect of mobile on expression idioms but in different applications and also present study concentrated on proverb instead idioms learning.

In the same line, Zhang, Song, and Burston (2011) found that the group who study vocabulary via mobile phone SMS text messages retrieved more vocabulary in the posttests than the group who learn through paper material. Motallebzadeh and Ganjali (2011) proved the effects of SMS on learners' performance on vocabulary retention and reading comprehension. Correspondingly, Motallebzadeh, Beh-Afarin, and Daliry Rad (2011) in their study, attempted to investigate the effect of Short Message Service (SMS) on the retention of collocations. Regarding the use of mobile phones, English vocabulary lessons were sent to the learners' mobile phones using short text messages to explain the English idioms by (Khodashenas & Amouzegar, 2013).

Likewise, Yang (2013) in his research had reviewed on mobile assisted language learning to focus on more detailed applications of newly emerging mobile technology on vocabulary learning. The conclusion was that the educational applications of smartphones have got diverse and integrated more and more. Similarly, based on the result of this study was concluded that the use of mobile phone could be an efficient technique in improving the proverbial knowledge of EFL learners. Moreover, based on the findings of the research of Rambe and Chipunza (2013), students learned technical skills by sharing and searching information on Whatsapp rather than other study-related platforms like the blackboard environment.

A similar result was obtained in the study conducted by Alsaleem (2014) to find out the effect of Whatsapp electronic journaling on improving the vocabulary word choice and voice writing skills of undergraduate students. Besides, the results of the study of Ali Sorayyaei and Nasiri (2014) indicated that mobile learning is an interesting and innovative way for learning a new language and improving listening comprehension. Furthermore, although these studies were in the same line with the present study, there is dissimilarity due to focusing on the other skills (reading, listening, or writing) and components (vocabulary, collocation, or idiom) on only one or two experimental groups.

The present findings are hoped to have significant implications for language learning and teaching, especially in Iran. It is worth noticing that the findings of the present study maybe practical, useful, and applicable for language learners, teachers, material developers and web designers generally and for Iran particular. The findings of this study have certain implications for both English language teachers and learners. It can be beneficial for teachers who are searching for effective ways of improving their learners on learning proverbs. They can use different techniques including story-based technique, L_1 translation, and Whatsapp emoticon puzzle solving in general, and more specifically Whatsapp emoticon puzzle solving in order to increase their students' learning proverbs. Moreover, they can apply M-learning in language education to have more interactive and interesting instruction.

Based on the findings of the current research, some instruction techniques can provide opportunities for students to develop learning proverbs. The researchers advise teachers in mobile teaching and learning to use Whatsapp mobile application to create activities in an integration of both face-to-face learning and mobile learning to help EFL learners to learn proverbs more effectively. Language learners could provide mobile applications in educational settings, so that they could learn language outside the classroom setting. What is most specifically beneficial in helping students reach higher level of learning proverbs is the use of Whatsapp emoticon puzzle solving technique; it can enhance students' active participation in the EFL classroom. Furthermore, it can provide students with an opportunity for practicing the language for free and more personal and comprehensive relationship between them and teachers.

The findings have also implications for curriculum designers and material developers. It is useful for them to consider mentioned three techniques specially Whatsapp as the effective factors for learners to facilitate learning proverbs. Curriculum designers might prepare curricula including M-learning to design and develop attractive books and materials. Furthermore, Web designers could operate effective applications and software programs for Internet users to benefit outside the classroom due to extremely learning proverbs through Internet-based system.

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Language Persona and the New Paradigm Shift

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Abstract

The road to modeling the human mind lies through the analysis of natural speech activity and subsequent language product. A large number of theories, approaches, models, and particular problem-solving applications have been proposed to illustrate the key features of the "speaking mind." However, even the latest elaborations do not extend beyond diagnostic data analysis and approximate predictions. The presentation proposes the concept of Language Persona (LP) as an invariant unit for the new paradigm in the studies of language and mind. The LP theory is constructed on the systemic interplay and constraints among at least four of its neurolinguistic representations: the psychological, cognitive, cultural, and social networks that scaffold the verbal mind. The present research is an overview of classical and contemporary theories of language, mind, and personality, and there is a line of multilingual psycholinguistic studies conducted by the author and her students to support it with evidence.The animated visualization of the LP model is introduced along with the interpretations of neural processes of verbalization, categorization, understanding, and change. The expected result is to attract interested parties and professionals to launch a collaborative project on LP neurolinguistic research, data development, and digital solutions. The prospective beneficiaries of the suggested project are almost all the Social, Communication and Information Sciences, including Healthcare and Education.

Keywords: speaking mind, Language Persona, neurolinguistic networks, multimodal data, modeling.

Introduction

All the social processes related to communication and information exchange anchor around the speaking mind, who uses a language or several languages learned for the expression, exchange and transfer of data, meanings and their senses made for further application. And it is not by accident that this vision developed in the sphere of language education, teaching and learning: this is perhaps the only field where the language is conceived and defined as a tool of not only expressing and translating the mind but instead as a means of developing the mind and educating the soul. Language empowers its learner in personal, social and professional dimensions, and knowledge of different natural languages open doors to different cultures. Language teachers shape personalities and enhance identities.

In this process of teaching languages, teachers deal with and solve on daily basis issues, that any professional of artificial intelligence would love to learn about, starting with individual learners' psychophysiology, ending with the sociocultural and historical panorama of big data of language communication. Above all, the language teachers make this wide range of conscious or intuitive decisions on daily bases, without sometimes being aware of the impact they create for the future of global society.

In different periods of the history of linguistics, the attitude of thinkers towards language, it's body and usage, was a more or less close iteration of the mental models suggested by the working model of the universe of the epoche. And each epoch had its particular tasks to solve, but all the periods of human civilization possess one single internal order of cognitive problem solution: people in all times first address the most immediate and easily handled needs by creating the most straightforward and less costly tools. These tools are easily tested and improved in practice. And only sometime later we begin to appreciate it as an opportunity, a prototype that can serve for further theorizing and embellishment. While continuing to serve their primary function, these discoveries, such as the dagger or the wheel, became the object of several scientific generations who theorize, elaborate, enhance and produce series of improvements of the tool, thus, in fact, preparing grounds for the next stage of the cognitive spiral, by understanding the new opportunities brought by the device.

Language teaching as a profession, well, and education as a science about learning and teaching started with the method of iteration. Next was the era of linking and translation, and the first linguists were known for their craft of translation. Linguistics then was about knowing languages. This starting point guided the studies towards structural comparisons and grammars of the natural languages, their typologization and classification. Linguistics became a sophisticated theoretical science with sprouting interdisciplinaries in the XX c. And then Linguistics soared in geometrical progression throughout the Social Sciences, yielding such interdisciplinary research spheres as socio-, psycho-, pragma-, neurolinguistics, and smaller specific applications. Talking purely about *language* became a challenge unless one would speak of its relativity and change.

The new tendency was called Applied Linguistics, to ensure paradigmatic stability, but again, somehow, it was restricted to foreign language teaching methods.

The new, educational approach to linguistic study was expected to cover the details of the methodological nudity of Linguistics. Almost at the same time, the method of the big picture – discourse analysis - emerged as the dynamic counterpart of language body - corpus method. This seemed to slow down the inevitable dispersion of the linguistic paradigm. All we can do is but admit the fact of expiry of the study of language, whether it's learning or research, for the sake of its own self.

One could predict this course of things, as language is the *only* known device of human self-reflection. The more its science - Linguistics developed, the sharper its razor of self-reflection has become.

The rise of information technologies and digital communication left the discipline of linguistics in the deep crisis of the paradigmatic spill. The new instruments and applications split the language paradigm into dozens, if not hundreds of applied and interdisciplinary domains, trying to solve such momentary needs of the globalizing world, such as effective communication, automation of information retrieval and exchange, intensive learning, precise translation, etc. All these roads, however, lead back to the need for a deep understanding of natural language processing, which is, admittedly, impossible through mathematical logic only, unless, such axiological dimensions and variables as culture, context and discourse are somehow

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The Gospel of Fyodor (Exploring the Links Between Two Chapters of *the Brothers Karamazov* and *the Biblical Scriptures*, an Intertextual Study)

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Abstract

This article attempts to explore the hermeneutic context of two chapters of The Brothers Karamazov (1880), Fyodor Mikhailovich Dostoevsky's last novel, published three months before his death; by a comparative analytical method based on theoretical framework of intertextuality. The chosen chapters are: 'A Laceration in the Cottage' and 'An Onion'. This novel is the magnum opus of Dostoevsky, the largest and one of his most intricately structured works, and a supreme achievement in world literature. The term intertextuality was first used in Julia Kristeva's works. She proposes the text as a dynamic site in which relational processes and practices are the focus of analysis instead of static structures and products. The characters of The Brothers Karamazov, specially the novice Alyosha, the non-believer Ivan and the soldier Dmitri, each have an individual style of speech to express their unique thoughts and inner personality. Beyond being fictional personages, they are representatives of paradoxical tendencies and philosophical attitudes of the writer's time. In this spiritual drama, Dostoevsky brings up substantial debates about God, morality, faith, doubt, free will, truth, judgment, and the primordial sin of patricide. Although The Brothers Karamazov opposes the church's greed and profiting from religion, yet reveals the inefficiency of socialism in quest for a godless utopia. Dostoevsky's deep understanding of Christian thoughts and scriptures has enabled him to achieve a Russian interpretation of Bible and a Biblical narrative about the Russian soul.

Keywords: The Brothers Karamazov, Bible, Fyodor Dostoevsky, Russian literature.

1. Introduction

"Verily, verily, I say unto you, except a corn of wheat fall into the ground and die, it abideth alone: but if it die, it bringeth forth much fruit". A verse from the gospel of John (*KJB**, John 12:24) is the epigraph of a novel, that is not only the result of a writer's evolution, but also the voice of a nation. *The Brothers Karamazov* is rising from "the humble soul of the Russian peasant, worn out by grief and toil, and still more by the everlasting injustice and everlasting sin" (*BK*†, P1, B1, Ch5). He wrote the novel, when he had traveled the long journey of his life, from Siberian exile and standing in front of firing squad, to climb the peaks of world literature. In the end though, it's not his literary skill or philosophical knowledge, but his wisdom about life and love in light of the biblical scriptures that creates his insight.

As Conradi (1988: 103) has noted, Dostoevsky's last novel is also his greatest, and among the greatest of all novels. Its moral passion has a sublime grandeur, its story a sensational, stark beauty. A passionate simplicity marks its delineation of character, while its themes - religious faith and doubt, love and rebellion, disintegration and renewal, and, above all, the terrible mysteries of good and evil - are intricately 'worked'.

Dostoevsky is regarded as one of the greatest and most influential novelists of the Golden Age of Russian literature (Lauer, 2000: 364). Hamsun believed that: no one has analyzed the complicated human structure as Dostoyevsky. His psychologic sense is overwhelming and visionary (Lavrin: 1947: 161). His ideas and innovations exercised a profound influence on a great number of later writers and thinkers including: Nietzsche, Gide, Camus, Sartre, Malraux, Joyce, Hesse, Bakhtin, Solzhenitsyn, Chekhov and Bulgakov, to name only a few.

Based on Dostoevsky's deep knowledge of the faith of his people, *The Brothers Karamazov* has turned into a Russian scripture, which I call "The Gospel of Fyodor".

But, how could he attain such a great achievement?

2. Methods & materials:

This essay is a case study research with a comparative analytical method, based on theoretical framework of intertextuality.

Language acquires its meaning in relation to outside forces and factors: context, previous texts and culture (Allen, 2000: 44). Every text is an intertext (Leitch, 1983: 59), a text between other texts (Plett, 1991: 5).

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*. *KJB*, Quoted from: *The Bible: Authorized King James Version*. (2008). (Eds. R. Carroll, S. Prickett). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
†. *BK*, Quoted from: Dostoevsky, F. (1912). *The Brothers Karamazov*. Trans. C. Garnett. London: William Heinemann.

The term Intertextuality was first developed by the Bulgarian-French poststructuralist semiotician Julia Kristeva in her 1960s works like: *Bakhtine, le mot, le dialogue et le roman*[*] (1967) and *Le texte clos*[†] (1968), and since then it's been widely accepted by postmodern literary critics and theoreticians. On its most basic level, the concept of intertextuality is about transferring words and ideas between different texts. It is the interconnection between similar or somehow related works of literature (and later associated with other media) that influence and reflect an audience's interpretation of the text. As Genette (1997: 18) writes: Intertextual figures include: allusion, quotation, calque, plagiarism, translation, pastiche and parody.

Kristevan concept of intertextuality had its roots from her own reading of Bakhtinian dialogism as an open-ended play between the text of the subject and the text of the addressee (Moi, 1986: 34). So, his theory of heteroglossia and dialogism lies at the core of Kristeva's principle of intertextuality.

Bakhtin (1984: 97) believed that, Characteristic feature of the letter is an acute awareness of the interlocutor, the addressee to whom it is directed. The letter, like a rejoinder in a dialogue, is addressed to a specific person, and it takes into account the other's possible reactions, the other's possible reply. The life of the word, for Bakhtin (1984: 201) is contained in its transfer from one mouth to another, from one context to another context, from one social collective to another. In Bakhtin's theory of dialogism (1990: 280), the central idea is that every word is directly, blatantly, oriented toward a future answer-word: it provokes an answer, anticipates it and structures itself in the answer's direction.

In the English translation of Kristeva's early work *Desire in Language* (1980) Two texts demonstrate the influence of Bakhtin on her and the manner in which she revises, transforms and redirects Bakhtin's work: *The Bounded Text* (Kristeva, 1980a: 36-63) and *Word, Dialogue, Novel* (Kristeva, 1980b: 64-91). She (1980b: 88-9) says herself: The notion of dialogism, which owes much to Hegel, must not be confused with Hegelian dialectics, based on a triad and thus on struggle and projection (a movement of transcendence), which does not transgress the Aristotelian tradition founded on substance and causality. Dialogism replaces these concepts by absorbing them within the concept of relation. It does not strive towards transcendence but rather toward harmony, all the while implying an idea of rupture (of opposition and analogy) as a modality of transformation.

Kristeva (1980b: 66) argues that, each word (text) is an inter section of other words (texts), where at least one other word (text) can be read.

The concept of intertextuality that she initiated proposes the text as a dynamic site in which relational processes and practices are the focus of analysis instead of static structures and products (Alfaro, 1996: 268). Kristeva is concerned with the idea of establishing a system in which a text is created out of already existent discourse. Authors do not construct their words (texts) from their own original minds, but rather put them together from preexistent words (texts). So, a text is as she (1980a: 36) writes: a permutation of texts, an intertextuality in the space of a given text, in which several utterances, taken from other texts, intersect and neutralize one another.

For Kristeva (1980a: 37), the intertextual dimensions of a text cannot be studied as mere 'sources' or 'influences' stemming from what traditionally has been styled 'background' or 'context'. As she (1986: 87) writes: Developed from and in relation to these modern texts the new semiotic models then turn to the social text, to those social practices of which 'literature' is only one unvalorized variant, in order to conceive of them as so many ongoing transformations and/or productions.

We shall call transposition the signifying process' ability to pass from one sign system to another, to exchange and permutate them; and representability the specific articulation of the semiotic and the thetic for a sign system. Transposition plays an essential role here inasmuch as it implies the abandonment of a former sign system, the passage to a second via an instinctual intermediary common to the two systems, and the articulation of the new system with its new representability (Kristeva, 1984: 60).

The effect of intertextuality on Roland Barthes, led to the creation of his famous essay *La mort de l'auteur*[‡] (1968), that is perhaps one of the more widely known features of intertextual theory. As Barthes (1977: 157) writes: The Text is experienced only in an activity of production.

He (1986: 168-170) believed that, Julia Kristeva changes the place of things. she always destroys the last prejudice, the one you thought you could be reassured by, could take pride in; what she displaces is the already-said, the déjà-dit, i.e., the instance of the signified, i.e., stupidity; what she subverts is authority - the authority of the monologic science, of filiation... What Julia Kristeva produces is a critique of communication (the first, I believe, since that of psychoanalysis). Communication, she shows, the darling of the positive sciences (such as linguistics), of the philosophies and the politics of 'dialogue', of 'participation', and of 'exchange' - communication is merchandise.

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[*]. *Word, Dialogue and Novel.*
[†]. *The Bounded Text.*
[‡]. *The death of the Author.*

Woven entirely with citations, references, echoes, cultural languages (what language is not?) antecedent or contemporary, which cut across it through and through in a vast stereophony. The intertextual in which every text is held, it itself being the text-between of another text, is not to be confused with some origin of the text: to try to find the 'sources', the 'influences' of a work, is to fall in with the myth of filiation; the citations which go to make up a text are anonymous, untraceable, and yet already read: they are quotations without inverted commas (Barthes, 1977: 160).

Intertextuality can be understood on two levels: 1. It is the combination in discourse of different genres or different discourses. 2. It is the presence in my discourse of the specific words of the other mixed with my words as for instance reported speech (Chouliaraki and Fairclough, 1999: 49).

Intertextuality is defined as a text's dependence on prior words, concepts, connotations, codes, conventions, unconscious practices, and texts. Every text is an intertext that borrows, knowingly or not, from the immense archive of previous culture (Leitch, 2001: 21).

Intertextuality and intertextual relationships can be separated into three different types: obligatory, optional and accidental. These variations depend on two key factors: the intention of the writer, and the significance of the reference. The distinctions between these types and those differences between categories are not absolute and exclusive but instead, are manipulated in a way that allows them to co-exist within the same text (Marrapodi, 2004: 13).

In the following, we will try to trace the intertextual links between two selected chapters of the novel and the biblical scriptures.

3. Results & Discussion:

Freud has called *The Brothers Karamazov* the most magnificent novel ever written (Freud, 1945: 1). The novel is based on Dostoevsky's favorite philosophical, Psychological and theological themes: the origin of evil, the nature of freedom, and the craving for faith. As Cassedy (2005: 155) pointed out, Dostoevsky focused on the world as a realm for religious activity. Scanlan (2002: 197) has states that, Russia's potential fate was very much on Dostoevsky's mind in the last years of his life. According to him (2002: 160) Dostoevsky's own ideal, was the dream of a community of perfect Christian brotherhood and love. As Jones (2005: 146) writes, For Dostoevsky human beings are fated to use a discourse which is inadequate to their higher nature, the deepest spiritual realities and the fullness of God.

Although Dostoevsky began to write his first notes for *The Brothers Karamazov* in April 1878, but the unfinished *Drama in Tobolsk,* dated September 1874, about a soldier who is thought to have murdered his father, is considered the first draft of the novel.

In May 1878, his beloved three-year-old son Alyosha died of epilepsy, a disorder inherited from his father. He narrates his grief throughout the book. The protagonist of the story is named Alyosha, with characteristic which Dostoevsky most admired. His loss is also reflected in the personage of a sensitive patient boy, Ilusha and his tragic death.

As Figes (2003: 325) recorded, after the death of little Alyosha, Dostoevsky went to the Optina Monastery, looking for consolation. The religious texture of the story was formed there, especially the biographical section of Zosima's life.

Elder Zosima is a figure that dominates much of the novel. Indeed, he is axial for understanding the form of life that is Orthodox tradition in the text. For those around this saintly figure, particularly Alexei, he makes present the Divine Image of Christ in its fullness. Not through a solitary grace, but through imbrication of his life with those around him (Eldridge, 2017: 6). Elder Zosima as exemplary of an Orthodox form-of-life, represents how the tradition enables a different relation to time and hence the rule.

Many sentences or events of the book are related to biblical scriptures, directly or implicitly. The novel's epigraph is itself a scripture from John 12:24 though, it speaks to some other verse like: Romans 14:9*, Corinthians 15:36† and Psalm 72:16‡. The whole spirit of narrative is summarized in this sentence: It is through sacrifice and suffering in faith that one finds true love.

Of course, the novel is not entirely a book in adoration of religious thoughts, as some critics like Nabokov (1981: 97) have supposed. In fact, As Gibson (1973: 68) has argued, Dostoevsky's writing is not a single statement in praise of God, but a struggle for the common thoughts of the time. He gives equal rights for speak to believers and deniers.

In *The Brothers Karamazov* specifically, Dostoevsky has used a polyphonic texture, and in some parts of the book, his doubts and complaints can be directly found, about the prevalence of injustice, cruelty and grief in the world. One of these speeches, which Alyosha calls it "the rebellion", is narrated by the nihilist Ivan, a chapter that may be ranked among the greatest pages of Western literature. In the poem of 'The Grand Inquisitor', the writer allows Ivan to reformulate his criticism of God's reality and harmony: "What do I care for a hell for oppressors? What good can hell

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*. *KJB*: "For this reason Christ died and returned to life, so that He might be the Lord of both the dead and the living".
†. *KJB*: "Thou fool, that which thou sowest is not quickened, except it die".
‡. *KJB*: "There shall be an handful of corn in the earth upon the top of the mountains; the fruit thereof shall shake like Lebanon and they of the city shall flourish like grass of the earth".

do, since those children have already been tortured? And what becomes of harmony, if there is hell? I want to forgive. I want to embrace. I don't want more suffering. And if the sufferings of children go to swell the sum of sufferings which was necessary to pay for truth, then I protest that the truth is not worth such a price. I don't want the mother to embrace the oppressor who threw her son to the dogs! She dare not forgive him! Let her forgive him for herself, if she will, let her forgive the torturer for the immeasurable suffering of her mother's heart. But the sufferings of her tortured child she has no right to forgive… It's not God that I don't accept, Alyosha, only I most respectfully return him the ticket." (*BK*, P2, B5, Ch4).

Although, In the notes to the manuscript (Frank, 2010: 788), Dostoevsky summarizes Ivan's position as the rejection not of God, but of the meaning of His creation.

The youngest brother, Alexei Fyodorovich Karamazov, is standing at the center of our two selected chapters. As the novel's protagonist, the nineteen years old Alyosha has a calm, tender and loving personality. Tymieniecka (2000: 373) states that, he's an almost Jesus-like characters, who is nevertheless unable to prevent the suffering of those around him.

a. A Laceration in the Cottage[*]

The scene that Alyosha visits the poor, insulted and injured Snegiryov family involves clear references to holy scriptures. He carries a message from Katerina Ivanovna, the noble yet offended fiancée of his brother Dmitri, with a generous donation.

The narrative axis of this scene is the oldest law of the human society: lex talionis (the law of retaliation). The first version of this law[†] is written in the Code of Hammurabi (See: Bonhomme & Boivin, 2010: 23-31). The same law was accepted in Jewish community and is mentioned in Exodus 21:24-25[‡]. But in the Sermon on the Mount (Matthew 5: 38-42)[§], Jesus advises his followers to go beyond this ancient law.

To grasp the essence of this plot, we have to review the prior chain of events. Dmitri has humiliated captain Snegiryov in a tavern; later, Snegiryov's young and ill son Ilusha has attacked Alyosha, as the brother of his father's assailant. Snegiryov commits to thrash the boy and then sarcastically suggests to cut off four of his own fingers to compensate for Alyosha's harm. But Alyosha is not seeking revenge, he has come to the Snegiryovs, offering a considerable amount of roubles from Katerina and the promise of an apology from Dmitri. The plot is enriched with an intricate network of offered equivalents: fiancée and brother for brother, money and apology for offense, punishment and fingers for finger.

Eventually, none of the actors of this narrative insist on retaliation. Alyosha has forgiven the child from the beginning, and Snegiryov rejects the generous offer that can transform his life: "This time his face was not contorted with laughter, but quivering all over with tears. In a tearful, faltering, sobbing voice he cried: What should I say to my boy if I took money from you for our shame?" (*BK*, P2, B4, Ch7). The injured man and the offended man both turn their other cheek and choose the righteous path of forgiveness and self-esteem.

b. An Onion[**]

The three brothers are corns of wheat, which fall and die in their own way. Among them, Alyosha has the deepest revelation. As Bill (2014: 2) has pointed out, the decomposition of Zossima's body forms the crucial moment in the development of Dostoevsky's last positive hero.

After Father Zosima's death, disillusionment at decay of his body face Alyosha with great temptations, which is reminiscent of Christ in the wilderness. When the expected miracle at Zosima's death does not materialize, he may lost his faith and fall into despair of *God*, the same trap Satan set for Jesus[††]. Awhile later he meets with one more terrestrial temptation, the spell of physical pleasure. Rakitin (type of Judas[‡‡]) brought Alyosha to the slaughter for some promised

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[*]. *BK*, P2, B4, Ch6.

[†]. "If a man destroys the eye of another man, they shall destroy his eye. If one breaks a man's bone, they shall break his bone. If one destroys the eye of a freeman or break the bone of a freeman, he shall pay one gold Mina. If one destroys the eye of a man's slave or break a bone of a man's slave he shall pay one-half his price".

[‡]. *KJB*: "Eye for eye, tooth for tooth, hand for hand, foot for foot, burning for burning, wound for wound, stripe for stripe".

[§]. *KJB*: "Ye have heard that it hath been said, an eye for an eye, and a tooth for a tooth: But I say unto you, that ye resist not evil: but whosoever shall smite thee on thy right cheek, turn to him the other also. And if any man will sue thee at the law, and take away thy coat, let him have thy cloke also. And whosoever shall compel thee to go a mile, go with him twain. Give to him that asketh thee, and from him that would borrow of thee turn not thou away".

[**]. *BK*, P3, B7, Ch3.

[††]. *KJB*, Matthew 4:5-7: "Then the devil taketh him up into the holy city, and setteth him on a pinnacle of the temple, and saith unto him: If thou be the Son of God, cast thyself down, for it is written, He shall give his angels charge concerning thee, and in their hands they shall bear thee up, lest at any time thou dash thy foot against a stone. Jesus said unto him: It is written again, thou shalt not tempt the Lord thy God". Referring to: *KJB*, Deuteronomy 6:16: "Ye shall not tempt the LORD your God, as ye tempted *him* in Massah".

[‡‡]. *KJB*, Matthew 26:14-16: "Then one of the twelve, called Judas Iscariot, went unto the chief priests. And said unto them: What will ye give me, and I will deliver him unto you? And they covenanted with him for thirty pieces of silver. And from that time he sought opportunity to betray him".

money, and he encounters with the great temptation of *console himself with seductive* Grushenka sitting on his knee and a table full of sausages and vodka; comparable to Satan's temptation of making bread out of stones in the desert where Jesus struggled with hunger after fasting forty days and nights[*].

But a momentary kindness from the wretched sinful woman (like Mary of Bethany[†]) is enough to soothe Alyosha's broken heart and save him from falling: "I came here to find a wicked soul- I felt drawn to evil because I was base and evil myself, and I've found a true sister; I have found a treasure- a loving heart. She had pity on me just now… Agrafena Alexandrovna, I am speaking of you. You've raised my soul from the depths." (*BK*, P3, B7, Ch3). And that's the onion she had given away.

The author has named the next chapter "Cana of Galilee", referring to the first miracle attributed to Jesus in the Gospel of John[‡]. The story could be interpreted as: it's always darkest before the dawn, but good things are on the way, or perhaps a sign of Christ's compassion for the poor as Dostoevsky writes: "It was not men's grief, but their joy Christ visited, He worked His first miracle to help men's gladness... His heart was open even to the simple, artless merrymaking of some obscure and unlearned people, who had warmly bidden Him to their poor wedding." (*BK*, P3, B7, Ch4).

Alyosha's redemption occurs after hearing this hymn, so after that he left the monastery in accordance with the words of his elder, to sojourn in the world and care for others, "With every instant he felt clearly and, as it were, tangibly, that something firm and unshakable as that vault of heaven had entered into his soul. It was as though some idea had seized the sovereignty of his mind- and it was for all his life and for ever and ever. He had fallen on the earth a weak boy, but he rose up a resolute champion" (*BK*, P3, B7, Ch4).

4. Conclusion

This intertextual study of some parts of the Dostoevsky's latest and greatest novel, *The Brothers Karamazov*, reveals the author's deep concern about his religious and mystical tendencies. Dostoevsky has a special rendition of the holy scriptures, in his own Russian style. But, he does not turn the story to a religious statement, and also does not fall into the abyss of advice or propaganda. His writing is the battlefield of common ethical thoughts and philosophical topics; therefore, it always remains fresh and attractive. Dostoevsky's fondness of Russian monasticism has given him modesty, peace and hope. His major message is to love others unconditionally and he believes in suffering as a way to eradicate one's sin. It seems that in his writing, by using the biblical scriptures as the symbolic roots of events, he has intended to achieve a terrestrial and humane interpretation of the holy texts.

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[*]. *KJB*, Matthew 4:3-4: "And when the tempter came to him, he said: If thou be the Son of God, command that these stones be made bread. But he answered and said: It is written, Man shall not live by bread alone, but by every word that proceedeth out of the mouth of God". Referring to: *KJB*, Deuteronomy 8:3: "And he humbled thee, and suffered thee to hunger, and fed thee with manna, which thou knewest not, neither did thy fathers know; that he might make thee know that man doth not live by bread only, but by every word that proceedeth out of the mouth of the LORD doth man live".

[†]. *KJB*, John 12:3 "Then took Mary a pound of ointment of spikenard, very costly, and anointed the feet of Jesus, and wiped his feet with her hair: and the house was filled with the odour of the ointment".

[‡]. *KJB*, John 2:7-11: Jesus saith unto them: Fill the waterpots with water. And they filled them up to the brim. And he saith unto them: Draw out now, and bear unto the governor of the feast. And they bare it. When the ruler of the feast had tasted the water that was made wine, and knew not whence it was (but the servants which drew the water knew;) the governor of the feast called the bridegroom, and saith unto him: Every man at the beginning doth set forth good wine; and when men have well drunk, then that which is worse. but thou hast kept the good wine until now. This beginning of miracles did Jesus in Cana of Galilee, and manifested forth his glory; and his disciples believed on him.

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The Category of Polysemy in the Crimean Tatar Somatic Phraseology

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Abstract

The article deals with the semantic analysis of the Crimean Tatar language's phraseological units, the category of polysemy. The most important in the categorization of the world is the somatic phraseology, the linguistic universality, which is found in all languages of the world [A. M. Emirova, 2013, p. 25]. The purpose of the work was identifying polysemy idioms in the Crimean Tatar somatic phraseology. The object of the study was somatic phraseological units of an idiomatic nature, which were selected from dictionaries [Y. Kurkchi, 2011; A. M. Emirova, 2004; S. Useinov, 2013]. The methodological basis of the research was the works in the field of phraseology by V. V. Vinogradov, N. M. Shansky, A. I. Molotkov, A. M. Emirova, and other native and foreign scientists.

During the analysis polysemantic idioms (about 100 units), reflecting the mental properties of the individual, were revealed. The content of phraseological units is anthropocentric: the phraseology covers those areas of reality that are associated with a person and his assessment of the "world's picture". The tendency to polysemy is mainly inherent to idioms, in the composition of which there are polysemantic somatic words: bash 'head' and koz 'eye'. This statement is explained by the fact that the above somatic words perform the main physiological functions of the body. The idioms with two meanings (about 90 units) were met the most frequent, the idioms with three meanings (10 units) - rarely. Phraseological units are called complex concepts, so they are less transferable than lexical units.

Keywords: The Crimean Tatar language, Somatic phraseology, Phraseological nest, Polysemy.

Introduction

The system analysis of phraseological units (PhU) implies the identification of polysemantic idioms in the phraseological nest, presented as "a set of different-structured phraseological units containing the same word in different paradigmatic forms" [A. M. Emirova, 2013, p. 96]. In the Crimean Tatar language, the most common phraseological nests are represented by idioms with components: "eye", "head", "hand", "mouth", "heart", etc.

The Swiss linguist, Sh. Bally, noted that the native language was quickly learned by combining words into groups and emotional associations. "Every single word is a loop of the thinnest network, which is woven by our memory of an unimaginable set of fibers; thousands of associative links converge in each word and diverge from it in all directions. Thus, words associating with each other are remembered much easier; on the other hand, a variety of associations gives us more freedom in the use of speech facts, because these associations represent not one, but many possibilities of combining words" [Sh. Bally, 2001, p. 89]. Phraseological units like words also form a network in our memory. Polysemy seems to be interesting, which explicates the presence in the PhU of several semantic variants connected on the basis of various associations.

The category of polysemy was developed by Russian scientists [A. I. Molotkov, 1977; N. M. Shansky, 1996, p. 36–42; D.N. Shmelev, 1977, p. 68–130; Yu. D. Apresyan, 1995, p. 164-215]; in addition, see the dissertations [A. R. Popova, 2005; E. Yu. Fedosova, 2007]. In the Turkic languages, phraseological polysemy was studied on the material: Karachay-Balkarian [I. M. Otarov, 1996, p. 195–197], Kumyk [A. Z. Abdullaeva, 2002; M.I. Mugidova, 2005], Bashkir [Z. G. Uraksin, 1975, p. 38–47] and other languages. However, in the Crimean Tatar language polysemy is considered fragmentary: lexical polysemy is in [S. S. Bilyalova, 2017], phraseological polysemy – in a number of works by A. M. Emirova [A. M. Emirova, 2013, p. 86–88; A. M. Emirova, 2008, p. 26–30].

The tendency to ambiguity is mainly inherent in idioms with somatic words *bash* 'head' and *koz* 'eyes'. This statement can be explained by the fact that the above somatic words perform the main physiological functions of the body, and therefore they are most frequent in the component composition of phraseological units. It should be emphasized that the somatic word *bash* 'head', as noted by A. M. Emirova [A. M. Emirova, 2013, p. 122–124], in the Crimean Tatar language has more meanings than indicated in the Crimean Tatar dictionaries (see [Sh. Asanov, 1988, p. 34; S. M. Useinov, 1994, p. 49]).

Similarly, it is possible to note about the lexeme *koz* 'eye', which in the Crimean Tatar dictionary is represented by two lexical-semantic variants (see [S. M. Useinov, 1994, p. 132]), in the Turkish – nine: 1) an eye, 2) a sight, 3) a look,

a glance, 4) an evil eye, 5) a hole, eyelet, 6) cell compartment, department, 7) aperture, arch, 8) peephole, bud (plants, trees), 9) source, key. Seven meanings are revealed in the Crimean Tatar language, except for the seventh and ninth.

As part of the phraseological units, the following seeds are updated: 1) *eki kozyunin birini chapchip alyr kim, kimnin* (literally, to whip smb.'s one of two eyes) 'cunning, quick-witted, able to take advantage of another's mistake'; 2) *<oz> kozlerine inanmamaq [ishanmamaq] kim, kimnin* (literally, not to believe, not to rely on someone's eyes, on smb.'s) 'to be utterly surprised at what he saw'; 3) *koz ogünden kechirmek kim, kimnin, kimni / neni* (literally, to look at in front of the eye) 'take a glance at smth.'; 4) *yaman koz kimde* (literally, bad eye smb.) 'Nordic concepts: the human mind, inflicting harm'.

In the Crimean Tatar phraseology, the polysemy is represented mainly by two meanings (about 90 units): *bash kotermek kim* (literally, to raise the head of somebody) 1) 'to start acting, to actively manifest oneself, gaining confidence', 2) 'to claim one's rights'; *bash joymak kim* (literally, to lose one's head, consciousness of smb.) 1) 'be unreasonable, be at a loss', 2) 'to fall recklessly in love'; *yuregi kafesine [ichine] sigmay kimnin, neden* (literally, the heart does not fit in the chest, inside smb., from smth.) 1) 'smb. is in a state of anxiety', 2) 'smb. is very happy'; *burnuni qabartmaq kim, kimnin* (literally, puff up the nose of smb.) 1) 'to put on airs', 2) 'to be offended'; *koz ogunden kechirmek kim, kimnin, kimni/neni* (literally, to hold before eyes smb.) 1) 'look around', 2) 'remember'; *qolu [eli] bar [olmak] kimnin, nede* (literally, hand is) 1) 'be involved in smth. (usually, reprehensible)', 2) 'take special care in smth.'; *quyrukni biraqmamaq kim, kimnin* (literally, not to leave a tail smb., smb's) 1) strongly influence on smb., 2) catch up with smb.

Illustrations convey the polysemic meanings of idioms more accurately. For example:

1. Choq yazyq ki, mynavy Toremurat meselesi menim *bashymny aylandyrdy* [Ch. A., s. 152].

2. Mesele shunda ki, oyle yigitler bizge qysmet olmagan. Olarnyn tez *bashlaryny aylandyralar* [Ch. A., s. 212].

3. Begdiyar Nadyrovich bu ishlernin episini aqylyna, *koz ogyune ketire* ve gedzheleri yuqusyndan uyanyp, sofaga chyqa da, Galiya apa kormegen arada, tyutyun chekmege medzhbur ola [Ch. A., s. 189].

4. Lyakin Qurtnezir emdzhesi de o erde chalyshkanyny ve Nazimnin bu ishke gaet aves etkenini *koz ogyune ketirerek*, ekindzhi kunyu biraz yimshap bashlady [Ch. A., s. 200].

The idiom *bash aylandyrmaq* in the first sentence means 'to lose one's mind from a variety of works', in the second – 'to fall recklessly in love'. The idiom *koz ogüne ketirmek* in the third sentence means 'to remember smth. as significant, important, exceptional', in the fourth – 'to take note of'.

As can be seen from the above examples, the figurative basis of both semantic variants of phraseological units is the same. The subsequent meaning of idioms goes back to the previous one, which indicates the chain model of polysemy. For example, the first meaning of the phraseological unit *yuregine qoymaq kim, kimnin, neni* (literally, put on smb.'s heart, smb., smth.) 'to think about smth. exciting' became the basis for the emergence of his second meaning 'to fall in love with smb.' because a feeling of excitement is also present when a person feels love. The following examples are similar: *agzyny achmaq kim, kimnin* (literally. open smb.'s mouth, smb.) 1) 'to start saying smth. to smb', 2) to be extremely amazed'; *yurek ashamaq kim, kimnin* (literally, eating smb.'s heart) 'annoying, harassing with endless reproaches, remarks, cursing', 2) 'to arouse painful memories, to worry'; *koz ogyune almaq [ketirmek] kim, kimnin, kimni / neni* (literally, take to the eyes of smb.'s, smth.) 1) 'to remember smb. or smth. as something significant, important, exceptional', 2) 'to take note of' and etc.

It is known that the figurative basis of a phraseological unit goes back to the prototype phrase, where its meaning is transformed through metaphor and metonymy (see [A. M. Emirova, 2013, p. 66–68; A. M. Emirova, 2008, p. 35–37]).

In most cases, the second meaning of idioms is formed on the basis of a metaphor, that is, the transfer of meaning by the similarity of objects or phenomena. For example, the PhU *aqyldan azmaq kim* (literally, less mind becomes in smb.) has meaning: 1) 'to become crazy', 2) 'to lose one's mind from old age, to act unreasonably like children who are educated by the similarity of the behavior of old and sick people'. The following are examples of such phraseological units: *aqlyna qoymaq kim, kimnin, neni* (literally, put it on smb.'s mind, smth.) 1) 'by repeating to make it learn, memorize smth.', 2 'inspire smth., convince smth.'; *burnuni qabartmaq kim, kimnin* (literally, puff up the nose of smb.) 1) 'to put on airs', 2) 'to be offended' and etc.

Polysemic idioms, the second semantic versions of which are formed by metonymy, transfer of meaning by contiguity, close connection of objects or phenomena, can also be found in the basis of phraseological units. For example: *belini dogrultamamaq [kotermemek] kim, kimnin* (literally, do not straighten, raise the back of smb.) 1) 'work hard until exhaustion', 2) not be able to improve their financial situation'. The second meaning of phraseological unit is based on the close connection between the fact that a person must work hard in order to improve his financial situation. Similar examples: *belini [belkemigini] sindirmaq [qyrmaq] kim, kimnin* (literally, to break the loin, the backbone of smb.) 1) 'to coerce, to make smb. obey', 2) 'to cause evil to smb.'; *koz tyshta [qapyda] olmaq kimnin* (literally, eyes on the street, on the door) 1) 'wish to leave, go from somewhere', 2) 'to be unfaithful to the spouse' and others.

Less common are idioms that can have three meanings (10 units): *bir sheyde koz olmamaq [qalmamaq] kimnin* (literally, nothing on anyone's eyes) 1) 'to be absorbed in your thoughts; deepen in your thoughts without noticing the surrounding', 2) 'to become withdrawn, stop communicating with people, avoid them', 3) 'suddenly feel acute pain, strong anger, fear, etc.'; *bash kotermek kim* (literally, to raise smb.'s head) 1) 'to begin to act, actively express themselves, gaining confidence', 2) 'to assert one's rights', 3) 'to hold on arrogantly, take pride'; *bashyna <bir> ish [belya] achmaq kim, kimnin* (literally, to open on smb. work, trouble) 1) 'to start most often a troublesome business', 2) 'to put smb. into a difficult, hopeless situation', 3) 'to draw upon smb. trouble'; *yuregine [qalbine] kirmek kim / ne, kimnin* (literally, to enter someone's heart) 1) 'cause affection, love to smb', 2) 'to go into smb.'s mercy', 3) 'to seek favor with oneself, trusting relationships', etc.

In the above examples, there is a chain-radial type of polysemy, in which semantic variants are associated with the basic meaning of a phraseological unit and among themselves. For example, the idiom *bash egmek kim, kimnin, kimge* (literally, tilting smb.'s head, smb.) has two derivative meanings connected consistently: 1) 'to respect the enemy, recognize yourself defeated', 2) 'to treat with respect to smb.; bow before smb.', 3) 'pleasing, flattering, seeking smb. s patronage'. See also the PhU *miyine urmaq ne, kimnin* (literally, hitting brains with smth., smb.'s) 1) 'accidentally appears in the mind, suddenly presents itself, thinks', 2) 'to become clear, understandable', 3) 'show excessive arousal, rampage', etc.

In the phraseological unit *bash [miy, miyini-bashyny] aylandyrmaq kim, kimnin* (literally, dizzy, brains smb.) with the meanings: 1) 'deny the ability to think clearly, reasonably, soberly assess the environment', 2) 'deliberately inspire smth. knowing wrong, false, trying to deceive, to hold smb.', 3) 'to please smb., entice, seduce smb.' traced the radial type of polysemy, the second and third meanings of which are associated with the first.

Conclusions. The object of the study revealed idioms (about 100 units), reflecting the mental properties of the individual. The content of phraseological units is anthropocentric: the phraseology covers those areas of reality that are associated with a person and his assessment of the "world's picture".

The tendency to ambiguity is mainly inherent in idioms, in the composition of which there are polysemantic somatic words: *bash* 'head' and *koz* 'eye'. This statement is explained by the fact that the above somatic words perform the main physiological functions of the body.

The idioms with two meanings (about 90 units) were met the most frequent, the idioms with three meanings (10 units) - rarely. Phraseological units are called complex concepts, so they are less transferable than lexical units. The transformation of the values of idioms from phrases-prototypes in most cases occurred through metaphor, the idioms formed on the basis of metonymy are less common.

The problems raised do not claim to be complete. In this article, an attempt is made to describe the Crimean Tatar picture of the world fragmentary. The prospect of further research is the study of other system categories in the somatic idioms' nest of the Crimean Tatar language.

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Fiction in the Context of Developing Students' Professional and Communicative Competencies (in the Field of Hospitality)

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Abstract

The article discusses the methodological potential of fiction in developing professional and communicative competencies of Hospitality students based on interdisciplinary approach. The study focuses on the most actual aspects of speech culture and describes the ways of developing professionally oriented communicative competencies and the basics of professional speech training of bachelors in the field of Hospitality. Particular attention is paid to the specifics of the occupational novel, in which special vocabulary is widely used, and various systems and mechanisms are described in detail. Hotel, an occupational novel by Arthur Hailey, can be used in teaching Hospitality students as source material for consolidating knowledge about the status and role-based dynamics between hotel staff, communicative strategies and tactics, types and forms of speech, rules of speech etiquette in business communication, as well as for improving oral (public speaking) and written (creative work) language skills. The content of this novel allows students to gain a better understanding of their future professional activities. The article emphasizes that learning professional communication culture fundamentals goes in hand with the development of professional (study subject) competence of a prospective specialist. Hence it is suggested that students have a solid understanding of the hospitality industry, its main areas, forms and methods of working with clients. This paper describes the most effective tasks and the questions aimed at studying situations of business communication presented in the novel text, as well as the national specifics of business and speech etiquette and various strategies and tactics of communicative behavior in the framework of English communicative culture. The purpose of this work is to demonstrate the role of literary texts in developing professionally-oriented communicative competencies of bachelors in the field of hospitality.

Keywords: communicative aspect, competence and interdisciplinary approach, communicative strategy, verbal tactics, communicative actions, fiction text.

1. Introduction

The concept of modern higher education is focused on implementing the competence approach, i.e. on promoting the student's ability to utilize and implement the acquired knowledge, skills and techniques as well as work methods in solving practical and theoretical problems.

The competence approach is reflected in the Federal State Educational Standards (FSES HE) developed for higher education. They specify the competences (general cultural, general professional, professional) that students should acquire as a result of completing a particular educational program.

One of the mandatory components of the modern day specialist training is the communicative competence that lays the foundation for professionalism. In order to be successful in the modern business world, a specialist should not only have expertise but also possess the communication skills that have key importance for all career stages, with job application and screening interview being the starting point. The following abilities are seen as essential:

– expressing thoughts clearly and consistently, writing and speaking, drawing up documents, careful listening, asking and answering questions;

– building constructive working relationships in a team, respecting a different opinion, settling disagreements/resolving conflicts, making contracts, negotiating;

– analyzing different situations and working out a number of appropriate approaches, formulating solutions;

– adapting to change.

In the context of globalization, the communicative competence is also a necessary attribute of inter-cultural communication as professional contacts with foreign colleagues (partners) continue to expand.

Developing professionally-oriented communicative competences is one of the fundamentals of specialist training in the field of hospitality and mastering the language of profession. The National Standard of the Russian Federation (GOST RF 54603-2011), effective January 1, 2013, contains basic general requirements that should be met by staff working in the hospitality industry. These include, for example, *the ability* to serve and take care of guests, to manage staff tactfully in the service provision process, as well as the ability to apply the incentive systems and manage conflict situations; *knowledge* of interpersonal communication principles, the etiquette, and the basics of psychology; *the ability* to work with guests' complaints and answer their questions. A hospitality specialist

should: ensure successful consumer services provision, interact with customers in a conflict-free manner, establish interpersonal contacts, understand the common problems that define a specific area of professional activity, be able to make decisions both in standard and emergency situations.

In this regard, the Hotel Management graduates of the Russian University of Transport are required to have in-depth understanding of communication principles, full proficiency in all types of language domains (*listening, speaking, reading, writing*), solid public speaking skills, knowledge of tactics and strategies in business conversations, negotiations, etc.

Communicative training of students is implemented as a part of basic (mandatory) courses (disciplines) and is aimed at teaching practical use of communication means (verbal and non-verbal) and choosing the means most appropriate to a specific communicative situation.

2. Academic Disciplines and Their Role in Forming Professionally-oriented Communicative Competences: The Tasks, Structure and Content

Professionally-oriented communicative competences of prospective hospitality specialists are acquired in the process of studying such disciplines as Russian Language and Speech Culture, Verbal Communication, Foreign Language, Business (Professional) Foreign Language, on completing which a graduate should be able to practice, as per FSES HE, "*verbal and written business communication in the state language(s) of the Russian Federation and in foreign language(s)*".

A range of topics for a Russian language teacher to pay particular attention to when working with students is determined within each academic discipline. Since the training is aimed at developing communicative competences of prospective specialists in the field of Hospitality and therefore should take into account the specifics of their future professional activity, the primary criterion for choosing the range of topics is their applicability to business (professional) communication.

2.1. Russian Language and Speech Culture

When teaching Russian Language and Speech Culture to first year students the communicative and ethical aspects of speech culture are emphasized, i.e.:

− business style characteristics, specifics of verbal and written formal communication (namely, argumentation principles and handling business negotiations; drawing-up and arranging technical texts and business documents in accordance with requirements for written business language);

− characteristics of academic style, whose features and conventions students should master in order to write abstracts, term papers and final qualifying papers;

− public speech and presentation skills (that includes audience engagement and interaction techniques, debating skills, using *words* as tools for argumentation and persuasion).

A teacher's work objective is to help students master the communication culture, which implies *knowledge* of the functions and basic units of the language, the basics of the oral and written communication theory, the laws, principles and rules of effective communication in different fields of activity; *the ability* to establish and adapt speech interactions to one's communicative intent; to overcome barriers in communication; to construct statements in the form of a dialogue or a monologue making use of the effective communication rules; *having practical skills* to draw-up and structure written texts of different target orientation for academic and business communication; *techniques* for persuading and influencing the audience and conflict-free interactions in business (professional) settings.

In order for students to fully master the art of using targeted persuasive language, Russian Language and Speech Culture classes do not focus solely on the sections related to studying specifics of oral and written language in academic and business communication, but also concentrate on developing practical rhetoric skills – such as public speaking, principles and rules of conflict-free interaction, polemics, persuasion techniques, etc.

2.2. Verbal Communication

Formation and development of professionally-oriented communicative competence and enhancement of speech culture of a graduating prospective specialist in Hospitality remains the focus of the studies in the 3rd year when teaching the Verbal Communication course [Goichman, Nadeina 2008].

The primary goal of Verbal Communication is to give students a systematic understanding of verbal communication and develop professional knowledge of speech activities, taking into account the ethical, sociolinguistic and psychological aspects of speech interaction. The course learning objectives include a deeper understanding of language and speech, the forms of speech and the types of Russian speech culture, improvement of all aspects of language skills (speaking, listening, reading and writing); covering psychological, social and behavioral components of communication, as well as specifics of speech and speech behavior in interpersonal communication and social interaction. Special attention is paid to speech ethics and etiquette (verbal and non-verbal)

with particular focus on nation-specific features, and the problem of recognition and effective use of speech tactics in communication.

On completing the Verbal Communication course each student should acquire readiness to engage in communication, skills of conflict-free teamwork, demonstrate tolerant approach to ethnic, national, racial or religious differences, and openness to cultures and customs of other countries and nationalities.

It's worth noting that the above-mentioned knowledge, skills and techniques which our students are to acquire have an evident rhetorical component. And this is no coincidence: "it is the rhetorical approach focused on finding, theoretical understanding and practical implementation of the optimal ways of mastering the art of effective, successful, functional speech" [Yerokhina 2017, p. 151], based on the achievements in communication psychology, linguistics of text, sociolinguistics, logic, and culture of speech, allowing us to look at the communication phenomenon from the point of view of various disciplines, that is the most promising and productive in helping students acquire communicative competencies and use coherent, appropriate, effective, harmonizing language in the field of business (professional) communication.

Department of Russian Language and Cross-cultural Communications at the Russian University of Transport (RUT-MIIT) has prepared a number of study guides aimed at improving the level of speech culture development and solidifying spoken and written language skills of students majoring in Hospitality and Tourism [Serpikova 2008; Serpikova 2011; Serpikova, Shekhurdina 2008; Serpikova, Shekhurdina 2014; Skorikova 2001]. The department has also published two issues of the Verbal Communication course study guides [Skorikova, Shekhurdina 2007; Shekhurdina, Skorikova 2014] and a course of lectures [Shekhurdina 2018] containing necessary information for the students to prepare for training sessions and self-study.

2.3. Foreign Language
2.3.1. General Foreign Language Course

Learning a foreign language (English, German or French) is an integral part of professional university training encouraging comprehensive development of their communicative, cognitive, informational, socio-cultural, professional and general cultural competences: target foreign language proficiency for the 1st and 2nd year of study is Intermediate (B1) and/or Upper Intermediate (B2); for the 3rd and 4th year of study – professionally-oriented language learning (B2 level – Upper Intermediate or C1 – Advanced) depending on the students' initial level of language proficiency.

Teaching a foreign language is based on the models that are communication-oriented, culturally appropriate and education-targeted, integrative, non-linear and encourage learner autonomy.

The communication orientation principle implies prevalence of speaking, problem – solving and creative tasks over purely linguistic and repetition drill exercises, as well as the use of real-life situations of communication, development of spontaneous response in the communicational process, encouraging willingness to engage in target foreign language communication in various situations.

Culturally appropriate and education-targeted models are based on careful selection of the course topics, language, speech and country-specific materials, as well as the types of tasks and study formats that take into account the students' age, possible context of activity and educational needs [Foreign Language 2009].

Actual communicative and socio-cultural skills are developed in line with the norms of socially acceptable communication in the countries of the studied language. Special attention is paid to getting rid of negative stereotypes and false beliefs about other countries and the students' home country in order to prevent them from acquiring incorrect and one-sided notions about a foreign language culture that ignore the existing social, ethnic and other characteristics of different groups of citizens.

The integrative principle involves integration of knowledge from different disciplines, simultaneous development of both general and professionally-oriented informational, academic and social communication skills.

The nonlinearity principle is characterized by combined use of different sources of information and recycling previously studied material in different parts of the course for solving new problems.

The learner autonomy model is defined by making information about the course structure, assignment and control requirements, written and oral test evaluation criteria, as well as the use of supplementary education resources for adjusting individual learning path available to students. The combination of classroom and self-study work ensures a high level of students' personal responsibility for the results of their study efforts and offers them the opportunity to chose the sequence and intensity of learning the course material allowing them to meet control deadlines, etc.

2.3.2. Business (Professional) Foreign Language

The main goal of the Business (Professional) Foreign Language course is to develop professionally-oriented communicative competence in the target foreign language enabling graduates to practice business communication in the cross-cultural context for performing professional tasks. This involves:

gaining knowledge about lexical and grammatical means of the target foreign language in communicative situations in a business setting; norms of business etiquette, rules of drawing-up business documentation, principles of business and corporate ethics in cross-cultural environments; ways of expressing spacial-temporal, logical, modal, quantitative and qualitative relations in a foreign language; foreign language terminology in the chosen professional field and methods of compiling term glossaries; guidelines for formatting documents, putting together and delivering presentation materials appropriate for professional communication; rules and principles of annotation, writing abstracts and translation of professionally-oriented texts;

learning skills for writing project papers, creating and editing professional texts in the target language (business correspondence, reports, instructions, presentations); filling-out forms, keeping a record of general thoughts and facts, writing reports; gathering, analyzing and systematizing information from foreign language sources for professional purposes; producing logical, grounded and clear (monologue and dialogue) speech and written texts; preparing abstracts, annotating and translating professionally-oriented texts; converting professional and business data from one format to another (i.e. text to table, audiovisual sequence to text, etc.); understanding the content when reading authentic specialized texts from different media; understanding spoken language within the scope of professional subjects; compiling term glossaries; writing speeches, making presentations, reporting, speaking at conferences;

acquiring lexical, grammatical, structural and compositional language skills within the subjects of cross-cultural business communication; skills for finding, understanding, analyzing, summarizing and systematizing information in a foreign language; skills for creating texts of different types for oral and written communication, as well as studying foreign experience in the chosen professional field; solid understanding of speech culture and non-verbal behavior in the context of cross-cultural business communication, public speaking skills in a foreign language; ability to work independently with multilingual electronic dictionaries, databases, search engines in foreign languages; techniques for annotation, abstracting and translation.

The course has the following learning objectives:

– lexico-grammatical means of a foreign language in communicative situations of business interactions;

– business etiquette rules, guidelines for creating business documentation, business and corporate ethics in cross-cultural communication;

– ways of expressing spacial-temporal, logical, modal, quantitative and qualitative relations in a foreign language;

– foreign language terminology in the chosen professional field;

– guidelines for drawing-up and formatting documentation, generally accepted standards of preparing and presenting visual aids in professional communication, principles of annotation, abstracting and translation of professionally-oriented texts.

On completing the course, the student should

have solid knowledge of lexical and grammatical means of the target foreign language in communicative situations in a business setting; norms of business etiquette, rules of drawing-up business documentation, principles of business and corporate ethics in cross-cultural environments; ways of expressing spacial-temporal, logical, modal, quantitative and qualitative relations in a foreign language; foreign language terminology in the chosen professional field and methods of compiling term glossaries; guidelines for formatting documents, putting together and delivering presentation materials appropriate for professional communication; rules and principles of annotation, abstracting and translation of professionally-oriented texts;

be capable of writing project papers, creating and editing professional texts in the target language (business correspondence, reports, instructions, presentations); filling-out forms, keeping a record of general thoughts and facts, writing reports; gathering, analyzing and systematizing information from foreign language sources for professional purposes; producing logical, grounded and clear (monologue and dialogue) speech and written texts; preparing abstracts, annotating and translating professionally-oriented texts; converting professional and business data from one format to another (i.e. text to table, audiovisual sequence to text, etc.); understanding the content when reading authentic specialized texts from different media; understanding spoken language within the scope of professional subjects; compiling term glossaries; writing and delivering speeches, making presentations, reporting, speaking at conferences.

acquire lexical, grammatical, structural and compositional language skills within the subjects of cross-cultural business communication; skills for finding, understanding, analyzing, summarizing and systematizing information in

a foreign language; skills for creating texts of different types for oral and written communication, as well as studying foreign experience in the chosen professional field; solid understanding of speech culture and non-verbal behavior in the context of cross-cultural business communication, public speaking skills in a foreign language; ability to work independently with multilingual electronic dictionaries, databases, search engines in foreign languages; techniques for annotation, abstracting and translation [CEFR 2001].

Academic work with students is conducted using study guides and teaching aids created by Department of Linguodidactics [Fedotkina, Demchenko, Serpikova 2012; Matveeva 2012; Matveeva 2016; Fedotkina, Serpikova 2018; Fedotkina, Serpikova 2018] and structured with a view to the students' prospective career.

The content of the foreign language education programs and the previously listed academic disciplines clearly points to the professionally-oriented communicative focus of the training, that is intended for developing the competence these disciplines have in common - the ability of a graduate to conduct "*written and spoken business communication in the state language(s) of the Russian Federation and a foreign language(s)*".

Besides, as we have noted, the above-mentioned knowledge, skills and techniques have a pronounced rhetorical component. This shows the long felt need for the Bachelor's program curricula to include a course on practical rhetoric aimed at studying oral and written use of language based on the requirements of the speech culture and stylistics and incorporating teaching academic writing and business communication. This kind of course would allow a technical (non-linguistic) university student to assimilate communicative culture, while the systemic nature of rhetoric rooted in humanities would make it easy to integrate the entire university's academic process into the discipline. The ability to use rhetorical tools in their native language proves to be advantageous for students in learning a foreign language, when professional language proficiency is essential for a specialist's competitiveness in today's job market and is one of the means of achieving personal career ambitions.

3. Development of Professionally-oriented Communicative Competences: Literary Approach

Professional knowledge and high level of acquisition of professionally-oriented communicative competences are necessary for successful interaction in the field of hospitality. That is why the faculty's efforts to make their work of developing students' communicative competences as efficient as possible make them look for new work methods.

3.1. Interdisciplinary Approach in University Teaching

Interdisciplinary integration is one of the most important resources for enhancing the quality of education. Interdisciplinary approach implies dissolving boundaries between traditional study subjects, teaching in the context of more generalized themes and trends vs. narrow disciplines, stimulating learner's cognitive activity, and developing wholistic professional thinking.

Absence of an integrative course on communicative training from a university's curriculum (certain aspects related to communicative training are included in the framework of such disciplines as Introductory Professional Course, Russian Language and Speech Culture, Foreign Language, Verbal Communication, Psychology, etc.) creates a contradiction between fragmentary knowledge acquired from a variety of disciplines and the need for its integrated application in the future professional activity; between having to synthesize, integrate knowledge, skills and techniques in the actual professional communication and a highly specialized approach to teaching course content in different disciplines, and the lack of uniformity in presenting certain elements related to the theory and practice of communication. That's why interdisciplinary approach to learning requires close cooperation between teachers of different disciplines and coordinated curricula to avoid these contradictions.

The main ways of integrating interdisciplinary relations into communicative training are: reviewing previously studied facts and concepts, problem-solving assignments, writing papers based on sources related to other disciplines, etc. Such study formats encourage students' ability to consolidate knowledge, think logically, and systematize their communicative knowledge. Refreshing and problem-solving tasks that require revisiting and synthesizing knowledge or applying skills from various completed courses in a new setting is a training technique central to interdisciplinary approach.

In our practical classes we strive to focus the training process not only on learning the subject content of the discipline, but also on promoting students' communicative and cognitive activities required for professional interactions. To achieve this, we tend to use active, communication-oriented methods and techniques of learning not only for actual communication in the classroom, but also in situations modeled on literary texts.

A number of studies on interdisciplinary approach in university teaching have appeared in recent years that raise interest from the teaching methodology standpoint [Dudnik 2011; Shestakova 2013; Temyakova 2014; etc].

Productive ideas can be found in an article by T.V. Temyakova describing application of the literary approach in teaching the Administration and Business Planning in Service Industry Enterprises and Economics and Entrepreneurship in Tourism disciplines. The author describes her experience of using A. Hailey's novel, Hotel, as

source material for learning how to apply the SWOT- analysis tool to service organization activities, as well as for studying specifics of the company acquisition process in the hotel industry in a foreign country. Besides, the author suggests using another novel by A. Hailey, Airport, in the course of teaching Tourism Operations Management as it has plenty of case study material from the passenger air transportation standpoint and would introduce students to many technological and supporting processes that lie at the core of air travel in literary form. In our opinion, Three Men in a Boat (To Say Nothing of the Dog) by Jerome K. Jerome would have as much potential within the Geography of Tourism course as the students could follow the path of the three old friends and the dog on the map, develop a literary tour route and make a presentation about it in Russian and/or English [Temyakova 2014].

The idea of using fiction in the educational process is not a novelty, however its application potential has clearly been underestimated for a long time.

Any literary text reflects the national and cultural aspects, the characteristic features of a country's culture, it acts as a "carrier and source of objective information about the world, a mirror of a people's life and culture" (D. S Likhachov). Communication-oriented approach to selecting educational content for the Foreign Language course implies focusing on acquisition of language as a means of communication in real-life situations relevant to students' needs. Examples of such situations can be found in authentic literary texts. This kind of text acts as a driving force for real communication, creates a content-rich basis for teaching all types of speech activity, serves as study material, a source and a means for new language units, contains examples of word use, including foreign language professional terminology.

A.O. Dudnik in her thesis research on the use of fiction in teaching Business English suggests using modern literary works that reflect specific behaviors of business people from different cultural backgrounds while also touching upon the moral aspect of business culture. The Market Maker by Michael Ridpath, one of Britain's most famous contemporary writers, can serve as an example of such a novel reflective of today's business culture. The novel text is rich in professional terminology, it depicts the realities of modern life and national specifics of behaving in a business environment (i.e. relationships between co-workers, supervisors and subordinates, competitors), valued business qualities (loyalty, openness, spotless reputation, workaholism), the target language country's national mindset and business traditions (careful employee selection, considerate attitude, teamwork). The book also deals with such problems as fierce competition, hypocrisy and moral exhaustion, profit at all costs, etc., thereby giving students a complex view of the business culture of the target language country. The novel contents suggest that the course material can be arranged in accordance with the typical business interactions: Employment, People at work, Negotiations, Ethics (business ethics) - in their comparative analysis with regard to the business culture types, which differ by the ways of doing business in terms of "communication", "organization" and "management" [Dudnik 2011, p.16-17].

The use of fiction in foreign language classes contributes to the creation of a natural cultural environment. The educational potential of such texts lies a) in their cognitive value, as they contain information about different areas of life in the target language country, give students a better idea of the mentality of native speakers, help overcome cultural prejudices and stereotypes; b) in their motivational value, as they encourage expression of own thoughts in a foreign language and provide ample opportunities for developing various types of language skills; c) in their developmental value aimed at enhancing individual perception, allowing to gain insight into the diversity of language forms, and appreciate the richness of the studied language. The main criterion for selecting a work of fiction for business foreign language studies is its authenticity and professional orientation [Dudnik 2011, p. 8].

In this article we would like to discuss using the "occupational novel" genre of fiction for developing students' professionally-oriented communicative competences.

For many years, when teaching subjects such as Russian Language and Speech Culture, Verbal Communication and Foreign Language (English) to Hotel Management students of the Russian University of Transport we have been actively using the text of A. Hailey's Hotel [Hailey 1965]. It should be noted that the interest students take in these classes and their academic achievements (successful passing of exams) prove the effectiveness and high practical value of such work that allows us to accomplish several simultaneous goals, including expanding students' vocabulary, developing their analytical reading skills, teaching discussion principles, improving and reinforcing their public speaking skills, reviewing communication strategies and tactics. In addition to that, the course teacher can develop role-play exercises, case studies and simulation scenarios of business games based on the literary material, actively involving students in the process.

3.2. Educational Potential of Fiction: Occupational Novel
3.2.1. Genre and Style Characteristics of the Occupational Novel

The use of occupational novels, such as A. Hailey's Hotel, as study material strongly contributes to successful development of students' professionally-oriented communicative competences in terms of optimizing teaching efforts.

According to the definition of N.L. Leiderman, occupational novel is a genre in which a person is viewed primarily in the context of their work functions [Leiderman 2008, p. 30]. Occupational novels are characterized by extensive use of terminology and detailed descriptions of operation and functions of various systems and mechanisms. From the plot structure standpoint, such novels are limited to strictly professional environments. Although they may touch upon the themes of personal relationships such as romance, friendship or betrayal, characters' professional activities remain the main focus of the story. K.A. Kerer, one of the researchers of A. Hailey's works, points out the following features of occupational novel: accurate, true to life, realistic and "anatomical" depiction of events and highly detailed description of the professional activity the story is based upon [Kerer 2013, p. 68].

Some of the distinct characteristics of the occupational novel genre is a fast-paced plot where action takes place against the background of a particular industry-related process; description of working processes or principles of operation and their effects on characters in popular terms; involvement of all characters in the work process; introducing the reader to the work process details and the business and workplace relationships of the characters as opposed to solely personal relationships.

The unchanging and recognizable feature of occupational novel is also the presence of terminology, industry-specific forms and professional slang characteristic of the main characters' occupation in its vocabulary. Specialized vocabulary in Hailey's novel creates an immersion effect allowing the reader to feel a part of the book's universe and the industry the author writes about. Industry-specific word use and professional slang serve the same purpose [Nikitina, Pavlova 2015].

The use of specialized vocabulary by students when analyzing the processes described in the work of literature, professional approach to the assessment of communicative situations, finding reasoning for the proposed ways of addressing extraordinary situations – these are the things that allow students to feel immersed in their chosen professional field and develop their practical skills.

3.2.2. Educational Potential of A. Hailey's Hotel

The scene of Hotel is set in New Orleans (Louisiana, USA) in the mid-20th century. As the name suggests, the novel's events revolve around an actual hotel and its characters are the staff and guests of St. Gregory Hotel. The book consists of five large chapters broken down into smaller parts that describe 5 days in the life of the hotel. By reading the novel students familiarize themselves with the internal (organizational) life of the hotel, with its main services and departments. The argument between W. Trent and O'Keefe gives students an idea of two service models and ways of organizing food service in the hotel industry and lets them appreciate the role of business etiquette and communicative culture in hospitality based on the work of fictional staff at St. Gregory.

The content of Hotel Management course, namely its part on the hospitality industry, covers the technological aspects of hotel operation, as well as the fundamentals of management and modern trends in hotel business development in Russia and abroad [Hotel Management 2013]. Based on the knowledge gained within the Introductory Professional Course, tasks like the one below are given to students studying the Russian Language and Speech Culture discipline (Business ethics. Etiquette Speech Forms sub-section):

A) Analyze the level of professionalism, mistakes and shortcomings
in the actions of the St. Gregory Hotel's staff. *Make a report in a table format:*

Character's Name	Service (unit)	Violations and errors

In a training session (workshop), compare and discuss your findings with other students' findings. Compare your tables.

B) Analyze the workplace behavior of St. Gregory employees from different service units and answer the questions:

Are they performing their duties flawlessly? What norms of business (professional) or speech etiquette were violated on their part? Explain what these violations are.

Assess the extent to which you think the hotel staff adheres to the standards of professional ethics.

Development of speech writing, public speaking and listening skills are an essential part of forming communicative competences of Hotel Management students. In the course of their studies students should learn how to convert written text into a spoken message, develop their ability to listen and analyze the content and formal side of a public statement and gain skills to assess the effectiveness of public speech.

When teaching public speaking to students the instructor draws their attention to the fact that oral presentation (report, message) is not just a written text read out aloud. Public monologue is dialogic by its content, as it is addressed to the audience and seeks to elicit its emotional response. The more conversational public speech is, the stronger its impact on listeners. A special quality of public speech is that it occurs in a situation of direct interaction with the audience. Hence another distinctive feature of public speech – its natural conversational flow of intonation, i.e. the ability to express the speaker's position in a monologue not only through words but also through intonational means: the tone of voice, logical accents and pauses, as well as non-verbal means: facial expressions and gestures. A public speaker should have good eloquence and performance skills. A speech affects the audience only if it has coherence and consistency of the line of thought. Confusing and incoherent line of thought fails to evoke the expected response from the audience [Serpikova M.B., Skorikova T.P., Shekhurdina T.A. 2016].

Conference paper subjects based on the students' individual interests and prospective professional activities serve as training material for public speech practice. Below are some of the subjects for creative assignments suggested to students for their subsequent conversion into a public presentation:

1. The internal (business) side of St. Gregory Hotel's life: main types of services and service units and their role in creating a hospitable environment.

2. Affiliative style in customer service as a factor in providing a better customer experience and a way of creating favorable psychological climate and maintaining staff morale in St. Gregory. Figure out who and how relies on those principles in the Hailey's novel – either consciously or intuitively, purposefully or spontaneously, systematically or occasionally.

(A comment for students: *Affiliative style means overcoming the formal model of hotel staff's scripted behavior in favor of establishing friendly relations with customers, which goes beyond staff's compliance with internal rules and performance of duties listed in the job instruction and implies a caring considerate attitude to customers and a warm welcoming atmosphere.*)

3. The argument between W. Trent and O'Keefe about two models of hotel service in terms of business development prospects.

4. Business etiquette and communicative culture in the hotel industry (based on St. Gregory's staff performance).

5. A full-service or a fast food restaurant? Pros and cons of two types of food service, based on the analysis of St. Gregory's hotel restaurant.

6. Ways of improving competitiveness of a hotel establishment. My recommendations for the new manager of the St. Gregory Hotel.

Educational support in the process of developing communicative competence is provided through professionally-oriented study materials, authentic specialized texts (business letters, contracts, newspaper and magazine articles, complaints), video materials for subsequent discussion, test assignments assessing the level of acquisition of certain components of communicative competence, etc. In this case, examples of real-life professional situations that require interpretation and discussion for learning purposes are taken from literary texts. Using these fictional situations a course instructor (with or without students' help) then creates role-play scenarios for business games and trainings both in Russian and English and prepares training assignments. Here is an example of an assignment:

1. Provide the definition of "conflict" and "complaint". 2. Read a complaint from a hotel's guest (a complaint on behalf of Dr. Nicholas is written by one of the students or the teacher). *3. Propose possible solutions for resolving the conflict. Provide reasoning for your suggestions.*

Student's course of action:

1. Read the complaint. 2. State the essence of the complaint in a monologue. 3. Predict the outcome of this conflict and provide reasoning for your prediction. 4. Write a similar complaint using the expressions used in the original text. 5. Present your complaint in spoken form.

Such assignments promote development of business communication skills, train the ability to correlate acquired textbook knowledge with a real professional situation, allow students take part in simulated solving of professional problems and contribute to the formation of their communicative competence.

It is generally accepted that cooperative strategies are the most effective as they ensure reaching agreement with partners and establishing long-term productive relationships vs. achieving short-term goals in a specific situation. At the same time, despite seeking conflict-free communication, in real life a person will not be able to completely avoid

non-cooperative strategies. That is why good knowledge of communication principles allows a specialist to recognize nonconstructive patterns of verbal behavior, confront them if needed or, in some cases, make good use of them if it's justified by meaningful purposes. Students get the following assignment in a training session:

1. Find examples of communicative interaction in Hotel's text. 2. Describe them in terms of their communicative strategy. 3. Using these situations as reference, prove the effectiveness of the cooperative strategy.

When commenting on individual interaction strategies related to dispute settlement, we draw the attention of students to the fact that, as a rule, all conflicts have a resolution. Therefore, any steps to resolve a conflict situation "by peaceful means" should be taken. It is best, of course, to stop the conflict from happening altogether, by resolving the differences. If this is not possible, one should try to take the edge off the disagreement and prevent conflict escalation. To do this, we recommend that, first of all, judgments and assessments that might hurt the other person's pride and dignity are avoided. Patronizing judgments and assessments expressed with a feeling of poorly concealed superiority or contempt are also undesirable. One should try to focus on positive judgments and assessments, bearing in mind that all people accept positive information more favorably. A good communicator cultivates a positive worldview, because it contributes to the effectiveness of communication [Kirillova 2012].

In addition to general comments and recommendations, we introduce students to the most common speech behavior strategies in situations of adaptation; compromise; cooperation; ignoring; rivalry. Students choose which of these strategies to resort to in a particular conflict situation described in the novel.

A work of literature whose characters are faced with professional problems thus becomes a source for problem-solving tasks that help students prepare for their future career in a creative way.

3.2.3. Communicative Strategies and Tactics from the Cross-cultural Communication Standpoint

As noted above, since having good command of written and spoken language is an integral part of professional training of hospitality specialists, graduates of the Hospitality Management program are required to have in-depth understanding of communication principles, full proficiency in all types of language domains (listening, speaking, reading, writing), solid public speaking skills, knowledge of tactics and strategies in business conversations, negotiations, etc.

Development of hospitality specialists' communication skills involves studying traditions, customs, mentality, national character, behavior of language native speakers in order to have successful cooperation and business (professional) communication with them in the course of a future career.

Using A. Hailey's Hotel [Hailey 2018] in English language classes entails *reading and its types* as that the primary learning activity: *skimming* - defining the main theme (idea) of the text; *scanning* - searching for specific/-requested information in the text; *reading for detail* - getting a grasp of the text's meaning vs. formal understanding of its content - these are organized by means of a *dynamic system of practice activities* corresponding to the *stages of working with the text*. The pre-text stage involves a system of anticipatory tasks aimed at creating the necessary level of student motivation; the text stage is focused on the development of language and speech skills and is characterized by interpretation tasks; the post-text stage is meant for practicing communicative skills, hence the tasks of generalizing nature.

The situations of everyday and business communication presented in the novel introduce students studying Business English to various communication tactics and strategies that to a great extent define the communicative culture of a person, including their speech behavior and mindset (the novel can be used for the same learning objectives within the Verbal Communication course).

Students should distinguish between the concepts of "communicative strategy", "speech strategy" and "speech tactics", which have no clear-cut definitions in modern linguistics: it is a part of communicative behavior or communicative interaction in which a variety of different verbal and non-verbal means are used to achieve a certain communicative purpose [Kashkin 2000]; "the result at which a communicative act is directed" [Klyuev 2002]; "the general behavioral framework, outline" [Chernogrudova 2008:42]; "the worldview intention and its actualization with regard to the content of communication process" [Datsyuk 2019]. A.K. Mikhalskaya does not provide a definition for the term "strategy", but offers her own classification of communicative strategies: the closeness strategy, the withdrawal strategy and the open options strategy [Mikhalskaya 2002]. The first two reflect the typical human ambiguity: on the one hand, a person wants emotional contact and closeness with other people, on the other - seeks to preserve his individuality and identity. These two opposing tendencies are manifested in speech behavior. The open options strategy implies that the speaker does not determine the course of the interaction but lets the other person decide how things play out between them in the course of communication and then decides which type of speech behavior to chose. The models of interaction and speech behavior in this case will be influenced by the speaker's education, cultural traditions, temperament and many other factors.

Such a broad interpretation of communicative strategy could include the communicators' objectives, models of speech behavior, individual qualities, world outlook key points and values as its elements.

"Speech strategy" is a more defined concept applied primarily to spoken language and to dialogue forms in particular. A communicative strategy is implemented through a particular speech strategy - that is situation-specific. Therefore speech strategies should be examined in the contest of individual situations.

In each case, communicators are engaged in finding a common language and working out the ground rules for their dialogic interaction: this includes choosing the tone of communication, anticipating the results of a speech act, and determining the way of expressing the real state of affairs by verbal means. Moreover, individual strategies are always developed in line with particular standard stylistic requirements. It can be stated that speech strategy is the speaker's decision about the sequence of speech actions that determine their speech behavior in terms of choosing the optimal means and ways to achieve certain objectives. Thus, communication and speech strategy are closely interrelated and correlate with each other as the whole and its part.

The term "tactics" "as opposed to strategy, i.e. general framework of communicative behavior, is seen as a set of practical moves in the real life process of speech interaction" [Datsyuk 2019]; "speech tactics is a speech action that corresponds to a certain stage in the implementation of a particular strategy..." [Kopnina 2008, p. 49]. And any speech action that actualizes a particular intention of the speaker can be represented by one or several different verbal (or tactical) techniques. However, by technique we mean "wording of a statement or piece of writing". Therefore, a communicative process can be represented as a logical hierarchical system in which a tactical move (or a speech technique) serves to implement a speech strategy and achieve the objectives by verbal means, at the same time being a reflection of the general communicative principles and attitudes of communicators.

Traditionally, in academic and methodological literature strategies have been classified as cooperative and non-cooperative (or confrontational).

Cooperation strategies grouping has emerged from the general principles developed by H. P. Grice, widely cited in linguocultural studies of the 2nd half of the 20th century. In his opinion, in order for all participants to achieve effective transmission of information in a conversation they should follow the cooperative principle, which is successfully implemented by following certain instructions and recommendations [Grice 1985]. These rules are definitely important but they mainly have to do with the way intended content is presented, and therefore they only relate to one of the many aspects of communicative interaction. The cooperative principle, however, should have ethical norms and moral categories at its core. A.A. Ivin suggested the following ethical requirements:

1) maxim of tactfulness (*Observe the interests of another, do not violate their personal boundaries!*)
2) maxim of generosity (*Do not hinder others!*)
3) maxim of approval (*Do not discredit others!*)
4) maxim of modesty (*Shy away from praise!*)
5) maxim of consent (*Avoid objections!*)
6) maxim of benevolence (*Show good will!*) [Ivin 1997, p. 169].

Positive outlook of communicators, their tolerant attitude to the world and others are also conducive to their effective interaction and many other aspects. A list of those values could be very impressive; it is hardly arrangeable in any kind of hierarchy, as it all depends on the specific conditions of interaction, because that is where these moral principles are manifested.

It is even less possible to provide a clear and objective assessment of non-cooperative strategies, which are based, as a rule, on the authoritarian model, the desire of the initiating speaker to dominate, to be the leader, to control others, to create a social hierarchy. Non-cooperative interactions include conversations based on violation of verbal communication ethics, such as positive cooperation, sincerity, and the "trust code". This monological model of behavior seems to be the opposite of "communicative cooperation", where the dialogue mode dominates. Reasons for such a behavior may lie in the speaker's upbringing, their acquired moral compass, to some extent they can be attributed to the speaker's personality (overblown ego, defining oneself in opposition to society, rejection of everything that does not meet their own standards, etc.).

Conversational principle of communication means shared initiative and alternating speaker/listener roles between the parties. However one of the communicators, not wishing to discuss a certain subject, could interrupt the other speaker. According to Jennifer Coates, interruption of destroys the symmetry of the conversational model, it violates the turn-taking rules of conversation, which leads to confrontation with the addressor [Coates 2004]. The interrupting speaker shows their desire to take the dominant role in the conversation in relation to the current speaker. Interruption is usually seen as a rude and rather hostile speech act, however it can also be polite.

As far as interruption is concerned, there are two communication strategies: cooperative and confrontational. Each strategy is expressed through a set of specific speech tactics of interrupted conversation. Speech tactics stem from specific national cultures. Thus, English speakers seek to avoid conflict in conversations, the option of confrontational strategy in Anglophone linguoculture is not normative. In English communicative culture where speech etiquette is of great importance, speech tactics such as apology, hinting, false consent (cooperative

communication strategy) are used in case of interruption. Subject rejection, brush-off, indignation, offense are some of the tactics seen as part of confrontational communicative strategy the choice of which may be caused by a number of factors - gender, age, communication conditions, degree of the parties' closeness, their psychological characteristics, etc.

Cooperative strategy is opposed to confrontational strategy, as it is focused on seeking compromise, agreement, etc. Cooperation strategy is implemented by speakers in several speech tactics that are differentiated by initial communicative intentions and a number of pragmatically relevant parameters. We observe that the speech tactics of apology, hinting, and false consent are expressly used in the novel.

The tactic of apology is based on exaggerated politeness, which is an inherent feature of the British communicative behavior. This tactic has two illocutionary goals: admitting to being in the wrong and establishing contact. The addressor seeks to mitigate possible damage to the relationship, to maintain harmonious interaction and secure further relationship with the addressee. The addressor sees the cause for interruption as negative for the addressee and wishes to make amends. Interruption in anglophone communicative culture will be tactful and courteous, involving expressions such as *goodness, sorry...; sorry, I must go...; I beg your pardon; excuse me*, etc.

Hinting is another tactic typical of English speaker's emotive communication. The main objective of this tactic is to adjust the degree of emotional impact on the listener, to "smooth things over", so interruption is made by reducing significance of one's statement. Controlled demonstration of emotional attitude is representative of the English-language communicative culture. According to the established stereotype, the British are polite, gallant, courteous, even ceremonious, but at the same time reserved, undisturbed, indifferent to everything.

Confrontational strategy is considered by many researchers as a conflict-seeking and aggressive type of verbal behavior. In situations of interrupted conversation confrontational strategy can be implemented by the addressee through the tactic of subject rejection in violation of discourse conventions. This tactic stems from the addressee's unwillingness to continue communication, caused by lack of interest in or disapproval of the subject.

The brush-off tactic is based on the communicator's unwillingness to continue the conversation and is typical of situations where the rules of effective communication are broken.

The indignation tactic is a part of the confrontational strategy of interruption based on breaking the rules of communication. It is typical of conversations where a violation of communication ethics and a change of the parties' communicative roles take place. The speaker interrupts the conversation if he is dissatisfied, indignated or irritated by the verbal actions of the other party or the conversation process.

The tactic of insult is characterized by expressing a highly disapproving attitude towards the communication partner's behavior.

Although the British seem to be a restrained and cool-headed nation, the actual existence of such communicative situations where interruptions may be caused by irritation, indignation, dissatisfaction demonstrates that English speakers are also affected by strong emotions of anger, indignation, rage, etc.

We assign the following task to students in English language classes:

Find the most significant pragmatic features of interruption by characters representing English communicative culture in the original text of the novel and analyze the interruption a) in terms of its strategic and tactical implementation, b) in terms of lexical and grammatical means used.

Students who are planning a career in hospitality should acquire in-depth understanding of communicative interaction processes and have standard reference points when it comes to communication. They should learn the skills of strategic speech planning and self-reflection (in the process of conversation and after its completion). However the rules and ethics of communication that contribute to conflict-free interaction are seen as the main reference point in learning strategies and tactics of effective communication.

In the context of ever-expanding international cooperation, there is a growing need for specialists capable of effectively conducting professional foreign language communication in the fields of business, science and technologies. In this regard, special attention should be paid to the fact that the knowledge and skills required by students for successful foreign language communication in professional environments can be significantly different from the knowledge obtained during business communication training in the native language on the informational/cognitive level. However, one can talk about a certain parallelism of communicative competence and discourse universals in different professions, at least in the *person-to-person* industries, on the strategic, interactive and linguistic levels. Therefore, business communication training involves assimilation of professional and linguo-sociocultural concepts of foreign language speech communities.

The practice of teaching professional foreign language has shown that inclusion potential of a Russian-speaking language personality in the professional fragments of the foreign language worldview is significantly limited due to the fact that the Russian-language worldview is lacking in many stereotypical communicative situations, discourse strategies, tactics, and professional concepts inherent in a different culture. This is typical of such aspects of

business communication as establishing personal contacts, writing business letters, telephone conversations, presentations, meetings, negotiations, etc. Problematic situations arise and become even more complicated if native Russian speakers do not have knowledge about structuring and phrasing on the cognitive level, if students have no awareness of basic cognitive structures that could ensure perception and understanding of the language and the world of a different sociocultural community [Turbina 2013]. This issue makes us pay special attention to students' knowledge of the principles of speech interaction in the business and professional areas of communication first in their native, and then in a foreign language, based on the fact that speech etiquette and rules of business communication are often nation-specific. Therefore, areas of particular attention include developing students' skills of intent recognition, as well as awareness of social and professional values from a different cultural perspective determining behaviors of foreign business partners. This work is facilitated if students have acquired enough skills to identify and generate speech models in their native language in various business cooperation situations and substantial native language knowledge of professional communicative strategies and appropriate speech behavior. By that we mean, first and foremost, teaching special speech models, analysis of professional discourse, ways of situational use of communicative strategies, aimed at building consensus in solving business tasks – be it personal contacts between partners or meetings and negotiations.

Professional communication involves speech activities such as written and verbal exchange of information, expression of requests and opinions, discussion of existing problems, reaching agreements, etc. These actions can be affected by personal perspective or misunderstanding of partner's speech behavior which complicates or even halts business communication. We have developed special tasks for practicing skills of sufficient understanding of social and behavioral context when interacting in professional environments.

In English group work classes students work on the following assignment:

Search the novel text for examples of the distancing strategy when expressing request and analyze linguistic features of its implementation in the anglophone culture.

Students note that *most* (about 70%) of such communicative situations are expressed in a direct way, that is, by means of an imperative. The question is *why*? During discussion, students come to the following conclusion:

Since Hotel belongs to the occupational novel genre, the concepts of "work" and "supervisor - subordinate" relationships have an important role in wording the request. This explains the presence of a large number of such communicative situations expressed in a direct way, that is, by means of an imperative. Students come to the following conclusion: indirect requests are most often used in situations of informal communication with friends, co-workers of equal social status, etc.

In another task, students are asked to *analyze which modal verbs* (can, could, would, will) *and in which cases are used.* The students' conclusion is as follows: could *is used in situations of business and personal communication and in those situations where characters are in a dependent position; requests using* will *are somewhat universal: they may express both a request/offer and an order.*

Knowledge of language features, good command of verbal strategies and tactics and knowledge of moral values and stereotypes manifested in the behavior of people of other cultures are essential for a successful career in the hospitality industry.

As our experience in working with A. Hailey's occupational novel, Hotel, has demonstrated, the use of fiction helps also familiarize students with a variety of technological and supportive processes that make up the inner, behind-the-scenes hotel services operation, gives them an idea of situations staff face in the customer service process.

4. Conclusion

1. The effectiveness of speech interaction with co-workers and customers and successful cross-cultural communication depends on how developed hospitality industry specialists' professionally-oriented communicative competences are and how well they know their foreign counterpart's national mentality and specifics of their behavioral culture. In this respect, disciplines such as Russian Language and Speech Culture, Verbal Communication, Foreign Language have particular significance for Hotel Management students. Professional orientation of student training calls for teaching language (both native and foreign) as a means of business (professional) communication with due consideration given to country-specific features.

2. Using fiction as study material provides optimal opportunities for re-enacting situations of formal business communication and recreating the natural sociocultural context for learning purposes, as it familiarizes students with the organic cultural environment and stimulates communication.

3. Interdisciplinary approach to learning requires close cooperation between teachers of different disciplines.

The practical implications of this study is that the experience of using fiction for practical classes in Russian Language and Speech Culture, Verbal Communication and Foreign Language can also be adopted by teachers of the

professional subject cycle. The study's novelty lies in using literary texts for developing a system of assignments that facilitate acquisition of professionally-oriented communicative competencies.

4. Various fictional situations of professional communication serve as ready-made instructional material for reinforcing knowledge about communication strategies and speech etiquette, business communication culture with country-specific aspects, as well as for improving students' skills of spoken (public speaking) and written (creative work) language.   In general, reliance on literary texts that describe the students' prospective professional activities increases their awareness, motivates them to acquire new knowledge and contributes to the acquisition of professionally-oriented communicative competences.

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An Online Practice Community to Favor Co-transference Between the Organizations of Practices and the Practicum of the Graduates at the University of Barcelona

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Abstract

The poster shows the experience of the implementation of a virtual community of practice in the External Practices of the degree of Pedagogy of the University of Barcelona. This community pursues the transfer of knowledge among the different agents involved in the practices: university, organizations and students. Its realization consisted of three phases: a) design of the virtual environment for the community of practice; b) activation and functioning of the community; and c) evaluation of the impact of the virtual community of practice on the transfer and evaluation by its members. Among the results, the following stand out: After a period of operation of half academic course the assessment that its members make of the community is positive although they recognize that there is still way to go to achieve the objective pursued. The scores obtained in the evaluation questionnaire show that the interest for all must be better aligned, collaboration and participation and the strategies and methodologies used must also be improved. The community is in the gestation phase and needs more time to consolidate it, to combine individual differences in a common culture and for participants to overcome their difficulties in reflecting on their practice. The instruments and qualitative comments help us understand the results and propose improvement actions for the next course.

Keywords: Higher education, practices, co-transference, online community.

Introduction

The University of Barcelona Pedagogy Practicum adopts an immersion approach which specifically encourages both autonomy and integration into the placement centre (Zabalza, 1998; Ventura, 2005). The module is organized around the Reflective Practice Seminars (RPS, SPR in Catalan) in which the Practice Community meets (Wenger, 2001). Each Community is made up of a group of students carrying out their practicum in various types of centres and under the supervision of their tutor at the UB. In the RPS, based on Eraut's (2000) non-formal learning principles and the R5 Reflective Practice Model (Domingo, & Gómez, 2014), a series of individual and group activities are carried out in order to develop awareness, reframing and articulation, thereby making explicit the implicit non-formal learning acquired in the centre. Another methodological dimension of the Community is problem-centred learning (Bueno, & Fitzgerald, 2004). As we can see, the design of the module aims to help students develop, amongst other things, critical thinking skills, which have been validated by various studies (Aneas, & Vilà, 2015; Vilà, & Aneas, 2013; Vilà, Aneas, & Rajadell, 2015).

The general objective has been to implement and evaluate a community of virtual practice in the subject of External Practices of the degree of Pedagogy of the Universitat de Barcelona, oriented to the co-transfer of knowledge between the different agents: university, organizations of practices and students.

Results

The members of the community showed a good acceptance of the environment. Following the dimensions of the community acceptance TAM scale (with a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.869), perceived the environment moderately easy to use, somewhat less useful in relation to the contents and resources that were shared, but the attitude was favorable, in the sense of who considered it a good tool and showed intention to remain members.

Regarding the scale of the virtual communities according to Wenger (with a Cronbach alpha of 0.835), the lowest score was given to the "Domain" dimension (having a common interest among the members). On the other hand, the "Practice" itself was assessed very positively, considering the activities, the contents, the methodologies, the experiences, the resources that were found in the community of practice. Finally, the «Community», in terms of the relations of its members, communication and interaction, was valued slightly.

The platform was moderately positive, with an average of 30 points out of the 40 possible ones. These assessments presented some nuances depending on the item that was scored. Specifically, the most valued aspects made reference to aesthetic elements and compatibility with different browsers, as well as the tools of the environment. On the other hand,

the least valued elements were the ease in finding the contents, the intuitive nature of the environment and the length of the environment.

Among the open responses, related to the contributions to the community that would be most valued and the aspects of improvement, the sample of participants highlighted that the priority was to share strategies, resources and knowledge related to tutoring; and as a proposal for improvement they alluded both to the platform (focusing on the need for easier access and intuitiveness) and to the need for a moderator to stimulate participation, establishing links of common interest for all, and the possibility of holding face-to-face meetings in seminars or seminars format.

Conclusions

Our results are in relation to the necessary elements identified for the virtual practice community to work:

•   The virtual tool, as the main means of communication, has to fulfill some minimum qualities that allow participants to have spaces for exchange, that is comfortable in their access and use, that has a clear organization and that is, at the same time, a space for the community.

•   The existence of an important motivation of the different members is fundamental for the interaction between them to take place. The purposes, although not necessarily the same for all of them, do have a compatibility and collaboration compatibility, so that they can reach a similar level of satisfaction.

•   It is recommended to carry out physical meetings to strengthen and enrich the relationships of the members of the community.

•   The community must be sustainable for the tutors, who must be able to reconcile their usual activities with those of the community.

•   The importance of a community leader or coordinator is highlighted. Its function will be to unify the activity, distribute the information, organize the work and ensure the correct functioning of the evolutions of the group.

As Solbes and Souto (1999) point out, in the case of the constitution of virtual communities, more time is needed to consolidate them, to combine individual differences in a common culture and for participants to overcome the difficulties of reflection on their own. practice. It is a long and complex process and, therefore, it would be necessary to evaluate its evolution in the medium and long term.

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Dictionary of Abstract and Concrete Words of the Russian Language: A Methodology for Creation and Application

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Abstract

The paper describes the first stage of a project on creating an electronic dictionary with numerical estimates of the degree of abstractness and concreteness of Russian words. Our approach is to integrate data obtained from several different sources: text corpora, psycholinguistic experiments, published dictionaries, markers of abstractness (certain suffixes) and a translation of a similar dictionary for English. The article describes in detail the method for obtaining data. We provide correlation coefficients calculated using different methods. We pay special attention to cases of inconsistent results obtained by different methods. The statistical model behind the experimental data is discussed. The results of experiments with the Google Books Ngram corpus on the coexistence of concrete words are given. Possible applications of the dictionary are demonstrated on the example of the frequency of using the dictionary in Russian textbooks for high schools.

Keywords: Abstract words, Concrete words, Russian language, Dictionary

Introduction

Abstractness is an important semantic concept, the study of which is devoted a significant number of works. At the same time, there is still no strict definition of abstraction, and there is a debate about this [1, 2]. Meanwhile, concreteness / abstractness is widely studied and used in various tasks. In neurophysiology, the representation of concrete / abstract concepts in the human brain has been studied for more than a decade (starting, probably, from [3]). In education, it should be noted cycle of works and a number of software systems (Coh-Metrix, TAACO, SiNLP) for analyzing texts, learning to read, understand and write texts, in which one of the most important components is a dictionary of abstract words [4]. Corpus analysis and methods of computational linguistics provide new opportunities for studying abstractness / concreteness [5, 6]. In the absence of a formal definition of abstractness, dictionaries of abstract vocabulary play an important role in theoretical and applied research. For the English language, a dictionary (more than 4 thousand words) with an indication of the numerical measure of abstractness / concreteness of words was created as early as 1981 [7] and is still used in research. Later, by polling 4,000 native speakers, a dictionary of 40 thousand words was created [8]. For the Russian language there are no such dictionaries, which makes the task of creating such a dictionary important. The purpose of this work is to describe the methodology used in this paper and the results of the first stage of work on the creation of such dictionary.

Related works

The article [9] presents the methodology for constructing a dictionary of abstract / concrete words based on a corpus of texts. The basic idea is to isolate a small core from precisely concrete and precisely abstract words and then use word2vec to classify words into more abstract and more concrete ones using standard methods for calculating distances. Similar dictionaries were created for other languages besides English. A description of the construction of a dictionary of abstract / concrete words for the Chinese language is given in [10]. In the works [11–13], the methods of corpus analysis have established that "concrete words have a preference to co-occur with other concrete words, while abstract words co-occur more frequently with abstract words".

Let us give examples of some of the most interesting applied works published recently. These examples demonstrate the importance of abstractness / concreteness and the breadth of research. In [14], the classification of concepts as concrete or abstract from the standpoint of psychological mechanisms for understanding situations is studied. The article [15] provides an overview of theories for the representation of abstract / concrete words aimed at studying mental disorders. The article [16] shows that children with language development disorders (DLD) equally with ordinary children learn abstract concepts. The article [17] shows that children need emotional reinforcement to assimilate abstract words. The concreteness rating of 512 words of the Italian language related to the designation of pain is described in [18]. In the article [19], the abstract / concrete vocabulary dictionary is used to assess the complexity for

the perception of texts. The article [20] shows that over time, the use of concrete words (in English) increases as compared with abstract ones, as well as an increase in the degree of concreteness of a number of different groups of words, which contradicts some previous studies. The article is based on data from the corpus of the modern American language COHA.

Methods and data

The general strategy for creating a dictionary of abstract words for the Russian language is as follows. Proposed 4 independent methods for obtaining lists of words. We briefly describe these methods. In the Russian linguistic tradition, the category of abstractness refers only to nouns [28], therefore we will mainly focus on extraction of nouns in this study.

1) Creating lists of abstract and concrete words extracted from the Russian semantic dictionary (created by N.Yu. Shvedova) [21]. Overall, from two volumes of the dictionary (volumes 2 and 3) we extracted 8378 abstract words and 9814 concrete words. By themselves, these lists are insufficient because we set the task of obtaining a vocabulary of words with an indication of the degree of abstractness / concreteness of words (a characteristic in the spirit of fuzzy logic [22]), similar to dictionaries for the English language [7, 8].

2) On the basis of the list of suffixes of abstract words described in [23], all the words with these endings were selected from a large dictionary of the Russian language (we use the dictionary [24]). The list consists of the following suffixes: *-тье, -ьё, -ние, -вие, -ство, -ация, -ость, -есть, -изм, -изна, -ота, -тика, -тива*. Using this method, a list of 12100 words claiming to be abstract was obtained. This dictionary requires expert verification. Despite its considerable scope, it covers only a part of abstract words.

3) Conducting psychosemantic experiments in the form of surveys of speakers of the Russian language with instructions to assess the degree of abstract words on a 5-point scale. The method in the test mode is applied to the 100 most frequent words of the Russian language in the dictionary [25]. For each word, estimates of not less than 40 native speakers were obtained - students of the Philological department of Kazan Federal University. Full survey results are posted on the project website (https://kpfu.ru/tehnologiya-sozdaniya-semanticheskih-elektronnyh.html). There are also averaged estimates of abstractness / concreteness up to 100 words. The 5-point scale was chosen by analogy with a similar survey for English [8]. In the future, it is planned to increase the number of words in the survey to 4 thousand.

4) Extraction of abstract / concrete words by automatic methods from the super-large corpus of the Russian language - GoogleBooksNgram (https://books.google.com/ngrams). One of the possible approaches to automatic extraction of abstract / concrete words is further described in detail in this article.

For the sub-corpus of the Russian language in the composition of GoogleBooksNgram contains more than 40 million different bigrams, for each of which the frequency of occurrence in the corpus is indicated. We selected bigrams dataset based on the hypothesis that concrete words have a preference to co-occur with other concrete words, while abstract words co-occur more frequently with abstract words. Using the Shvedova's dictionary, it becomes possible to choose such pairs of words in which concreteness of one word in a bigram is fixed the word is either an abstract (or concrete) noun; and the second word remains arbitrary. Next, we analyze the resulting lists in terms of the frequency of occurrence of words and calculate a measure of concreteness.

Methodology for the automatic creation of a dictionary using a corpus of texts

To extract concrete and abstract words, a set of words is used, the concreteness of which is already known. For the Russian language, such a set is given by the dictionary of N. Yu. Swedish. Below is a description of the method for the case when the adjectives are extracted. The degree of concreteness of each word is evaluated on the basis of co-occurrence with concrete nouns. Let two sets of nouns Nabs from the dictionary of abstract words and Ncon from a dictionary of concrete words be given. For each abstract noun x_abs from the list of Nabs we extract all bigrams (from the GoogleBooksNgrams dataset). Each such bigram should follow the pattern:

$$[ADJ] \_abs + x\_abs,$$

where instead of [ADJ] _abs there can be any adjective. Thus, for each input noun x_abs, a list of bigrams is extracted, and each element in this list has a number of occurrences calculated from the GoogleBooks corpus.

Then each list is sorted in descending order and for further analysis only the top-K elements of the list are saved in order to consider only the most frequent word pairs. Thus, if the set of abstract nouns (Nabs), contains |Nabs| words, then we end up with lists |Nabs| of adjectives. Bigrams that are rarely encountered can add noise, but the choice of the value for the top-K parameter is not obvious. In the experiments conducted in this paper, no found bigrams were discarded regardless of their frequency, and the possible noise is controlled in another way, which is described below.

Each adjective (if it appears in a list for some noun) is included in a list no more than 1 time, while the same adjective can appear in several lists. Therefore, for each adjective z, it is possible to count the number of occurrences of this adjective in all the constructed lists. This value, which we denote by ZF(z), varies from 1 to |Nabs|. The value of

this metric indicates not only the frequency of the combination with some fixed abstract noun, but also how often the adjective z is combined with various abstract nouns (form the Nabs set). Low values of ZF (z), on the contrary, carry little information about the adjective z and it just makes sense to filter out such cases.

Despite the fact that ZF (z) can be used to rank the list of adjectives by the degree of their abstractness, non-abstract adjectives can also have sufficiently high values of this metric. This happens, for example, due to the fact that some words on average have a higher frequency of use in comparison with other words.

To correct such cases, it is proposed to use a set of concrete nouns Ncon to calculate the measure ZF(z), but this time to evaluate the concreteness of adjectives. The whole procedure described above is preserved: first the bigrams that follow the pattern are extracted:

$$[ADJ] \_conc + x\_conc,$$

here x_conc is a noun that belongs to the Ncon set. Next in each of |Ncon| lists, only top-K elements are saved, and for each adjective z, the measure a value UF(z) as a number of times the adjective z appeared in different lists. The metric UF (z) shows how often the adjective z is combined with various concrete nouns from the Ncon. Finally, as a measure of the concreteness of the adjective z is computed as:

$$\text{Concreteness (z) = UF (z) / ZF (z).}$$

Similarly, as a measure of the abstractness of adjective z is computed as the reciprocal:

$$\text{Abstractness (z) = ZF (z) / UF (z) = 1 / Concreteness (z).}$$

Both metrics Concreteness (z) and Abstractness (z) are defined if UF (z) and ZF (z) are defined. The latter condition is satisfied if the adjective z is combined with at least one concrete noun from the list of Ncon and one abstract noun from the Nabs, and the corresponding bigrams are present in the corpus. The described procedure does not depend on the language and requires only a large corpus of texts and a preliminary classification of words (nouns) into two types: abstract and concrete nouns.

It is important to note that for Russian language the procedure may extract various forms of the same word. In this case, different forms will receive different values of the Concreteness metric. If necessary, various word forms can be reduced to the initial form of the word, and the values of Concreteness can be averaged. However, additional difficulties are connected with this step: homonymy can lead to incorrect normalization, since word forms can coincide. Also, the reduction of the extracted word forms to the initial form will entail the reduction of all extracted adjectives to the masculine gender, but in the masculine gender the adjective cannot frequently occur next to nouns of the feminine gender. Having obtained concreteness estimates for adjectives, we can use this information to calculate concreteness estimates for nouns. This step is important for evaluation of the quality of the derived dictionary. To do this, it suffices to extract symmetric bigrams of the form:

$$x\_abs + [NOUN] \_abs,$$

where x_abs is an abstract adjective, and as a [NOUN] _abs can be any noun. It should be noted that the order of the elements in the bigram pattern has changed. At the same time, the general methodology is fully preserved, which makes it possible to calculate the Concreteness measure for nouns, using the Concreteness estimates for adjectives. As mentioned above, in this case, the reduction of adjectives to the initial form is also undesirable.

Experiments

The quality assessment of the proposed method consists in comparing its results with existing dictionaries. For the Russian language, direct mapping is possible only with the Shvedova dictionary containing only nouns. For experiments to assess the quality of the method for the Russian language we have discarded all nouns (1350 in total) that appeared simultaneously in both parts of the Shvedova's dictionary and experimented with non-overlapping lists. The two non-intersecting lists were first based on the Shvedova's dictionary: abstract (7028 words) and concrete (8464) nouns, after which these lists were used to extract and evaluate the abstractness of adjectives. At the final stage, the resulting lists of abstract and concrete adjectives were used to extract nouns. Graphically, the essence of the experiment is shown in Figure 1.
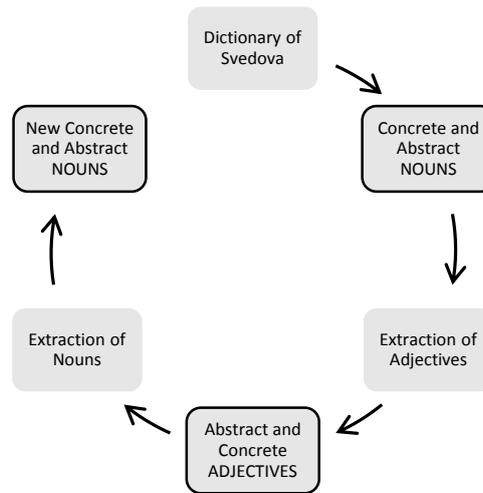
Figure 1. Process of nouns extraction based on the list of extracted adjectives.

Table 2 shows the result of applying the method at the first stage of the experiment: 10 most abstract and most concrete (according to the Concreteness metric) adjectives with estimates of the degree of concreteness. In total, the list of extracted adjectives contained 23880 word forms, of which 4,749 words were rated Concreteness = 1. Further, these word forms were excluded from consideration. The remaining word forms were divided into two classes: Concreteness> 1 (6275 word forms) and Concreteness <1 (12856 word forms). The lists of abstract and concrete adjectives thus obtained were used to extract nouns. As described in the previous section, the procedure for extracting nouns and calculating the Concreteness metric for nouns is almost identical to extracting adjectives. As a result, 63951 word forms were extracted, of which 8219 word forms have the estimate Concreteness = 1. Table 3 shows the most vivid examples of abstract and concrete nouns.

Table 2. Top lists of the most concrete and most abstract adjectives extracted with the proposed method

Concrete adjective			Abstract adjective		
Word	**Translation**	**Concreteness**	**Word**	**Translation**	**Concreteness**
новенький	new	76	откровенная	frank	0,0101
кожаная	leather	60	чрезвычайную	extreme	0,0099
самодельный	homemade	49	душевную	soulful	0,0096
шерстяной	woolen	49	невольное	involuntary	0,0095
тоненькая	thin	46	эмоциональное	emotional	0,0093
старенький	old	42	необыкновенную	extraordinary	0,0089
меховой	fur	42	социальную	social	0,0084
дощатый	boardwalk	40	радостное	joyful	0,0074
бетонная	concrete	36	исключительную	exceptional	0,0072
мужские	man's	33	трагическая	tragic	0,0067

The remaining 55732 word forms of nouns were divided into 2 classes: Concreteness> 1 (15536 word forms) and Concreteness<1 (40196 word forms) and are given to the initial forms (estimates of Concreteness for different forms of one word were averaged). After reduction to the initial forms, the lists of nouns were reduced: concrete (8645 word forms), abstract (15260 word forms). Finally, the resulting lists were compared with the dictionary Shvedova.

In this case, it is possible to measure how accurately the proposed method classifies nouns. For this, you can count the number of abstract nouns among those that received large abstractness scores and the number of concrete nouns among words that received high concreteness scores.

Table 3. Top lists of the most concrete and most abstract nouns extracted with the proposed method

Concrete noun			Abstract noun		
Word	Translation	Concreteness	Word	Translation	Concreteness

туфельки	shoes	35	близость	proximity	0,0035
шаровары	trousers	35	изменение	change	0,0035
сапожки	boots	32	различие	difference	0,0035
горсовета	City Council	31	условие	condition	0,0033
плащи	raincoats	31	воплощение	embodiment	0,0032
джинсы	jeans	31	явление	phenomenon	0,0029
колокольчики	bells	29	утверждение	statement	0,0029
комочки	lumps	27	необходимость	need	0,0028
кубики	cubes	27	признание	confession	0,0028
туфли	shoes	26,75	сочетание	combination	0,0027

Analysis of results

When analyzing the results for clarity, after retrieving nouns, two subsets were selected:

NC-100 is a set of 100 words with maximum values Concreteness

NA-100 is a set of 100 words with minimum Concreteness.

The results of the matching with the dictionary of Shvedova:

72 words from the set of NC were found in the dictionary of concrete words of Shvedova;

45 words from the set NA were found in the dictionary of abstract words of Shvedova.

A similar picture is observed if you make up a set of NC-1000 and NA-1000 of 1000 words each. The NA-1000 set contains 430 words from Svedova's dictionary of abstract words, the NC-1000 set contains 706 words from a Svedova's dictionary of concrete words. It should be noted that the obtained results of extracting abstract and concrete nouns may need to be clarified, since some concrete nouns are missing in Shvedova's dictionary. Below we provide concrete words from the NC-100 set, not in the dictionary of concrete words: *ноздря (a nostril), перчатка (a glove), ботинок (a boot), сапожок (a boot), погон (a shoulder strap)*. Also, we present abstract words from the set NA-100, which are present which are absent in the Shvedova's dictionary of abstract words: *дестабилизация, (destabilization), дешифрирование (interpretation), прогрессия (progression), реакционность (reactionary), цикличность (cyclicity)*. Thus, we can conclude that the proposed method not only extracts the words that were originally present in the dictionary, but also finds new words, which may be important for keeping such dictionaries up to date.

Application of the dictionary

In this section we describe one possible application of the dictionary of abstract words. In [26], the complexity of texts in English is studied. The number of abstract words in the text is interpreted as one of the main indicators of its complexity. We checked this position on social science textbooks for secondary schools in Russia. We have created a corpus of textbooks from 6 to 11 classes. The housing is available at: https://kpfu.ru/slozhnost-tekstov-304364.html. A detailed description of the corpus and various parameters of the complexity of texts in Russian can be found in [27]. Table 4 presents data on the number of abstract words in social science textbooks for different classes, calculated on the basis of the Svedova's dictionary.

As can be seen from the table with the class number (text complexity), the proportion of abstract words is growing. Thus, abstract word dictionaries can be used with other parameters to assess the complexity of school textbooks.

Table 4. The number of abstract words in textbooks of different grade levels

Grade level	Tokens in a textbook	Number of abstract words	Proportion of abstract words
6	16752	3899	0,233
7	22986	5673	0,247
8	50228	13940	0,278
9	43005	12698	0,295
10	77714	23530	0,303
11	101010	30343	0,300

Conclusion

The article describes the methodology we use to construct a dictionary with an indication of the degree of abstractness / concreteness of words in the Russian language. A feature of our approach is the development of 4 independent methods for determining the degree of abstractness / concreteness of words. An original method for extraction of abstract / concrete words from an extra-large corpus of GoogleBooks texts is proposed. To date, 3 methods have been fully implemented and one (psychosemantic experiments) was implemented partially, on a small sample of

words. After completing a series of experiments, a detailed comparison of dictionaries obtained by different methods and the generation of a single updated dictionary is assumed. Testing has shown the adequacy of the method of automatically determining the degree of abstractness of words from the corpus of texts. Using the example of one collection of school textbooks, it is shown that the proportion of abstract words correlates with the complexity of the text. Previously, such dictionaries were created for English and some other languages, but not for Russian. Our work fills the gap in this area for the Russian language and makes it possible to conduct various applied research on the abstract lexicon of the Russian language, similar to the research on the material of the English language.

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Language Features of Russian Texts of Engineering Discourse

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Abstract

The Article is devoted to the applied problem of identifying the linguistic features of engineering texts. The study of Russian-language texts of engineering discourse is usually of an applied nature, in our case, this applied research is caused by the need to teach foreigners who receive professional engineering education in Russia and in Russian language. The object of the research is the Russian-language texts of textbooks and manuals of engineering specialty "Robotic systems". The logical-component features of the engineering texts organization are described. The basis for the study of features can be a dictionary database of engineering texts, namely catalogs of frequency words. The method of creating a catalog of frequency words is presented. The source material for this study were the texts on the engineering specialty "Robotic systems", created for the purpose of teaching students of this profile. In total, about 10 thousand pages of authentic texts were processed. The catalog of frequency vocabulary includes about 2000 units. On the basis of this analysis, the substantive, verbal, adjectival, adverbial groups and the group of service parts of speech were identified. Quantitative analysis allowed to identify the most popular grammatical classes of words that are found in Russian engineering texts, and to describe the features of their functioning in engineering texts. Currently, the results of the research allow us to come to the statement that engineering communication is a special kind of Russian-language speech universe. The method of analysis of texts of engineering specialties, based on the study of the most frequent vocabulary, is not exhaustive in order to see all their specific language features, but makes it possible to track the most striking features inherent in this class of scientific texts. The Appendix contains a catalogue of frequency vocabulary in the engineering specialty "Robotic systems".

Keywords: Engineering discourse, Teaching foreign languages, Russian as a foreign language.

1. Introduction

The research of engineering discourse texts, unlike the texts of other areas, for example, fiction, is usually applied. In our case, the interest to this type of speech production is due to the need of component analysis of the text material, with the help of which it is possible to identify its specific linguistic features. Identification of the language features of Russian-language engineering texts is necessary for teaching their creation and understanding of foreign students studying at Russian technical universities. Therefore, Russian texts of engineering discourse are the subject of special scientific interest of teachers who work with foreign students studying Russian as a means of education in Russian. It can be assumed that the linguistic study of engineering texts as an integral part of the Russian-speaking communicative space is largely associated with the search for answers to the linguistic and didactic question of how to improve, modernize methods of teaching Russian to foreigners in Russian technical universities.

2. Literature Review

It should be noted that engineering communication in Russian began to attract the attention of linguists relatively not long time ago. It can be said that the texts of scientific discourse were studied in general in order to identify specific features that are characteristic of written scientific texts. Engineering communication was not of particular interest to linguists and was by default regarded as an integral part of scientific discourse.

Currently, the research conducted by Russian scientists and the results obtained by them allow us to come to the statement that engineering communication is a special kind of Russian-language speech universe. I. B. Avdeeva (2005) identified, and in the work of E. V. Kosterina (2016) clarified the logical and component features of the organization of engineering texts. These include such elements as the concept of the object, the Genesis of the object, the quantitative and qualitative characteristics of objects, the formulation of the problem, the formulation of the problem, the solution of the problem in ideal conditions and in real conditions, evaluation of solutions, evaluation of the effectiveness of the decision.

In different works (Levina, 2003, 2008; Vasil'eva, 2000, 2005, 2006) the basic syntactic models used in the construction of oral and written statements of engineering communication participants are collected and described. Repeatedly implemented in attempting to produce catalogues of the frequency lexicon utilities (Artem'eva, 2004; Vasil'eva, 2006; ZHarov, Klimova, & Kuznecova, 2003; Lohwater,1990).

Studies in linguistic purpose text engineering material discourse allow us to identify and describe the linguistic features of engineering texts. The basis for the study of these features can be the lexical Fund of Russian engineering texts, namely catalogs of frequency vocabulary, compiled on the material of the study of large amounts of engineering texts. In this article we are talking about the linguistic specificity of Russian engineering texts obtained on the basis of the analysis of the frequency vocabulary of the array of texts in the specialty "Robotic systems".

3. Methodology

To identify the linguistic features of the Russian-language texts of engineering discourse, a technique, based on the analysis of the frequency vocabulary used in this communicative and professional sphere was chosen. The original idea of the study was to see what lexical units engineers most often use in their speech. We were interested in the number of these lexical units and their grammatical characteristics.

In order to implement the idea of the study, it was necessary to select the frequency vocabulary and make a catalog of the most frequently used units, which in linguodidactics is called the lexical minimum.

The lexical minimum in the specialty "Robotic systems" was made as a result of processing of the dictionary material of 26 textbooks for universities and textbooks written by different authors, with a total of 164,523 word uses. When developing the lexical minimum, the computer program Wordstst was used, which allowed to create a rating of words by frequency of use. The basis of the catalog is the principles of frequency, word-formation productivity, high lexical valence, taking into account the terminological nature of the word. It should be noted that these principles (except for the terminological nature of the word) are indicated as the main ones and developers of lexical minima of general knowledge of Russian as a foreign language (Andryushina, 2011, 2018). When developing the lexical minimum on the specialty "Robotic systems" was also taken into account the factor of language Mature students foreign students, so vocabulary items, which are consistent with those reflected in the lexical minimum of the total Russian language proficiency levels A1 and A2 of the final version of this branch the lexical minimum of the excluded. The full lexical minimum in the specialty "Robotic systems" includes 1 700 words.

It should be noted that when compiling the lexical minimum, some errors were allowed, which may lead to a slight distortion of the results. Firstly, only written texts are used for analysis and oral speech is not taken into account. Secondly, since the basis for the selection of sources was the marking of a specialty rather than specialization, it can be assumed that the volume of speech material covering a particular specialization is not equal, which can lead to an error in determining the frequency of use of terms. In other words, if the total amount of text material in the entire database of sources devoted, for example, to the theme of the electric drive, exceeds other topics, it is expected that the terms of this scientific field will be nominally more, and there will be more than use of one term.

What's more, since the lexical minimum is limited, it is not possible to introduce all terminological units into it. To overcome this problem, it is necessary to create terminological minima.

Moreover, the error in the calculations is associated with the technical capabilities of Wordstat, the errors described above contribute a certain amount of subjectivity to the formation of the lexical minimum, but can hardly significantly affect the final result.

The catalog of frequency vocabulary is a material for the analysis of linguistic features of engineering texts. On its basis, the component composition of the language content of engineering texts is analyzed, the characteristics of individual classes of parts of speech presented in the catalog are identified and described.

4. Results

Creation of the catalog allowed to reveal lexical and grammatical features of the language landscape of the professional and communicative sphere "Robotic systems". These features should be taken into account when developing teaching materials on the Russian language for foreign students receiving professional training in this specialty.

4.1. Linguo-didactic description of the lexical minimum in the specialty "Robotic systems»

In order to study the grammatical features of the lexical minimum, five catalogues were compiled, including groups of words of different parts of speech: substantive, verbal, adjectival, adverbial and catalogue of official parts of speech. A comparative analysis of the volumes of these directories is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Ratio of parts of speech

Part of speech	Noun	Adjective	Verb	Adverb	Service
% of the total amount of words of the lexical minimum	52%	23%	20%	2,4%	2,6%

Morphological analysis of the lexical minimum showed that the proportion of nominal parts of speech is 2/3 of the total volume of vocabulary material, while the total proportion of the substantive group of this lexical minimum is much higher than the proportion of any other morphological group: In General, this ratio of nominal and verbal parts of speech is usual for the texts of engineering discourse, as previously written in the scientific literature (Levina, 2003; Vasil'eva, 2005). Engineering and technical texts, being part of the General scientific discourse, in a large number use descriptive communicative strategies, the task of which is to represent the multidimensional characteristics of the object under study, so engineering texts in General belong to the typological class of texts-descriptions, which is reflected in the construction of statements. Therefore, the syntax of the engineering text prefers verbs to descriptive phrases *"verb + noun"*, in which the traditional verbal semantics is distributed between two independent lexical units – a verb that does not name the action, but only nominates the fact of its presence, and a verbal noun that expresses the essence of the described process, for example, to perform an action, provide movement, perform rotation, etc.

4.2. Verb group

Let us consider the peculiarities of the verbal group of this lexical minimum. The catalogue of verbal vocabulary, ordered by the number of uses, revealed the following patterns. The most frequent are the verbs related to the General scientific block of vocabulary which reflects not specific to the described communicative sphere of action, and General logical. Imagine the rating of the first thirty on the frequency of occurrences of the verbs: *to be (there are several different Russian words equivalent to English verb to be), to have, to follow (you should), allow, define, implement, include, submit, consider, use, depend, provide, get (get), require, use, happen, give, lead, show (shown), to relate, to contain, to produce, to find, to include, to exist, to notice, to be* Special verbal vocabulary reflecting the cognitive-conceptual field of investigated communicative spheres, shifted in the second half of this directory: *to strengthen, to hold, to break, to recognize, to play, to run, to customize, to vary, to design, to induce, to discharge, to assign.* It is obvious that the composition of the verbal group clearly falls into two categories – general scientific, often with a vague meaning, vocabulary and industry vocabulary, with the most common first category. This fact confirms the thesis that the grammatical structure of the sentences of the engineering text is based on substantive dominants, which is why the total volume of verbal vocabulary is small compared to the volume of nominal vocabulary.

4.3. Substantive group

Catalog of substantive vocabulary, also ordered by the number of word use, allowed to identify other patterns. The first thirty nouns clearly indicate the subject of the lexical minimum: *robot, control, system, movement, coordinate, device, manipulator, speed, work, time, scheme, axis, moment, drive, current, engine, number, movement, communication, link, object, position, point, value, equipment, part, mechanism, mobility, element, equation.* Even the above set of words shows that in the substantive group as well as in the verbal one, there are two categories – General scientific and branch - but unlike the verbal group, both categories belong to the sub-language of natural Sciences. Another important feature of the substantive group is that 39% of its composition consists of verbal derivatives, which are considered as verb forms by some Russian linguistic schools. The frequent use of verbal derivatives is associated with the predominance of descriptive predicates over verbal predicates in the syntactic structure of sentences of engineering texts.

4.4. Adjectival group

The adjectival catalogue allows to reveal productive word-formative models of adjectives used in the communicative sphere of robotics. These include models which are derived from nouns with the following suffixes: -N- (*rus* perekhod-n-yi − *egnl*. transition, *rus.* gabarit-n-yi − *egnl*. dimensiaonal, *rus.* zakhvat-n-yi − *egnl*. gripper, *rus.* magnit-n-yi − *egnl*. magnetic, *rus.* stal-n-oi − *egnl*. steel, *rus.* vakuum-n-yi − *egnl*. vacuum, *rus.* sensor-n-yi − *egnl*. touch-sensitive, etc.), - OV/EV- (*rus.* kolts-ev-oi − *egnl*. ring, *rus* plech-ev-oi − *egnl*. shoulder, *rus.* tsifr-ov-oi − *egnl*. digital, *rus.* rolik-ov-yi − *egnl*. roller, *rus.* lokt-ev-oi − *egnl*. elbow, *rus.* pusk-ov-oi − *egnl*. triggering, *rus.* vint-ov-oi − *egnl*. screw, *rus.* svet-ov-oi − *egnl*. light, *rus.* ugl-ov-oi − *egnl*. angular, *rus.* tsikl-ov-oi − *egnl*. syclic, etc.), - ESK- (*rus.* kinematich-esk-ii − *egnl*. kinematic, *rus.* akustich-esk-ii − *egnl*. acoustic, *rus.* mekhanich-esk-ii − *egnl*. mechanical, *rus.* elektrich-esk-ii − *egnl*. electrical, etc.), TELN- (*rus.* predvari-teln-yi − *egnl*. preliminary, *rus.* soedini-teln-yi − *egnl*. connective, *rus.* koleba-teln-yi − *egnl*. oscillatory, *rus.* vrascha-teln-yi − *egnl*. rotational, *rus.* tsentrostremi-teln-yi − *egnl*. centripetal, etc.) -ONN- (*rus* kommutatsi-onn-yi − *egnl*. switching, *rus.* lokatsi-onn-yi − *egnl*. radar, *rus.* navigatsi-onn-yi − *egnl*. navigation, *rus.* distantsi-onn-yi − *egnl*. remote, *rus.* manipulyati-onn-yi − *egnl*. manipulation, etc.).

4.5. The adverbial group

The catalogue of frequency adverbs is small compared to the catalogues described above. As it can be seen from Table 1, adverbs make up 2.4%. Almost all adverbs are formed from adjectives by suffixal method with the suffix -O: *rus.* analogichn-o – *egnl.* analogically, *rus.* posledovateln-o – *egnl.* consecutively, *rus.* priblizeteln-o – *egnl.* approximately, *rus.* poocheredn-o – *egnl.* alternately, *rus.* ekvivalentn-o – *egnl.* equivalently, etc.

4.6. Group of service parts of speech

The catalog of service parts of speech includes a list of units specific for the scientific style. The list, ranked by frequency, looks like this: in the case, using, for example, thus type, in the form, in connection, however, relatively, the most, or because, as, except, by, therefore, along, and, with the purpose, thanks, order, etc.

5. Discussion

The revealed features of the Russian-language texts of engineering discourse help to understand the linguistic nature of these texts. Let us present some language features that distinguish engineering communication from other types of speech practices. It is obvious that engineering communication is based on nominative vocabulary, as it uses mainly descriptive tactics in building discourse. Just as in General scientific discourse, engineering discourse is tuned to the description and explanation of concepts and processes, so even movement, which in its natural semantics can not be static, in engineering communication stops, as it is considered not as a fact of being, but as a scientific phenomena, where it is required to describe its structure, Considering the movement, the participant of engineering communication prefers to use in speech instead of turning – to make / perform a turn, instead of moving – to make / perform movement. The results of the study showed that the number of verbal vocabulary is comparable with the number of adjectival vocabulary. In ordinary everyday communication verbal vocabulary takes a much larger place, performing its main function – to report on the action. In engineering texts we see that often the verbal vocabulary performs the function of the substance, i.e. simply nominates the fact of the action, but does not specify this action. The Russian Lexical Fund is characterized by the presence of a large number of words with the same root morpheme, which is explained by the high word-formation activity, as the Russian language has a large number of building morphemes – prefixes and suffixes for different parts of speech. This allows native speakers of the Russian language in everyday communication to convey different shades of meaning and shades of emotional relations to the object of communication. However, lexical units included in the core of frequency in engineering communication are often formed by certain morphemes and in accordance with clear word-formation algorithms. The list of these morphemes is not so large compared to the existing set of prefixes and suffixes in the language. Most often, construction morpheme used for forming from a known root word with a specific categorical value. Thus, in the language of engineering communication, verb nouns with a suffix or its variant are often used, for example, preservation, movement, direction. Interestingly, the suffixes of adjectives are most often used for attribution of words to the class of adjectives. The catalogue of frequency vocabulary not only gives an opportunity not only to see some grammatical features of the language of a certain professional sphere. Taking it into consideration, it is easy to identify the main thematic blocks of the studied communicative sphere, in particular in the field of robotics there is the structure of a mechanical robot, a manipulator as an integral part of a mechanical robot, the degree of mobility of the manipulator, ways to move the robot, robot control system, etc. It is important to note that frequency vocabulary catalogs (lexical minima) are necessary not only as a tool for analyzing a huge database of texts of any professional orientation. They also have other functions necessary for the effective organization of foreign language teaching. Lexical minimum as a separate tool is used in the methodology of teaching foreign languages for several centuries. First developed by Y. A. Kamensky for the study of the Czech language, it became the object of special scientific study in modern linguodidactics. T. M. Balyhina (2003), as one of the founders of the Russian system of testing Russian as a foreign language, believes that the lexical minimum is understood as "a set of words, the number of which is the maximum in terms of students ' abilities and the minimum in terms of the language system and allows using the language as a means of communication" (p.159).the lexical minimum allows to solve important linguodidactic problems: first, to limit the infinite speech space of real communication to the limits in which it is possible to study modeling of natural speech behavior, and secondly, to describe the lexical units necessary for the development of certain purposes and for a certain period; third, to accumulate material that allows teachers to understand what to teach, and students – what to study.

The catalogue of frequency vocabulary in the specialty "Robotic systems" presented in the article is the branch lexical minimum, i.e. the lexical minimum in the language of one professional sphere. The branch lexical minimum describes the vocabulary core of speech communication within the boundaries of a given professional discourse. To teach a foreign language, the development of a lexical minimum in the language of the specialty is important primarily because with its help, the infinite lexical space of real communication in a certain professional area is narrowed to the boundaries that allow modeling speech communication in the educational plane. With this approach, educational

communication ceases to be spontaneous and acquires a "legitimate" character due to the fact that it is based on a scientifically sound base – the minimum lexical language of the specialty. The characteristics of the lexical minimum described above are a reference point for the development of the apparatus of language and speech exercises. The developed lexical minimum in the specialty "Robotic systems" is the basis for the creation of a manual on the Russian language for foreign students studying in this direction. The manual is focused on the development of both language and speech skills of foreign students and is a synthesis of lexical and grammatical work supported by a large set of exercises and work on teaching types of speech activity: reading professional texts with their subsequent analysis, creating their own written texts of secondary speech genres and teaching oral speech communication within this professional discourse. Training of professional communication becomes more effective due to the understanding of the main language features of engineering communication identified by the analysis of the lexical minimum.

6. Conclusion

Lexical minimum in the direction of "Robotic systems" is a specially selected alphabetical list of words that make up the lexical core of speech communication in the field of robotics. This list is developed for the purpose of the linguistic and didactic description of lexical base of sublanguage of the specified professional area. It provides an opportunity to accurately determine its thematic areas, to develop a set of exercises that allow students to focus on the study of specific features of the language system of the discourse in order to succeed in the perception of texts in the specialty and create their own oral and written speech products in the field of professional communication. The method of analysis of texts of engineering specialties, based on the study of the most frequent vocabulary, is not exhaustive in order to see all their specific language features, but makes it possible to track the most striking features inherent in this class of scientific texts.

7. Appendix

Catalogue of frequency vocabulary in the engineering specialty "Robotic systems"

Absent, absolute, acceleration, accompany, according to, account, accurate, acoustic, acquire, act, action, active, adaptive, add, add up, additional, affect, affiliate, air, allow, allow, along, along with, alternately, although, amount, analog, analysis, apart from, appear, applied (power), apply, appointment, appropriate, approximately arbitrary, area, arise, artificial, as, as a whole, assembly, assume, asunder, asynchronous, at the heart, automatic, autonomous, auxiliary, average, avoid, await, axis, base, based, basis, be , bearing, because, become, belong, besides, billet, bloc, body, brake, braking, brush, by, calculate, calculated, calculation, call himself, capable, capture, carefully, carrying, Cartesian, case, cause, center, centrifugal, certain, chain, change, chapter, characteristic characteristically, characterize, check, choose, circuit, class, classify, close, closed, coefficient, coincide, combine, common, communication, compare, complex, complex, complicate, component, composition, computer, computing, condition, condition, conditionally, conditioned, conduct, connect, consider, consist, constructive, contact, contain, continuous, contribute, control, conveniently, conversely, convert, convince, coordinate, corner, cost, coupling, course, create, creation, crooked, cross, current, cycle, cylinder, dangerous, data, decide, decompose, deformation, degree, delivered, denote, depend, describe, design, despite, detail, determine, develop, development, device, devoted, diameter, differ, different, differential, digital, direct, direction, disable, discrete, distance, distinguish, do, download, drive, dynamics, each other, effort, elastic, electric, electric drive, electromagnetic, electronic, element, elevated, emergency, energy, engine, enough, enter, environment, equal, equation, equip, equipment, equivalent, error, exactly, example, exceed, except, excitation, executive, exist, expand, explain, explore, expose, expression, external, extreme, facilitate, fair, fall, feature, final, find, firm, fix, flat, flexible, flow, fold, follow, following, food, for example, for the purpose, force, form, formula, freely, frequency, friction, full, fully, function, functional, functioning, fundamental, general, generalized, generator, , geometric, give, group, hand, hang, have, high, highlight, hinge, hold, homogeneous, horizontal, housing, hydraulic, illustrate, image, impact, implement, impose,, in case, in connection, in contrast, in general, in particular, in the absence, in the presence, include, includes, increase, independent, industrial, information, initial, input, install, intended, intermediate, internal, irrespective, joint, Just a moment, keep down, key, kinematic, known, large, last, lead, length, level, light, limit, line, linear, link, linked, liquid, listed, load, location, logical, longitudinal, lower, machine, magnetic, main, make, man, manage, management, manipulative, manipulator, manufacture, mass, material, matrix, maximum, mean, measure, measurement, measuring, mechanical, mechanism, meet, мemory, method, minimum, minimum, mobile, mobile, mobility, mode, model, modern, module, most, move, move, movement, movement, much, mutual, nasty, natural, necessarily, necessary, negative, neglect, network, new, node, note, notice, now, number, object, obviously, occupy, occur, on, open, operation, operational, operator, optical, optimal, order, orientation, out of, output, , output (output), own, pair, parameter, part, partially, pass, perceive, perfect, perform, permanent, phase, piston, place, plane, pneumatic, point, position, positioning, possess, possible, potential, power, practically, preferably, preliminary, presence, preset (value), pressure, previous, probably, process, produce, production, program, programming, progressive, property,

proportional, proportionally, prove, provide, provide, pulse, purpose, raise, raise, random, range, range, reach, react, ready, real, realize, receive, recognize, recommend, record, rectangular, reduce, reduced, refer, reference, reflect, regard, regulation, relation, relation, relative, relatively, relay, reliability, remain, remaining, remote, render, repeat, replace, represent, reproduce, require, resistance, respectively, result, return, reverse, right, rigid, rise, robot, robotic, robotics, rotate, rotor, rule, satisfy, save, scheme, screw, seek, semiconductor, sensor, sentry, separate, serial, serve, service, shaft, share, short, show, side, signal, significant, similar, similarly, simple, simplify, simultaneous, single, site, size, slave, small, solid, sound, source, space, special, specific, specific, specified, speed, spherical, spot, squeezed, standard, start, starting, static, step, still, straight, strengthen, strictly, structure, subject to, substitute,, succeed, such, supply, surface, surrounding, suspension, sustainable, system, table, tactile, take, task, team, technical, technological, tell, temporal, test, testify, thanks to, the gravity of gravity, therefore, three phase, thus, time, Tong, tool, tooth, top, torsional, total, touch, training, trajectory, transfer, transition, transport, turn, type, type's, ulnar, ultrasonic, under the action, underwater, unite, universal, use, useful, usually, vacuum, value, variable, variable, various, vector6 vertical, view, voltage, volume, watch, wave, way, welding, wheel, wide, winding, with, with reference, with the help, within, work, working, zone.

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Syntactic Complexity of Russian Unified State Exam Texts in English: A Study on Reliability and Validity

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Abstract

In this study we analyze texts used in Russian Unified State Exam on English language. Texts that formed small research corpora were retrieved from 2 resources: official USE database as a reference point, and popular website used by pupils for USE training "Neznaika" (https://neznaika.pro/). The size of two corpora is balanced: USE has 11934 tokens and "Neznaika" - 11918 tokens. We share Biber's point of view that linguistic tendencies are quite stable with ten text samples per genre or register (Biber 2007). We retrieved 20 texts from each resource. This research takes into consideration analysis on syntactic complexity, the main subject of research is the syntactic type of the sentence. The present study focuses on two research questions: RQ1: What sentence types pattern is typical for USE texts? RQ2: Are the materials of the training sites reliable and valid? The methods employed in the study are the identification and manual counting of the sentence types, absolute and normalized frequency calculation. While analyzing the texts, we witnessed greater range of tokens per text (tpt) in unofficial texts for training. For "Neznaika" database the range was 490 - 790 (tpt), while an official USE database texts demonstrated lower variance: 539 – 686 tpt. The number of sentences in "Neznaika" (664) and official USE texts database (670) is almost equal. The number of sentence types in "Neznaika" and official USE texts database also does not extend correlation limits.

Keywords: Syntactic complexity, Unified State Exam, syntactic pattern, text complexity, quantitative linguistics

Introduction

Unified National (State) Exam (USE) is an all-Russia exam taken by school-leavers at the end of their secondary school. First experimental studies taken in 2001 influenced the whole procedure of exam material selection and training. In 2009 this test has become compulsory for secondary school leavers in order to enter Higher Educational Institutions (Federal law on USE 2007) USE in English is expected to become obligatory for all secondary school graduates across Russia in 2022 by the Minister of Education and Sciences of the Russian Federation (Kommersant 2014). That means that to obtain the Secondary School Certificate every pupil will have an option to take basic or an advanced test. USE in English is equivalent to ESL standards of A2+ to B2 (Specification on exam materials 2018). Exam tests the following skills written (Listening, Reading, Writing and Use of English) and oral (Speaking), which makes five parts of the test in total. Tasks presented in the following forms: short answer, multiple choice, multiple matching, gap-filling and others (Specification on exam materials 2019). The Test Specification describes the requirements for text selection in terms of the correspondence to the age of the test takers, their background experience, no discrimination policy and so on.

The search of research topics on such platform as Elibrary (Russian scientific electronic library, integrated with the Russian Science Citation Index), provided the following results around 20,000 articles provided analysis of USE test taking procedure, papers evaluating the results of USE is about 40,000. Articles discussing readability of the USE texts in English is within the range of 25-30.

Even though international scholars have conducted a number of research on the linguistic patterns that affect the readability, in Russian linguistics this area is rather new and unexplored (Feng 2011, Gabdrakhmanova et all 2018, Kohl 1999, Mc Namara et all 2010). The syntactic readability of the texts used in USE in English has never been the target of linguistic research. Therefore, there are only a few studies on the content of the examination materials. Among them, for example, the research conducted by the scholars of Research Laboratory of Intellectual Technologies for Text Management, Kazan Federal University, Russia. Its researchers, M. Solnyshkina, V. Solovyev, A. Kiselnikov, E. Harkova, O. Safonkina, E. Varlamova, I. Guryanov, D. Sungatullina, etc, consider readability as one of the most important parameters of the text, in particular, from the point of view of the syntactic analysis and its implementation in teaching purposes as well as in other languages (Solnyshkina et all 2014, Guryanov et all 2017, Subich et all 2016).

To check the following number of texts selected, adapted for state exam we used text complexity formulas. Most part of these formulae were developed in the XX century, when the level of the complexity is shown by a certain index [4]. Such formulae become widespread due to the problem of an objective assessment that is of great importance when selecting texts for language skills assessment.

However, in Russian linguistics, readability has not yet found wide application in the national educational paradigm. Russian researcher I. Oboroneva made a great contribution to readability formulae in application to the Russian language. Nevertheless, the question of determining this index for texts in English as a foreign language remains open (Oborneva 2006).

The use of formulas for determining the readability and text complexity in relation to the texts used in the USE is of particular relevance. M. Solnyshkina and A. Kiselnikov in their work "The complexity parameters of exam texts" note the relevance of using these formulas in exam texts due to the fact that a text is the basis of any language test, regardless of its type and nature, and its complexity largely determines the perception of the test (Solnyshkina et all 2014). In this regard, the texts used in USE in English are an important topic for research, as for the test purposes they are transformed due to the testing purposes of exams.

Vast number of texts in English used both for the test papers and for various teaching manuals, issued by various publishers, gives us reasons for critical assessment of such texts as there need to be a common ground for text complexity evaluation. This process, aimed at the increasing validity and reliability of examination materials and materials for USE preparing, is possible only with the use of formulas for determining the text readability index. The test can be considered as reliable and valid for its purposes, but it is still very important to study the quality of the input texts.

Text proficiency levels are distinguished by many different linguistic features, and syntactic complexity can be one of the elements for grade level distinctions.

For this purpose, the team at Kazan Federal University (Ivanov et al. 2018). compiled a corpus of textbooks on Social Studies by L. N. Bogolubov and A.F. Nikitin for the 5th–11thGrades, the size of the Corpus being 525,748. Both sets of textbooks are from the "Federal List of Textbooks Recommended by the Ministry of Education and Science of the Russian Federation to Use in Secondary and High Schools". The team is aimed at understanding the proficiency level of each grade, reflected in such 5 principal Coh-Metrix components as narrativity, deep cohesion, referential cohesion, syntactic simplicity, and word concreteness (Dowell et all 2014), as well distinguishing the main points of difference between the grades.

Methods

In our case, the aim differs to a certain degree, as we are led by the idea of identifying the syntactic parameters of the texts from the official USE as basic and comparing them with the parameters of the texts from neznaika.com.

The choice of this particular website was caused by a number of reasons:

(a) the fact that the schoolteachers of English recommend this website to their pupils for preparation to the USE;

(b) 20 variants of the text tasks;

(c) open access to the database of the tasks.

The size of the corpus is 23 852 tokens. Information for corpus was retrieved from three main sources official USE texts for Reading – 11934 tokens, popular website that is used by school-leavers for self-check tests "Neznaika" 11918 tokens. A token is viewed in the work as an instance of a sequence of characters in some particular document that are grouped together as a useful semantic unit for processing. Usually it refers to the total number of words in a text, corpus etc, regardless of how often they are repeated (Tokenization 2008).

Though the size of the official and "Neznaika" corpus is almost the same as variation of tokens number per one text is greater among the "Neznaika" texts, as presented in Table 1 (below).

Table 1. Range of token number per one text

	Neznaika texts	Official USE texts
Number of tokens per one text	490 – 790	539 - 686

As our study sets the main target of a research into the syntactic complexity of the texts, our main subject of research is the sentence types: simple and composite (complex, compound, complex+compound). The total number of sentences in each text was counted without text complexity formulae. Identification of the sentence type was made without automated tools such as syntactic sentence analyser.

Results

As it was mentioned above, the present study investigates two research questions:

RQ1: What sentence types pattern is typical for USE texts?

RQ2: Is the syntactic of official texts different from the pattern of "Neznaika" texts?

The following tables provide the information about the results of analyzed corpora. Researchers retrieved 20 exam texts for USE reading task from every source.

Table 2 Percent correlation to the total number of sentences in the Neznaika texts

Text number	Simple %	Complex %	Compound %	Complex+ compound %
1.	42,9	31,4	11,4	14,3
2.	46,7	38,3	10,0	5,0
3.	47,1	20,6	20,6	11,8
4.	25,0	29,2	25,0	20,8
5.	71,4	17,9	3,6	7,1
6.	17,9	28,6	35,7	17,9
7.	60,0	23,3	13,3	3,3
8.	51,1	21,3	21,3	6,4
9.	50,0	32,4	11,8	5,9
10.	25,0	33,3	16,7	25,0
11.	20,7	48,3	3,4	27,6
12.	23,3	33,3	23,3	20,0
13.	47,8	15,2	26,1	10,9
14.	25,0	45,8	12,5	16,7
15.	54,3	22,9	20,0	2,9
16.	45,7	42,9	2,9	8,6
17.	37,1	37,1	8,6	11,4
18.	36,4	42,4	12,1	9,1
19.	21,4	35,7	28,6	14,3
20.	36,0	28,0	12,0	24,0

According to the table 2:

• The correlation of complex sentences to total number of sentences ranges from 15,2% (text 13) to 48,3% (text 11). Great number of complex sentences indirectly implies that higher level of such constructions leads to higher complexity.

• The correlation of compound sentences to total number of sentences ranges from 2,9% (text 16) to 35,7% (text 6). Critical difference between the lowest number of compound sentences can dramatically result on comprehension of exam text.

• Number of complex+compound sentences to total number of sentences ranges from 2,9% (text 15) to 27,6% (text 11). These compound constructions can result on misinterpretation of the main ideas in the text, as these constructions claimed to combine two or three ideas.

Table 3 Percent correlation to the total number of sentences in the official USE texts

Text number	Simple %	Complex %	Compound %	Complex+ compound %
1.	50,0	27,5	12,5	10,0
2.	28,6	42,9	10,7	17,9
3.	41,4	48,3	0,0	10,3

4.	50,0	32,4	0,0	17,6
5.	32,1	25,0	25,0	17,9
6.	47,4	31,6	7,9	13,2
7.	48,6	24,3	21,6	5,4
8.	44,1	23,5	20,6	11,8
9.	18,5	51,9	11,1	18,5
10.	42,9	17,1	31,4	8,6
11.	34,6	46,2	11,5	7,7
12.	38,5	34,6	23,1	3,8
13.	53,1	31,3	0,0	15,6
14.	32,0	24,0	20,0	24,0
15.	31,1	28,9	24,4	15,6
16.	42,4	39,4	12,1	6,1
17.	50,0	29,4	8,8	11,8
18.	33,3	15,2	27,3	24,2
19.	48,6	45,9	2,7	2,7
20.	55,1	24,5	12,2	8,2

According to the table 3:

• The correlation of complex sentences to total number of sentences from 15,2% (text 18) to 51,9% (text 9). Great number of complex sentences indirectly implies that higher level of such constructions leads to higher complexity.

• The correlation of compound sentences to total number of sentences from 2,7% (text 19) to 31,4% (text 10). It should be mentioned that 3 texts out of 20 did not have any compound sentences (texts 3,4,13). Text without compound sentences should be less difficult to comprehend. Critical difference between the lowest number of compound sentences can dramatically result on comprehension of exam text.

• Number of complex+compound sentences to total number of sentences ranges from 2,7% (text 19) to 24,2% (text 18). These compound constructions can result on misinterpretation of the main ideas in the text, as these constructions claimed to combine two or three ideas.

Discussion

The following two tables 4 and 5 demonstrate correlations between total number of sentences withdrawn from the texts. Here we can observe individual correlations of simple sentences to complex and compound ones in every text. Total diversity of texts under study is relatively higher in "Neznaika" texts comparing with official texts.

Table 4. Sentence types in the Neznaika texts

Text number	Number of sentences	Number of simple sentences	Number of complex sentences	Number of compound sentences	Number of complex+compound sentences
1	35	15	11	4	5
2	60	28	23	6	3
3	34	16	7	7	4
4	24	6	7	6	5
5	28	20	5	1	2
6	28	5	8	10	5
7	30	18	7	4	1
8	47	24	10	10	3
9	34	17	11	4	2

10	24	6	8	4	6
11	29	6	14	1	8
12	30	7	10	7	6
13	46	22	7	12	5
14	24	6	11	3	4
15	35	19	8	7	1
16	35	16	15	1	3
17	35	13	13	3	4
18	33	12	14	4	3
19	28	6	10	8	4
20	25	9	7	3	6
TOTAL	664	271	207	106	80

According to the table 4:

- the following criteria the number of sentences in each text ranges from 24 sentences per text to 60 sentences;
- total number of sentences per text is 33,2;
- the text 2 with 60 sentences contains almost half of simple sentences – 28;
- the second largest text 8 contains 47 sentences, 24 of them are simple ones;
- texts with least number of sentences 24 (texts 4, 10, 14) have 6 simple sentences that is one fourth of the total amount of sentences;
- the number of simple sentences to the total amount of sentences is 40%, complex sentences is 31%, compound sentences - 14%, complex+ compound sentences is 12%.

The aforementioned numbers and correlations demonstrate certain dependence on sentence type to the total amount of sentences in text. Texts with less sentences have the more complex and compound sentences will be in its structure due to compression of clusters of information presented in the text. The same dependence on sentence amount and its length and structural analysis can be witnessed in the dataset with official USE texts.

Table 5. Sentence types in the official texts

Text number	Number of sentences	Number of simple sentences	Number of complex sentences	Number of compound sentences	Number of complex+compound sentences
1	40	20	11	5	4
2	28	8	12	3	5
3	29	12	14	0	3
4	34	17	11	0	6
5	28	9	7	7	5
6	38	18	12	3	5
7	37	18	9	8	2
8	34	15	8	7	4
9	27	5	14	3	5
10	35	15	6	11	3
11	26	9	12	3	2
12	26	10	9	6	1
13	32	17	10	0	5
14	25	8	6	5	6
15	45	14	13	11	7
16	33	14	13	4	2
17	34	17	10	3	4
18	33	11	5	9	8
19	37	18	17	1	1
20	49	27	12	6	4
TOTAL	670	282	211	94	82

According to the table 5:

- total number of sentences per text is 33,5;

- the number of sentences in each text ranges from 25 sentences per text to 49 sentences that is slightly less diverse comparing to dataset of "Neznaika" collection;
- the largest (text 20) with 49 sentences contains 27 simple sentences;
- second largest (text 1) contains 40 sentences, 20 of them are simple ones;
- texts with least number of sentences 25 - 26 (texts 11, 12, 14) have range of 8 - 10 simple sentences that also demonstrates the dependence of syntactic complexity on the sentence number;
- the number of simple sentences to the total amount of sentences is 42%, complex sentences is 31%, compound sentences -14%, complex+ compound sentences is 12%.

The same dependence on sentence amount and its length and structural analysis can be witnessed in the dataset with official USE texts.

Conclusion

The problem of exam text academic equivalence has undergone a certain transformation. The results of our research demonstrated that USE exam texts are less diverse in syntactic patterns comparing to unofficial website "Neznaika" database. These results demonstrate the high level of expertise in text selection for exams. Thus, indirectly we can suppose that texts in the official collection of USE exam texts meet one of the main requirements of exam texts – equivalence and the same level of difficulty. Although, cannot rely on results of syntactic simplicity.

Answering to research question number1: What sentence types pattern is typical for USE texts? According to the analysis of our research material we presume that simple sentences predominate in USE reading texts 41% (Neznaika) and 42% (official USE texts) of total number of sentences. Among other types of sentences, we outline domination of complex sentences 31% of total number of sentences in 20 texts from each database.

Concerning research question number 2: Is the syntactic of official texts different from the pattern of "Neznaika" texts? The difference in syntactic patterns of both databases is irrelevant and can be considered as statistical deviation. Though we noticed greater fluctuation in sentences correlation in "Neznaika" texts (from 24 sentences per text to 60 sentences) comparing with the official USE texts (from 25 sentences per text to 49 sentences).

Although we cannot make our assumptions relying on the syntactic quantitative analysis of the exam texts. The problem of readability and text complexity provides opportunity for further thorough study of qualitative parameters of the text such as various types of cohesion, narrativity, stylistic register of the text. Although quantitative analysis of sentences can help in further selection of texts under study. Thus, further study of text complexity should start from texts 9,10,18 from USE official database and texts 6, 11 as they demonstrated the highest level of compound and complex sentences. In our further research we would focus on qualitative aspects of texts under study. The next stage is to estimate the validity of qualitative results and its predictive potential on text complexity comparing with quantitative.

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An Ideological and Compositional Role of the Monologues in "The Little Tragedies" by A. Pushkin

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Abstract

The paper is devoted to the study of Pushkin's "Little Tragedies" and the consideration of the ideological and compositional role of monologues in them. Monologues are analyzed in unity with the ideological content and artistic structure of the whole work; the aesthetic and dramatic functions of the monologue are determined. The material for the study was the monologue of Baron ("The Miserly Knight"), the monologues of Salieri ("Mozart and Salieri"), the song of Mary and the hymn of the Chairman ("Feast during the Plague"). Monologue is considered as the form of self-identity of the character, his feelings and thoughts in their most extreme terms (stinginess, envy, internal opposition to the fear of death). The monologues clearly reveal the contradictory complexity of the characters, therefore the monologue is considered as a form of psychological analysis of the various feelings of the character in their development. Special attention is paid to the internal connection of monologues with the system of artistic images of the play. The monologue of Baron indirectly corresponds with the other characters of the play; Salieri's monologues express not only his thoughts about himself, but equally about Mozart; the ending of Mary's song is intimately connected to the hymn of the Chairman. An important dramatic function of the characters' monologues of the "Little Tragedies" is to predetermine the plot development of the play. The monologue of Baron in the first scene motivates the behavior of the characters in the third act. Mary's song and the hymn of the Chairman, being the ideological and culminating centers of the tragedy, organize the rest of the material of the play. When solving the problems posed in the work, Pushkin does not give a moral assessment of them. The "open" monologue finale allows the reader to do this.

Keywords: tragedy, functions of monologues, compositional role of monologues.

1. Introduction

Pushkin's works of his last years of life are the most important stage not only for the poet's artistic path, but also for the entire history of Russian literature. The artistic creations of these years have become a unique phenomenon of the world literature. The cycle of poetic plays written by Pushkin in the fall of 1830 got its name "The Little tragedies" only with a posthumous publication, the poet himself called them "an experience of dramatic studies". Out of all the research papers devoted to the comprehensive study of the tragedies, we will only single out those in which the ideological and compositional role of the monologue is considered.

"The Little Tragedies" are a special type of drama without an intense intrigue, without a hero's struggle against obstacles, but full of passions in their extreme expression. The genre of short and intense scenes is a concise expression of a tragic image of human passions such as envy, stinginess, sensuality and others (Grossman, 1960). The famous researcher of Pushkin's creations D. Blagoy defined the main goal of the "Little tragedies" as the study of the human soul engulfed in absorbing passion. For Baron from "The Miserly Knight" this passion is the avarice, the power of "a handful of gold", for Salieri from "Mozart and Salieri" it is the moral issue of the "compatibility of genius and villainy" (Blagoy, 1967).

The formation of the basic principles of the drama system of Pushkin's "Little Tragedies" was greatly influenced by the poetics of the French writer Jean Racine and English romantic poet Barry Cornwall. Racine followed the principle of "making something out of nothing" and considered rather simple plot with a lack of actions as the basis of genuine art. Barry Cornwall was a romantic English poet, an author of short "dramatic scenes" exploring "strong passions". Using deep dramatic conflict with a lack of actions is the basic principle of the dramatic design of Cornwall's plays. External dramatic action in the plays is condensed, the number of characters are reduced to a minimum. The drama itself is expressed in the motives of the characters' behavior which are primarily explained in monologues. These basic dramatic principles of Racine and Cornwall were directly embodied in Pushkin's "Dramatic Essays".

In this article we will consider the monologue as a form of self-disclosure of a character, his feelings and thoughts and also as a form of psychological analysis of not only one passion, but a combination of different feelings of a character. We will define which content and compositional elements link the monologue of a character with the system of artistic images and consider the ideological and compositional role of monologues in unity with the ideological content and artistic structure of the entire work. We will analyze the monologue of Baron, the monologue of Salieri, the song of Mary and the hymn of the Chairman. There will be no detailed analysis of the monologue of Don Juan, because

the disclosure of this character of the tragedy takes place mainly in the dialogues, which is determined by the artistic task of the author.

2. Monologues as a form of disclosure of the main idea in "The Miserly Knight"

The first version of the tragedy dates back to the beginning of January 1826. It was fully completed in the fall of 1830 in Boldino and printed in "Sovremennik" magazine in 1836. The subheading "Scenes from the tragicomedy by Chenstone" indicated that the printed work was a translation of the English writer William Shenstone's creations (in eighteenth century Russia his last name was spelled and pronounced as Chenstone). However, it was later proved that Chenstone never wrote this play, therefore "The Miserly Knight" is actually an original Pushkin's work. Gukovskiy defined the social aspect of this theme in the following way: "The Miserly Knight is a tragedy of human psyche and morality under conditions of the triumph of money, which are terrible for Pushkin" (Gukovskiy, 1957). There are two main interpretations of the Miser, a comic one and a tragic one. "The Miserly Knight" is an expression of the poet's social and philosophical reflections on his era. The idea of the omnipotent power of gold over man is developed by Pushkin within one family. The conflict between Albert and his father Baron Philip is reflected in all three scenes of the tragedy. The ripening of the conflict and its inevitability is revealed by the compositional method of reciprocal symmetry. In the first scene Philip does not physically appear, but Albert's perception of his father outlines the theme of his stinginess. In the second scene, on the contrary, there is no appearance of Albert. His image as a squander is given from the point of view of the Baron. The son and his father appear together only in the third, the last scene of the play, and the dramatic conflict is tragically resolved. In Baron's monologue, the second scene of the tragedy, Pushkin reveals the psychology and dialectics of the fatal passion of accumulation by showing a tragic submission of human soul to this all-consuming passion. After all, Baron becomes a frenzied fanatic, capable of all the "bitter temperance", accumulating his treasures at the cost of "sleepless nights" and "day cares".

The monologue reveals the complex, controversial nature of Baron, the poet of gold and power and at the same time a trivial moneylender who thinks of his debtors as of "lazybones, rogues, vagrants and pretenders" and indirectly pushes them to doing anything, even committing crime. His passion, greed, did not appear from nowhere. The treasures grew little by little, elevating the golden "hill" which Baron desperately wished for. Every day when he descends into the basement and "pours a handful of gold into a half empty chest" for him is a happy day. Thus, by "bringing a regular toll of a meager handful" the Baron climbed up his "proud hill", from the height of which he looks at everything that he possesses, experiencing the demonic sense of pleasure from his unlimited power. Money for Baron Philip is a source of power and omnipotence. But this power is cruel and corrupting. It destroys the best features of the human spirit and allows to think that love, creativity and virtue can be bought. "What does not belong to me? From now on, I can rule the world like a demon… A crowd of nymphs will rush to my magnificent gardens and muses will bring their tribute to me, and virtue and sleepless work will humbly await my reward". Pushkin's Baron is both a miser and a miserable, insignificant beggar. A rich man who cannot use his wealth and fully experience his power.

The power of money concentrated in Baron's hands brings tears and blood to the world, becomes a source of tragedy, both public and personal and a reason to crimes being committed in the name of gold. "And of how many human worries, deceptions, tears, supplications and curses it is a heavy representative!"

Baron's thirst for gold had suppressed the inborn human feelings of sympathy for the sufferings of other people. Baron is a knight, but there are no knightly merits in him. In his monologue, he once mentions that he is a knight, but a knight which guards his chests full of gold. Baron has completely forgotten the chivalry code. He makes a widow with three children kneel down in front of his window in the pouring rain. The feeling that he experiences when opening his chest can be compared with the feeling of a perverted killer. It is not a fear but "some kind of unknown feeling," from which he falls into "heat and awe." He exclaims: "We are assured by the doctors: there are people who find pleasure in murdering ...I feel the same as them when they thrust a knife in victim's body". Baron compares the miser's voluptuousness to the voluptuousness of a murderer who takes someone's life. Incompatible sensations are combined in a specific feeling which Baron became slave to. He is truly a slave. Money completely took over him, became an only goal whereas his passion for enrichment turned into stinginess. Coveted treasures flocked to a secret basement at the cost of abandoning other desires, passions and the best promptings of his own heart and in fact at the cost of abandoning his whole life. While unlocking the chests and lighting the candles in front of each of them, Baron experiences the ecstasy of his own power (the royal power, as he believes), saying: "... my country is strong; happiness is in it, honor and glory are in it! I reign ...". These words express the most important topic for the tragedy. The theme of power, the right to rule. Baron believes that his gold gives him this right. He acknowledges that this right is ought to be paid for with a high price of "bitter abstinence" and "curbed passions". He thinks of his son Albert as of a robber of his treasures. It is clear why he has such a great hatred for his heir. He suffers even from a simple thought that Albert "would take power" over his "state". It was then when he articulated his last, terrible desire to raise from his grave and

to become a "guarding shadow" which protects his treasures, hiding them from those who are alive. The final episode of the monologue once again proves that in the fight between men and gold, the latter wins.

The monologue recreates the distinctive features of an era in which money became the dominant force in society. The final words of the tragedy are the following: "Terrible age, terrible hearts!"

The monologue - the second scene of the tragedy - consists of 118 poems, which makes it almost a third of the play with a total of 380 poems. Such an unusual volume of the monologue, which is not very common for dramatic works, made the second scene, where only Baron is represented, central and main. The structure of the central scene reveals the ideological conception of the tragedy most accurately. Its main character, Baron, is shown in his typical (yet extraordinary for others) circumstances. The scene takes place underground, in the basement, which creates a great contrast with the first and the third scenes which occur under normal conditions. It is clear that Baron can only be alone in his basement so he thoroughly hides it from everyone (it is indicated in many quotes, such as "I will go down my secret basement…"). The loneliness of Baron is a logical consequence of his personal traits. Proud, striving for absolute independence from all, shut from life and absorbed into his passionate enrichment, Baron created non-social conditions of his own existence.

The second scene - the monologue of Baron - is greatly contrasted with the dramatic design of the first and the third ones. It has no dramatic action which includes confrontation of the characters. In the scene there is only one character, Baron, and the dramatic action revolves around him. The internal struggle takes its place in only one person's thoughts and is revealed via the use of a monologue. A researcher D. Blagoy wrote: "... the miser's mental state and his conflicting experiences, performed with no external dramatic display of a deep and painful inner drama, are completely revealed even with an absence of actions" (Blagoy, 1955).

The central position and the significance of Baron Philip's monologue are emphasized with the use of a specific composition. The symmetrical construction of the first and third scenes of the tragedy single out the "asymmetrical" second scene. The monologue of the second scene is emphasized by the fact that there are no monologues in the first and third scenes. The location of the central scene in the middle of the play is quite consistent and logical. Only such construction of the play reveals the depth of the content with the most artistic expressiveness. Any other arrangement of the parts would violate the classically harmonious composition of the tragedy and reveal the ideological content of the work with less artistic persuasiveness. The existing composition of the "Miserly Knight" corresponds to the ideological plan of the play and its full artistic disclosure.

From the point of view of the traditional drama, the second scene - the monologue of Baron - is not necessary for the development of action. But in the monologue there is a hidden dialogue that defines the dramatic feature of the monologue. Baron mentally addresses Albert: "No, first you should suffer to get wealth ..."; and also addresses his money as if it was a living creature: "Sleep here peacefully". S. Rassadin, one of many researcher of Pushkin's works, believes that "the monologue is dramatic, considering its extraordinary length. Not only because it is interrupted by remarks, not only because the gold itself is a participant of the events, but because each doubloon has its own biography, which the Baron tells, so when he addresses his gold ("Go, you have scoured the world enough...") it is not rhetorical appeals to inanimate objects, but a real conversation. Thus, there is a dialogue in the monologue" (Rassadin, 1977).

Pushkin defined the main dramatic principles in his drafts about "Marfa Posadnitsa", a tragedy by M. Pogodin. Speaking of the features of the content and construction of Pogodin's tragedy, Pushkin wrote: "John fills the tragedy. His thoughts sets in motion all the colossus, all the passions, all the springs... Resentment, horror, disagreement, confusion – they all give a glimpse into his power. He has not yet appeared, but we already feel his presence... the thought of him dominates and rules over all other thoughts and passions".

From this point of view, in "The Miserly Knight" is not the stinginess of Baron, but the gold which "sets in motion all the passions" of the tragedy, defining the thoughts and actions of the characters. For the sake of it, Baron experiences "bitter temperance". It makes Albert wish his father was dead. And in the end, it is the gold that kills Baron.

In "The Miserly Knight", as in the rest of Pushkin's "dramatic scenes," the sharp contrasts, which define the artistic features of "The Little Tragedies", are put into practice.

In the monologue of Baron, such contrasts are easily detectable. The Baron begins a monologue almost with abuse, but rises to high pathos, seeing himself as a "poet of gold" and his power. At the highest point of the monologue rhymes appear:

"My state is strong and obedient; It is my happiness, my fame and my honor!".

Baron begins with the words mentioned above and ends by examining each coin from the "golden" hill; behind every coin there is a real person. Baron is no longer a formidable ruler, but an ordinary usurer. The structure of his speech is also changed. We no longer hear the poetic side of Baron. He sees "lazybones, rogues, vagrants and pretenders" in his debtors.

In the scene of the "feast" in his dark basement, with candles lit in front of each chest, Baron once again becomes a poet, "a poet of omnipotence". He reigns. But the reign ends with the terrible desire which comes to Baron's mind. Trying to hide his basement from the "unworthy eyes", Baron dreams "to sit on the chest like a shadow and guard his treasures from living creatures".

Drama as a genre of literature is intended more for performing on a stage rather than for reading. Pushkin as a playwright introduces special elements into the composition of the play that produce an intentional artistic effect on the stage only. For example, a scene in the basement. Of course, it is designed for theatrical effect. At first, the viewer sees a dark underground, illuminated by either the light of a candle or a lantern. Then a handful of gold is added to the light of the candle, and then, when all the chests are unlocked, the glittering golden piles are revealed.

The monologue of the Baron is a psychological analysis of not only stinginess, but a combination of different feelings, their interdependence and development. Baron is stingy and full of lust for power. He is cruel, he has cynicism and a perverted sense of pride. He is both a usurer and a gold poet. Baron's feelings are extremely contradictory. Inner contradiction and drama of feelings make Baron a tragic figure.

3. The problem of the interpretation of Salieri's monologues, their idea and dramatic function

The idea of "Mozart and Salieri" refers to 1826, the period of poet's stay in Mikhailovskoye. We do not have documented data on the stages of creation of the tragedy since the manuscript has not been preserved to modern date. From the calendar composed by the poet himself, it is known that the tragedy was completed on October 26, 1830 in Boldino. Testimonies of contemporaries prove that Pushkin brought the plans of upcoming tragedies including "Mozart and Salieri to Moscow in 1826 after returning from his exile.

"Mozart and Salieri" is the final version of the name of the tragedy, the original one was "Envy". Sometimes in his own notes Pushkin called the play "Salieri". In 1826 in Western Europe, and later in Russia, the version about Salieri poisoning Mozart was widely spread. This version was apparently the defining moment when the conception of the tragedy was created. Pushkin was interested in internal motives and psychological justifications of a possible crime. He wrote: "During the first performance of Don Juan when the whole theater full of bewildered experts was silently enjoying Mozart's harmony, there was a whistle, and everyone who turned to the sound with amazement and indignation, saw famous Salieri leave the concert hall furious and envious. Salieri died about eight years ago. Some German magazines reported that on his deathbed he admitted that he had committed a terrible crime - the poisoning of the great Mozart. An envious person who could boo "Don Juan" could also poison its creator".

"Mozart and Salieri" is considered to be a tragedy of envy, although, of course, it is not only about this human passion. Pushkin's tragedy is the expression of the poet's thoughts on the meaning of life, on meanness and nobility, on genuine and fake harmony, on creativity, on friendship, on attitudes towards art.

Pushkin's works' researcher M. Alekseev wrote: "Even the first readers of Pushkin's drama noticed great generalizations, the contours of a large philosophical concept behind Mozart's and Salieri's figures. Pushkin's play gave much more than just the characteristics of two musicians…" (Alekseev, 1964).

In his notes about the tragedy M. Alekseev defined two main problems of "Mozart and Salieri". Firstly, the problem of a brilliant genius in opposition to the intense diligence of a talented artist, brilliant ease and instinctiveness of creativity and a complex rationalistic process of creative effort. And secondly, the problem of a talented master's envy of his rival artist's "divine genius" (Alekseev, 1964).

Envy, as a consequence of the opposition of two types of creative consciousness, became the defining moment of the tragic conflict of the play. The artistic disclosure of the psychology and dialectics of this human passion is given in the monologues of Salieri. There are three of them, and they are all related. Salieri's jealousy is shown as it is just being born in the first monologue and as it increases in the second one. An artistic study of the feeling of envy in its development precludes the possibility of a single Salieri's monologue like it was in "The Miserly Knight" with Baron.

The stinginess of the Baron is a stable feeling that controls him. The envy of Salieri gradually turns from a state of mind into a need for action. And the more Salieri justifies his intention to kill Mozart, the shorter his monologues become.

Monological parts the tragedy belong to Salieri only which fully corresponds with his character; Mozart's character only uses forms of dialogues, which is emphatically not likely for Salieri. D. Blagoy made an interesting calculation: "In the first scene, 107 verses said by Salieri in monological form account for only 16 verses in the form of a dialogue-conversation with Mozart; Mozart pronounces about fifty verses in a conversation with Salieri, Salieri does only about twenty" (Blagoy, 1955).

Mozart has no monologues in the tragedy. He responds with music to Salieri's monologues. This is natural for a musician, although the play does not feature a single piece of music by Salieri. Salieri reveals himself in monologues, Mozart does it in his music, and the triple performance of the musical creations of Mozart corresponds to three monologues of Salieri.

The first monologue of Salieri narrates about his thoughts about how he, "the proud Salieri", became an "envious contempt". He confesses to how he learned the secrets of music and life, which was a difficult path for him.

"I was born with a love for art," Salieri begins his life story. His love for art was passionate, absorbing. Listening to the sound of an organ, Salieri experiences an unknown pleasure and excitement, an inner reverence that causes "involuntary and sweet tears". Salieri repudiated from everything not connected with music. He rejected the "sciences which are alien to music" and "idle fun". He grew hateful to them. "I reduced them and indulged in music," recalls Salieri. "Stubbornly and arrogantly" Salieri overcomes his "first adversities", the difficulties of the "first step" in art. He made the craft a "base of art", he "became an artisan". He says: "...I tempted harmony through algebra. And the result of this is my attitude to music as to a corpse. I slew the sounds and dismembered the music like a corpse".

By tempting harmony through use of mathematics and slaying sounds, Salieri destroyed what makes up the essence of live music. And only "the bliss of a creative dream" in him remained not destroyed, not killed. Having mastered the technique of music, he "dared" to create. He began to create, "not daring to think more of glory," to which he aspires. It seems to him that he is seeking power over music, over harmony, but this power is illusory (like the power of Baron over gold).

Salieri is a talented musician. He passionately loves music and understands it. He knows "delight and tears of inspiration". He knows that music is, in the first place, a thought expressed with sounds. He knows that "the bliss of a creative dream" requires a "sophisticated science".

Salieri understands harmony, he dives into the essence of her laws, but he does not have it in his own music. His music, verified by algebra, becomes cold and unnecessary. There are no "deep and fascinating secrets" in it. And when the "great Gluck" discovered these "new secrets", Salieri "went after him". Gluck's music revealed a sample of what music should be to Salieri. And Salieri, a talented and delicate musician, felt and appreciated it. Therefore, he became an obedient performer of someone else's will, Gluck's, in art.

"Resignedly" having gone after Gluck, he acted as a man who is not self-confident, thus it is not surprising that Salieri found himself in a complete submission to Gluck.

With "strengthened, tense constancy" Salieri finally achieved a "high degree" in art and received glory. He happily enjoyed "his work, success, glory and also works and success of his friends". He was happy until Mozart appeared in his life, bringing him a sense of doubt about his own genius.

Salieri thinks he suffered for the right to call himself the chosen one of art. He created an unshakable dogma about the artist who is also a priest and fanatically believes in its irrefutable nature. Or, more accurately, he believed in it until Mozart turned up, violating the laws of Salieri's dogma. According to these laws, the "sacred gift" can (and should belong) to those like him who sacrifice everything to art. "The immortal genius" should be the reward of "works, zeal, prayers sent".

This is the logic of Salieri, justified only by a passion for art. The appearance of the genius Mozart is a violation of the dogmatic system of Salieri, according to which Mozart, "an idle reveler", cannot and must not be a genius. Salieri, capable of deeply understanding and appreciating art, realized that Mozart was a genius. He saw this as a mistake of nature, a violation of its laws. In the beginning of the monologue, he says: "Everyone says: there is no truth on earth. But there is no truth above, too. For me it is as clear as a simple scale".

The well-known Russian Poet V. Bryusov wrote about this: "Let us recall how "Mozart and Salieri" begins... The main idea of the work is in the first two verses... The third verse provides us with the main characteristics of Salieri, and from that one verse the reader has to guess a lot of things and to understand what kind of person gives such a definition" (Bryusov, 1955).

Salieri blames the heaven which sent Mozart to the earth because the genius of Mozart caused doubt in his own genius, a painful doubt. Salieri, the "proud Salieri", who did not know envy before, now becomes "the envious contempt". Salieri understands that the music of Mozart is a "sacred and immortal" gift. It is impossible to follow Mozart, for he is unique in art. Salieri hears something supernatural Mozart's music: "...like a cherub, he brought us some heavenly songs".

Such music tempts and torments because it makes one's "deaf glory" more sharp. "Revolting a wingless desire" - painful and vain - the music of a genius leads only to suffering. The heights of Mozart's genius evoke an acute feeling of being a "child of the dust".

Salieri dives into the essence of the laws of harmony and feels them delicately, but he cannot understand the essence of the genius of Mozart's music. He, because of his cult of craft in art and the submission of creativity to the norms and schemes, cannot comprehend the mystery of music and the genius of Mozart. After listening to the Mozart's "trifle", he exclaims with delight: "... What depth! What courage and harmony!" - precisely defining two main points in the creation of Mozart - strength and originality of expression (depth and courage) and perfection of forms (slimness).

And then the desire to get rid of the painful feeling of jealousy results in his final decision to kill Mozart.

"No! I can't oppose my fate: I'm chosen to stop him..." - this is how the second monologue of Salieri begins. He tries to convince himself that the world must be saved from Mozart with unconvincing arguments: "... otherwise we will all die, we will all be priests, ministers of music...".

Salieri justifies his decision with arguments based on the benefits for art: "What good will it bring if Mozart is alive and he reaches a new height? Will he raise art? No; it will fall again, as it will disappear: he will not leave us an heir. What is the use of it?".

In the first monologue, Salieri justified his criminal intent by the need to correct the "wrongness of the world order" and restore justice. Now - in the second monologue - he also discusses its benefits for art, the benefits for all the "ministers of music". But in fact, Salieri thinks and speaks only about his own benefit, about himself. For that the heir and successor of Mozart, if there will be one, will only bring Salieri bitter and unbearable suffering, just like Mozart himself. All his arguments finally boil down to one thing – the need to destroy the one who causes doubt in his own genius. "So fly away! the sooner, the better"- Salieri decides. This solution is natural for him. For seventeen years he has been keeping "the last gift" of "his" Isora, which is poison. An interesting detail is that he remembers not Isora herself, but what she had left as a gift.

Salieri, unlike Mozart, does not love life and refuses it completely ("I love life a little"). He does not have the fullness and generosity of feelings that Mozart has, who accepts life in all its manifestations. For Salieri, life "narrows" to the manifestation of only personal experiences and pleasures. "...I thought perhaps life would bring me unfailing gifts; perhaps I would be delighted... perhaps the new Hayden would create something great which I would enjoy...". After all, even when the "thirst for death" torments him, he only thinks of himself: "life will bring me...; "Will delight me...". Constant "me".

Not loving, not capable of loving others, Salieri is separated from people. He projects his "deep insult" by the wrongness of the universe on the world around him, which for him is full of enemies. But he hesitates, not bowing to the "whisper of temptation" in the hope of finding the worst enemy. Finally, the enemy is found – and this is Mozart. "And I was right! and finally I have found my enemy". "Now it is time! The cherished gift of love will be poured into the cup of friendship today", he decides with conviction.

Salieri was a man capable of evil, for he had kept poison for seventeen years. Driven by a painful feeling of jealousy, he now commits villainy. But killing Mozart has not relieved him of doubts about his genius. The painful thoughts about "genius and evil doings" do not end and will never end for him.

The ending of the tragedy - the third and the last monologue of Salieri leaves the problem of "the compatibility of genius and evil" unanswered. Such an "open" ending has convincing artistic expression. It is interesting how the words of Mozart and Salieri about "genius and crime" are mirrored. Mozart: "He is a genius, like you and me. And genius and villainy are two incompatible things. Isn't it true? ". Salieri: "But is he right, am I not a genius? Genius and villainy are two incompatible things. Not true".

For Mozart, the incompatibility of genius and evil is obvious, for Salieri it is not. And he is forced to seek confirmation of his own reflections in the "tale of a dull, meaningless crowd". "And Buonarotti? Or is it a fairy tale... and the creator of the Vatican was not a murderer?".

The compositional function of the monologues corresponds to the ideological and artistic content of the tragedy. Monologues full of inner reflections are distributed throughout the play. Monological part is the dominant feature of the tragedy. It also determines the most important element of the compositional structure - the compositional rhythm sustained throughout the play. It looks like this: a monologue – a dialogue – a monologue (in the first scene); a dialogue - a monologue (in the second scene). Such an alternation of monologues with dialogues reveals the inner drama of Salieri with the development of external action on the stage.

Music, being the most important element of the dramatic action of the tragedy, obeys to the compositional rhythm very naturally. Music is not an external or additional element of stage action. Mozart and Salieri not only talk about music, the music itself becomes the "protagonist" of the tragedy, being a source of envy of Salieri and his criminal intent (Blagoy, 1955).

The nature of the monologues of Salieri significantly differs from the monologue of Baron. In the monologues of Salieri and Baron their most intimate thoughts are expressed. The monologue of Baron is a secret confession, intended for him only, while for Salieri it is important to tell the story of his life not only to himself, but also to the heavens with which he try to challenge. Salieri had all the best things in his past whereas in the present he is wholly submissive to envy. On the contrary, the greatness of Baron is in his present. He had attained the power he desired for himself. Therefore, his monologue is, above all, a calm and firm statement of his strength and greatness, where only in the last part he questions the future of his accumulated treasures which causes fear in him. The monologue of Baron, the second scene of the play, is preceded by the first scene, which, defining the conflict of the play, prepares the reader for the perception of the subsequent monologue. A tense monologue of Salieri reveals the inner conflict of the character from the very first words.

The tragedy "Mozart and Salieri" is not only a tragedy of envy. This is the tragedy of genius. Pushkin reflects his own ideas about the essence of creativity, about the true artist, whose life and art are a single and inseparable whole through Mozart's character (Gorodetskiy, 1953).

The genius, Mozart, is killed by Salieri, who claims to be genius too, which determines the deep tragedy of Pushkin's play.

All of "The Little Tragedies" and "Mozart and Salieri" in particular reflect the features of Pushkin's personal fate in 1830s. For example, following poems: "Premonition" (1826), "Traffic complaints" and "Do I wander along the noisy streets... (1829), "Demons" (1830).

4. Philosophical pathos of Walsingham's and Mary's monologues and their place in an ideological-artistic conception of "A Feast in Time of Plague"

The creative story of the tragedy "A Feast in Time of Plague" is connected with the dramatic poem "The City of the Plague" written by John Wilson. Wilson's play described the London Plague of 1665. Apparently, the decision to translate the poem was based on the peculiarities of Pushkin's own position at that time (because of the cholera epidemic, he could not leave Boldino).

In Wilson's play there are thirteen scenes. Pushkin chose only one of them, the fourth scene of the first act, but had not fully translated it. When translating the poem, the poet reduced the number of characters and changed the title. In addition, Pushkin introduced two of his own songs to his text, Mary's and Walsingham's (also called Chairman in the tragedy). These songs contain the main meaning of the philosophical and psychological tragedy of Pushkin. The changes made by Pushkin help us understand the poet's idea more deeply.

The situation in the tragedy "Feast during the Plague" is conditional. Plague is a disaster which people can neither fight nor escape from. They are doomed and they know that they will die, "fearfully" asking God to "rest their souls." In such a tragic situation facing the death a person manifests his true essence. What does a person oppose to the fear of death — courage and bravery or the power of cruel and base instincts? How do people behave in tragic circumstances? External dramatic action (even though there are very little of it because the characters cannot do anything that would change the situation) is transferred to the drama of the characters' behavior motives. All the characters of the play, except for the Priest, arrange a feast. But the reasons that led the participants to the "merry feast" are different.

A feast for a young man, with a monologue of whom the tragedy begins, is a way of reaching oblivion. He prefers not to think about the darkness of the grave and calls for fun, exuberant fun. He asks the Chairman to sing the song "lively", not "inspired by Scottish sadness".

For Louise, the motive is different. She is at a feast because of her fear of loneliness before dying. Her cynicism is only a mask. She speaks evil of Mary and her song, but when she sees a cart filled with dead bodies, she faints. And that is when we hear another Louise, weak, frightened by what he saw. She has no internal power to confront the situation.

On the contrary, Mary has such power. Mary's song and the Chairman's hymn are two climax centers. They are internally connected with the plot of the play, being its most significant places.

It is interesting to compare the song of Mary Gray in Wilson's play with the song of Mary in Pushkin's one. In Wilson's play the song conveys a state of deep psychological depression of the girl, wandering in places affected by the epidemic. Pushkin's Mary's song is very different. The ending, the last two stanzas of the song, were composed by Pushkin himself. It has a special wisdom and spiritual meaning: self-sacrifice in the name of the life and happiness of a loved one. Mary's song about such love that fears death only for a loved one. Mary sings that love can overcome death, dreaming of connecting with her beloved outside of earthly existence. Mary's song is an oath song. She swears her beloved man in eternal loyalty. "Mary's touching song with such a naive and tender expression but also with such a terrible content makes an inexpressible impression on the reader". (Belinskiy, 1955).

The ideological meaning of "rebellion" of Walsingham against blatant disaster is in challenging it. Challenging the nature and everything that "threatens death" makes people enjoy their power. There is no motive of being in raptures over danger in Wilson's Walsingham's song. By fearlessly challenging the nature Walsingham glorifies the "kingdom of the Plague": "Glory to you, the Plague! We are not afraid of the grave of darkness, we are not confused by your vocation!". In the last scene of the dialogue between Walsingham and the Priest Pushkin explains the reasons for his "rebellion". What does the priest blame people who attend the feast for? He blames them for insulting the sufferings of those people who lose their loved ones. The feast orgy over the graves is blasphemous to both the living and the dead.

It is not mentioned in the tragedy that the Plague is a God's will and his punishment. But the priest says to the cheering people: "Godless feast, godless madmen! I conjure that you interrupt your dreadful feast in the name of our Savior's blood". He insists on the feast's attendants going home. Walsingham responds to him: "I can't, I don't have to follow you: I'm held here...by the realization of my iniquity". In Wilson's version, Walsingham's response to the Priest does not contain the word "iniquity", it is Pushkin's addition to the original text. While Wilson's version is "I'm held

here by the deep contempt for my own insignificance" (Pushkin, 1964), Pushkin generalizes and broadens this phrase, making it the realization of character's tragic iniquity and outrage.

The ending of the tragedy illuminates its climax, the hymn of Walsingham, in a different way. His beloved woman, Matilda, died, and his soul was embraced by the "horror of a dead emptiness". At the feast, he seeks oblivion from the grief that has befallen him, but one cannot deny some kind of rapture and enjoyment from the consciousness of his courage in the face of death: "There is ecstasy in the battle and in the abyss of the edge and in an angry ocean...", "Everything that threatens life is fraught with inexplicable pleasure for mortal hearts...".

The priest is trying to help Walsingham to get away from the feast, but he answers: "...I see your efforts to save me...But damn you, no one will follow you!". A feast does not suit the situation and Walsingham understands it. Cursing everyone who follows the Priest, he curses himself in the first place. "I can't, I don't have to go after you...", he says, knowing exactly that he cannot leave with the Priest because he is too mired in "iniquity". A further text of the tragedy ("Oh, if only it was possible to hide this sight!") confirms this. Walsingham mentally addresses his deceased Matilde: "... I see you in a place that my fallen spirit will not reach...". The last words of the Priest before his leaving ("God save you! I'm sorry, my son") immerse the chairman into deep thought, but the feast continues. This is how the tragedy ends. Walsingham does not leave with the Priest, but he no longer belongs to the feasting. The last Pushkin's remark shows this while in Wilson's version after the departure of the Priest everything remains the same and the Chairman continues to participate in the feast. "May Heaven take pity on you, my dear son! Goodbye! Farewell!" (Pushkin, 1964) – the Priest wishes to Walsingham.

Pushkin's end of the tragedy is a logical and natural conclusion of the artistic image of Walsingham. Despair, boundless loneliness and the depth of suffering naturally lead to the fact that Walsingham can no longer belong to the feasting, to those who only see "the news of this mad fun" (Blagoy, 1955) in the feast.

Mary's song and the hymn of the Chairman are the climax centers of the tragedy. Pushkin emphasizes their significance through composition, placing the songs inside the text. Wilson has asymmetry in the arrangement of the songs. In "A feast in time of Plague" songs are arranged in the following way: 31 verses of dialogue - Mary's song - 65 verses of dialogue - Walsingham's song - and 65 verses from Walsingham's song to the end of the scene. Wilson's songs also differ from each other in terms of volume: Mary's song contains 64 verses, the Chairman's song has 100 verses in it. Pushkin makes the songs almost symmetrically balanced so that Mary's song consists of 40 poems whereas Chairman's has 36 poems in it (Blagoy, 1955).

The hymn of Walsingham is written in iambic tetrameter. This poetic size is most often used to describe heroic feelings. In Walsingham's hymn there is a peculiar heroism of the senses ("rapture", "death", "immortality").

"Calming" discreet lyrical monologue of Mary is written using the trochaic tetrameter. The vocabulary of the song ("destined", "I pray," "do not come close") is permeated with Mary's selfless love.

Alternations and contrasts determine the poetic peculiarity of monologue songs. In fact, each image, each replica contains an internal and external contrast.

The ideological and artistic correspondence of the monologues with tragedy as a whole, the aesthetic unity of all elements of content and form indicate that "A Feast in time of Plague" is not a translation of Wilson's work but an independent original work of Pushkin.

5. A role of Don Juan's monologue in "The Stone Guest"

There is only one monologue of Don Juan in the play and it is included in the third scene. We learn little about the personality of Don Juan from it. He speaks of Don Carlos with irony and without empathy, longing for a meeting with the widow of the murdered man. The functions of a monologue in other tragedies are deliberately transferred by Pushkin to the dialogue in "The Stone Guest". The personality of Don Juan as the "improviser of a love song" is revealed through dialogues with Leporello and Dona Anna. A character like Don Juan, cheerful, active and open, could not reveal the essence of his nature through concentration on himself. The role of this monologue is reduced mainly to the plot unity of the first and the third scenes. After the second scene, which is Don Juan's meeting with Laura, the monologue restores the continuity of the development of the storyline: Don Juan - Dona Anna and serves as a motivation for the development of the storyline of Don Juan - Commander.

Don Juan is a "love song improviser" that violates the norms of human morality. The destructiveness of the passions reveals both the terrible side of the human person and the strength of his character. But the inevitability of his final death is predetermined. The statue in the play is a moral court, and the highest retribution to the violator of ethical norms, bringing chaos and destruction to the world.

6. Conclusions

In conclusion, it is important to note that the study of the internal motives of the behavior of tragedy's characters is prepared and explained primarily in monologues. The irreconcilable conflict and the tension of the situations in which

they find themselves determine the drama of each monologue and make it a climax to clarify the sources of the character's tragedies.

But monologues, revealing the internal conflict of the actors, do not resolve it to the end. Pushkin, without moralizing, provides the resolution of anomalous conflicts to the reader and the viewer. Lotman Y. wrote the following about it: "The path to a deep comprehension of the norm is the study of anomalous conflicts. Beside disharmony there is a hidden image of harmony (Lotman, 1988).

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Classification of Composite Sentences in Modern Linguistics and the Question of Their Mixed Types

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Abstract

This paper investigates classification of composite sentence in modern linguistics. It was written about types of complex sentences and given theoretical explanations. Futhermore, relevant terms for each subtype were given. Paper proved by examples also.

Keywords: syntax, complex sentence, compound sentence, mixed type, parataxis, hypothaxis, collotaxis, parentaxis, hypertaxis, supertaxis, ultrataxis, architaxis

Introduction

Over the past 70-80 years, a number of researchers have expressed doubts about the expediency of preserving in science the traditional pattern of dividing the links between parts of a complex sentence into syndetic and asyndetic in various works on the syntax of complex sentences. The basis of this division is the distinction of means of communication: in allied complex sentences, conjunctions and linking words are used to connect parts into a single whole: in syndetic complex sentences, component parts are combined without the help of conjunctions and linking words. According to the nature of the connection and the ways of expressing relations between the parts, composite sentences can be divided into two types: complex and compound.

The problem of complex sentences, the meaning of unions in the Russian and English languages, the classification of unions into composing and subordinate in different years were addressed by such eminent scientists as A. M. Peshkovsky "Is there a composition and subordination of sentences in Russian?" (1926), M.N. Peterson "Unions in Russian" (1952), "Allied complex sentences in Russian" (1957), A. N. Gvozdev "The concept of a complex sentence. Syntax tools used to express the connection of individual sentences within a complex. The writing and submission of proposals "(1958), V.I. Zhelvis "Do companion and subordinate unions exist in the language? (on the material of the English language) "(1962), B.A. Ilish" The structure of a complex sentence in modern English "(1962), G.M. Khoshimov "Theoretical grammar of modern English" (2013), (G.M. Khoshimov. Typology of complex sentences of different systems languages, Tashkent, "FAN", 1991), I.P. Ivanova, V.V. Burlakova, GGPocheptsov "Modern English grammar", (1981), E.V. Gulzha "The theory of complex sentences in modern German", (1971), Yu.R.Gepner "On the classification of complex sentences according to the type of unions involved in their construction "(1963), L.L.Iofik "On the Composition of Predictive Units" (1968), I.P.Konkova "Complicated Union sentence in modern English" (1969), Yu.I.Ledenev "On the most essential functions of Russian unions" (1971) GVValimova "On the composing unions in the complex proposal "(1971), R.D.Oganesova and E.V. Skorlupovskaya" On the selection of 30 unions "(1971), L. L. Babalova" On the use of unions and, a, but in a complex sentence "(1980), E.N. Shiryaev "Differentiation of synodic and subordinate unions on a syntactic basis" (1980), I.P. Verkhovskaya "On the issue of classification of complex sentences in modern English" (1981), J.G. Birenbaum "Comparison of complex sentences of Russian and English" (1977),"To the theory of complex sentences (on the material of English language) "(1982), N. A. Bushueva" Inconsistency of the formal and semantic structure in complex sentences with the second component, introduced when (1985) etc.

Over the past 70-80 years, a number of researchers have expressed doubts about the expediency of preserving in science the traditional pattern of dividing the links between parts of a complex sentence into compound and disconnected in various works on the syntax of complex sentences. The basis of this division is the difference of communication means: in allied complex sentences for connecting the parts into a single whole alliances and allied words are used: in asynderous complex sentences, the component parts are combined without the help of alliances and allied words. According to the nature of the connection and the way of expressing relations between the parts, complex allied sentences can be divided into two types: complex and compound. In the theory of grammar of modern English, Professor G. M. Khoshimov summarizes the classification of a complex sentence, where a complex sentence is divided into: complex, compound, and mixed. Professor G.M. Khoshimov in his very interesting monograph writes that the taxis for each language are divided into two sublevels: monotaxeme (sublevel of a simple sentence); polytaxeme (sub-level complex sentences). Only professor

G.M. Khoshimov in his works listed all levels, types of polytaxis.

Relevant terms for each subtype were also given: a) parataxis (sublevel of a complex sentence); b) hypothaxis (sublevel of a complex sentence); c) collotaxis (sublevel of a complexly folded sentence); d) parentaxis (sublevel of a sophisticated offer); e) hypertaxis (a sublevel of a complexly mixed (compound and complex sentence); e) supertaxis (a sublevel of a polynomial sentence); g) Ultrataxis (subcomplicated sublevel); h) archaxis (sublevel of the complex proposal).Examples for each subtype:

 a) parataxis

    1. A haunting, anxious cry of an asleep bird is heard from somewhere, or an indefinite sound is heard. 2. His fantasy was not great, however, and he soon ended up with the declaration that now, thanks to God's help, he, too, had a radio receiving set.

    b) hypothaxis

    1. We saw a new house, which builders have recently put into operation;

    c) collotaxis

    1. It became quite almost light, the ski track was far visible ahead.

    d) parentaxis

    2. I wanted to draw - brushes fell out of hands.

    e) hypertaxis

1. That was not the design of the forest around Moscow, to which our eyes were accustomed, where you will find red and bright yellow and soft brown.

 2.We were still pushing our way through the crowd, which surrounded the stadium when we heard the frightful baying of the ambulance.

f) supertaxis

 1. When our elated discussion passed into the stage of incomprehensible shouts, Mr. Adams suddenly jumped off the couch, caught his head in his hands, squinted in dumb desperation, and stood like that for a full minute.

 2. Six days later, in the very same place, we saw a metal machine doing the work of the girl automatically—and at the same time it gave off pleasant chimes, which, of course, one could not very well expect from the girl We remembered also the story we heard in New York of a certain Negro who worked on a wharf as a controller, counting bales of cotton.

g) ultrataxis

1. So acutely did Mrs. Dashwood feel this ungracious behaviour, and so earnestly did she despise her daughter-in-law for it, that, on the arrival of the latter, she would have quitted the house for ever, had not the entreaty of her eldest girl induced her first to reflect on the propriety of going, and her own tender love for all her three children determined her afterwards to stay, and for their sakes avoid a breach with their brother.

2. Among other public buildings in a certain town, which for many reasons it will be prudent to refrain from mentioning, and to which I will assign no fictitious name, there is one anciently common to most towns, great or small: to wit, a workhouse, and in this workhouse was born; on a day and date which I need not trouble myself to repeat, in as much as it can be of no possible 32 consequence to the reader, in this stage of the business at all events, the item of mortality whose name is prefixed to the head of this chapter.

h) architaxis

 1. People lived on in it and there were hospitals and cafes around the square and the long avenue of trees that led to the square, these with there being girls in the town, the King passing in his motor car, sometimes now seeing his face and little long necked body and gray beard like a goat's chin tuft, all these with the sudden interiors of houses that had lost a wall through shelling, with plaster and rubble in their gardens and sometimes in the street, and the whole thing going well on the Carso made the fall very different from the last fall when we had been in the country.

 2. We fell in love with our new car, and when all the arrangements were over, when we received the documents entitling us to the possession of the machine, when it already had its yellow number 30-99-74, and the inscription "New York," and was insured against the possibility of our running into anyone, and also against the possibility of someone running into us, when for the first time we drove with our own machine through New York and Mrs. Adams sat at the wheel, while Mr. Adams himself sat beside her — we were very proud and did not understand why the great city did not say anything about it.

Based on the lecture of Professor G. M. Hoshimov, we determine that

complex sentences to form a meaningful, structural and intonational whole, interconnected by writing unions, such as: and, as well as, neither … nor, or, for, yet, so, but, not only … but also. Complex sentences in their structure stand out for: interconnecting; separators; adversary; causal. There are semantic types of compound sentences: narrative; incentive; interrogative and exclamatory sentences. There are also such offers, in which both narrative and exclamation parts are given: After all, she concluded, a monkey is a ridiculous animal, and how clever of Tristram to recognize the

need for just such as a ridiculousness among his dinner parties. A composite sentence, parts of which form a semantic, intonational and structural unity, and are connected by subordinate unions or allied words is called complex subordination. For example, unions: that, if, after, because, who, whose, when, where, as soon as, as long as, so long as, in order that, according as and others. One part of a complex sentence, including a subordinate union or a union word, is subordinate to the other is called the subordinate, the other part is syntactically subjugating the subordinate to itself, is called the main. Following Professor G.M. Khoshimov, we define that a composite sentence of a mixed type is a syntactic unit with a multidimensional structure. The main feature of such a proposal, like the two-term one, is polypredicativity. The volume of a complex sentence of mixed type consists of at least three predicative parts. On average, complex sentences of mixed type include from three to 10 or even more parts. When analyzing such sentences, we pay special attention to the number of predicative parts, the nature of the syntactic connection between them, the grouped structure and the presence of different levels of division.

Examples of complex sentences that consist of three or more components:

1. I resolutely did not understand the reasons for such a cruel injustice, and it was not surprising, because at home we had formed a conspiracy not to tell us anything about who this man was, to whom we owed salvation.

2. In essence, quite often, when for many obviously side pages it is explained what and how we should think about this or that reason or what, for example, Tolstoy himself thinks about war, peace and agriculture, the spell weakens him, and it starts to seem that the charming new acquaintances, who have already become a part of our life, are suddenly taken away from us, the door is locked and will not open until the stately author has completed tedious period and does not give us his point of view on marriage, on Napoleon, on agriculture, or does not interpret his ethical and religious beliefs.

3.Everything is immense in the first class—the promenade decks, the lounges, the saloons for smoking and the saloons for playing cards, and the saloons especially for ladies, and a hothouse where fat little French swallows swing on glass branches and hundreds of orchids hang from the ceiling, and the theatre with its four hundred seats, and the swimming-pool full of water illuminated through its bottom with green electric lights, and the marketing square with its department store, and the saloons for sport where elderly bald-headed gentlemen, flat on their backs, play ball with their feet, and other saloons where the same bald-headed men, tired of tossing balls and jumping up and down on a cinder-path platform, dream in embroidered easy- 34 chairs above all immense is the carpet that covers the main saloon, for surely it weighs more than half a ton. This sentence consists of 8 components.

4. But after school the boys go to the motion-picture theatre, where they watch the adventures of gangsters, play gangsters in the streets, and tirelessly wield revolvers and machine-guns manufactured in incredible quantities by toy factories.

 5. This may seem incredible, but in a land where the building of machines has reached the point of virtuosity, where the national genius has expressed itself in the invention and production of machines which replace completely and improve many times the labor of man — it is precisely in this country that you hear talk that would seem insane even in a madhouse. This sentence consists of five components.

Professor G.M. Khoshimov in his lectures on theoretical grammar of the English language identifies the types of subordinate communication. These include the following: subject, predicative, additional, adversarial (time, place and direction, causes, goals, conditions, concessions, effects, comparisons), attributive, appositive. We give examples.

1.   Sentences with a subject link:

For instance: That you may meet him at the party is quite possible. What I need now is someone to do the job.

2.Sentences with a predicate link (predicative clauses)

For instance: His only desire was that his family should not interfere with his plans. The question was why no one had heard   the   shot.

3. Sentences with an object link (object clauses)

For instance: I thought (that) they were joking We were sorry (that) we had missed Father by a few minutes.

4. Sentences with an adverb link (adverbial clauses)

A) time

For instance: When they reached the village, Jane got out of the taxi and looked about her.

B) Place and direction

For instance: They stopped where the road turned to the river

C) Cause

For instance: He was glad to talk to her because it set her at ease.

D) purpose

For instance: He spoke loudly and clearly so that all could hear him.

E) condition

For instance: If we start off now, we'll arrive there by dinner time.

F) concession

For instance: Although it was very late, she kept the dinner warm on the stove.

G) consequence

For instance: He was so embarrassed that he could hardly understand her.

H) comparison

For instance: He now took better care of his old father than he had ever done it before.

5. Sentences with an attribute link

For instance: I know a man who can help us.

6. Sentences with an appositive links

For instance: I had the impression that she was badly ill.

In the theoretical grammar of modern English I.P. Ivanov, V.V. Burlakova, G.G. Pocheptsov essential for the grammatical organization of predicative constructions into complex sentences are divided into the following:

A) the type of syntactic connection (writing or submission),

B) the rank of predicative constructions,

C) a sign of the structural-semantic necessity of the predicative construction (optional or obligatory),

D) the presence / absence of binders and their nature,

D) the order of the mutual arrangement of predicative constructions.

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Towards Understanding of Natural Dialogs in the Design of Chatbot Flow

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Abstract

Since the social media boom at te beginning of this century, we have been facing a resurgence of application of dialog agents in customer service and their new appearance in control of home appliances and smartphones. This results in dilemmas, e.g. of how chatbot communication should be designed not to discourage users from the use of such perosnal assistants. The article aims at reviewing, which linguistic approaches to natural conversations could be viable to the chatbot world, while also conducting an analysis of conversations with prominent dialog agents and re-applying the pragmatic criteria of natural conversations (e.g. medium, participants, context, open-endedness, turn-taking, reciprocity, status, etc. in Warren, 2006 or Sinclair, 1988) to the purpose of chatbot evaluation. It also presents an overview of characteristics of natural conversations with chatbots based on user experience, as an elaboration of the basic linguistic features and concludes in the general remarks on the distinguished criteria of natural language in chatbots. Terms such as persona, smalltalk, attention, emotion and personalization are discussed. The paper aims at providing an answer to the question: What does it mean for the language of a dialog agent to be natural, can we at all achieve it in their design and how?

Keywords: Dialog agents, Chatbots, Natural conversations.

1. Introduction

Since the social media boom in 2010 and the popularity growth of Siri, Alexa, Cortana and Bixby, chatbot systems, also known as dialog agents, seem to be having their resurgence. Especially in customer service areas, such as retail, banking and finance or insurance, the application of chatbots is growing and some forecasts are that by 2020 almost 90% of customer interactions will be handled without humans (Shukairy, 2019).

On the other hand, studies show that in some cases over 80% of users tend to never return to chat with the same dialog agent twice, because of an experience of a fake of artificial conversation with a machine rather than a human (Abu Shawar et al, 2007:39). Finally, there is also an argument that dialog systems should not pretend to be humans, as it may lead to sounding unnatural, even more artificial than they already are or evoke *aiporia* – a feeling of uncertainty, whether one is talking to a machine or a human assistant (Reese, 2019). In fear of an accusation of cheating, some companies prefer to warn their customers that their assistants are not humans. The question arises: what does it mean for the language of a dialog agent to sound or read natural, can we at all achieve it in their design and how?

Even though linguistics, especially pragmatics or sociolinguistics, specialize in conversation analysis, they seem to focus on human communication in either the real or virtual world or CMC, but few scientific contributions are made to dialog design or chatbot evaluation yet. Linguistics as a field tends to be descriptive rather than prescriptive, and often far from artificial machine language or commercial tools. However, in modern contemporary societies the shift in communication from spoken to written (Bauman, 2013) via development of short-text messages and chats (Dale, 2016), from complete to fragmented texts (written down spoken language), as well as the overwhelming impact of the social media, such as Facebook or Twitter, have caused a demand on designing automated conversations to replace humans, especially in the area of customer service, which requires some evaluation or even standards. The communication with and via chatbots not only poses an interesting field of analysis, but also calls for the application of linguistic legacy to the design of good quality agents. Badly designed dialogs easily discourage users with the lack of naturalness, cause chatbots to be less frequently used and so - less competitive (see e.g. the Bixby case in 2016). Manuals and trainings on how to write good quality (funny, natural, efficient, simple and informative) chatbots appear gradually in the real and virtual world, but they are typically of a copywriter and marketing rather than linguistic and scientific character.

This article aims at reviewing, which linguistic approaches to natural conversations could be viable to the chatbot world. An analysis of conversations with prominent dialog agents is conducted here and the criteria of a natural conversation are re-applied for the purpose of chatbot evaluation. It also presents an overview of characteristics of natural conversations with chatbots based on user experience, as an elaboration of the basic linguistic features and concludes in the general remarks on the distinguished criteria of natural language in chatbots.

1. The linguistic definition of a conversation

According to Warren (2006), there is "no widely accepted definition of conversation as a speech event". Some scientists believe, the term itself it too vague to be used for scientific purposes, other differ them with respect to e.g. the *medium* and *the situation* (TV interviews, phone conversations), *formality* (formal, informal) or with respect to the *goal* (casual and pragmatic, ibidem) or *structure* (structured debates versus unstructured casual conversations). After Warren (2006) we can assume that a conversation is *an informal speech event, longer than 2 sentences* in its length (Goffman accepts an exchange of "hello" as a conversation already) and that it is *topical, cognitive and informative* (exchange of information; see Goffman 1971:17 in Svennevig 1999:8), with an *active involvement of at least two participants, that both have the right to interrupt and change the flow*. Another important feature of a natural conversation after Crystal and Davy (1969: 102-104, ibidem: 9) is its "*explicitness, randomness of subject matter and lack of planning*" with a number of "*errors*" in comparison with other types of discourse. It's also important to add *reciprocity*, *open-ended topics* and different *motivations* after Donaldson (1979 in Warren, 2006:8).

According to Warren (2006:11) a *conversation* is a speech event *outside of an institutionalised setting* involving *at least two participants* who *share responsibility for the progress and outcome* of an impromptu and unmarked verbal encounter consisting of more than a *ritualised exchange*.

Sinclair (1988:15-16) also defined 7 features of natural conversations being *multiple sources* (equal status of different speakers), *determination of discourse coherence* (the process by which participants of the conversation piece together, what they hear, say and arrive at understanding of the meaning conveyed), *language as doing* (conversation is always doing something via speaking), *cooperation* (range and depth of the cooperative behavior that makes it different from other discourse types), *unfolding* (predictable and definable structure), *open-endedness* (no predefined goal), *artefacts* (different ways of beginning or ending of the conversation), high level of *inexplicitness* and *shared responsibility for the progress and outcome of the conversation* (where the last two features were added by the author; Warren, 2006:13-14).

Table 1. Using linguistic criteria of conversation description to analyze chatbot dialogs

Frequent criteria of conversation description	Description of the conversation with a dialog agent
medium	Internet, chat, social media or webpage
situation	depending on the goal: often sales or FAQ
formality	mildly informal (cannot be very formal, is often a bit informal, but rarely colloquial)
goal/motivation/ language as doing	seeking and providing information, services or sales, setting a personal app (e.g. alarm, camera, radio)
participants	user/client and bot
structure	predefined, structured dialog, with an attempt to foresee the reactions of the user
responsibility/influence of participants/ determination of discourse coherence	the user has the major impact on the flow of the dialog, turn-shifts, changing the topic etc. - the dialog agent is to rather listen and respond to the user's needs and questions; bot may ask questions, but they are "prompts" aimed at collecting more data to better answer the question asked by the user in the first place
reciprocity/attention/ status of different speakers/ shared responsibility for the progress and outcome of the conversation	dialogs resemble conversations with clerks; reciprocity exists, but is limited since the bot "listens to" (matches intents) and responds to the user, and performs tasks required by the user; the user or client has all of bot's attention, but at the same time this attention is frequently not directly expressed

unfolding and open-ended topics	open-ended topics are barely predictable, which is why they probably don't exist in the dialogs with chatbots; most questions need to be foreseen to cater for their answers and so each foreseen intent is provided an answer in the scenario, to prevent gaps in the conversation or fallback intents
context	advanced dialog agents like Google Assistant try to keep the context of a question for a few more subsequent sentences (which is a bot function to set); this feature provides data necessary to maintain a limited context, e.g. a decision about a color or size of a clothing item to buy, made by the user a few utterances before in a conversation with a shopping chatbot
artefacts / different ways of beginning or ending of the conversation	possibly designed intents to cater for any type of a greeting, both at the beginning or end of the conversation

With these classifications in mind, we can summarize that contemporary chatbot conversations are mostly pragmatic (retail transaction), led over a written (or spoken) medium, with an informative of customer service goal, of a quite informal character, with the aim of providing information, changing a setting or selling a product. Their major feature is that they are pre-designed, so specific particpants roles are assumed and the openendedness is very restricted, unless the user himself actively keeps on shaping the dialog in an irregular (for the situation of the conversation) way.

Their design needs to provide the necessary, even if short, context of the conversation, allow for its changes at any point in the conversation, but on the other hand also try to deal with any open-ended topics (in a separate smalltalk mode). The reciprocity of the dialog seems limited, as the user typically comes with a specific request or question, that needs to be somehow covered by an automatic assistant. The variations of expression of each intent need to be as many as possible for the bot to be able to cover possibly many conversations and the intents need to possibly cater for any type of a greeting, both at the beginning or end of the conversation.

Grice (1975 after Thomas 1995:63) defined four conversational maxims being *quantity* (be informative, but not too much)*, quality* (have evidence to back your words)*, relation* (be relevant) *and manner* (be brief and clear). The interesting feature of chatbots is that quite often the conversations with them fulfil these maxims, especially that they tend to be informative in a proper way (they provide just the necessary data, not more), they have evidence for their information provided by humans in their systems, they provide the data briefly and concisely and it is relevant for the user or client. Nevertheless, these dialogs are only brief, informative and involving relevant data in a way that often seems too perfectly weighted to be uttered by another human and so it still comes out unnatural.

2. Insights from user experience

Another way to find out, what it means for a dialog to sound natural is to analyze user experience with dialog agents. If we compare a machine-human dialog with a conversation between humans, differences become clearer at first sight.

First of all, a conversation with a machine seems very artificial, if the chatbot does not have any personality. In the marketing world (and consequently: in the chatbot world) different *personas* are defined in the sales process. Thus a brand has a client persona (a client's profile with age, gender, status, location, etc.) and the chatbot should be another persona, matching the client's persona to become the client's proper partner in the conversation (Goulet, 2018). A *chatbot persona* is therefore a set of features that describes a bot and defines the characteristic way, in which it talks to humans. Examples of bots with personalities are Eliza - the first chatbot psychologist, very responsive and attentive to the speaker, the CNN Einstein bot (NatGeo Genius), responding with details about the program in a scientific way, the Tommy Hilfiger bot based on the persona of Gigi Hadid or Siri - the Apple voice assistant that adopted a human personality of Susan Benett.

However, the best way to see the impact of a persona on chatbots is to try out a bot missing a matching persona. One of the prominent examples here is the Bixby prototype, often criticised in many YouTube video tests of 2016 for providing conservative and robotic answers (Tech Trinkets, 2016). Behind this fact – apart from the quality of ASR – stands a cultural difference. An Asian smartphone manufacturer localized the persona of the Korean Bixby onto the European

market instead of coming up with a new one, matching the expectations of the European customers in a more personalized way. A bit timid, correct, not too informal or relaxed, rather informative and providing the user with the maximum of voice assistance (whatever you can do manually with your phone, you should be able to achieve with voice) – these assumptions of bot characteistics often discourged users, making them pick other agents or smartphone brands. Assertions of commands like "Ok, I'm turning on your rear camera with the red eyes filter, 5x zoom and the beauty filter in 10 seconds..." giving an especially artificial impression, providing an overload of information with a robotic voice, apparently did not seem very natural to the users.

Part of the bot's persona is *smalltalk* and a sense of humor. A witty answer is found funny and accepted by the users with applause, even if it literally means 'no' or it is a way of dealing with not very clever questions of users trying to prove the bot's incompetence (studies show, at least 20% of all users ask bots smalltalk-like, unrelated questions already during their first conversation, see e.g. Abu Shawar, 2007). In 2016 (and even before) an absolute winner of the smalltalk user tests was Siri with her "My End user Licensing Agreement doesn't cover marriage. My apologies.". Again, an answer like "Dialog agents cannot marry humans" wouldn't satisfy the users. Nowadays chatbot platforms seem to admit the necessity of smalltalk implementation in an agent, as there are smalltalk modes e.g. in Google Dialog Flow. Log analyses allow for a statistical prediction of the most frequently repeating smalltalk questions from the users, so it is recommendable to define answers to them for the agent to sound natural, rather than respond "I'm afraid I don't know the answer to this question."

A conversation can never seem natural without *discourse markers* indicating reactions of e.g. hesitation or wondering (*ymmm, yyyy*), nodding (*yhhmm, ok*) or expressions of request to wait, e.g. *hold on a sec*. Especially in customer services an immediate answer on a chat seems fake, because a human assistant would need time to look up the query or produce a response. A machine wouldn't, so it's a pitfall of customer service applications. However, a good example here is Google Duplex (Nieva, 2018), using all kinds of discourse markers, such as "*OK, hold on one second*" assuring the customer a table reservation is being analyzed and taken care of. In the voice or chat customer service another related phenomenon is an extension of the automatic time of response and providing the user with a sense of waiting in ways other than discourse markers, e.g. the sound or view of keyboard. As König and Marmorstein (2018) write, in this way "(...) the dynamics of 'turn' construction and 'turn' taking is largely shaped by spatial-visual constraints and the technological mediation of temporality (e.g., ordered uploading of postings, speed of text production, display of time-stamps etc.)". In the kiwi.com automatic flight reservation system we can hear the bot typing and in the mBank FAQ bot we can see the moving dots of the Messenger platform, which have been slowed down on purpose to make the provision of the response more realistic.

This brings us to the next point of *turn-taking, responsiveness* and *sense of attention*. In a natural conversation turn-taking "(...) is not organized in advance (by say an order of speaking, or set of units to be uttered), but is highly flexible, allowing for longer units when so mutually arranged, and organizing an indeterminate number of participants into a single conversation (...)" (Levinson, 2015:1). Since Sacks et al. (1974, ibidem:4) we know that in a face-to-face conversation hundreds of cues are used to indicate turn-taking, such as final intonation, final syllable duration, final drop in pitch (prosody), gestures (e.g. end of a gesture, gaze shift; gestural) or end of a clause (syntactic), etc. Turn-shifting is also characterized by irregularity and interruption, showing emotions, such as excitement or involvement in the conversation. That in written communication with a chatbot is very difficult to design, for an automate not to seem artificial. One way to achieve it would be assuming the possibly high rate of responsiveness and attention, but interruption from the chatbot side would require an analysis of the response while it is appearing on the screen. In case of instant messages, the whole message is typically sent at once, while completed, whereas in a human spoken communication any signal can be received simultaneously with production, which allows for early reactions.

A very interesting fact about dialog agents is that the first bot in the history of chatbot building, Eliza (Weizenbaum, 1976), was by far more responsive than many contemporary dialog applications. Eliza, as an automatic psychotherapist, knew how to reformulate user utterances (statements or questions) into her questions, so as to keep the user chatting, just the way a psychologist does. She used constructions such as: "So you are saying that…?", "Would you like to talk about it?", "Tell me more about it...", giving the addressee an empathetic feeling, showing interest in the topic provided by the user (the user's emotional state) and by extracting keywords and rephrasing the original utterance - gave an impression of thorough listening and understanding. Bearing in mind that Eliza was in its construction a simple Q&A system, rather than a complex chatbot full of different script options, it seems quite incomprehensible that many contemporary chatbots haven't followed this path. A dialog construction based on the *turn-taking* system of a direct question and an always direct answer (e.g. "I want to buy a red dress" - "Here is a red dress I have found for you") seems to be a correct, but very limited and unnatural exchange of information, if compared to a real conversation. A simple "Oh! So you're looking for a dress, huh? Red… Good taste! Take a look at my selection of red dresses for you. What do you think?" seems to provide a touch of attention, reference to the user's utterance and an analysis of the customer's needs (for one of the many examples see for instance the INTU shopping advisor).

Indication of *emotion and affect* is another crucial indicator of natural conversations, as visible in the example in the previous paragraph. An emotionless conversation soon may become boring for the interlocutor. Therefore, it is very important to reveal some traces of emotions in the smalltalk. E.g. a 2016 reply by Bixby of "People say Samsung has high quality products" to a question "Is Samsung the best company?" or "Is Galaxy the best smartphone?" doesn't seem entertaining enough to the users. On the other hand, emotions such as e.g. surprise show reciprocity and again, attention to the user, giving the impression of a personalized rather than repeated, automatic answer.

Speaking of *personalization* of the dialog, it is difficult not to mention the topic of *anaphora* and *personal reference* (by name or nickname). Calling people by their names has many functions in the written chatbot communication. First of all, if responses are provided in a public channel, such as a social media portal, the name reference indicates the exact addressee of the utterance. It also has to do with attention and reducing the distance between the speakers. For these reasons many dialog agents are programmed to use names or nicknames of their interlocutors, which - in inflected languages, such as Slavic ones - brings up some interesting questions. Most proper names as nouns are inflected in Polish, so in reference to an interlocutor the vocative case is used. However, in the UGC, nicknames are used more often than first or second names. If a nickname means e.g. a name of a road, chatbots owners sometimes resign from inflected forms of the vocative (also treated as excessively formal in this context and a bit obsolete) and insist on leaving the nominative form in the vocative function. E.g. nominative of *Mark - Marek* should in the Polish vocative become *Marku,* but the personal reference *Marek* is left at the beginning of the utterance, e.g. *Marek, here is an answer to your question.* Such a phenomenon puts up a question of a gradual reduction of vocative also in this context and the language correctness versus the new habits of language use in dialog agents.

Natural human conversations tend to be less structured, as was already discussed with reference to turn-taking. Changes of topic or context are a frequent phenomenon, which is why sequences of conversational moves and narrative-interactional processes are not predefined. In dialog agents the whole conversation is pretty much predesigned, and therefore can give an impression of repetition, seem uninvolving for the users, with foreseeable outcomes and what is worst - provide always the same, predictable answers (monothematic dialogs with circular construction, always returning to certain repetitive points). Especially the old-style chatbot architectures, like first famous multimodal smartphone dialog agents, tended to break the conversation, when (after getting very deeply down on a conversation tree) they couldn't get out of the context, stuck in a loop, waiting for the right command to take another predesigned step. Nowadays, there seem to be at least two solutions to these problems: *global contexts* and *multiple response variations* as in mode.ai, Tommy Hilfiger or INTU chatbots. *Global contexts* are independent intents, allowing the user to enter a different context from any point in the conversation (e.g. while having already chosen a product with specific features to ask for another product with a different set of features). *Multiple response variations* is an option, such as in the Google Dialog Flow to provide more than one answer to a given question and to return those answers with an algorithm of random selection.

3. Conclusions

In this paper the linguistic features of chatbot conversations have been discussed with the use of criteria, such as *medium, situation, context, participants, status, etc.* Such dialogs have been found pragmatic, led over a written (or spoken) medium, with an informative of customer service goal, of a quite informal character, pre-designed, specific particpants roles, limited reciprocity and openendedness, but changing contexts and possibly many paraphrases for different speech acts, such as greeting or farewell. Even though dialog agents seem to be informative, relevant, brief, etc. they often don't sound as natural as human communication.

Going back to the key problem of this article, of what it means for the language of a dialog agent to be natural, we can say that linguistics provides us with important criteria of conversation description, such as criteria of a natural conversation, that allow for a thorough analysis of conversations with chatbots. Linguistics as a field of science has elaborated tools, which can be successfully applied to the contemporary changing ways of communication, although they might require extension. In order to answer the second part of the question, if we can achieve the naturalness in the dialog agent design and how, one can combine the user experience and an analysis of different examples of dialog agents with the linguistic criteria of natural conversations.

However, the problem of non-artificial chatbot language seems much more complex than we might think at first. Further issues arise, e.g. is a new natural conversation of our times a written-down spoken discourse, turned to CMD? Why are we afraid of dialog agents being too precise imitations of humans, such as Google Duplex is becoming and sense aiporia? Is there really a thin line of being "too human" (can a bot be artificially human?) and do we need to take human conversations as the golden standard for chatbot dialogs (e.g. Colby, 1999)? These and similar issues might also require to be addressed in the nearest future of linguistic research.

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The Effect of Visual Representation, Textual Representation and Glossing on Second Language Vocabulary Learning

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Abstract

Vocabulary learning is an essential skill in language learning. Without vocabulary and lexicon communication in any language is impossible. One of the most difficult problems in vocabulary learning is inability to retrieve vocabulary which is taught. Teachers should choose different techniques or methods for teaching vocabulary which help vocabulary learning. In this study, the researcher chose three different vocabulary techniques (visual Representation, Textual Enhancement and glossing) and compared them with traditional method of teaching vocabulary. 80 advanced EFL Learners were assigned as four intact groups (three experimental and one control group) through using a proficiency test and a vocabulary test as a pre-test. In the visual group students used flashcards, in the textual enhancement every synonyms and antonyms were highlighted and numbered and in the glossing group new vocabularies were numbered and their explanations were provided in the margins or footnotes. Students in the control group learned vocabulary through traditional way by meaning explanation, translation or providing synonyms and antonyms. All the other three groups had the same process as control group but besides these processes they had access to visual, textual or glossing techniques, too. The results showed that in the posttest, all three experimental groups outperformed the control group. However, the highest improvement in both post-test and delayed post-test was for glossing group. As a whole, we can say improvement in vocabulary learning was respectively for glossing, then visual and finally textual enhancement group in the post test and delayed post-test. Therefore, it can be concluded that using pictorial/visual and textual cues like highlighting and glossing provides lots of opportunities for learners to embrace lexical items in their interlanguage system. Teachers should apply these techniques in their teaching methods; however, the findings of this study are applied on advanced level students. This study should be done on students with different language proficiency and language background.

Keywords: EFL; Glossing; Textual Representation; Visual Representation; Vocabulary Learning

1. Introduction

Vocabulary is one of the most important items in language learning since meaning cannot be carried out without lexicon. Brown (2007) believes that learning a language cannot be reduced to only learning vocabulary, although without vocabulary, communication in an L2 cannot occur in any meaningful way. There are some difficulties and problems in learning vocabulary. One of the major problems is the inability to retrieve vocabulary that has been taught. In this case either communication breaks down or the student needs to convey the message in a different way by using strategic competence (Decarrico, 2001). Therefore, teaching and learning vocabulary have received increasing attention in the related course syllabi where developing efficient techniques and strategies can promote second language learning (Nation & Chung, 2009). However, in the traditional approach to teaching vocabulary which is still common in teaching contexts, vocabulary is often taught unsystematically in class and teachers attempts to leave their students to learn vocabulary on their own without much instruction or guidance (Oxford & Scarcella, 1994). In addition, within the limited time of instruction in the classroom, it is not possible to teach large amounts of vocabulary items (Cunningham, 2005). Furthermore, learners also need to make use of incidental vocabulary learning (Schmitt, 2000). There have been a lot of studies investigating incidental vocabulary learning in second language learning (e.g., Paribakht & Wesche, 1999). The results revealed that with the help of those studies, new words can be incidentally learned while reading. Besides, it is always stated that learners ought to have multiple exposures to the vocabulary items in different contexts in order to learn the words incidentally. Nonetheless, there is no agreement on how many times learners need to be exposed to the target words and what kind of exposure is needed for successful learning (Huckin & Coady, 1999). Lastly, another problematic point of incidental vocabulary learning through reading is about low proficiency level learners. There are many efficient techniques for teaching vocabulary such as textual-input enhancement, visual-input enhancement and glossing (Erturk, 2016; Hasshemi & Pourgharib, 2013). Input enhancement attempts to draw learners' attention to linguistic form by adjusting the appearance of target structure (Farahani & Sarkhosh, 2012). It is claimed that using input enhancement can influence intake and learning (Rashtchi & Gharanli, 2010). Accordingly, Farhani and Sarkhosh (2012) state that textual-input enhancement makes a particular linguistic item more visible by adopting typographical cues such as bolding, italicizing, capitalizing and so on. Visual cues have the same role by using different types of visual aids such as flashcards, videos and pictures. In the ESL/EFL classroom, using visual aids can help students to strengthen and reinforce what they have learned. The reason is that they allow students to get the

information through an additional sensory perception (Sadeghi & Farzizadeh, 2013). Glossing is one of the strategies for enhancing incidental vocabulary learning (Hong, 2010). Accordingly, Lomicka (1998) defines glossing as "typically located in the side or bottom margins, glosses are most often supplied for 'unfamiliar' words, which may help to limit continual dictionary consultation that may hinder and interrupt the L2 reading comprehension process" (p. 41). Glossing can be used as input modification (Ko, 2005). Firstly, instead of wrong guesses, learners get the help of knowing the meaning of a new word. It is an important issue because once learners make erroneous guesses, they seem reluctant to change them (Haynes, 1993). In addition, Hulstijn (1992) found that erroneous guesses will be prevented with the help of glosses. Secondly, instead of looking the new words up constantly, glosses help learners read and enjoy their reading without any interruption. Thirdly, with the help of glosses, learners can activate their prior knowledge on the topic with the new knowledge in the text and it is very beneficial for them in terms of understanding and remembering the content of the text. Furthermore, as they encounter words in a context and they make use of their prior knowledge about that topic, learning can become more meaningful and it may help retention of the learned words (Erturk, 2016). The other advantage of glosses which is mentioned by Ko (2005) is that it causes learners greater autonomy and learners can look up the unknown words.

In another study, Ko (2012) examined the effect of L1 and L2 glosses as well as no-gloss on L2 incidental vocabulary learning. In this study, 90 participants were randomly divided into three groups; no-gloss, L1 gloss and L2 gloss. The first group read the text with no-gloss, the second group read it with L1 gloss and the third group read it with L2 gloss. After reading the text, they were given immediate vocabulary tests and four weeks later they took the delayed vocabulary test. They were also asked to complete a student opinion questionnaire in order to see their

reactions and opinions about glossing in reading texts. The results of the study revealed that on the immediate and delayed tests glossed groups outperformed no-gloss group, but in the delayed test there was not any significant difference between two groups. The analysis of the student questionnaire showed that the participants preferred L2 glosses in their L2 reading materials. It is very important for teachers to find effective ways to teach vocabulary. In this study, the researcher tried to investigate the effect of different vocabulary learning techniques. Accordingly, the present study tries to answer to the following questions:

1: Does textual input-enhancement have a positive effect on advanced Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary learning?
2: Does visual cues have a positive effect on advanced Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary learning?
3: Does glosses have a positive effect on advanced Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary learning?
4: Is there any significant difference between the effectiveness of visual cues, textual-input enhancement and glossing methods on advanced Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary learning in the post-test and the delayed post-test?

2. Method
2.1. Participants

Participants of this study were 80 students in four intact groups. They were chosen among 91 students through a modified proficiency test and a vocabulary test based on the book they were studying in an English institute in Tabriz. All participants who were passing Pre-Toefl1 with the researcher as their teacher, were locals of Tabriz and bilingual i.e., Persian and Turkish speakers. After taking part in a Nelson test, those who were placed 1 score above and below the mean score were selected. To be sure of their homogeneity, a vocabulary test was applied and the scores were used as pre-test scores.

2.2. Instrumentation
The following instruments were used in this research:

a) Nelson test as proficiency test from https://www.mometrix.com, b) A 25- item multiple choice vocabulary as pre-test and post-test, c) A 25- item multiple choice vocabulary as delayed post-test. Nelson test is a test of measuring reading ability among high school and college students. It has two subtests naming vocabulary and comprehension with both multiple choice questions (Brown, 1993). This test was administered before the pre-test in order to determine the homogeneity of the control and experimental groups in terms of English language proficiency. The learners' vocabulary knowledge was tested by means of the 25-item multiple choice test which was elicited from their course book (504 absolutely essential words).

The content validity of the tests was checked by two experts in the field of TEFL. They all confirmed that the tests have a high degree of content validity. In addition, these tests were piloted for a group of participants to see whether they can be used as a suitable measurement tools. The books which were taught for all of four classes were 504 absolutely essential words and Barron's TOEFL Preparation Book.

2.3. Data Collection Procedure

Nelson proficiency test was used before the treatment in order to be sure of the homogeneity of the participants. Those who got 1 score above and below the mean were selected. As a result, 80 participants were chosen out of 91. Accordingly, participants were randomly assigned to three experimental groups (text input-enhancement group, visual cues group, glossing group) and a control group. Then, a pre-test was given to students to find out about the initial vocabulary knowledge of participants. This study conducted in two months in 20 sessions which were held three days a week. During the treatment, in every session, one lesson of the book 504 essential words was taught to the participants besides the Barron's TOEFL Book.

In textual-input enhancement group, target vocabulary / words which were synonyms or antonyms with each other were bolded and numbered. It means that synonyms or antonyms had the same numbers and were bolded in the text. Teacher as the researcher of the class had to retype the texts in the book 504 to achieve her goal. The teacher read the texts, translated the key vocabularies into Persian language and even explained their meanings in English. Furthermore, when needed, synonyms and antonyms were also given for each word. In visual cues group, a variety of visual techniques were used like pictures and semantic maps when vocabularies were presented to participants. Students in this group had to buy the flashcards for the 504 books and used it besides reading the book itself.

In the glossing group, students received the retyped texts from the researcher as their teacher. The revised texts were prepared in a way that the words were numbered and the meaning of those words was written for that number in the margins or in the footnotes. So students did not have to look for the meaning in the dictionary or even they did not have to guess the meaning. The meanings were available for them.

For the control group, vocabularies were taught within a passage in traditional method of teaching vocabulary which is common in Iran, i.e., providing Persian equivalent and translation of the text and explaining the English meaning or providing the synonyms or antonyms. All the other groups received the same method as the control group. However, in those three experimental groups, besides explaining meaning in English or Persian and providing the necessary synonyms or antonyms, other techniques like text enhancement, visual cues and glossing were provided. In this way, the researcher will recognize the effect of different contextualized methods for learning vocabulary in comparison to the traditional decontextualized method.

This study was practiced for twenty sessions for all groups. After the treatment, the post-test

was administered to the participants. The test included all the vocabulary items which had been used in the treatment. Every session lasted 90 minutes. After one month, researcher had Pre-Toefl2 class with the same students. The researcher as the teacher used another vocabulary test from the studied vocabulary in 504 book as a delayed post-test to find out about the effectiveness of different techniques for vocabulary learning.

2.4. Data Analysis Procedure and Results

To check the assumption of parametric tests of normality, linearity, and homogeneity of regression lines, Paired-Sample *T*-Test and One-Way ANOVA were run to see if such differences among mean value were statistically significant or not.

3. Results

The researcher assessed the normalness of data before conducting T-test and ANOVA test.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of variables

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Minimum	Maximum
Proficiency test score	Text-enhancement	20	29.40	2.542	-.138	-.576	25	34
	Visual	20	29.85	2.207	-.410	.405	25	34
	Glossing	20	29.45	3.034	-.027	-.747	24	35
	Control	20	29.90	2.972	.094	-1.077	25	35
Pretest score	Text-enhancement	20	7.10	2.337	.361	-.242	3	12
	Visual	20	7.35	2.390	-.025	-1.195	4	11
	Glossing	20	7.85	2.323	-.442	-.513	3	11
	Control	20	7.25	2.447	-.561	-.837	3	11
Post-test score	Text-enhancement	20	16.90	2.553	.018	-.867	13	22
	Visual	20	19.05	2.762	-.424	-.852	14	23

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation				
	Glossing	20	21.15	2.084	-.763	.405	16	24
	Control	20	15.00	2.128	-.765	-.570	11	18
Delayed Post-test score	Text-enhancement	20	15.00	2.317	.141	-.306	11	20
	Visual	20	17.20	2.462	-.514	-.542	13	21
	Glossing	20	19.05	1.959	-.357	-.554	15	22
	Control	20	13.40	2.037	-.359	-.646	10	17

Table 2: The result of One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

	N	Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Proficiency test score	80	.914	.374
Pretest score	80	1.033	.237
Post-test score	80	.815	.521
Delayed Post-test score	80	.879	.423

Tables 1 and 2 show the normalness of data in all tests which was assessed through using One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test. Since the p>0.05, we can conclude that all data of variables are normal.

Table 3: The result of ANOVA for comparison of Proficiency test score in groups

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
Text-enhancement	20	29.40	2.542	.186	.906
Visual	20	29.85	2.207		
Glossing	20	29.45	3.034		
Control	20	29.90	2.972		

For having homogeneous groups, a proficiency test was used. According to the one-way ANOVA test in table 3, sig=0.9 and p>0.05. As a result there wasn't any significant difference between four groups based on proficiency level.
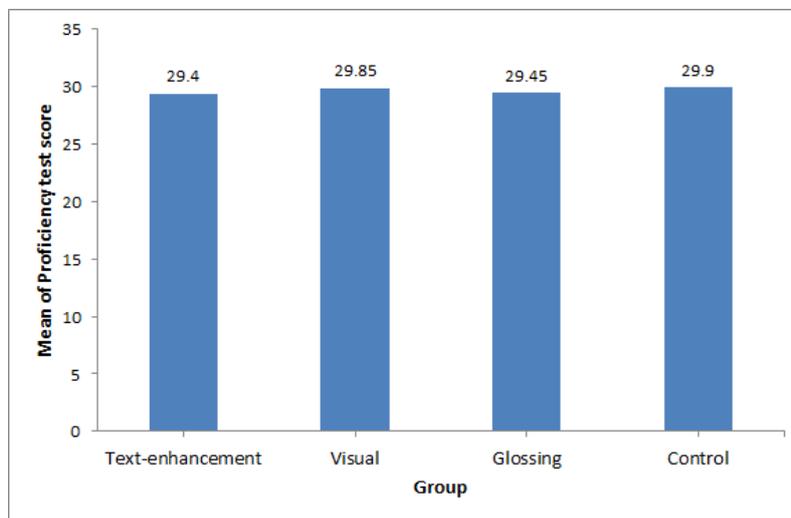
Fig.1 The result of mean scores for comparing Proficiency test score in groups

Table 4: The result of ANOVA for comparison of Pretest score in groups

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
Text-enhancement	20	7.10	2.337	.375	.772
Visual	20	7.35	2.390		
Glossing	20	7.85	2.323		
Control	20	7.25	2.447		

For being sure of the homogeneity of learners in using vocabulary an ANOVA test was applied. Table 4 shows the results of one-way ANOVA for the pre-test scores. It was revealed that *sig*. =0.772 and *p*>0.05. As a result, there wasn't any significant difference in vocabulary use between these four groups in the pre-test.

Table 5: The result of assumption of homogeneity of regression slope for Post-test score

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value
Group * pretest	5.211	3	1.737	1.670	.181
Error	74.884	72	1.040		

In this study, Covariance analysis has been used. Analysis of covariance has assumptions like normal distribution of dependent variables, homogeneity of slope of regressions and homogeneity of variance of dependent variable. As table 5 shows, p value is 0.181 and p>0.05. Then Homogeneity of slope of regressions between groups in the post-test are confirmed.

Table 6: The result of Levine Test of Equality of Error Variances for Post-test score

F	df1	df2	p-value
1.808	3	76	.153

In table 6, homogeneity of variance of dependent variable was assessed through Levine Test. P value is 0.153 and p>0.05 which proves the homogeneity of variance of dependent variable between all groups.

Table 7: The result of Analysis of covariance for Post-test score

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value	Partial Eta Squared
pretest	357.204	1	357.204	334.480	.000	.817
Group	348.391	3	116.130	108.742	.000	.813
Error	80.096	75	1.068			
Total	26854.000	80				

Table 7 shows the Analysis of covariance for Post-test scores. According to the results (F=108.74, p=0.001), there is a significant difference between four groups in the post-test.

Table 8: Adjusted mean for Post-test score

Group	N	Mean	Std. Error
Text-enhancement	20	17.162	.232
Visual	20	19.084	.231
Glossing	20	20.728	.232
Control	20	15.126	.231

Table 9: The result of LSD test for Pairwise Comparisons of Post-test score in groups

(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Text-enhancement	Visual	-1.922*	.327	.000
	Glossing	-3.565*	.329	.000
	Control	2.037*	.327	.000
Visual	Text-enhancement	1.922*	.327	.000
	Glossing	-1.644*	.328	.000
	Control	3.959*	.327	.000
Glossing	Text-enhancement	3.565*	.329	.000
	Visual	1.644*	.328	.000
	Control	5.602*	.328	.000
Control	Text-enhancement	-2.037*	.327	.000
	Visual	-3.959*	.327	.000
	Glossing	-5.602*	.328	.000

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

In table 9, LSD test for Pairwise Comparisons of Post-test scores in groups has been shown. The results revealed that there is a significant difference between the effectiveness of all three experimental groups (Text-enhancement, Visual, and Glossing) with the control group. It means that all the students in the experimental groups outperformed the learners in the control group. Furthermore according to the results of tables 8 and 9, those students who received glossing performed better than the other three groups. Then the learners respectively in the visual group and the last one text-enhancement group had high scores. However, the best vocabulary teaching technique in this study is using glossing for teaching new vocabulary. For checking the effect of these three methods for vocabulary learning, the results of delayed post-test was also assessed. The normalness of data for delayed scores is shown in Table2.

Table 10: The result of assumption of homogeneity of regression slope for Delayed Post-test scores

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value
Group * pretest	4.963	3	1.654	1.111	.350
Error	107.232	72	1.489		

In table 10, p value is 0.350 and p>0.05. Therefore, Homogeneity of slope of regressions between groups in the delayed post-test are confirmed.

Table 11: The result of Levine Test of Equality of Error Variances for Delayed Post-test score

F	df1	df2	p-value
.511	3	76	.676

Table 11shows P value is 0.676 and p>0.05 in Levine Test, which proves the homogeneity of variance of dependent variable between all groups in the delayed post-test.

Table 12: The result of Analysis of covariance for Delayed Post-test score

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value	Partial Eta Squared
pretest	256.755	1	256.755	171.635	.000	.696
Group	306.623	3	102.208	68.324	.000	.732
Error	112.195	75	1.496			
Total	21635.000	80				

The Analysis of covariance for the delayed Post-test scores is shown in table 12. According to the results (F=68.32, p=0.001), there is a significant difference between four groups in the delayed post-test.

Table 13: Adjusted mean for Delayed Post-test scores

Group	N	Mean	Std. Error
Text-enhancement	20	15.223	.274
Visual	20	17.229	.273
Glossing	20	18.692	.275
Control	20	13.506	.274

Table 14: The result of LSD test for Pairwise Comparisons of Delayed Post-test scores in groups

(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Text-enhancement	Visual	-2.007*	.387	.000
	Glossing	-3.470*	.389	.000
	Control	1.716*	.387	.000
Visual	Text-enhancement	2.007*	.387	.000
	Glossing	-1.463*	.388	.000
	Control	3.723*	.387	.000
Glossing	Text-enhancement	3.470*	.389	.000
	Visual	1.463*	.388	.000
	Control	5.186*	.388	.000
Control	Text-enhancement	-1.716*	.387	.000
	Visual	-3.723*	.387	.000
	Glossing	-5.186*	.388	.000

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

According to the results of LSD test for Pairwise Comparisons for the delayed post-test scores in table 14, all learners in the three experimental groups (Text-enhancement, Visual, and Glossing) outperformed the learners in the control group. As tables 13 and 14 show, learners in the glossing group gained the highest marks and performed better than the other groups. As a whole the highest score respectively belong to glossing, then visual and then text-enhancement. To summarize, we can conclude that glossing is the best method for teaching vocabulary and it helps learners to remember the vocabulary better and for longer time.
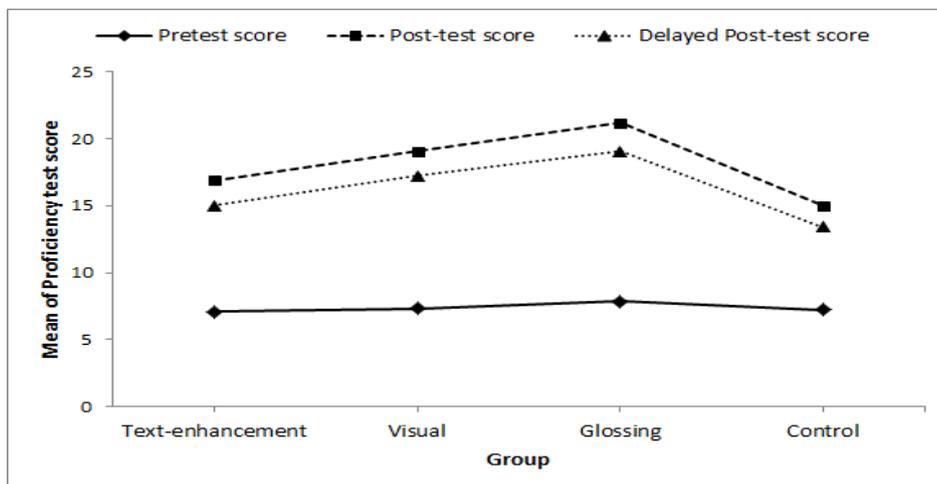
Figure 2. Mean of vocabulary scores in the pre-test, post-test and delayed post-test for all four groups

Results revealed that glossing method was better than visual method and visual method was better than text-enhancement method. All of these three new vocabulary teaching methods are better than traditional method of teaching vocabulary in the control group.

4. Discussion and Conclusion

The results revealed that there is a significant difference between visual, textual and glossing groups in vocabulary acquisition. Students in glossing group respectively outperformed students in visual, textual and control groups. Students who were taught through glossing benefited more than other techniques in vocabulary learning. It seems that using glossing can enhance perceptual salience and noticing better than visual and textual enhancement. The findings of the present study are in line with the previous studies (e.g., Erturk, 2016; Ko, 2012; Liu, 2011; Mediha & Enisa, 2014) which reveals the positive effect of glossing in vocabulary learning. It can be concluded that glossing by providing immediate meaning and explanation to the given words can help retrieval and increase students interest by providing an enjoyable context for learning.

According to Schmitt and Frota's (1986) concept of noticing the gap, glossing helps learners to be aware of how their interlanguage differs from the target form. It also draws students' attention to different aspects of a given input; students notice the differences of meanings,

integrate them in their interlanguage and successfully can recall them when it is needed. Furthermore, the mean score from pre-test to post-test shows improvement in all groups. This improvement is respectively as follows: the highest improvement is for glossing group; then, visual clues, textual enhancement, and finally the control group. All of these techniques are useful for vocabulary learning, however, glossing is the most useful one. It can be concluded that even in the delayed post-test, results were the same and glossing group showed a significant difference in mean score in comparison to the other groups. Glossing put learners in a problem

solving condition, and helps learners to develop their inferencing ability, reading ability and eventually lexical learning. It may also help develop autonomous reading. By glossing learners get feedback from the answers and make further adjustment to the understanding of the context in which the new word is used. In addition, the findings of this study are in line with previous studies about the effectiveness of text enhancement (Farahani & Sarkhoh, 2012) and visual representation (Sadeghi & Farzizadeh, 2013) on learning vocabulary. All these three new strategies towards vocabulary learning are based on contextualized language learning which increase incidental noticing. Delayed post-test revealed that contextualized teaching was more permanent than the traditional and decontextualized teaching. According to the obtained results, it was found out that the learners who were taught by contextualized method like

glossing, visual representation and text enhancement could remember the words more frequently than the learners who were taught by the traditional method. The findings of the study showed that the experimental groups made an important progress when compared to the control group. While the control and experimental groups made some progress in the post-tests and the delayed post-test, the control group received lower scores in comparison to other three experimental groups. Therefore, it was clearly seen that contextualized teaching by using text enhancement, glossing and visual representation had a positive effect on the improvement of the learners' vocabulary knowledge. The study also revealed the fact that contextualized methods were more effective than traditional methods in vocabulary teaching. The main reason of these significant differences is that students could derive the meanings of the new words easier by making connection between the word and meaning. It seems that learners who were taught vocabulary in the context by using contextual methods were more successful than the ones who learned vocabulary by the traditional method and just translation. Research in forming associations (Cohen & Aphek, 1981) and using the Keyword Method (Hulstijn, 1997) has shown to enhance retention better than rote memorization. In general, shallower activities may be more suitable for beginners, because they contain less material that may only distract a novice, while intermediate or advanced learners can benefit from the context usually included in deeper activities (Cohen & Aphek, 1981). Techniques which involve the use of both visual and verbal mental imagery to relate a word to be memorized with some previously learned knowledge can be beneficial in learning vocabulary. Furthermore, Keyword Method that in which a meaning of a word is given or it is highlighted in the text as one mnemonic technique that has shown to be superior to any other deliberate vocabulary learning strategy. It can be claimed that using textual cues helped students in textual group to pay more attention to particular items in the given input (Farahani & Sarkhoh, 2012). That is, enhancing a particular feature in the text is fundamental in noticing and subsequent intake. Therefore, all these three techniques textual enhancement, visual representation and glossing as an input-enhancement technique had a positive impact on the rate and accuracy of L2 acquisition. It seems that through mere translation and speaking about synonyms and antonyms connection between word and meaning cannot occur. In this case, interlanguage system in students of control group wouldn't improve. Because of that we don't see any significant enhancement in the control group from pre-test to post-test. The results may be well matched with the view of Krashen (1982) that formal instruction is not really needed and comprehensible input serves as the necessary and sufficient requirement for L2 acquisition. We can conclude that visual cues, textual input-enhancement and glossing are not techniques which may assist learners in acquisition process, but a kind of Focus on Form approach facilitates L2 acquisition (Fahim & Vaezi, 2011).

5. Pedagogical Implications

It is highly recommended that students be provided with numerous opportunities to pick up and recall vocabulary items. Therefore, using pictorial/visual and textual cues like highlighting and glossing provide lots of opportunities for learners to embrace lexical items in their interlanguage system. Students should not only rely on textual/visual cues as a means to enhance their vocabulary knowledge but also should adjust their learning tasks with pictorial/visual cues and glossing which give them more opportunities to learn them. When students learn vocabularies through the use of synonyms/antonyms, definition and even translation, they forget them easily in the future. But when they learn vocabularies by textual/visual cues and glossing, they rarely have difficulty in remembering them. This also refers to the basic role of visual/textual aids and glossing in successful acquisition of lexical items for textbook authors, syllabus designers, and curriculum developers. It is also essential that lexical items should be presented in a meaningful context accompanied with appropriate, stimulating visual/textual cues. Thus, teachers while teaching vocabulary should observe using textual/visual representation and glossing in their teaching methods for better acquisition and longer retention of the lexicon. It must be mentioned that students' level and language proficiency is important and can be a vital issue in teaching vocabulary. It seems that more advanced level students can use these techniques better than other students. To be sure of these results, this study should be repeated with students with different language proficiency, language background and even different gender.

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The East-Western Difference in the Ukrainian Philosophical Language (Galicia, End 19th to Early 20th Century)

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Abstract

This study reveals how the development of Ukrainian philosophical terminology began. In Galicia, at the end of the XIXth century, attempts were undertaken to create a Ukrainian ("Ruthenian") language predominantly on the basis of common language. The process of creating Ukrainian terminologies, particularly philosophical terminology, took place in the context of the emerging national language. The will to create a national philosophical terminology based on the Galician variant of the Ukrainian standard language could not exclude the usage of borrowed words. A detailed analysis of the terms – first of all of their lexical and stylistic base – reflects the general tendency prevailing in the Ukrainian language at the End of the XIXth Century: parallel common language forms, borrowed words, translations and loan-translations, i.e. parallel use of international and national language forms.

Keywords: common language, national language, standard language, philosophical terminology, borrowings, loan-translation

Introduction

The questions of norming and standardization of Ukrainian written language were of high actuality during the second half of the 19th century. As a result of significant legal and socio-cultural changes, the Ukrainian language in Austrian Galicia – which was a region of extraordinary linguistic diversity, where Polish, Ukrainian, Yiddish, Latin, Church Slavonic, German and several other languages where either written or spoken (Fellerer 2005) – disposed of significant means of development and codification. This concerns also the formation of Ukranian terminology: „The first center of modern Ukrainian terminology work was located in Vienna, the capital of the Austrian (from 1867 onwards: Austro-Hungarian) monarchy. All Viennese contributions had a strong normative attitude from the very first moment on" (Moser 2005, 175).

Various evolving linguistic concepts where shaped by the respective ideological orientation of particular authors.

At the beginning of the 1850s, the Russophile movement was on the rise. Numerous Russian and Church Slavonic elements of Ukrainian written language contributed to its development. There was a tendency – first and foremost in the domains of abstract lexis and non-developed terminology – to borrow from a much more prestigious language, i.e. Russian. Towards the end of the 1860s, the Ukrainophiles began to speak out as representatives of national interests, wishing to distinguish themselves from earlier Russophile traditions and attempting to integrate vernacular materials at various linguistic levels.[*]

Ukrainian philosophical texts from the second half of the 19th century – which hitherto have received little attention in the domain of Ukrainian and international Slavic studies – will constitute the research corpus of the present article.

Eastern philosophical thinking, whose character is – through the sphere of influence of Byzantium – of a religious-ethical nature, differs significantly from Western thought which was shaped by the philosophy and terminology of the Age of Enlightenment. (Deppermann 1998, VII). Ukrainian philosophers – traditionally oriented towards traditional religious-ethical values – also interpreted Western-European philosophical thinking in this sense. These interpretations could not be homogenous since many philosophical doctrines existed in 19th century Ukraine, whose emergence is explained by historical-political conditions of the day. At the linguistic level this is clearly reflected by the respective terminologies serving particular philosophical schools and doctrines. The specific contribution of representatives of such philosophical schools towards the development of Ukrainian philosophical language has to date not been the object of research. This paper intends to determine how the latter dealt with problems of terminology: how did they succeed in dialectically reconciling vernacular elements capable of being terminologized with word creations and necessary loan words?

In reference to the process of development of philosophical terminology one generally starts from the premise that the latter evolved in close connection with Western European philosophy but in the context of a national tradition, so

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[*] „The roots of the Ukrainian specialized language can be found in small booklets and manuals for primary and secondary scools published by the Galician society 'Prosvita' ('Enlightenment'), which was founded in 1868" (Rytsar 1994, 127).

that criteria such as semantic, utility, unoccupied conceptual entities, morphological flexibility and orthoepic characteristics are of great relevance.

Our analysis will be carried out in the thematic context of philosophical thinking during the mentioned period and taking into account the specific construct of Ukrainian national and cultural consciousness. To this end, a comparative analysis of philosophical texts originating from Galicia and Eastern Ukraine, respectively Russia, written in Russian by philosophers of Ukrainian origin, will be carried out. The texts originate from the same period and deal with similar topics. This comparison should illustrate the peculiarities of the linguistic shape of the texts regarding their manner of dealing with foreign terminology against the background of their own terminological conception. Of particular interest in this context is the issue of particularities and/or commonalities of Ukrainian and Russian philosophical language of the period under research as an expression of national reception of classical and Western European philosophy.

The following Ukrainian language publications will be analyzed: „De-shcho pro materyializm, a prosvitu Slavian" (About Materialism and enlightenment in the world of the Slaves) by S. Holod (1865), „Kil'ka myslei iz filosofii"(Some philosophical thoughts) by K. Hankevych[*] (1868), his articles „Ystoriia i krytyka Materyializma" (History and criticism of Materialism) (1881) and „Novishoie fylosoficheskoie dvizheniie u Slavian. Prybavleniie k ystorii fylosofii Slavian"(Recent philosophical movement in the world of the Slavs. Supplement to the History of the Slavs) (1881), the article of V. Fedorovych[†] „Empirychna i utylitarna tendentsyia teperishnoi nauki"(Empirical and utilitarian tradition of modern science) (1872), his volume of aphorisms of a philosophical character „Hadky" (Aphorisms) (1883) and the study of V. Shchurat[‡] „Ukrains'ki zherela do istojryi filosofii"(Ukrainian sources to the history of philosophy) (1908).

The following Russian language publications were used for comparison: „Razum po ucheniiu Platona i opyt po ucheniiu Kanta"(Reason according to Plato and perception according to Kant) by P. Iurkevich[§] (1866), „Vvedenie v istoriiu filosofii"(Introduction into the history of philosophy) by S. Gogotskii[**] (1871), „Uchenie Platona o bozhestve"(„Plato's doctrine on deity" by P. Gogotskii[††] (1876).

This relatively narrow selection of sources is nevertheless representative in that it is made up of proponents of differing philosophical doctrines and – of particular relevance for this study – differing language policy camps. Not at last, it is interesting to observe how older traditions continued to be effective, which in not inconsiderable measure fell back on Church Slavonic or Russian language elements; if the language of these publications was put into an overall Ukrainian context and in how far typical Galician elements appeared.

1. Phonology and Orthography

At the phonetic level, certain peculiarities of a dialectal nature diverging from the linguistic norm can be observed which are expressed through a corresponding orthography.

Verbal nouns ending on -ie or -ia were represented in various manners. Asides from numerous examples in which the position of the weak Jer-sound before j is occupied by ø: zadan'ie filosofii (Hankevych 1868, 167), materiializovan'ie (Hankevych 1881b, 325), the Church Slavonic spelling of i in place of the weak Jer-sound before j is also documented: poznaniia (Hankevych 1881a, 13), bytiia (Hankevych 1881a, 30).

According to Galician vernacular tradition the nominative form ends on -ie and is spelled with a consonant doubling – as is the case in standard Ukrainian: mninnie (Holod 1865, 306), pytannie (Holod 1865, 304) or the Galician norm without consonant doubling is maintained, the latter having been formally discarded as a result of the lengthening of the originally doubled consonant: pytanie (Fedorovych 1872, 168), znanie (Shchurat 1908, 27), ponimanie (Shchurat 1908, 24), zhytia (Shchurat 1908, 22).

In several examples the specific Ukrainian reflex of dj as dzh is documented: rozsudzhovan'ia (Hankevych 1868, 227), slidzhenia (Hankevych 1868, 167), stverdzhenie (Shchurat 1908, 25), cf. with following examples from Russian texts: tozhdestvo (Gogotskii 1876, 108) and tozhestvo (Iurkevich 1866, 59). A Church Slavonic zhd < *dj only occurs sporadically: mezhdu (Hankevych 1881a, 13).

An initial ie- in edyno (Shchurat 1908, 16) is either of Western Slavonic origin (and therefore widespread in Western Ukrainian dialects) or of Church Slavonic provenance because the initial ie- is also typical of the latter. The

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[*] Klymentii Hankevych (1842-1924) was one of the Galician philosophers basing himself on positions of Idealism. In the 1860s, Hankevych shared the political ideals of Ukrainian nationalists, later he took the side of the Russophiles in whose press organs he published his works.

[†] Volodyslav Fedorovych (1845-1918) was land owner, journalist, politician and patron of the arts. In 1879 he became deputy to the Austrian parliament in Vienna and later a member of the upper chamber.

[‡] Vasyl′ Shchurat (1871-1948) studied Slavonic linguistics at the universities of Vienna and L′viv, participated in a philosophical seminar at Strasbourg and later taught at secondary schools in Przemyśl, Brody and L′viv. In his article „Ukrainian sources of the history of philosphy" he demonstrates that Byzantine Christian Neoplatonism not only influenced Western European- but also Ukrainian philosophical thinking of the Middle Ages.

[§] Pamfil Iurkevich (1826-1874) was an eminent representative of the so called „philosophy of the heart"

[**] Sylvester Gogotskii (1813-89) is regarded as a strong adherent of Hegel.

[††] Petro Linitskii (1839-1906) was a representative of the spiritual philosophy.

same can be said for poiedynchoho (Fedorovych 1872, 164), in the examined texts the palatalization in the suffixes -sk-, -tsk- is not regularly reflected. Besides the spelling with the non-palatalized dental sound according to Galician tradition: filosofii slavianskoi (Hankevych 1881b, 278), novo-hehlovskoiu shkoloiu (Hankevych 1881a, 29) palatalized forms also occur: staro-hrets′ka fylosofyia (Holod 1865, 272), khrystyians′ke (Holod 1865, 304), nimets′koho idealizmu (Shchurat 1908, 7), hrets′koiu filosofiieiu (Shchurat 1908, 4).

Asides from the etymological spelling of o in new closed syllable: liuds′kost′ (Holod 1865, 269), moral′nost′ (Holod 1865, 305), in the same text in the same position i is also used: rivnopravnosti (Holod 1865, 333). In the Hankevych article from 1868 the reflex from o in new closed syllables is noted through ô: ôdnoshen′iu, neosnovôst′ (Hankevych 1868, 213). In 1881 the same author uses the etymological spelling: otnosheniia (Hankevych 1881a, 31), prostrannost′ (Hankevych 1881a, 110), podstav (Hankevych 1881b, 310) etc.

In 1893, the Ruska Hramatyka by Smal-Stotskyj and Gartner* which was based on phonetic spelling was introduced as the official textbook in the Primary and High schools of the Monarchy (in Galicia and Bukovina). This official confirmation promoted the proliferation of phonetic spelling (Nimchuk-Purjajeva 2004, 106). In the analyzed texts, etymological spelling encountered: serdcia (Fedorovych1883, 47) as well as the phonetic approach: sercia (Shchurat 1908, 19), shchast′ie (Fedorovych 1883, 21).

The Ukrainian language in Galicia was subjected to Western European, in particular Polish influences which were also reflected orthographically (Nimchuk-Purjajeva 2004, 17): in foreign words l was traditionally spelt soft: postuliatom (Fedorovych 1872, 172), teol′ohii (Fedorovych 1872, 176), skholiastycyzma (Fedorovych 1883, 95), l′okalizacyia (Shchurat 1908, 12), cf. Russian examples: skholastika (Gogotskii 1876, 103), postulat (Gogotskii 1876, 79). Occasionally one encounters examples with a palatalized and non-palatalized l in the same text: novopliatonizmu (Shchurat 1908, 6) – novoplatonikiv (Shchurat 1908, 12). The foreign g was represented as g (г): ontologiiu i logiku (Shchurat 1908, 6), in some sources the Latin character g was actually retained: negacii (негації) (Holod 1865, 305), religiinyi (релігійний) (Holod 1865, 308). In most cases, however, g was represented by h (г): psykhol′ohiia (Fedorovych 1872, 156), psykholohiia (Hankevych 1881b, 18, 310), henezy (Hankevych 1881a, 12).

2. Morphology

In substantive morphology the following particularities warrant mention:

The instrumental singular feminine traditionally ends on -oiu: syntezoiu (Hankevych 1881a, 12), hipotezoiu (Fedorovych 1872, 173), nashoiu richyiu (Holod 1865, 274), dukhovnoiu dvyhoiu (Holod 1865, 308).

In many texts the demonstrative pronoun kozhdyi is utilized in the vernacular form: kozhda systema (Fedorovych 1872, 169), kozhdoie chuvstvo (Fedorovych 1883, 69), the form kozhnyi (Holod 1865, 270) also occurs.

In adjective morphology, the fact that adjectives and pronouns are apocopated is conspicuous: natura liuds′ka (Holod 1865, 270), khrystyians′ke (Holod 1865, 304), liuds′ka dusha (Shchurat 1908, 22), Aristotelivs′ke derevo poniat′ (Shchurat 1908, 16), iake jedyno (Shchurat 1908, 16), but occasionally one encounters the long form as in taia kryteryia znania (Fedorovych 1872, 172), toie znanie krytychne (Fedorovych 1872, 172), kozhdoje chuvstvo (Fedorovyč 1883, 69). In Hankevych the nominative/accusative neutrum is exclusively applied in long form: istorycheskoie rozvitie (Hankevych 1881b, 310), ideal′no-real′noie (Hankevych 1881b, 308). Endings in nominative/accusative plural are either apocopated and in this instance gender neutral as in iaki-to charivnychi eksperimenta (Fedorovych 1872, 176), vsi ti (Shchurat 1908, 23) or not apocopated and in that case also gender neutral as in tyi prava (Fedorovych 1872, 180), apriorychnyi systemy (Hankevych 1881a, 30), idei bezvzhliadnsi (Hankevych 1881b, 350).

In Galicia the forming of the comparative systematically takes place by using the suffix -iish; there is no evidence for the usage of -ish: noviishii materiializm (Hankevych 1881a, 12), nairadikal′niishii realizm (Hankevych 1881a, 12).

Frequently one finds, in relevant context, superlatives without conversion of the suffix -sh- following on progressive dissimilation: naivysshoi (Hankevych 1868, 167), blysshe (Fedorovych 1883, 45), naikhorosshoie (Fedorovych 1883, 47), cf. the normative naikrashche (Shchurat 1908, 22).

In verbal morphology the following characteristics should be noted: In the texts from 1872, the Galician-Ukrainian preterit personal ending: kazalys′mo, pokazalys′mo (Fedorovych 1872, 170) and the conditional are often used: znalybys′mo, mohlybys′mo, vyishlybys′mo (Fedorovych 1872, 165).

In verbs, participles and nouns of action (nomina actionis) one repeatedly finds -ova- instead of the specifically Ukrainian -uva-: rozsudzhovan′ia (Hankevych 1868, 227), rezonovaniu (Fedorovych 1872, 172), materiialyzovan′ie (Hankevych 1881b, 325). The spelling of -ova- in the text from 1908 in studiovanie (Shchurat 1908, 30), vykhovanie (Shchurat 1908, 10), zaobservovanukh (Shchurat 1908, 18) instead of repeatedly found -uva- in studiiuvaly (Shchurat 1908, 4), zakomunikuvav (Shchurat 1908, 14), posviachuvano (Shchurat 1908, 22) is to be registered as a lack of consistency.

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* Smal-Stotskyj, Stephan, Gartner, Fedir, Hramatyka rus′koï movy. Viden′, 1907².

3. Word formation

Beside the terminilogization of common language lexis and borrowing of terms from other languages, abstract and terminological lexis was developed on the basis of Ukrainian word formation models. For example, suffix derivations are quite common. One of the productive suffixes for the creation of abstract nouns is -stv-: sushchestvo (Hankevych 1881a, 76), iestestvo (Hankevych 1868, 178).

Derivations created by means of the suffix -n′- (-nn′- in modern Ukrainian) which describe a process are based on a derivative verb: piznan′ie (Hankevych 1868, 213), stverdzhenie (Shchurat 1908, 25).

Many terms denoting abstract nouns are created by means of the Ukrainian suffix ist′/-ost′: pravyl′nost′ voli (Hankevych 1881a, 207), superechnosti (Hankevych 1868, 214).

Many terms constituting loan transfers of German composites ending on -ität or -keit (English equivalent: ity), are created through a construction of noun + prepositional object, whereby the noun is created by means of the suffixes -ist′/-ost′: soobraznost′iu z tsil′iu (Zweckmäßigkeit 'Expediency') (Hankevych 1881b, 366), vozzrin′ia na svit (Weltanschauung 'world view') (Hankevych 1881b, 308). In Russian philosophical literature on the other hand, composites are used: for example, worldview is reflected as mirovozzrenie or mirosozertsanie (Gogotskii 1876, 49). The same is true for the term svitohliad (SUM 9, 96) in modern Ukrainian.

In Ukrainian, borrowings from Western European languages of Latin origin are assimilated at the morphological level by means of the same suffix: sub″iektyvnosti ot ob″iektyvnosti (Eng: subjectivity; objectivity) (Hankevych 1881a, 110).

Substantivated adjectives and participles are typical for all philosophical texts written in Western European languages, which can be traced back to the history of the emergence of concepts/terms and of the translation of modern texts. Substantivated adjectives and participles of neutral gender can be regarded as typological particularities of Ukrainian philosophical texts: dobre i pravdyve (Hankevych 1868, 213), essentsional′ne v richakh, iz podobnoho do zahal′noho, poodynoke z obshchoho (Hankevych 1868, 178). The same can be said for the examined Russian philosophical texts: substantsial′noe (Iurkevich 1866, 25), absoliutnoe (Gogotskii 1876, 1), bezsoznatel′noe (Gogotskii 1876, 7), nedelimoe (Gogotskii 1876, 57), ne material′noe (Gogotskii 1876, 21).

4. Syntax

In the examined sources many examples were found for the utilization of the predicative instrumental with the present tense copula: Ne iest′ tut nashoiu richyiu navodyty […] (Holod 1865: 274), […] iest′ predmetom svidomosti (Hankevych 1868, 213). Kozhda ideia iest′ pered dosvidom dlia nauki til′ko hipotezoiu (Fedorovych 1872, 173). Prava vlasne sut′ pervo-prychynoiu rozvoiu dobra i voli, a tam, de ony sut′, iest′ bil′she dobrobotu i voli (Fedorovych 1872, 173). […] sut′ toiu syntezoiu (Hankevych 1881a, 12). In relation to the lexico-semantic classification of the predicative noun one can state that it is mostly abstract nouns which show a clear preference for the predicative instrumental. Moser regards the predicative instrumental of abstracts with copula as a syntactic polonism (cf. Moser 1998, 93).

A further syntactic peculiarity – typical of Western Ukrainian linguistic practice –exists in the utilization of the predicative noun for the instrumental without copula, which has evolved in analogy with a composite nominal predicate with the copula buty in present tense, with the nominal part in the instrumental case and was reinforced under the influence of the Polish language (Zhovtobriukh 1970, 124): Doky mysl′ nashu ne potverdyt′ dosvid, doty vona til′ko hipotezoiu, postuliatom (Fedorovych 1872, 172), […] nashi poniatija til′ko refleksyiu pravdyvykh predmetiv (Fedorovych 1872, 170).

In Russian sources, almost exclusively, examples of the predicative noun with present tense copula are documented: Bog Platona esn′ individuum beskonechnyi, a ne bytie sovokupnoe (Gogotskii 1876, 63). Bog est′ sushchestvo voliashchee (Gogotskii 1876, 97). Sushchee – eto idei, a byvaiushchee, kotoroe protivopostavliaetsia sushchemu kak nesushchee, sut′ iavleniia chuvstvennyia (Gogotskii 1876, 96). Also in Hankevych, who represented Russophile positions, an example for the predicative adjective buty is found showing the subject accorded in casus, numerus and genus and attributing a quality to it: Boh ne iest′ osobystyi, dusha ne iest′ bezsmertnaia (Hankevych 1881a, 29). Originating from the same text is an example of the utilization of adjectives in the predicative instrumental: Mykrokosmos s makrokosmos sut′ oba bezkonechnymy (Hankevych 1881a, 78). This is a matter of a permanent quality of the subject without any connotation of time limits (cf. Moser 1998, 147).

Influenced by Polish syntax, in Western Ukrainian linguistic practice, instead of using the conjunction i in a coordinating function, oftentimes the conjunction a, which commonly has an adversative meaning, is applied: mizh transtsedentnoiu ideieiu a ii manifestatsyieiu (Shchurat 1908, 24), mezhy znameniiem a umom (Shchurat 1908, 20).

The construction cherez + accusative in instrumental or causal meaning occurs in the examined Ukrainian texts: cherez formu byt′ia (Hankevych 1868, 212). In the Russian texts no corresponding examples were found since for the

most part this construction – which had been introduced into Russian under the influence of Polish, Ukrainian and Belo-Russian – lost its productivity in the course of the 19th century (cf. Moser 1998, 259).

5. Lexik
5.1. Internationalisms

Since Ukrainian philosophical thinking built on a theoretical Greek-Byzantine heritage and Western European traditions of Humanism and Reformation and leaned on traditions of educational culture in brotherhood schools, colleges and academies, terminological lexis of Greek and Latin origin represents the foundation also of Ukrainian philosophical terminology: henezy (gr. γένεσις) (Hankevych 1881a, 12), dyialiektyky (gr. διαλεκτική) (Shchurat 1908, 30), monady (gr. μονάς) (Hankevych 1881b, 325), makrokosmos (gr. μακρός κόσμος) (Hankevych 1881a, 76), absoliutnoho (lat. absolutus) (Hankevych 1881b, 308), abstraktsii (lat. abstractio) (Hankevych 1881a, 29), essentsional′ne (lat. essentialis) (Hankevych 1868, 178) cf. Corresponding terms in Russian language texts: dialekticheskii metod (Gogotskii 1871, 15), dialekticheskii protsess poniatii (Gogotskii 1876, 107), monady (Gogotskii 1871, 55), absoliutnago dukha (Gogotskii 1871, 18), absoliutnoe bytie (Gogotskii 1876, 121), znaniem absoliutnago (Iurkevich 1866, 72). In addition, there is the uncontested position of Latin as the language of scholars and – up to the 19th century – as medium of instruction: At the University of L'viv[*] (founded in 1784) teaching took place in Latin and German up to 1824 (Bieder 2000, 27). Furthermore, Latin texts traditionally served as models for Ruthenian translations in numerous fields of knowledge[†]. This lexis functions practically unchanged (changes are predominantly of an orthographic nature, in rare cases they took place in the semantic domain) as part of the system of philosophical terminology in modern Ukrainian.

Compared to Russian language texts, where many terms of foreign origin are found, as for example in the following oppositions: individuum – bytie sovokupnoe (Gogotskii 1876, 63), individual′nomu myshleniiu – vseobshchemu razumu (Iurkevich 1866, 14), Ukrainian authors will often utilize national lexis to describe the same facts: podrobnoho do zahal′noho (Hankevych 1868, 178), poodynoke z obshchoho (Hankevych 1868, 178), obshche v poodynokim (Hankevych 1868, 178), obshchu i osobennu (Hankevych 1868, 178).

5.2. Western European borrowed materials

In the 60s and 70s of the 19th century, the Ukrainian language adopted sociopolitical, economic and philosophical lexis from German, French and English. Additionally, French and German served as intermediaries for the proliferation of originally Latin borrowed materials for other European languages. At the turn of the 19th to the 20th century, the use of foreign lexis in Galicia was only common for the educated classes: propedeutika (fr. propédeutique ← gr. πρό und παιδεύω) (Hankevych 1881b, 310), kvestyiu (fr. question ← lat. quaestio) (Shchurat 1908, 28), konkliuzyia[‡] (fr. conclusion ← lat. conclusio) (Shchurat 1908, 30).

In the 80s and 90s of the 19th century, a shifting of borrowing sources is observed: numerous borrowings still derive from German[§], whereas the number of French borrowings is on the decline.

In the analyzed texts, foreign words adopted for terminological purposes are explained in fuller detail. In order to better demonstrate their precise meaning, the authors make use of Ukrainian equivalents: refleksiia (rozmysl) (Hankevych 1881a, 158), the Russian texts contain no additional explications in Russian: refleksiiu (Gogotskii 1876, 257). This practice leads to the emergence of synonyms in terminological lexis as is demonstrated by the following example: pytanie (Fedorovych 1872, 168) – kvestyiu (Shchurat 1908, 28) – voprosov (Hankevych 1881b, 293).

Moreover, German is a source of numerous borrowed translations which are frequently used in the analyzed articles. The fact that philosophical specialized literature and textbooks were often translated from German (cf. Hoefinghoff 2010), contributed to the usage of German terms either as direct translation or as circumlocution: vozzrin′ia na svit (Weltanschauung 'world view') (Hankevych 1881b, 308), samosvideniia (Selbstbewusstsein 'self-awareness') (Hankevych 1881a, 172). The corresponding expressions were put into firm relationships: soobraznost′iu z tsyl′iu (Zweckmäßigkeit 'expediency') (Hankevych 1881b, 366), iavlitel′nykh sposterezhenii (phänomenale Anschauungen 'pheänomenal views') (Hankevych 1881b, 325).

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[*] About the teaching of philosophical subjects in Galicia cf. Hoefinghoff 2010.

[†] At the Kyjiv Mohyla-Academy lectures in logics, natural philosophy, ethics and metaphysics were held in Latin, philosophical articles of the academics teaching there (P. Mohyla, S. Iavors′kyi, F. Prokopovych, H. Konys′kyi etc.) were written in Latin. Only in the 1960s these texts were systematically translated (Horbach 2006, 68).

[‡] In Kuzielia-Chaikovskyi (1910, 165) and Kuzelia-Rudnytskyi (1943, 345) the form konkliuziiais is documented. In NSIS thereexists no corresponding entry.

[§] The Shchevchenko Scientific Society founded in L'viv 1893 published in the „Notes of the Society" Ukrainian papers on specialized topics. "These works were also accompanied by appendices proposing for established German terms Ukrainian equivalents many of which are still in wide use today" (Rytsar 1994: 128).

5.3. Polonisms

A major role in the Galician cultural scene is played by the Polish language: „In the development of Ukrainian literary standards, Polish and Russian were two rivals as referential sources of enrichemnet in language philosophy. Both contiguous languages had high communicative prestige in the language community respectively in the Russian and Habsburg empires, while the modern Ukrainian literary standard was being formed under circumstances of bilingualism. From this point of view, both contiguous languages were natural and, in certain ways, inevitable potential resources for the Ukrainian abstract vocabulary and terminology at the beginning and the middle of the 19ᵗʰ century" (Ostapchuk 2005, 183).

In daily life, spoken Polish and Ruthenian influenced one another. Social elites were seldom Ukrainian, often Polish or polonized.

In order to promote the sciences and the Polish language, the Polytechnic Society (Towarzystwo Politechniczne) was founded in 1800 and in 1817 the Library of the Ossolińskifamily (Biblioteka Ossolińskich) followed, both of which became scientific and cultural centers from 1827 onwards (Mazur 1993, 285). At the University, Polish was provisionally designated as official language in 1879 and definitively in 1904 (Bihl 1993, 135).

The following terms are of Polish provenance: stverdzhenie (pol. stwierdzenie) (Shchurat 1908, 25), sposterezhenii (pol. spostrzeżenie) (Hankevych 1881b, 325), zrozuminiem (pol. zrozumienie) (Shchurat 1908, 4), svidomost′ (pol. świadomość) (Hankevych 1881a, 158), estestvo (pol. jestestwo) (Fedorovych 1883, 71; Hankevych 1868, 178), prychyna (pol. przyczyna) (Fedorovych 1883, 24), which is also a polonism customary in Russian, et al.

In modern Ukrainian svidomist′ exists as a philosophical as well as a psychological term; all together, the lexeme has the following connotations: 1. (philos., psych.) 1. cognition, awareness. 2. reason 3. certainty, emotion. 4. (dial.) acquaintance (SUM 9, 77). Of particular interest is the regrouping of connotations: Up to the middle of the 19ᵗʰ century the lexeme was not utilized as a term; the subsequent specialized connotation ‚cognition, consciousness' is mentioned in last position: „acquaintance, cognition, knowledge, understanding, awareness" (Zhelekhivs′kyi 1886, 855; Kuzelia-Rudnytskyi 1943, 1069). Over time, also the corresponding world field changed. Zhelekhivs′kyi quotes numerous lexemes of the same origin without further comment: s′vidom 'tidings, knowledge', s′vidomets′ 'knowledgeable person, experienced person, connoisseur, and explorer', s′vidomyi 'knowledgeable, conscious, versed', s′vidomstvo 'experience', s′vidomuvaty 'to have knowledge, to know', s′vidushscestvo 'awareness, emotion' (855). Of those, Kuzelia-Rudnytskyi only mentions s′vidomyi 'known, knowledgeable, experience, proven, versed, adept; conscious, knowing' s′vidomets′ 'knowledgeable person, experienced person, connoisseur; explorer' and s′vidom 'tidings, knowledge', the letter already annotated as „outdated"; of the foregoing, in modern Ukrainian only svidomyi is used as a derivative of svidomist′ so that the connotation 'known' is also marked as dialecticism (SUM 9, 77).

As a result of Polish intermediation, some foreign words function with a grammatical gender differing from standard language. This concerns mostly lexemes borrowed under Polish intermediation from Greek or Latin and were therefore part of an earlier Galician flexion paradigm*: pershoi ranhy† {f} (pol. ranga ← ger. Rang) (Shchurat 1908, 27) – ranh {m} (NSIS, 436); stan systemu‡ (pol. system ← fr. systéme) {m} nervohoho (Hankevych 1868, 228), svoje centrum {n} (Fedorovych 1872, 169) in analogy with pol. centrum.

In Hankevych one encounters system {m} posunenyj (Hankevych 1881a, 29) beside fylosofycheskoi systemi {f} (Hankevych 1881a, 29).

Nouns ending on -um, not declined following the Polish model which was considered Galician norm, show deviations in the declination paradigm: cherez tsile universum§ (lat. universum) (Hankevych 1868, 227), iest′ nainatural′niishym studium** (Hankevych 1868, 227).

Polonisms and Ukrainian forms are occasionally used in parallel: predmetom (pol. przedmiot) – pidmetom (Fedorovych 1872, 166).

5.4. Churchslavisms and Russisms

Traditionally Churchslavisms appear as core elements of Ukrainian philosophical terminology (Sherekh 1998, 3).

In the examined Ukrainian and Russian texts numerous Churchslavisms are encountered: obshche†† (Hankevych 1868, 178), obshchaia sushchnost′ (Iurkevich 1866, 13), obshchegodnykh‡‡ (Gogotskii 1876, 257), obshchegodnoe

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* „[…] some nouns, predominantly of foreign or book language origin, could be used with a grammatical gender differing from modern standard Ukrainian and were hence included in a other paradigm than that which is customary for them today" (Zhovtobriukh 1970, 103).
† Kuzielia-Chaikovskyi (1910, 256) contains the entry ranga {f}, in Kuzelia-Rudnytskyi (1943, 956) rang {m} is listed, im SUM – ranh {m} (8, 448).
‡ In Kuzelia-Rudnytskyi (1943, 1098) the form systema {f} is documented.
§ Neither Kuzelia-Rudnytskyi nor SUM contain the respective entry. In NSIS (614) the lexem universum is documented.
** Kuzelia-Rudnytskyi (1943, 1241) contains the form studiia {f}.
†† Tseitlin 1999, 401.
‡‡ The lexeme is not documented in any of the dictionaries consulted.

(Iurkevich 1866, 3), vseobshchemu razumu (Iurkevich 1866, 14), sushchestvovan′ie (Hankevych 1881a, 111), sushchestvo* (Gogotskii 1876, 97), sovokupnoe† (Gogotskii 1876, 63), sotvoren′ia‡ (Hankevych 1868, 214).

Over time, the stylistic value of some Ukrainian Churchslavisms has changed, e.g. znamenakh§ (Hankevych 1881b, 278).

The use of Churchslavisms is frequently predicated on stylistic grounds because it makes possible the avoidance of repetitions: podrobnoho do zahal′noho (Hankevych 1868, 178) – poodynoke z obshchoho (Hankevych 1868, 178) – obshche v poodynokim (Hankevych 1868, 178) – obshch i osobennu (Hankevych 1868, 178).

Churchslavonic traditions also manifest themselves through the spelling of i in place of the weak Jer sound before j: dilatel′nostiiu i stradatel′nostiiu (Hankevych 1868, 178).

The Churchslavonic shch < *tj is used in present participles: nemeiushchom, soderzhashchom, dlia budushcheho (Hankevych 1881b, 293), whereby hissing sounds are consistently followed by o.

The cultural transfer from Ukraine to Russia during the 17th century prepared the Europeanization of Russia under Peter the Great, which fed from the spiritual enlightenment in Kiev, considered as indigenous (Ukrainian monks, seminarians and the religious philosopher G. Skovoroda) and of the foreign secular enlightenment of Western Europe. From the end of the 18th to the early 19th century, intellectuals in Russia and Ukraine embarked on a search for their national history, folk culture, language and literature. The 19th century debate between Westerners and Slavophiles, which to this day has not been concluded in Russia (Deppermann 1998, VIII), expressed itself in Galicia in the early 1850s in the form of the Russophile movement. In the linguistic sphere the Russophile movement manifested itself through the utilization of numerous Russian and Church Slavonic elements in the Ukrainian language, which served the further development of the latter but was also relevant from a prestige point of view. Owing to the formative weight of the Russian Imperial educational system in general and of Russian universities in particular, Russian possessed since the 18th century a certain philosophical-terminological hegemony with nearly all Slavs.

In addition to that, philosophical instruction was forbidden at Eastern Ukrainian universities since 1850, whereas at religious academies the teaching of philosophy was – of course in Russian – allowed (Horbach 2006, 152). S. Gogotskyj, P. Iurkevich etc. who taught there, wrote their works exclusively in Russian. Gogotskyj published the four-volume „Philosophical Lexicon"(1857‑1873), in which the philosophical system of Hegel is thoroughly and systematically examined. Hankevych, who was of the view that modern age Slavonic philosophy had its origin in Hegel but evolved later on towards an idealistic and religious direction, is likely to have known this work.

Numerous philosophical lexemes of Russian origin are found in the texts of Hankevych from 1881, a period where demonstrably he took Russophile positions: poniatie (1881b, 278) (rus. poniatie), rozvit′ie (rus. razvitie) (1881b, 278), cf. Russian terms protsess poniatii (Gogotskii 1876, 107), chistyia poniatiia (Iurkevich 1866, 45), poniatiia u znaniia (Gogotskii 1871, 11), razvitie form chistago myshleniia (Gogotskii 1871, 53).

The adjectivized participle budushochoho (Hankevych 1881b, 293) (shch < *tj) (rus. budushchii) appears occasionally in the texts in place of maibutnii, which is the established term in modern Ukrainian.

Prymir (Shchurat 1908, 4) is used and not pryklad, but prymirom is also widespread in contemporary Ukrainian.

It is not always easy to determine if one is truly dealing with a Russism: voprosakh (Hankevych 1881a, 12), for instance, could be either a Russism or a Church Slavism. Also the following examples stand either on a Church Slavonic or a Russian foundation: upotrebleniie (Hankevych 1881b, 278), prostrannosti (Hankevych 1881a, 110), prostranstvo (Fedorovych 1883, 45).

The lexeme predstavleniia (Hankevych 1881a, 12) 'thought, power of imagination' is traced back to the Russian predstavlenie and not to the Polish przedstawienie '(theatrical) performance'. The corresponding Polish equivalent is wyobrażenie, from which derives the Ukrainian vyobrazhinie.

5.5. Terminologization of common language lexis

In Galicia at the middle of the 19th century, some human sciences disposed of well-developed terminologies which in the course of the ensuing decades were further developed on the basis of national language. Philosophical terminology, which also served the disciplines of psychology, logics and ethics did, however, require further standardization on a national language basis; in other languages this development already had a long tradition beginning

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* Tseitlin 1999, 684.

† Ibd., 642.

‡ Ibd., 672.

§ S. Vasmer (II, 100). Zhelekhivs′kyi quotes the lexeme znameno, which he explains as znamenuvanie 'hallmark' where reference is made to znamia in the connotation 'sign, characteristic, banner' (Zhelekhivs′kyi, 308). Kuzelia-Rudnytskyi contains the entry znameno in the connotation 'sign, characteristic', with no further annotations (Kuzelia-Rudnytskyi 1943, 299). Znameno is annotated in DUM as "rare" and used in the connotation of 'banner'. Furthermore, there is the entry znamennia, which in its connotation of 'characteristic' is annotated as „book language" and in the connotation of 'symbol' as „outdated" (SUM 3, 641).

with the gradual displacement of Latin as the language of science by national languages – i.e. in Western Europe during the 15th and 16th centuries*. The following models were particularly productive: Use of common language national lexis in specialized connotation, assigning specific categorical connotations to lexical entities of common language, creation of purely artificial terms (Kotiurova 1988, 8).

In order to expand terminological stocks through internal linguistic resources, common language lexis is used for the designation of specific notions. In the examined texts the following examples are documented: boh† (Hankevych 1881a, 29), byt′ie‡ (Hankevych 1868, 212), dukh§ (Hankevych 1881a, 12), dusha** (Shchurat 1908, 22), zhyt′ie†† (Fedorovych 1883, 25), pytanie‡‡ (Fedorovych 1872, 168), rozum§§ (Hankevych 1868, 214), voli*** (Hankevych 1881a, 207) et.al.

As a result of terminologization of common language lexis, for philosophical purposes a functional reorientation and a reinterpretation of the lexeme or its semantic reorientation take place. In the case of functional reorientation, the specialization of a common language word can be observed: a functional adaptation of the semes of the linguistic entity to the requirements of the philosophical sphere takes place.

Let us take the example of semantic modification of the term buttia, for which the following instances are documented in the examined texts: byt′ie††† (Hankevych 1881b, 310), bytie absoliutnago dukha (Gogotskii 1871, 18), absoliutnoe bytie (Gogotskii 1876, 121), byvanie‡‡‡ (Gogotskii 1876, 109), bytie samo-po-sebe (Iurkevich 1866, 15). Hereby the connotation of the term „being" changes dependent on philosophical orientation; Linitskii as representative of spiritual philosophy, Gogotskii as representative of Idealism, Iurkevich, who attempts to reconcile efforts of religious and classical philosophy. In contrast to the definition of bytt´ia as 'being, existence; presence' in Zhelekhivs′kyi (1868, 51), SUM already emphasizes a specialized connotation which is annotated as „Philosophy": „1. Objective reality, existing independently of our consciousness; matter, nature 2. Entirety of material conditions of life of a society. 3. (elevated) life, existence. 4. (rare) presence" (SUM 1, 266). SSRLY also emphasizes the specialized connotation of the lexeme through the annotation „Philosophy": „Objective reality" (1, 725).

This specialized connotation gains, for its part, in scope so that further correlations with other philosophical concepts – real′nist′, svidomist′, dukh etc. – emerge: „Being: a fundamental philosophical category, which connotes a reality reflected and transformed in our consciousness and which manifests itself not only materially by but also spiritually and mentally and as a reality of an objective spirit" (Khamitov-Krylova 2007, 32). The term bytt´ia also contains the notion of not being – even though a specific term exists in the form of nebytie (Linitskii 1876, 74) –, because „Slavic thought has embodied – as perhaps no other thought – the myth of the „end of all things" as an actual event with a precise meaning in relation to the present" (Oppo 2013, 9).

In immediate connection with the term buttia, one finds the term zhittia, which becomes philosophically relevant if it is understood as self-movement and does not require an external impulse (OWP, Life). The following examples are available: zhyzn′§§§ (Holod 1865, 305), zhyttia moral′nogo (Holod 1865, 305), zhytiie (Fedorovych 1883, 25), zhytia (Shchurat 1908, 5), dushevnaia zhyzn′ (Gogotskii 1871, 5) etc. The term zhyttia reflects a number of aspects: In the attempt to grasp the complex human existence and its meaning, the existence of an individual is regarded in the entirety of all forms; from a psychological, biological, social, cultural etc. point of view.

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* A change in the conception of Scientificity which is linked with the foundation of classical German philosophy, represented by Kant, leads to the development of a principally new creation model for an artificial language of science in general and the language of philosophy as science in particular. The classical authors of German philosophy, in particular Johann Gottlieb Fichte and Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel, did not only develop general principles of philosophical language construction, but also contributed to the emergence of the philosophical language, first and foremost to the development of philosophical terms (Kotiurova 1988, 8).

† RUSNT (55) lists the lexeme with the annotation „Relig(ion)". In Shynkaruthe (1986, 60) the lexeme is codified as a philosophical term.

‡ In SUM (1, 266) and RUSNT (61) the form buttia is entered with the annotation „Philos(ophy)". In Shynkaruk (1986, 60) the lexeme is documented as a philosophical term.

§ Is listed as a philosophical term in SUM (2, 442) and in Khamitov-Krylova (2007, 63).

** RUSNT (130) contains the lexeme with the annotation „Philos(ophy)" .

†† Zhyttia is listed in Kuzelia-Rudnytskyi (1943, 219), as well as in SUM (2, 536) and RUSNT (134) without further annotation. As a philosophical term the lexeme is codified in Shynkaruk (1986, 193).

‡‡ In SUM (6, 367), in Kuzelia-Rudnytskyi (638) and in RUSNT (77) the lexeme is documented without annotation. As a philosophical term, pytann′ia is listed in Shynkaruk (1986, 490).

§§ In SUM (8, 396) and in Kuzelia-Rudnytskyi (1943, 1027) the lexeme is found without annotation and in RUSNT (411) with the annotation „Philos(ophy)". As philosophical term, the lexeme is codified in Shynkaruk (1986, 587)

*** In SUM (1, 735) as well as in Kuzelia-Rudnytskyi (1943, 125) and in RUSNT (77) the lexeme is listed without annotation. As philosophical term, volia is documented in Shynkaruk (1986, 90).

††† In SUM (1, 266) and RUSNT (61) the form buttia is entered with the annotation „Philos(ophy)". As a philosophical term, the lexeme is documented in Shynkaruk (1986, 60) .

‡‡‡ The lexeme is not documented in any of the dictionaries consulted.

§§§ Zhyzn′ is listed in Zhelekhivs′kyi (1886, 222) without further annotation, Kuzelia-Rudnytskyi refers from zhyzn′ (1943, 218) to zhyttia, in SUM the form is missing.

The utilization of common language lexic enabled the transition of thinking from an abstract sphere – typical of classical philosophy from which Ukrainian thinking has adopted a good deal, – into the concrete sphere of national reality. Explication of national mentality and consciousness through words is of great significance in the philosophical context. The discussion of the semantic perspective of the word aids the comprehension of mentality as expression of national consciousness and as a means of creating a traditional world view anchored in categories and forms of national language (Zalesova 2004, 4).

In this manner, religious and historical experiences of the Ukrainian people were incorporate into philosophical doctrine. In this, the proponents of orientation towards national sources for purposes of terminology creation differ from pro-western adherents, who adopted terminology jointly with the underlying philosophical ideas. The specific national factor can be vividly demonstrated by the example of the term dusha (Shchurat 1908, 22). Whereas in modern Ukrainian and in standard Russian this lexeme is used to connote the inner, mental world of humans with its emotions, experiences and feelings (SUM 2, 445; SSRLY 3, 1184-1188), in Zhelekhivs′kyi (1868, 211) et.al.; dusha contains the connotations of 'heart' and 'mouth'.

The word equivalents for dusha in Greek (ψυχή, πνεῦμα), Latin (anima, spiritus) or Indian (atman) indicate the original connotation as wind, breeze, or breath (OWP, Soul), hence also the interpretation of 'mouth'. In earlier religions the soul was also identified with blood or human shadow, its abode was thought to be the chest (Shevchenko 2004, 131). In many philosophical cultures the concept of soul is represented through the heart, in Ukrainian philosophical thinking this tendency is particularly pronounced („Philosophy of the Heart", Iurkevich): serdtsia (Fedorovych 1883, 47), z muzhestvom sertsia (Shchurat 1908, 19). The primacy of the heart in classical Ukrainian philosophy and its „cordocentrism" signify first and foremost an occupation with the spiritual dimension of the human existence (Khamitov-Krylova 2007, 68).

The Russian texts contain examples of the term dusha having a more narrowly specialized connotation: mirovoi dushi (world soul) (Gogotskii 1876, 68), dushevnoi monady (soul monad) (Gogotskii 1871, 55)

Narrowly connected with the concept dusha is the term dukh (Fedorovych 1883, 21). Dal 1995 (1, 504) puts the spirit above the soul: „Soul also represents the mental and spiritual characteristics of a human being, conscience, inner feelings, etc. Soul is not the material body of the spirit. In this connotation the spirit is placed above the soul". Over time the term dukh undergoes a certain semantic change. Whereas Zhelekhivs′kyi (1868, 211) lists the connotation „spirit" as one of a total of five meanings only in fourth place: „1) breeze, breath, 2) whole bashed into ice, 3) heat; 4) spirit, soul, courage; 5) na dukhu: in confession, S′viatyi Dukh: holy spirit", SUM contains under dukh numerous connotations of the concept „spirit", i.a. „1. Mental ability, consciousness, thinking. In the philosophy of Materialism and in psychology: thinking, consciousness as a specific property of a highly organized matter, its supreme product. In the philosophy of Idealism: a non-material beginning, which is the foundation of all objects and phenomena and is primary in relation to matter. 2. Inner condition, moral strength of a human being, of a community" (SUM 2, 442), so that one can speak of a reduction of the reduction of the original scope of meaning to one single seme and a subsequent extension of meaning.

Whereas the term dusha expresses the aspect of typically Ukrainian philosophical thinking in the aspect of „cordocentrism", the term dukh, through one of its connotations „moral strength of a community" leads to a discussion about national identity , which is a typically Western (Galician, Polish, Czech) topic.[*] In our Russian philosophical texts this lexeme is used as a term of the Philosophy of Idealism: absoliutnago dukha (Gogotskii 1871, 18).

As a philosophical term dukh – in contrast to dusha – represents a source of creative and rational-cognitive human potential. Dukh is closely correlated with the terms rozum, svidomost′, volia, but is not identic with any of them, because it acts as an integrating principle between the inner and outer world of human beings – cognition, self-awareness, creation and self-creation. „(Phil.) The supreme product of matter, a function of the human brain, thinking, reason, reflection of the outer world, mental abilities, reason, thinking" (SSRLY 3, 1174-1181). Zhelekhivs′kyi (1868, 835) defines the term rozum as „1) mind, reason, intelligence, sense; 2) meaning". In modern Ukrainian, rozum (similar: razum in standard Russian) denotes „the ability of a human being to think, to reflect and perceive objective reality" (SUM 8, 839; SSRLY 12, 530-531).

These connotations correspond to one of the meanings of dukh: „the exalted part of the human soul, viz. thinking and reason" (Huegli-Luebcke 2005, 228). This is clearly confirmed by our Russian language texts: protsess razuma (Gogotskii 1871, 14), chistyi razum, ili razum sam-po-sebe (Iurkevich 1866, 3), cf. Ukrainian examples ohranychenyi rozum, nemichnym rozumom (Hankevych 1868, 214).

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[*] „Thus, in modern times, when European nations were born in the wake of the French revolution, Ukraine´s intellectuals and progressive élites were attracted by the Western-European and Polish model, rather than by the Russian" (Pachlovska 2005, 282).

The further specialization of common language lexis was aided by the fact that during the second half of the 19th century a new era Ukrainian church communications began, which is characterized by an advance of the popular language and the displacement of Church Slavonic in the clerical sphere[*]. Holding religious services in Ruthenian (Ukrainian) caused, on the one hand, the active adoption of sacral terminology by the common language, on the otherhand, the lexis of the spoken language was able to establish itself in religious terminology[†], which also finds application in philosophy: boh (Hankevych 1881a, 29), dukh (Hankevych 1881a, 12), prostranstvo dukha (Fedorovych 1883, 45), dusha (Shchurat 1908, 22).

In this manner a term fulfills its special functions in two differing terminological systems, leading to a semantic modification of the term. Let us examine this process at the example of the philosophical and religious term: „Spirit (Philos.): Category for the expression of the most exalted existential nature of a free being, manifesting itself in the abilities of cognition, self-awareness, creation and self-discovery" (Khamitov-Krylova 2007, 63). In addition to the denotation of creative and rational-cognitive human potential – cognition, reason, will, intuition – which amount to the essence of this philosophical term –, the religious term also contains a theological meaning, reflecting the relationship between Man, God and the World: „1. In a religious conception – incorporate, supra natural being which in one way or another can influence nature, society and human beings. 2. in philosophy – non-material phenomena: consciousness/awareness, self-awareness, will and intuition of Man or God" (Shevchenko 2004, 129).

As philosophical term, dusha denotes the source of moral-communicative potential of a human being, an orientation towards the immanent, the neighbor: „Soul (Philos.): concept which expresses the individual peculiarity of the inner world of humans, ability for reflection and self-reflection"(Khamitov-Krylova 2007, 66). The semantic field of the religious term is broader: on the one hand the soul is identified with the mental life of a personage, on the other hand dusha can be understood as a contrast of the mental with the corporal, which exists as distinct and independent parts of reality: „Soul (Rel.): non material substance, which is contrasted with a material human body, incorporation of mental activity of a human being, his spiritual world" (Shevchenko 2004, 131).

6. Conclusion

Through the example of selected philosophical texts, peculiarities of the written language existing in Galicia of the 19th century were demonstrated. It was shown how Ukraininian, originally of a popular language[‡] character which was limited to literary functions of a predominantly folkloristic nature, was further developed at all linguistic levels so that it could ultimately also serve the domain of sciences.

The analyzed texts are characterized by some common properties of a phonetic, morphologic and lexical nature which were widespread in Western Ukraine at the turn of the 19th – 20th century. A few formal features aside, it can be said that in Galicia it was attempted to avoid solutions of a local character.

In the sphere of terminological lexis no dialecticisms are present, nevertheless, dialectally and stylistically flavored lexis is occasional found. The fact that the latter were not regarded or used as such is documented by the dictionaries of Zhelekhivsʹkyi and Kuzelia-Rudnytskyi: liude (Holod 1865, 270; Hankevych 1868, 167), na liudekh (Fedorovych 1883, 28), poiedynchykh[§] (Hankevych 1868, 178), mnoho[**] (Hankevych 1881b, 293) etc.

Where the orthography of terminological entities diverges from the current norm, this results from Galician spelling which at the time was considered normative in Galicia. A uniform orthography valid for all Ukrainian regions was to be introduced only in 1928-1929. (Nimchuk-Purjajeva 2004, 6). Since the latter was based on Central Ukrainian dialects, the characteristic aspects of Galician Ukrainian were not taken into account therein. The terminological expert discussion in Galicia of the second half of the 19th century was dominated by the view that terminology should be developed on the basis of national language. Ruthenian scientist, poets, clerics and intellectuals proposed a number of new terms, attempting to make use of existing Ukrainian linguistic resources for terminological purposes. In spite of these efforts, authors were often obliged to make use of foreign and borrowed words. Hence, lexemes of Latin, Greek French and German origin are represented in the texts[††]. Deviations of the grammatical gender from the existing norm

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[*] Subtelny comments, that in 1840 at Lʹviv University 295 of 400 students studied theology and the others the remaining philosophical subject, for which one could also enroll in the context of the subject area of theology, so that the study of theology became the synonym for university level education in Western Ukraine. 40 out of 43 authors of Ruthenian language books published in Galicia between 1837 and 1850 were clerics (Subtelny 1988, 305).

[†] For fuller details s. Hoefinghoff 2012.

[‡] G. Shevelov speaks of a „peasant" stratum of lexic, which was better developed than other levels (Shevelov 1986, 133).

[§] In Kuzelia-Rudnytskyi (1943, 801) the forms poiedynchyi and poodynchyi are documented. SUM lists poiedyntsi with the annotation „dial.(ectal)" (5, 766). S. also Moser (2007, 68).

[**] Mnoho is without annotation in Kuzelia-Rudnytskyi (1943, 393); in SUM listed with annotation „outdated" (4, 766).

[††] Only during the 1930s systematic and methodological efforts towards the development of terminologies for technical and scientific disciplines were undertaken.The respective activities of the Institute of Ukrainian Scientific Language warrant mention: "Preference was always accorded to terms current among the people and consonant with the structure of the Ukrainian language. If doubt arose about the purity of the term in respect to possible

and differing spelling of some foreign words are explained by language intermediaton. In Left Bank Ukraine, this was influenced by the Russian language, in Galicia by Polish: „The competition between these two sources of non-native enrichemnet was not direct, each of them dominated in a particular part of the language community. The role that contiguous languages played in Ukrainian language philosophy and language building was one of the factors supporting the tendency towards the existence of two variants of the literary standard, based respectively on the Dnieper and Dniester dialects of Ukrainian" (Ostapchuk 2005, 183).

Lexemes of Russian and Church Slavonic origin are often found in texts from the year 1881, which on the one hand attests to the influence of Russophile policy, to which K. Hankevych adheres and on the other hand, to underscores the political weight of Russian in the sphere of Slavonic philosophical terminology, which is demonstrated by its accordance with quoted examples from the Russian language texts.

All the more it is interesting to observe how the means of national language were used to resist influences from the outside. The comparison with the Russian language philosophical texts clearly demonstrates how this challenge was dealt with in Galicia against the background of native terminological conceptions. In the philosophical discussion already ongoing and challenged by others, one endeavored to argue with the aid of newly invented or newly formed terms. In each philosophical test, a certain fragment of knowledge is depicted which can frequently be traced back to a Western European philosophical school but is expressed with the linguistic means of the Ukrainian language. This permits to observe the peculiarities of national mentality and to more appropriately represent the national worldview. Amongst the most common solutions we find the terminologization of common language lexis, whose semantic scope was widened, and the creation of abstract terms according to national language word creation models, which led to a corresponding development of word fields. The fact that the predominant part of the terminology used in the texts is still in use today proves that the proposals from Galicia were also acceptable for Central and Eastern Ukraine.

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influences from Russian or Polish, then the term was more carefully examined for its history and etymology in other Slavic languages. Terms of non-Slavic origin lacking an equivalent in Ukrainian were completely transcribed to the conventions of Ukrainian phonetics to display the root in the original language" (Rytsar 1994: 130).

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The Effect of Listening to News on the Comprehension and Attitude of Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract

This study examined the effect of listening to the English news on listening comprehension and attitude for Iranian EFL learners. It also examined the effect of listening to the English news on the Iranian EFL school students' attitude and achievement in speaking. Twenty-two Iranian EFL learners participated in this study. On an OPT, they were divided into two groups: one control group and one experimental group. For two months, the students in the experimental group listened to the English news as a treatment. Listening to the English news was regarded as a treatment and as one of the additional ways of improving listening comprehension. In the treatment, listening to the English news was used to see/determine if it had an effect on the students' attitude and achievement in the listening comprehension. A listening comprehension test was given to the experimental group and the control group as the pretest and the posttest, too. According to the results obtained by the statistical calculations, the effectiveness of the treatment was significant. This study suggests that listening to the English news can be regarded as a very effective technique in comprehending English. It also increases the level of general knowledge of students. Meanwhile, it can help students develop some ways to overcome their listening and communication problems to some extent.

Keywords: English news, Listening comprehension, attitude

Introduction

Wardhaugh and Fuller (2015) state that peakers of different regional varieties of even Arabic often cannot understand one another's dialects, but are all oriented toward common standard forms including Modern Standard Arabic, with its basis in classical Arabic. In a paper by Hemmati and Ghaderi (2014), it is stated that testing listening comprehension and the potential effects that different multiple choice questions format might have on it, have been an area of interest for some researchers. Listening is one of the foundations of communication. Meanwhile, Frunza (2013) has believed that any improvement is the listening behavior of the individuals brought about by the teaching of the listening skills would indeed be of great value. Native speakers listen for the important meaning components of a message and do not overload their mental processes by focusing on linguistic elements. However, Schmitt (2012) mentions that discourse analysis is the analysis of language in social context. English listening is widely acknowledged as a major challenge for EFL learners, and it has been reported as one of the most difficult skills in comparison with reading, speaking and writing, especially for EFL learners with relatively lower English proficiency (Bacon, 1989; Farrell & Mallard, 2006; & Renandya & Farrell, 2010; as cited in Dong, 2016). Taylor (1981, as cited in Chastain, 1992) has stated students progress from hearing an incomprehensible stream of sounds, to catching isolated words, to understanding phrases, to comprehension of clauses and sentences, and finally to extended speech recognition.

Dichotic listening is a test which may be administered in a phonetics laboratory as evidence of a person's hemisphere dominance for language. In dichotic listening, subjects listen to a two-track stereo recording, one track per ear, of a random list of syllables, numbers or words (Hudson, 2000). Fulk (1996) believes that the distinction between a language and a dialect is not purely a linguistic one. Two systems of communication may be similar enough to be mutually intelligible, and yet they may be labeled as separate languages. In language teaching, listening comprehension used to be thought of as a passive skill (Paulston & Bruder, 1976). For a listener to understand a speaker's meaning, he/she must share the needed amount of world and language knowledge to recreate the intended meaning (Chastain, 1992) In a topic on scalar implicature, Paltridge (2012) believes that they are derived when a person uses a word from a set of words that express some kinds of scale of values; therefore, a speaker may choose one item from a scale, then correct it while speaking to cancel out another item in the scale.

Based on Biber (1993; as cited in Schmitt, 2012), it should be said that there are as many types of corpora as there are research topics in linguistics. Here, it can be concluded that a general corpus is designed to be balanced and include language samples from a wide range of registers or genres, including both fiction and non-fiction in all their diversity at the point of perception students have the received linguistic data in place for processing and interpretation, but they still must recreate the speaker's meaning and convert the linguistic message into their own thoughts (Chastain, 1992).

Granted human beings are capable of learning almost any given item within the so called "magic seven, plus or minus two" (Miller, 1956; as cited in Brown, 2014) units for perhaps a few seconds. The major objective of language teaching should be for students to acquire the structural patterns; students will learn vocabulary afterward. Language cannot be separated from culture. Culture is not only literature and the arts, but also the everyday behavior of the people who use the target language. One of the teacher's responsibilities is to present information about that culture (Larsen-Freeman, 1986). Chomskey's attack (1959, as cited in Schmitt, 2012) on the behavioristic underpinnings of structural linguistics in the late 1950s proved decisive, and its associated pedagogical approach – audio-lingualism– began to fall out of favor.

Review of literature

As Orton (2007; as cited in Mireghaffari-Nouhadani & Abdollahi-Guilani, 2015) has mentioned, babies enter the world of language through their eventual use of spontaneous hand movements that are taken as pointing and are responded to by someone in their environment. However, Abedian (2013) believes that language is a systematic means of communicating ideas or feelings by the use of conventionalized signs, sounds, gestures, or marks having understood meanings. Dornyei (2012) has stated that the notion of incidental learning also presented a puzzling situation; Meanwhile, in the study of second language vocabulary, this is often treated as the equivalent of implicit learning, even though it is not implicit in several respects. It has been mentioned that small children acquire on average about ten new words each day; moreover, while they sometimes make what adults regards as errors in their use of words in many aspects children's early words are used with remarkable linguistic accuracy (Radford et al, 2010). In a book by Williams and Burden (2002), it has been stated that a procedural syllabus consisted of a series of tasks that were intellectually challenging, and which the learners carried out in the target language, thereby focusing on meaning rather than form. Feuerstein suggests that right from birth a child's learning is shaped by the intervention of significant adults; moreover, he refers to these important figures in child's learning as mediators or mediating adults, and the experiences that they provide as mediated learning experiences (Williams & Burden, 2002). The listening comprehension process is internal and thus not subject to direct, external observation, examination, and correction (Chastain, K. (1992). For most subjects, dichotic listening of the pairs reveals a right ear advantage: the signals heard in the right ear tends to be recalled. Right-handers have shown about 80% left dominance for language in dichotic listening (Hudson, 2000). To summarize, the teaching of the phonological system of a foreign language can be greatly facilitated if the nature of speech sounds and how they are organized into a system is kept in mind (Falk, 1996). Before discussing the corpus-based approaches to discourse analysis, it is necessary to define what a corpus actually is. In a book by Paltridge (2012), it has been mentioned that a corpus is a collection of spoken or written authentic texts that is representative of a particular area of language use, by virtue of its size and composition.

As it is mentioned by Dornyei (2012), the attraction of emergentism to all these diverse field is the concept's capacity to explain change and development that is not directly orchestrated by human agents. The motivational intensity theory (Brehm & Self, 1989; as cited in Koelewijn et al., 2018) states that motivational arousal occurs when a task is sufficiently difficult, within one's capacity, and is justified by the magnitude of reward. Learning-centered pedagogists do not believe in teaching language skills-listening, speaking, reading, and writing-either in isolation or in strict sequence, as advocated by language-centered pedagogists. The teacher is expected to integrate language skills wherever possible (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Hughes (2003) has believed that in order to select samples of speech (texts), passages must be chosen with the test specifications in mind. If we are interested in how candidates can cope with language intended for native speakers, then ideally we should use samples of authentic speech. Doff (1988) has said, "students are able to pick up the sound system of the language by listening to the teacher (or other voices on cassette (or mobile)) and by practicing words and structure".

Music and movement reinforce the linguistic material in Desuggestopedia. It is desirable that students achieve a state of "infantilization"; so that, they will be more open to learning. If they trust the teacher, they will reach this state more easily (Larsen-Freeman, 1986). Many listening comprehension exercises lend themselves particularly well to work in the language laboratory (Paulston & Bruder, 1976). Although there is no single regional dialect of American English that is generally accepted as the ideal standard, the speech of educated upper- and upper middle class Americans is commonly considered as "correct" within their own locality (Falk, 1996). A dialect refers to the characteristic patterns of words and word-order (lexico-grammar) which are used by a group of speakers. An accent can also be standardized and stigmatized. It is important to realize that accent and dialect are separate concepts; moreover, any dialect can be spoken in any accent, for example, the dialect known as Standard UK English can be heard in all of the regional accents of Britain (Schmitt, 2012). Authentic speech may occur among native speakers, among nonnative speakers, or between native and nonnative speakers (Chastain, 1992). Nonverbal and verbal communication (i. e. gestures) are normally inseparable, which, for example, is why it may seem so difficult to use the telephone in a foreign language (Darn, 2005). Authentic speech may take place in face to face situation or via some mechanical device such as

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a telephone, radio, or television (Chastain, 1992). More modern attempts to create speech electronically is generally described as speech synthesis (Yule, 1988). Gee (2011) has stated that context includes the physical setting in which a communication takes place and everything in it; the bodies, eye gaze, gestures, and movements of those present; what has been said and done by those involved in the communication; any shared knowledge those have, including shared cultural knowledge. In a book by Ur (2012), the listener has to know what a word sounds like (its pronunciation) and what it looks like. Many people assume that meaning is more important than form: but remember that knowing a meaning is pretty useless without knowing the form it is attached to.

Meanwhile, dramatization is a particularly valuable way of playfully activating the material. Fantasy reduces the barriers (Larsen-Freeman, 1986). According to Hashemi and Ghasemi (2011), it means that there is no need for the institution (or in many cases, the teacher) to provide learners the hardware in order to incorporate a mobile learning component into their teaching context. Weir (2005; as cited in Hemmati & Ghaderi, 2014) lists different techniques for listening comprehension including matching response, dictation, short answer, and information transfer. In groups, especially in community language learning, students can begin to feel a sense of community and can learn from each other as well as the teacher. Cooperation, not competition, is encouraged (Larsen-Freeman, 1986). The standard approach to assessing comprehension has typically been asking students to produce answers to questions, most likely speaking in foreign language (Chastain, 1992). As Doff (1988) has said, "stress timing is a very important feature of spoken English". If students become accustomed to hearing English spoken with a natural rhythm in class, they will find it easier to understand real English when they hear it spoken outside the class. In community language learning (CLL), learning tends not to take place when the material is too new, or conversely, too familiar. Retention will best takes place somewhere in between novelty and familiarity (Larsen-Freeman, 1986). To give their students opportunities to develop functional listening comprehension strategies, Chastain (1992) states that language teachers should expose them to increasingly difficult listening comprehension materials.

Methodology

While the teacher enters the classroom to teach a new lesson in English, he has a tape player and an android mobile set in his handy bag. When he starts teaching a new lesson, he suggests the students to have a mobile set in their pocket. He sometimes speaks with students in Persian. He encourages them to speak in English. He also suggests that it is better for them to have an android mobile with them. Each lesson has its own new vocabularies. The students listen the pronunciations and repeat them. There are two or three conversations in each lesson. First, he plays the conversation with his mobile set. Second, he also may record some of his own English sentences with his mobile. He may want some students to repeat the correct pronunciation of each sentences. He also records the students' repetitions. He uses his mobile in all the process of his teaching. Then, after that, he invites some students to repeat the whole conversation and act out it. At this time, he may also record and play the sentences they say. He lets the students to hear and accord their speaking with the authentic conversation. Some students may have some problem with the meanings of the words. This time, he gives them a unilingual dictionary. He suggests them to check out the new words in that dictionary. This matter can help to overlearn the spelling of the new words. After that, they are asked to memorize the whole conversations of that lesson. Some of the sessions, there may be some free time in the classroom. In this time, the teacher suggests to play a new game. The name of this new game may be "guess the word". To do this play, the students are needed to have listened carefully and know how to write a word, and how to pronounce it. Having mobile sets or tape players and checking out the new words they hear can help the students to correct their spelling. In this way, tapes may be regarded as useful compatible devices/sets.

Design

This study has followed a quasi-experimental design. They were arranged based on an OPT test. The participants were twenty two Iranian EFL learners/students who were selected based on an OPT. The students were divided into two groups of eleven students: eleven students in the experimental group and eleven students in the control group. In the experimental group, English teaching wad accompanied by a teacher who mostly used tapes player and a mobile set; they are to listen to the English news on radio and TV; while, in the control group, the teacher taught English without tapes and he only used the book as the placebo. At first, a listening placement test as a pretest (face to face oral placement test, Cambridge university press, 2013) was administered to the control group and the experimental group. In the experimental group, using tapes by the teacher in the classroom was considered to be the treatment. The teacher in the experimental group, was requested to teach with tapes. Therefore, the teacher mostly used tapes to check their speaking and pronunciation; moreover, the students in the experimental group, were requested to listen and study their English book, Prospect 2 (Alavi Moghaddam et al., 2015). The teacher, in the control group, had his routine English teaching (placebo) in the classroom. Their classes were held one session per week. At the end of two months or eight seventy-five-minutes sessions, the same listening comprehension or placement test as the posttest was administered to

the experimental group. After the treatment, the data was analyzed to see whether or not, listening to the English news was effective in teaching English. All the procedures were done by the software SPSS, version 22.

Participants

The participants (aged 16) who took part in this study were forty EFL students/learners in a first-stage high school in LashteNesha, Rasht, Iran. They were divided into two groups of eleven students/learners in the control group and eleven students/learners in the experimental group. All of these participants were the students in the governmental school in Shahid Bahonar high school, lashteNesha, Rasht, Iran. All of them were male students. Some of them showed eagerness to listen, learn, and speak English. They were all Persian natives. They had enough time to give answers to the requested questions. In this study, the teachers in these two classrooms, spoke with the participants to make them aware and prepared them to answer the questions; so that, these students had no problem with the procedures of the teachers. The students got familiar with the goal and way of research during the study.

Materials

The name of their book was Prospect 2 (Alavi Moghaddam et al, 2015). There were two books (named as one student book and one workbook) included in it. A DVD was also taught among the class sessions; meanwhile a list of important essential words was given to them to study and get ready. It was related to the course. There are a lot of parts in the book to speak about their past. This book is taught in the communicative language teaching (CLT).

Research questions

This study has been conducted to give an answer to these questions:
1. Does listening to English news have an effect on Iranian school students' English achievement in listening?
2. Is there any relationship between listening to news and students' attitude?
3. Does listening to English news have an effect on Iranian EFL learners' attitude?

In order to give an answer to each of these questions, a research has been conducted; then, the scores have been observed and discussed.

Results and Discussion

Testing of assumptions usually involve obtaining descriptive statistics on the variables; Therefore, these descriptive statistics include the mean, standard deviation, range of scores, skewness, and kurtosis; meanwhile, descriptive statistics can be obtained a number of different ways, providing a variety of information (Pallant, 2016). Following the sociocultural framework, according to Sonmez (2011, as cited in Gordani & AnaniSarab, 2014), the data procedure includes transcription, organization, coding, and interpretive analysis. In this study, the following scores were obtained from the control group in the pretest. They are illustrated in Table 1:

Table 1. The frequencies for the pretest in the control group

Scores	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Frequencies	1	2	2	2	1	1	2

Table 1 shows the scores of the pretest in the control group in which three students got the scores of 6, 10, and 11; while, the scores 7, 8, 9, and 12 were achieved by two students.
In this study, the following scores were obtained from the experimental group in the pretest. They are illustrated in Table 2.

Table 2. The frequencies for the pretest in the experimental group

Scores	8	9	10	11	12
Frequencies	1	1	2	4	3

Table 2 shows the results of the pretest in the experimental group in which one student got 8 and 9; the score 10 was achieved by two students, four students got 11 and the score 12 was obtained by three students. In this study, the following findings are obtained from the summary of the case processing in the pretest. They are illustrated in Table 3.

Table 3. The findings of the case processing summary in pretest: cases

	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Pretest	N	Pretest	N	Pretest

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Pre-listening 22	100%	22	100%	22	100%

Table 3 summarizes the case processing in which the valid number is 22, the valid percent is 100%, the missing number is 0, and the total number is 22 persons. Meanwhile, in this study, the following descriptive statistic calculations were obtained from the summary of descriptive statistics in the pretest. They are illustrated in Table 4.

Table 4. The descriptive statistics in the pretest

		Statistic	Std. Error
Mean		8.5	0.75264
95% confidence interval	Lower bound	7.3091	
For mean	Upper bound	9.6909	
5% trimmed mean		8.5556	
Median		8.5	
Variance		7.214	
Std. deviation		2.68594	
Minimum		4	
Maximum		12	
Range		8	
Interquartile range		5	
Skewness		-0.154	0.491
Kurtosis		-1.252	0.953

Table 4 summarizes the descriptive statistics in which the mean is 8.5, the standard error of measurement is 0.57264, the variance is 7.214, and the standard deviation is 2.68594; while, its range is 8, its skewness is -0.154 and the kurtosis is -1.252. In this study, the following scores are obtained from the control group in the posttest. They are illustrated in Table 5.

Table 5. The frequencies for the pretest in the experimental group

Scores	4	5	6	7	10	11	12
Frequencies	2	1	2	1	1	2	2

Table 5 shows the results of the pretest in the control group in which one student got 5, 7, and 10; and the scores 4, 6, 11, and 12 were obtained by two students.

In this study, the following scores are obtained from the experimental group in the posttest. They are illustrated in Table 6.

Table 5. The frequencies for the pretest in the experimental group

Scores	5	7	9	10	11	12	13	14
Frequencies	1	1	1	2	1	2	2	1

Table 6 shows the results of the posttest in the experimental group in which one student got 5, 7, 9, 11, and 14; while the scores 10, 12, and 13 were achieved by two students. Moreover, in this study, the following findings are obtained from the summary of the case processing in the pretest. They are illustrated in Table 7.

Table 7. The findings of the case processing summary in pretest: cases

Valid	Missing	Total

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	N	Pretest	N	Pretest	N	Pretest
Pre-listening	22	100%	22	100%	22	100%

Table 7 summarizes the case processing in which the valid number is 22, the valid percent is 100%, the missing number is 0, and the total number is 22 persons.

In addition, in this study, the following descriptive statistic calculations were obtained from the summary of statistics in the posttest. They are illustrated in Table 8

Table 8. The descriptive statistics in the pretest

		Statistic	Std. Error
Mean		10.5909	0.44459
95% confidence interval	Lower bound	9.6663	
For mean	Upper bound	11.5155	
5% trimmed mean		10.7071	
Median		11	
Variance		4.348	
Std. deviation		2.08530	
Minimum		5	
Maximum		14	
Range		9	
Interquartile range		2.25	
Skewness		-0.956	0.491
Kurtosis		-1.294	0.953

Table 8 summarizes the descriptive statistics of the posttest in which the mean is 10.5909, the standard deviation is 2.08530, and the variance is 4.348; while, its range is 9, its skewness is 0.956 and the kurtosis is 1.294.

The other bootstrap specifications shows the information needed for the analysis. They are illustrated in the Table 9.

Table 9. The bootstrap specification of the analysis

Sampling method	stratified
Number of samples	44
Confidence interval level	95.0%
Confidence interval type	Bias corrected and accelerated

Table 9 shows the bootstrap specifications in which the sampling method is stratified and the analysis was done with the 95% confidence interval level. The reliabilities were calculated through Cronbach's Alpha. They are illustrated in the Table 11.

Table 10. The reliability statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha, based on standardized items	N. of items
0.414	0.387	4

Table 10 indicates that Cronbach's alpha, cronbach's alpa based on the standardized items, and the number of items are 0.414, 0.387, and 4; respectively. The item statistical calculations are illustrated in Table 11. They are shown in Table below:

Table 11. The item statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Control	8.5000	2.68594	22
Experimental	10.5909	2.08530	22
Attitude	13.4545	2.04071	22

Table 12 shows the mean, the standard deviation, and the number of items for the control group, the experimental group, and their attitude amount. A summary of overall calculations were done and illustrated below. The summary of item statistics are illustrated in Table 12.

Table 12. The summary item statistic

variance	N of items		Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Min/Max
25.973	4	Item means	8.511	1.500	13.455	11.955	8.970
8.151	4	Item variance	3.997	0.262	7.214	6.952	27.545
4.517	4	Inter-item covariance	0.600	-1.095	5.024	6.119	-4.587
0.180	4	Inter-item correlations	0.136	-0.200	0.897	1.097	-4.489

Table 12 indicates that the summary of the items in this study in which the mean, minimum, maximum, range, variance and the total number are mentioned for the item means, item variances, inter-item co-variances, and inter-item correlations were calculated and illustrated, respectively.

In this study, the scaled mean and variance if item deleted, the corrected item-total correlation, the squared multiple correlation and Cronbach's alpha if item deleted were calculated and illustrated in Table 13.

Table 13. The item total statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
001	25.5455	8.641	.464	.834	-.023[a]
002	23.4545	9.879	.684	.827	-.268[a]
004	20.5909	21.301	-.121	.221	.667
005	32.5455	22.545	.078	.298	.454

a. The value is negative due to a negative average covariance among items. This violates reliability model assumptions. You may want to check item codings.

Table 13 indicates that the scale mean and Scale variance if item deleted, corrected item-total correlation, squared multiple correlation, and Cronbach's alpha if item deleted were calculated and applied to those four parameters and are are illustrated, respectively. And, finally, the ANOVA formulae has been applied to identify the non-additivity with Tukey's test. They are illustrated in table 14.

Table 14. ANOVA with Tukey's Test for Nonadditivity

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between People			121.739	21	5.797		
Within People	Between Items		1714.216[a]	3	571.405	58.674	.000
	Residual	Nonadditivity	10.476[b]	1	10.476	3.191	.079
		Balance	203.558	62	3.283		
		Total	214.034	63	3.397		
	Total		1928.250	66	29.216		
Total			2049.989	87	23.563		

Grand Mean = 8.5114
a. Kendall's coefficient of concordance W = .836.
b. Tukey's estimate of power to which observations must be raised to achieve additivity = .434.

All the calculations were done on the single measures and average measures. They are illustrated in Table 15.

Table 15. Intra-class Correlation Coefficient

	Intraclass Correlation[b]	95% Confidence Interval		F Test with True Value 0			
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Value	df1	df2	Sig
Single Measures	.150[a]	-.028	.404	1.706	21	63	.054
Average Measures	.414[c]	-.122	.731	1.706	21	63	.054

Two-way mixed effects model where people effects are random and measures effects are fixed.
a. The estimator is the same, whether the interaction effect is present or not.
b. Type C intraclass correlation coefficients using a consistency definition. The between-measure variance is excluded from the denominator variance.
c. This estimate is computed assuming the interaction effect is absent, because it is not estimable otherwise.

Table 15 indicates the intra-class correlation, the 95% for confidence interval regarding lower and upper bound, and F test with true value 0 regarding the value, two differences, and significance were done on the single measures and the average measures, respectively.

Based on the results gathered from the posttest and the calculations, since the analytical results show that the significance of the items are more than 0.005, we can say that H_0 is rejected and our hypothesis that listening to the English news has a positive effect on listening comprehension. Based on the statistical operation, it can be said that listening to English news can reinforce their motivations towards learning English. Therefore, the following questions and hypotheses have been answered:

1) Does listening to English news have an effect on Iranian school students' English achievement in listening?
In answering this question, it can be said that listening to English news has an effect on Iranian school students' English achievement in listening comprehension.

2) Is there any relationship between listening to news and students' attitude?
In answering this question, it can be said that since there is no difference between two tests in attitude, there is no relationship between listening to English news and students' attitude.

3) Does listening to English news have an effect on Iranian EFL learners' attitude?
In answering this question, it can be said that since there is no difference between two tests in attitude, there is no relationship between listening to English news and students' attitude.

In this study, Different methods with different formula were calculated to be used in analyzing the hypotheses. Overall, intra-class correlations are also applied to approve them. The item of an ANOVA formulae has been applied to identify the non-additivity with Tukey's test. The overall analysis of this study is illustrated in Figure 1.
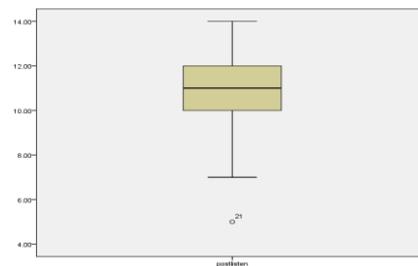
Fig. 1. The overall analysis of listening to English news

Figure 1. shows the overall analysis of listening to English news on the students' attitude and listening comprehension.

Conclusion

This study aims to discover new dimensions of teaching English with listening to English news. This study will announce the appropriateness of listening comprehension in the classroom. There are a lot of studies to look at how listening to news play out in a classroom setting. Although few studies have been done based on this issue, this study aims to suggest that teachers can generalize the results in pedagogical centers. Moreover, this study aims to open new horizons to the new ways of teaching, listening and learning and make learning more internalized and permanent. It aims to say that it would be better and more helpful for the students that English teachers use appropriate materials, listening comprehension fields, kinetics and gestures while teaching English. The aim of all the educational systems and teachers has been to train and educate good students to promote their status. This costs every government a lot of financial expenses. Therefore, new generations must have this capability to be trained and successful in their education during their life. By listening to English news, a new way of teaching and learning may be introduced and the appearance of teaching and listening may be changed.

Teachers can use listening comprehension on issues in order to make the unclear and obscure words clear and easy to understand. It can be a way of making todays issues clear. Meanwhile, students can be made more eager to listen with English sentences. Not only can English teachers use listening to teach English, but also teachers in the other courses can use these matters in teaching other lessons. It can be a useful way to the educational system and in particular, secondary and high schools' teachers and trainers can benefit from the gains of this study. The results of this study can be useful for those who try to be successful and effective in the process of language learning.

Acknowledgement

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Perception and Content Assessment of Active Users: Russian Language Social Networks

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Abstract

The paper considers studying the perception and assessment of media content in the Russian-language social networks, analyzing the causes that affect the perception and distribution of network content. The importance of language learning and communication in Russian-language social networks, and problems of content effectiveness is determined by the growth in the number and activity of Runet users. The material was used the database of the Russian social network VKontakte. The study involved a cross-disciplinary multimodal approach, also psycholinguistic analysis, content analysis to correctly interpret the perception of the content. Formal analysis was performed in stages, combining quantitative and qualitative methods of analysis. We applied TextAnalyst 2.0, Gephi (algorithm Force Atlas 2), Tableau as tools for analysis of empirical material. The results of the study suggest that the perception and effectiveness of network content is determined by a complex of causes. The success of posts (the maximum number of likes, reposts, comments, the achievement of the author's communicative goal – transferring users' actions from online to offline mode) ensure a source of distribution (the symbolic capital of the author increases the significance of the text when it is perceived by the network community), the use of features of the current communicative situation and the accuracy of the imperative strategy.

Keywords: Social Networks, Language Assessment, Perception, Content

1. Introduction

The importance of language learning and communication in Russian-language social networks, and problems of content effectiveness is determined by the growth in the number and activity of Runet users. Thus, in May 2019, the audience of the Runet amounted to 736 186 863 users (according to LiveInternet (www.liveinternet.ru).

The most popular Russian-language resource VKontakte (see Table 2) views itself as a platform designed to bring people, services and companies together by creating simple and convenient communication tools. Technical and communication features of the resource indicate it is in high demand among users: 97 million users per month; 6.5 billion messages per day; 1 billion "likes" per day; 77% users of mobile platforms; 500 million video views per day; 86 language versions (see https://vk.com/about).

Table 2. Statistics for social networks (January 2018).

Social network	Authors	Messages
VKontakte	26 633 778	410 168 754
Instagram	10 396 161	89 995 624
Facebook	1 824 256	53 266 232
Twitter	1 010 690	41 184 629
My world (my.mail.ru)	66 957	4 336 042
LiveJournal	59 523	3 387 579

(https://br-nalytics.ru/statistics/author?hub_id=16048anddate=201708andcountry_id=20andperiod_type=mont)

With the expansion of the virtual space, transformations began to occur in the functioning of speech structures that are caused by the need to adapt to new communicative conditions. M. Martin believes that the "new language" was formed in the Internet in order to compensate for the lack of non-verbal and paraverbal means of communication (Martin, 2018). Indeed, web-communication formats that replace spoken language communication to some extent, even if there are auditory components, should compensate for the lack of information that is transmitted using paraverbal,

mimic, pantomimic, proxemic means. In addition, the virtual space imposes additional specific modes on a specific communicative situation. Convergence and multidimensionality of online communications require a cross-disciplinary approach, mixed methods that are used in many studies that represent various aspects of interaction in the web environment (Sauter, 2014; Lipschultz, 2014;   Verboord, 2014: Dunbar, Arnaboldi, Conti, & Passarella, 2015; Ryan, 2018).

Research in a multimodal perspective has become widespread in recent decades (Kress, 2010;   Lutkewitte, 2013; Wacewicz & Zywiczynski, 2017). It is a multimodal approach that seems to be the most adequate in analyzing network content, since it allows conversion of data and information coming through various channels.

Analysis of the media space as a multimodal sphere is also becoming increasingly widespread in various studies (Alexander & Rhodes, 2014; Velkova, 2018). Meanwhile, it is difficult to disagree with the opinion of D. Crystal, that, whatever the culture of the Internet, it is still largely based on texts (Crystal, 2004).

Recently, analysis of network communications has been presented by research in the field of multimodal dynamic networks (Roth & Cointet, 2010), as well as bimodal and three-modal networks (Latapy, Magnien & Vecchio, 2008; Murata, 2010; Opsahl, 2013). One-modal "friend-friend" communications are of little interest for researchers.

The problem of content evaluation remains the most important task, both for educational, and scientific, social, public and other purposes. Today, there are two approaches to solving this problem: using technical resources and direct perception by a human and expert evaluation. In particular, automatic text evaluation becomes quite popular in evaluation of L2 written works when teaching a foreign language and testing a large number of students (Ericsson, & Haswel, 2006; Deane, 2013; Weigle, 2013;

Matthews*,* & Wijeyewardene, 2018). Thus, the Coh-Metrix program was widely spread and positively rated by experts, although researchers note a number of other problems associated with its use (Weigle, 2013; McNamara, Graesser, McCarthy, & Cai, 2014).

An important criterion of adequacy and objectivity is the comparison of the results obtained using software and direct human participation, for example, from professional experts (see, for example, Crossley, & McNamara, 2012). It is the contamination of these two approaches, the comparison of the results obtained by automatic means and with the direct participation of the human, using analytical procedures that seems to be the most correct solution to the problem of identifying the accuracy and adequacy of the content evaluation.

One should focus on the issue of content effectiveness. Today, a sufficient amount of research confirms that computer models using digital footprints of people are capable of diagnosing a person's character with a high degree of accuracy. Thus, predictive analytics based on the construction of psychological portraits and behavior models of actors are presented in (Kosinski, Stillwell, & Graepel, 2013). Researchers consider the "like" to be a universal digital footprint (Kosinski, Stillwell, & Graepel, 2013; Bachrach, Kohl, Stillwell, & Graepel, 2013; Youyou, Kosinski, & Stillwell, 2015). In addition, reposts and comments are also bright markers of high demand for particular content in a network environment.

Thus, within the framework of this study, the following indicators will be considered as indicators of the effectiveness and relevance of (demand for) network content: the number of likes, reposts, and comments as well as the achievement of a communicative goal (in this case: switching from online to offline communication, organizing an opposition meeting).

The goal of this study is to identify the causes that affect the perception and distribution of network content. Research questions are:

- What determines the perception of network content by actors?
- What influences the assessment of network content?
- What content is most popular in a network environment and attracts the attention of users?

The material for the study was the database of the social network VKontakte (March 2017) associated with opposition meetings that took place on March 26 under the conventional name "On vam ne Dimon"/"He's not Dimon for you" (#DimonOtvetit/#Dimon will take responsibility). The protests were caused by the distribution of the investigative film by A. Navalny in the network about the activities of Prime Minister Dmitry Medvedev (content of involved actors – n 43 712,

content of active actors – n 15 021, relevant posts – n 23 602, number of words – n 470 893, number of characters – n 3 569 442.) The content is used on the basis of the rules of VKontakte specified in p. 7.1.3., as well as art. 1274 of the civil code. (P. 7.1.3. By posting on the Site his/her lawfully owned Content, the User grants the other Users a non-exclusive right to use it in the framework of the functional provided by the Site by viewing, reproducing (including copying) and other rights exclusively for the purpose of personal non-commercial use, except where such use infringes or may infringe the right owner's interests protected by law.

2. Research method

The study involved a cross-disciplinary multimodal approach. Content analysis, semantic and psycholinguistic analysis were also used to correctly interpret the perception of the content. Formal analysis was performed in stages, combining quantitative and qualitative methods of analysis.

2.1. Procedures

The sequence of actions during the analysis corresponded to the following algorithm:

I. Selection of users involved in the semantic field "On vam ne Dimon"/"He's not Dimon for you" (#DimonOtvetit/#Dimon will take responsibility).

I.1. Selection of active actors that generate content within the framework of this semantic field.

I.2 Analysis of communicative network actions and digital footprints of active actors.

II. Content analysis.

II.1. Identification of a common network of concepts characterizing the entire collected database, and the thematic structure of the analyzed content (using TextAnalyst 2.0 and Automap).

II.2. Allocation of two types of posts: database 1 with the maximum number of digital footprints; and database 2 with zero indicators of digital footprints. Both groups were analyzed using TextAnalyst2.0.

II.3. Analysis of the two groups using the method of semantic differential.

At the stage of content research, the semantic network common for the whole corpus and the thematic structure of the analyzed content extracted from the network were formed using the TextAnalyst program.

The list of the most significant notions and concepts (having the highest rank) bearing the main meaning (semantic load) obtained from the semantic network, made it possible to determine the core of information, the semantic accents most important for actors.

The identification of the thematic structure of the selected network content made it possible to describe the content in the form of a hierarchy of related topics and sub-topics that reflect the basic concepts and correspond to the nodes of the network notions. The tools used allowed creation of a hierarchical thematic structure, identification of the basic topic and revelation of the relationships with sub-topics that form multi-level semantic networks.

In addition, the content was analyzed regarding the connectivity of the subject tree. Topic clusters that emerged as a result of changing the threshold for the weight of relationships in the network of notions (the break of more or less strong relationships) were identified. Such analysis of the collected dataset allowed analyzing the structure of the consolidated media text in various sections and at various levels of semantic depth.

2.2. Tools

TextAnalyst 2.0 is system for automatic semantic text analysis. The TextAnalyst technology is intended for the automatic statistical formation of a homogeneous (associative) semantic network of text (which is a semantic portrait of the text) describing a certain situation. The semantic network is a graph, where the set of vertices corresponds to the concepts of the text, and the arcs correspond to the relationships of these concepts in the text. Both the vertices and the arcs of the network have weight characteristics reflecting the ranks of the concepts and their relationships in the text.

Such a semantic portrait makes it possible to reveal the semantic core of the text, which characterizes the situation described in the text to the fullest extent.

Automap is a text mining tool that allows extraction of information using network analysis methods; it supports the extraction of several types of data from unstructured documents.

Gephi (algorithm Force Atlas 2) is software for visualizing network structures (Jacomy, Venturini, Heymann & Bastian, 2014).

Tableau is a platform for creating visual analytics, or interactive data visualization

3. Results and discussions

2.1.   At the first stage of the study, all users who showed interest in the opposition meeting were identified. Those involved in the linguistic mode were analyzed by verbal content collected by the hashtags #dimonotvetit containing the original author's content and user content about active actors within the specified semantic field.

Verbal content analysis scheme

 Identification and analysis of the semantic field.

3.1.1. Explicit means of expressing intentions, evaluations, opinions. 3.1.2. Direct means of influence (effect, persuasion).

3.1.2.1. Spelling and graphic tools. 3.1.2.2. Speech tools: 3.1.2.2.1. Phonetic.3.1.2.2.2. Lexical.3.1.2.2.3. Morphological. 3.1.2.2.4. Syntactic.3.1.2.2.5. Stylistic. 3.1.3. Implicit expression of intention, evaluation, opinion: 3.1.3.1. Spelling and graphic tools. 3.1.3.2. Speech tools: 3.1.3.2.1. Lexical. 3.1.3.2.2. Morphological. 3.1.3.2.3. Syntactic. 3.1.3.2.4. Stylistic. 3.1.3.3. Rhetorical means. 3.1.3.4. Speech means of influence. 3.1.3.5. Associative links.

The results of data collection, analysis and clustering of the involved users are presented as visualization (Fig. 1).
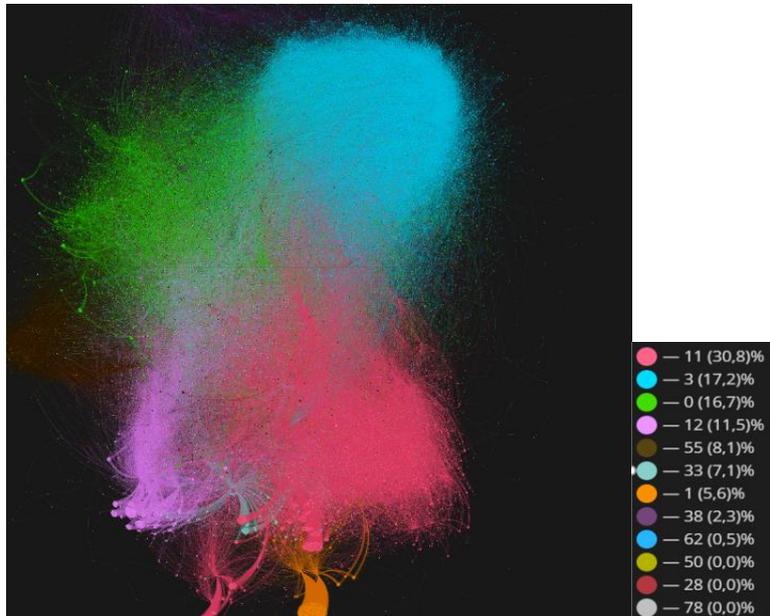
Fig. 1. Involved users who reacted to the March 26 meeting.

The algorithm of clustering the graph vertices was performed according to (Girvan & Newman, 2002). The analysis used only the content generated by real users. The artificial entities were revealed using a profile analysis: no friends, no or a small amount of visual data (photo without a particular user's face), no posts from other users with links to the actor, activity only during certain periods corresponding to significant time periods associated with political events, as well as belonging to already known botnets. In the course of the study, the SocialDataHub technology was used, which made it possible to automatically analyze the profile in the social network.

Further, an analysis was performed that allowed identification of active actors who generated some content within this semantic field and who took direct part in protest events. The analysis was performed using a verbal mode (author's content) and a visual mode – according to the data of static visual materials using the SocialDataHub algorithm, which provides an accuracy of up to 85%.

Analysis of the main characteristics of the actors and the three clusters of participants by objectives.

3.2. The analysis of communicative network actions made it possible to identify and rank the digital footprints of active actors for further research.

The communicative network behavior was analyzed according to the following scheme:

3.2.1. The number of "likes". 3.2.2. The number of posts on a relevant topic. 3.2.3. Communicative resources:

3.2.3.2. Preferred strategies (ritual, persuasive, imperative, provocative). 3.2.3.3. Tactics of direct communicative impact.

3.2.3.4. Tactics of indirect communicative impact. 3.2.4. Number of reposts on the relevant topic. 3.2.5. Number of comments. 3.2.6. Number of links. 3.2.7. Number and characteristics of groups. 3.2.8. Number of messages. 3.2.9. Integrated communication resources of indirect influence.

The results are presented in Fig. 2.
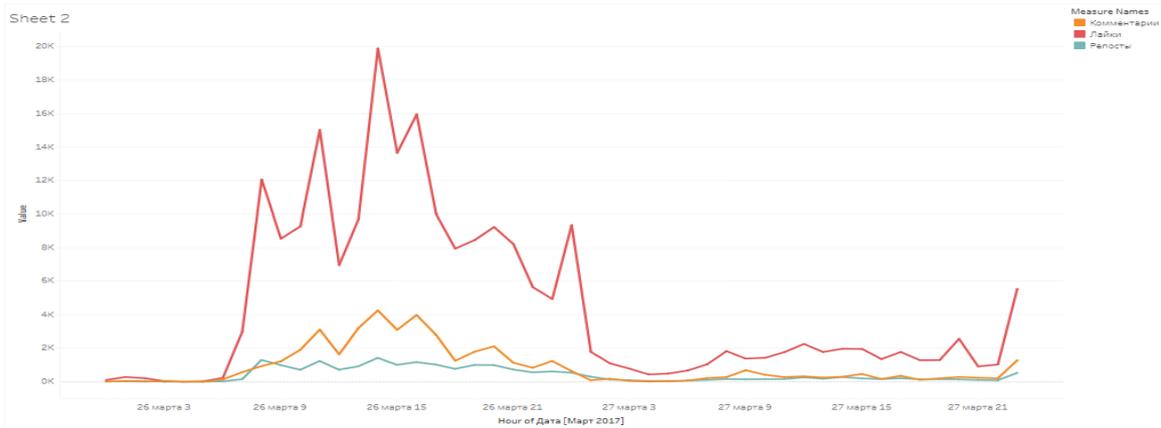
Reposts
Comments
Likes

Fig. 2. Ratio of digital footprints (likes, reposts, comments).

3.2. Content analysis.

3.2.1. At the initial step of the content research, frequency concepts, a common network of motions that characterize the entire collected database, and the thematic structure of the analyzed content were identified (see Fig. 3).
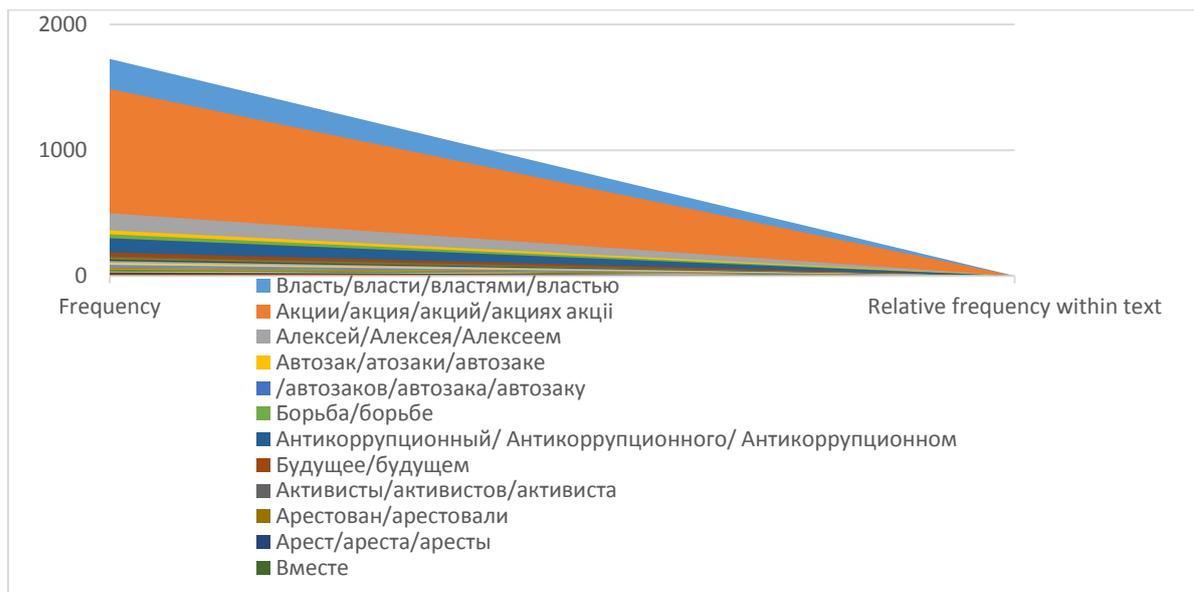

Fig. 3. Frequency concepts.

It is natural that the entire information hierarchy in this content belongs to a single topic, has the appearance of a tree with a single root: "DimonOtvetit". The maximum weight of the notion (100) was found for the following nominations: DimonOtvetit/Medvedev/Dimon/OnVamNeDimon/OnNamNeDimon (Dimon will take responsibility/Medvedev/Dimon/He's not Dimon for you/He's not Dimon for us), meeting / protest against corruption, Russia/country, Tverskaya, cities, detained.

The maximum relationship weight for the concept of corruption in the common database was assigned to the following nominations: meetings against corruption (74), cities (45), Medvedev (42)/Dimon (38), country (41).

The analysis of the thematic structure of the collected content reflects the main content of the integrated media texts associated with meetings against corruption throughout the country, and the persona of an official from the top government echelons who provoked public outrage and served as a catalyst for the protest movement.

3.2.2. In accordance with the selected criteria for the effectiveness and demand for the content, the posts were ranked by the number of digital footprints.

3.2.2.1. Further, media texts were identified, which caused the greatest resonance in the network environment (dataset 1).

Features of dataset 1: memory size – 98 KB; number of posts – 40; number of words – 2 226; number of characters – 16 031; number of likes – 52 040; number of comments – 7 295; number of reposts – 3 813.

As well as media texts that did not cause any reaction at all from the network community (dataset 2).

Features of dataset 2: memory size – 97 KB; number of posts – 119; number of words – 1 830; number of characters – 14 763; number of likes –0; number of comments – 0; number of reposts – 0.

3.2.2.2. The construction of the semantic networks for both datasets made it possible to reveal the most significant information emphasized by the authors of the messages.

In semantic network 1, the notions referring to the initiator of protest movements have the greatest weight. The center of the semantic network, the relevant information are personalized; the attention of users is concentrated on the political leader who initiated the meetings, who becomes the undisputed leader of opinions, greatly expanding the virtual electorate.

Curiously, semantic network 2 represents a wider set of information clusters. Notions characterizing the causes for the protest meetings have the maximum weight. The center of the semantic network, the relevant information are not only connected with the opposition leader, but also represent the organization (ACF, Anti-Corruption Foundation), which conducted the anti-corruption investigation; the semantic focus is also on the reaction of the authorities, negative attitude to the media information policy, etc.

The thematic structure of dataset 1 (meeting – 100) is not to be inferior regarding dataset 2 (meetings – 100; fire extinguisher – 99).

The associative networks with a nuclear nomination "Meeting" identified in the materials of the 1st and 2nd datasets are generally identical (see Fig. 5, 6). Meanwhile, it should be noted that the associative search against the base of dataset 1 revealed a great significance of the effect of covering the meetings held, their territorial distribution, detentions, etc.

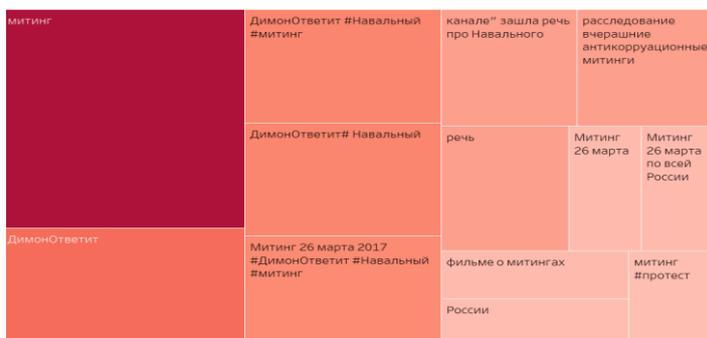Fig. 5. Associative search against the base of dataset 1.

Fig. 6. Associative search against the base of dataset 2.

3.2.3. At the final stage of the study, the perception of content was tested with the direct participation of the subjects using the semantic differential method. The focus group consisted of 20 participants (aged 20-25, 60% females, 40% males). The results also showed no significant discrepancy in the perception of database 1 and database 2 (see Fig. 7).
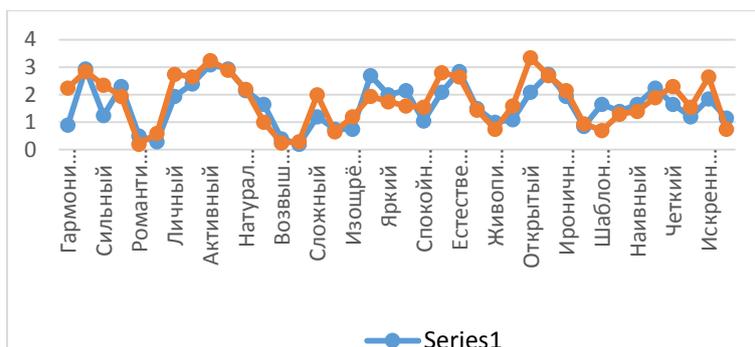
Fig. 7. Results obtained using the semantic differential method.

Thus, the semantic and linguostylistic characteristics of database 1 and database 2 are almost the same, in contrast to the characteristics of network effectiveness, which oppose the two data clusters as the most effective and the less effective ones.

4. Conclusion

The results of the study suggest that the perception and effectiveness of network content is determined by a complex of causes.

The effectiveness of the content, the degree of reaction of the network community depends on the level of symbolic capital of the source of content distribution, taking into account the characteristics of the communicative situation and the success of the imperative strategy used.

The significance of network content is determined, first of all, by the actor, who is recognized as the author of a particular message. The charisma of the opposition leader, as well as the circle of his/her companions who distributed the content that constitutes database 1, played a large role in the intensity of information waves. The demand for content generated by the leader of opinions (including a close circle of actors) and the success of posts (the maximum number of likes, reposts, comments) provide in many respects the actor's symbolic capital, which increases the significance of the text when it is perceived by the network community. Database 2 was generated by ordinary users of the network with a small symbolic capital.

The content generated by the actor with the greatest symbolic capital is the most popular in the network environment, attracting the attention of users. Of course, it should be noted that this provision is true to a greater extent in a certain segment of the network environment and the circle of actors who are influenced by a certain opinion leader.

The selection of adequate communication tools, the successful solution of topical tasks makes it possible for the opinion leader to actively influence public opinion in the network and destroy the boundaries of online and offline communications, translate virtual intentions into real actions. Protests against corruption on March 26, 2018, according to official data, involved 70 000 people (unofficial data suggest a much higher figure) in 100 cities of Russia.

Content identified and analyzed in the course of the research can be characterized as implementing an imperative strategy aimed at the irrational sphere and has a strong emotional charge.

This communication strategy corresponded to the acute need in the Russian society (especially for young people) of social justice, a great protest potential of a destructive type. In particular, despite the clear message of the action (#Dimon will take responsibility), the protest was mostly of an undifferentiated nature ("Enough!").

The main characteristics of the addressee (active actors) were also taken into account when implemented in the content: the social inactivity of the actors is combined with pragmatism, the desire for comfort and sustainable well-being, which must be provided by external forces and not by the participants themselves. In addition, one should highlight the craving for personal fulfillment, hypertrophied self-esteem, and egocentrism against the background of general dissatisfaction. It is indicative that the priorities of the participants of this protest action are in the sphere of hobby (music, cinema, technical innovations, etc.) and sports (cybersport).

Another important feature is the desire for gamification, which is becoming the leading communicative trend. One can talk about gamification as a type of linguistic consciousness (shoe tossing – a symbol that Alexey Navalny took from the film "Wag the dog", toy ducks, behavior with special police forces). In a media text, this is expressed in sarcastic tonality and postmodern discourse.

It can be assumed that the growth of the protest potential in this situation is associated more with the effective work of the Navalny team with a certain group of actors, and not with sustained political activity.

Regarding the motivation of the protest media content actors, the following can be concluded: analysis of the data indicates a lack of stable political preferences and a wide range of political views of the actors. And the explicit support of Navalny's position was expressed only by the youngest actors who make up the cluster "neophytes" (newcomers). "Ideological activists" and "hedonists" expressed a wide range of assessments from indifference to disapproval, disappointment and sarcasm towards the opposition leader.

To a certain degree, this situation can be explained by the lack of a common agenda. In addition to the anti-corruption pathos, the meeting participants were united by a negative attitude towards the federal media, an ethical interpretation of corruption, and a reflection on the formed opposition "youth vs power".

It should be concluded that the perception of content in the network largely depends on the actor, who is identified as the author of the message, in proportion to the volume of his/her symbolic capital and the degree of influence as a leader of opinions, on the relevance of the current communicative situation presented in the network environment and on the effectiveness of the imperative strategy.

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A Comparative Study of Poems through the Ideas of Camille Paglia: Edge by Sylvia Plath and Loneliness of the Moon by Forough Farrokhzad

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Abstract

Sylvia Plath (1932-1963) was an acclaimed American poet and novelist. Forough Farrokhzad (1934 -1967) was an influential Iranian poet. Both of them had controversial life and wrote from a female point of view. The aim of this essay is to show how the moon and other elements of nature were used in these poems: Edge by Sylvia Plath and Loneliness of the Moon by Forough Farrokhzad, studying the influence of female gender. Reading the poems and their similarities and differences through the ideas of Camille Paglia was studied. Camille Paglia (1947-) is an American feminist and social critic. According to Paglia, female gender as a cycle of nature is deeply associated with nature, and women must pay attention to their different gender with men in order to express themselves in their own literature, instead of creating a literary work based on male patterns. In this essay it was analysed how the image of the moon has been depicted in their poems. In various poetry clauses of Edge, the moon gradually crosses borders and edges, and is completed, finally. So the image of moon is dynamic. In this poem, everything runs its own cycle like a moon, the woman's pregnancy, childbirth, Fall of human, and even death. The structure of this poetry, like female gender and nature, is cyclical. Although Loneliness of the Moon is full of elements of nature, gender and femininity, the moon in this poetry, in contrast to the Plath's poem, has a static image. From the beginning of this poem, the moon is full and great, and until the end of the poem, the same full moon is lonely, which bursts like a bubble. So it seems Farrokhzad's poem doesn't have the complexity Plath's poem has.

Keywords: Edge, Loneliness of the Moon, Sylvia Plath, Forough Farrokhzad, Camille Paglia, moon, female gender

Introduction

Forough Farrokhzad was an influential Iranian poet and film director. She was one of the most important modernist poet and the most famous female poet in Iran, writing from a female point of view. She published four poetry books: *The Wall*, *The Rebellion*, *The Captive*, and *Reborn.* After her death, another poetry book, titled *Let Us Believe in the Beginning of the Cold Season, was published.* Her documentary film, *The House is Black*, is considered to be an essential part of the Iranian New Wave movement.

Sylvia Plath was one of the most dynamic and admired poets of the 20th century. She and Ted Hughes, a Cambridge poet, were married in 1956, starting their controversial family life. Her poetry books includes: *The Colossus* and *Ariel.*

She also wrote a semi-autobiographical novel, The *Bell Jar.* This novel, and the various collections of her poems that appeared during the next twenty years, secured for Plath the position of one of the most important women writers and poets in the world. She committed suicide by sleeping pills and gas inhalation on 11 February 1963. The Pulitzer Literary Prize was awarded to her poems in 1982.

In this essay, the aim is to show how elements of nature, especially the moon are represented in two poem by Plath and Farrokhzad. To this end, the common themes of the two poems through a thematic and intertextual reading will be explored. Reading the poems and their similarities through the concept of gender, the ideas of Paglia is studied.

Theoretical Foundations

Camille Paglia (1947-) is an American feminist and social critic. She is known as a social critic, intellectual, writer, university professor and post-feminist who has differences with other feminists. In 1990, she became famous for her first book, *Sexual Personae: Art and Decadence from Nefertiti to Emily Dickinson*. Other books include: *Sex, Art and American Culture*, *Vamps and Tramps*, *The Birds*, *Break, Blow, Burn*, *Glittering Images* and *Free Women, Free Men*.

Paglia protests feminists who attribute nature to women as male charges. In her view, in the context of post-feminism, we need to look more realistic at nature and gender, because the female body is in harmony with nature.

In feminine essay, at first we must consider the concept of sex and gender. According to Paglia, We cannot hope to understand sex and gender until we clarify our attitude toward nature. Sex is a subset to nature. Sex is the natural in man. Sexuality and eroticism are the intricate intersection of nature and culture. Feminists grossly oversimplify the problem of sex when they reduce it to a matter of social convention. Society is an artificial construction, a defense against nature's power. Society is a system of inherited forms reducing our humiliating passivity to nature. Of course,

here the nature isn't Rousseau's nature. Rousseau puts nature opposite of the corrupt society. His idea, derived from Locke, of man's innate goodness led to social environmentalism, suggesting that we come back to nature and achieve paradise on earth. The bubble of these hopes was burst by the catastrophes of two world wars. But Rousseauism was reborn in the postwar generation of the Sixties, from which contemporary feminism developed. The identification of woman with nature was universal in prehistory. In hunting or agrarian societies dependent upon nature, femaleness was honored as an immanent principle of fertility. As culture progressed, crafts and commerce supplied a concentration of re-sources freeing men from the caprices of weather or the handicap of geography. With nature at one remove, femaleness receded in importance. The evolution from earth-cult to sky-cult shifts woman into the nether realm. Her mysterious procreative powers and the resemblance of her rounded breasts, belly, and hips to earth's contours put her at the center of early symbolism. She was the model for the Great Mother figures who crowded the birth of religion worldwide. But the mother-cults did not mean social freedom for women. On the contrary, cult- objects are prisoners of their own symbolic inflation. Every totem lives in taboo.

Woman was an idol of belly-magic. She seemed to swell and give birth by her own law. From the beginning of time, woman has seemed an uncanny being. Man honored but feared her. She was the black maw that had spat him forth and would devour him anew. Men, bonding together, invented culture as a defense against female nature. Sky-cult was the most sophisticated step in this process, for its switch of the creative locus from earth to sky is a shift from belly-magic to head -magic. And from this defensive head-magic has come the spectacular glory of male civilization, which has lifted woman with it. The very language and logic modem woman uses to assail patriarchal culture were the invention of men.

Hence the sexes are caught in a comedy of historical indebtedness. Man, repelled by his debt to a physical mother, created an alternate reality, a heterocosm to give him the illusion of freedom.

The identification of woman with nature is the most troubled and troubling term in this historical argument. Was it ever true? Can it still be true? Most feminist readers will disagree, but according to Paglia, this identification not myth but reality. Nature's cycles are woman's cycles. Biologic femaleness is a sequence of circular returns, beginning and ending at the same point. Woman's centrality gives her a stability of identity. She does not have to become but only to be. Her centrality is a great obstacle to man, whose quest for identity she blocks. He must transform himself into an independent being, that is, a being free of her. If he does not, he will simply fall back into her. Reunion with the mother is a siren call haunting our imagination. The western idea of history as a propulsive movement into the future, a progressive or providential design climaxing in the revelation of a Second Coming, is a male formulation. No woman could have coined such an idea, since it is a strategy of evasion of woman's own cyclic nature, in which man dreads being caught. Evolutionary or apocalyptic history is a male wish list with a happy ending, a phallic peak.

Woman does not dream of transcendental or historical escape from natural cycle, since she is that cycle. Her sexual maturity means marriage to the moon, waxing and waning in lunar phases. Moon, month, menses: same word, same world. The ancients knew that woman is bound to nature's calendar, an appointment she cannot refuse. The Greek pattern of free will to hybris to tragedy is a male drama, since woman has never been deluded (until recently) by the mirage of free will. She knows there is no free will, since she is not free. She has no choice but acceptance. Whether she desires motherhood or not, nature yokes her into the brute inflexible rhythm of procreative law. Menstrual cycle is an alarming clock that cannot be stopped until nature wills it.

Woman's reproductive apparatus is vastly more complicated than man's, and still ill-understood. All kinds of things can go wrong or cause distress in going right. Western woman is in an agonistic relation to her own body: for her, biologic normalcy is suffering, and health an illness. Dysmenorrhea, it is argued, is a disease of civilization, since women in tribal cultures have few menstrual complaints. But in tribal life, woman has an extended or collective identity; tribal religion honors nature and subordinates itself to it. It is precisely in advanced western society which attempts to improve or surpass nature and which holds up individualism and self-realization as a model, that the stark facts of woman's condition emerge with painful clarity. The more woman aims for personal identity and autonomy, the more she develops her imagination, and the fiercer will be her struggle with nature— that is, with the intractable physical laws of her own body. And the more nature will punish her: do not dare to be free! For your body does not belong to you.

Feminism has been simplistic in arguing that female archetypes were politically motivated falsehoods by men. The historical repugnance to woman has a rational basis: disgust is reason's proper response to the grossness of procreative nature. Reason and logic are the anxiety- inspired domain of Apollo, premiere god of sky-cult. The Apollonian is harsh and phobic, coldly cutting itself off from nature by its superhuman purity. Paglia argues that western personality and western achievement are, for better or worse, largely Apollonian. Apollo's great opponent Dionysus is ruler of the chthonian whose law is procreative femaleness. As we shall see, the Dionysian is liquid nature, a miasmic swamp whose prototype is the still pond of the womb. According to Paglia, female gender as a cycle of nature is deeply

associated with nature, and women must pay attention to their different gender with men in order to express themselves in their own literature, instead of creating a literary work based on male patterns (Paglia, 1990).

Analysis of Poems

The image of the moon has been depicted repeatedly in their poems, especially in Plath's. Plath is deeply influenced by a book called *The White Goddess*, written by Robert Graves (Rose, 1991: 150). Graves proposes the oldest European deity, the "White Goddess" has been a symbol of Birth, Love and Death. This goddess represented herself by the phases of the moon, new moon, full moon and waning crescent moon. The White Goddess is magical goddess of poetry and every "pure" poetry is inextricably linked with the White Goddess and every each poet can find many similarities between him/herself and this goddess, or between him/herself and the moon, which is the symbol of it (Graves, 1997). In the poems of the first Plath's book, the moon is a central symbol that has been used in a variety of compositions, in the form of "moony" as an adjective and "to moon" as a verb (Movahhed,1377: 250,251).

Forough, also in the poetry of "Loneliness of the Moon" and other her poems, has used the image of the moon. In Forough's poem, the moon refers to herself or to feminine gender, and sometimes has erotic implications. These examples are given:

Forgive her
Whom her around her coffin
The red stream of the moon passes (Farrokhzad, 1368: 302).
  I saw my fiery volume
Slowly watered
And poured, poured, poured
In the moon, the moon is sitting in a hollow, the murky agitated moon (Ibid: 368).
The moon
That kind female (Ibid: 368).
 And magic of the moon removed me from the flock's faith (Ibid: 368).

Now we are going to study the poetry of Edge. Edge as a noun means: border, boundary, extremity, margin, side, lip, rim

, limit, outer limit, bound, and as e verb means: creep, advance slowly; advance stealthily, sidle, steal, slink.(Longman advanced American Dictionary)This poem is the last Plath's poem probably. After this poem, she committed suicide and died.

The woman is perfected.
Her dead
Body wears the smile of accomplishment,
The illusion of a Greek necessity
Flows in the scrolls of her toga

The woman is completed with death, the poet considers death as a cause of the perfection and the success. The poet agrees with Paglia and knows the Greek necessity as an illusion.

Her bare
Feet seem to be saying:
We have come so far, it is over.

From here, poetry enters into the multifaceted relationship of the story of Eve's fall, as well as the suicide of Cleopatra with the poet's personal life.

Each dead child coiled, a white serpent,
One at each little
Pitcher of milk, now empty.

Cleopatra committed suicide by dropping two poisonous snakes on her breast to stop abjectness of Caesar's captivity and join her lover, Marc Anthony. In the narrative of Plath, the child coiled around his self, instead of the snake, at each little pitcher of milk, which is a metaphor of female breast. Cleopatra says to the snake at the moment of death: "But you do not see my child sleeping with sucking milk." (Shakespeare, 1381: 1444) she likens death to an easement of the balm and a softness and mildness of the air. As Plath considers death as a cause of the perfection and the success.

The snake is also present in the story of Eve's fall. In a narrative, Eve descended with the temptation of the snake, causing the Fall of Adam, dismissing Adam from paradise and sending him to the world, or "giving birth". In this meaning, the Fall is interpreted as an act of giving birth and delivery, an act carried out by Eve. In the Old Testament, after the fall, it is prescribed labour for the punishment of woman. The snake can also be interoperated a metaphor of the umbilical cord that Eve brings Adam to the world with it. In this delivery, Paradise is considered as womb of the woman. Paradise, Snake and Woman are all the same. Cleopatra also says she wants to commit suicide in order to Mark

Anthony appears on her. And at the last moment of death, she embraces the snake, with the help of the snake, as the umbilical cord, creates the appearance of him, and gives birth to him for herself. It means to die, to go from world to another, the Fall and delivery are the same.

And the result of this clause, as a result of childbirth, is two children, along with a woman's breast: two dead children and a breast, empty of milk

She has folded

Them back in to her body as petals

Of a rose close when the garden

Stiffen and odours bleed

From the sweet, deep throats of the night flowers.

In the first sentence, woman back them in to her body, and this act also calls the death to mind. "woman-earth," pulls the dead to herself, and it suggests getting pregnant of woman. The woman gets pregnant and becomes round and complete like the full moon. In this clause, the word "garden" is stated, this word in the Gospel, like the word Jennat in Islamic culture, means paradise, and it is interesting that both words are feminine. The beloved of Persian sonnets is often likened to gardens, or parts of the garden like cypresses and narcissus, and so on. The garden in the Persian literature is a source of simile and metaphor, the name of literary books are the garden, Golestan, Bostan, Hadijeh Haghigh and .... (Chevalier, 1379: 44).

Man is driven from paradise and it is promised to him, and in the cycle of nature, he returns again to Paradise. Paradise Garden is close to femininity. In the previous clause we saw that paradise was a metaphor of woman's womb. In this clause, the shape of the description of the Stiffening garden and bleeding odours from the sweet, deep throats of the night flowers is like a description of the menses. This bleeding and stiffening can point to a woman's defloration and her pregnancy. This garden is woman's womb, where the children are settled.

The moon has nothing to be sad about,

Staring from her hood of bone.

She is used to this sort of thing.

Her blacks crackle and drag.

In the previous clauses, the "Woman-Plath" edges, moves gradually and slowly and passes through boundaries and edges, from the edge of the worlds: death and life, paradise and real world, womb and real world. In a cyclic movement, children have been born in the first sentences of poetry, and the woman's body is narrowed like a new moon. And in the previous clause, she backs the children in to her body becomes pregnant like a full moon. So it is natural that in this clause, the subject of the sentence is replaced by the moon instead of the woman.

This clause is terrible like the landing of the last hit. It is as if the poet's words, after her death. It is a woman's cold intonation, a woman who is at the height of her literary creation and giving birth, and until her suicide, she has little time left. She doesn't have any sympathy for herself.

"Moon-Woman-Plath" has nothing to be sad. According to Forough, we have lost all that we have to lose. Plath, like a moon, knows, above all, knows everything, sees everything, and nothing else is new to her. Everything moves and runs its cycle, like the phases of the moon. Even dying is not new, it is like giving birth, like appearing of the other human in the women's womb, like human's fall, it is just passing from the "edge". Plath unifies with the White Goddess, moves to death and her blacks crackle and drag. Plath edges and is perfected like a full moon. This poetry begins with this sentence: "The woman is perfected". Now let's understand the meaning of this paragraph better. Again, we return to the first part of the poem, and the cycle of nature, the moon and the female body were depicted in the structure of this poem.

Forough's poem is an alive image of the night. According to Paglia, "the night is the realm of Dionysus and femininity. In the day we are social creatures, but at night we descend to the dream world where nature reigns where there is no law but sex, cruelty, and metamorphosis. Day, itself is invaded by daemonic night. Moment by moment, night flickers in the imagination, in eroticism, subverting our strivings for virtue and order, giving an uncanny aura to objects and persons, revealed to us through the eyes of the artist" (Paglia,1990 :300). This poem is full of elements of nature, gender and femininity.

All over the darkness

Crickets shouted:

Moon, oh great moon...

The moon, the full moon, the symbol of femininity, is that high. The Crickets are shouting the moon in a loud voice. As if this great makes the life of the Crickets, meaningful. Cricket is a symbol of the resurrection in the icons of ancient China (Hall, 1380: 42), and as if in this poem that begins with the treble sound of the crickets, it is represented the resurrection of the forces of nature and sex.

All over the darkness

Branches with those long hands

Which from them, an erotic ah

Went upside down

This image can be viewed only as a male gender image in this poem, the long and erotic hands of the branches that has gone toward the moon.

And breeze of the submission

To the orders of unknown and mysterious gods

And thousands of hidden breaths, in the secret life of the soil

Unknown and mysterious gods give a magic aura to night and the soil is the first Chaos and the first female that God created and formed Adam with it. The earth is a virgin in which a shovel or a miner has penetrated it and is fertilized by the rain or blood that are the zygote of the sky. Throughout the world, the earth is considered as a womb (Chevalier, 1382: 462). A womb that is pregnant with thousands of hidden breaths.

And in that bright moving circle, firefly

A soundtrack on the wooden roof

Laily in the curtain

The frogs in the swamp

Altogether, all together continuously

Shouted until dawn:

Moon, oh great moon...

In Forough's view, an indescribable aura is seen around everything that revive in the resurrection. This paragraph is full of images of nature and gender of women. Firefly with a desire for the light and the moon, is absorbed into light. A soundtrack on the wooden roof, Lailies: Lailis of Persian literature, ideal beloveds, like each other, women in the curtains, frog, the ancient goddess of Egypt who supported women during childbirth (Hall, 1380: 80), in a swamp which is one of the mother's unconscious symbols (Chevalier, 1382: 6) Altogether, altogether continuously Shout until dawn: Moon, oh great moon...

All over the darkness

The moon flared in the windows

The moon was her alone heart of night

Was bursting into a golden grudge

Moon is the heart of night, the central core of the night. The moon gives blood everywhere like the heart, and it vitalizes and means to Crickets, Lailies, and soundtrack on the wooden roof and …

In this poem, it is also referred to "Loneliness of the Moon", which is the name of this poem. It in some way refers to loneliness of Forough, too. This fact can be considered in this poem that she was flaring and bursting in her golden grudge alone.

The moon is symbol of femininity, the symbol of all goodness, beauty and regret: The symbol of Forough.

Conclusion

In Plath's poetry, the moon edges, runs its cycles and gradually crosses borders and edges, and is completed, finally. So the image of moon is dynamic. In this poem, everything runs its own cycle like a moon, the woman's pregnancy, childbirth, fall of human, and even death. The structure of this poetry, like female gender and nature, is cyclical. At the end of poem, Plath expresses death with a cold and apathetic intonation. But Forough seems to have a sense of sympathy for hermself, having a warm and delicate intonation. This is also a sense of compassion in the title of the poem: the loneliness of the moon. Although Loneliness of the Moon is full of elements of nature, gender and femininity, the moon in this poetry, in contrast to the Plath's poem, has a static image. From the beginning of this poem, the moon is full and great, and until the end of the poem, the same full moon is lonely, which bursts like a bubble. So it seems Farrokhzad's poem doesn't have the complexity Plath's poem has.

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An Intertextual Comparative Study of Woman's Image in One Hundred Years of Solitude and Touba and Meaning of Night

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Abstract

Touba and Meaning of Night by Shahrnush Parsipur was one the first magic realist novels in Iran, which seems to be influenced by Gabriel García Márquez's One Hundred Years of Solitude to some extent. The aim of this essay is to show how woman's image is represented in Touba and Meaning of night, studying the influence of One Hundred Years of Solitude. To this end, the common themes of the two novels through a thematic and intertextual reading will be explored. Reading the novels and their similarities through the concept of intertextuality, the ideas of Ferdinand de Saussure, Mikhail Bakhtin and Roland Barth are studied. It is analysed also how Touba, the protagonist of Parsipur's novel, under the influence of the characterization of female protagonists in One Hundred Years of Solitude, experiences different things and how her image is depicted through common features like protecting helpless children, financial and personal independence, education under the supervision of a religious father, and so on. Also in both novels, "home" is considered as a female symbol and a metaphor of the homeland, in a deeper meaning. This paper tries to study a representation of woman's image through a comparative approach in both novels.

Keywords: One Hundred Years of Solitude, Touba and Meaning of Night, woman's image, home, Marquez, Parsipur, Intertextuality

Introduction

One Hundred Years of Solitude, bestowing worldwide reputation to its writer, Gabriel García Márquez, has been translated several times into several languages. Translation of this book has been one of impressive books on Persian novels (Saber and Shayganfar, 2016). This novel is about One Hundred Years of Solitude of seven generations in Buendía family. Úrsula Iguarán and José Arcadio Buendía, after a group migration, reside in a place called Macondo. Building a house in Macondo, location of story limits to Úrsula's house and then to Macondo. Márquez, mingling reality and illusion, tries to narrate painful history of Latin America metaphorically.

Touba and Meaning of Night, written by the renowned Iranian writer Shahrnush Parsipur, narrates different stages of a family's life, parallel to the history of developments from the pre-constitutionalism to the 1979 revolution in Iran. Novel's heroine, Touba, is a woman for whom everyday life's routines and issues aren't enough so she searches for a new meaning regarding truth and life. This novel also spans around one hundred years from the life of a family and advocacy of modernity in Iran. It seems that *One Hundred Years of Solitude* has influenced *Touba and Meaning of Night* to some extent. This paper tries to study a representation of woman's image through a comparative approach in both novels.

Graham Allen explores the origin of the term "intertextuality" in the famous book of Ferdinand de Saussure, General Linguistics. According to what Saussure believes, Allen depicts that signs have lost their referential function. He believes that signs refer to a system of other signs than directly to the world. Saussure's semiotic system applies to all other systems; hence it works for the literary signs as well.

Literary authors are not merely choosing words from a language system; they select plots, genres, characters, imageries, narration techniques, and even phrases and sentences from both previous literary texts and literary tradition. In fact, literary author works with at least two systems: language system in general and literary system in particular. Signs within literary texts refer to other literary signs and not to the outside world. The effect of translating of the novel One Hundred Years of Solitude on Shahrnush Parsipur, the Iranian writer, can be studied from this perspective. In other words, for the Persian-language novelist, the translated novel is a text from which s/he can select plot, genres, characterizations, imageries, narration forms, and so on.

According to Roland Barthes, the only capability of the author is to mingle writings together and confront some with others in a way he never depends on any of them. Barthes believes that the author plays the role of the collector or beautician of the facilities already existing in the language (Allen, 2001: 22). In this paper an attempt is made to show how Parsipur, relying on the translated text and applying the characterization aspects, imageries and themes of Hundred Years of Solitude has managed to represent a female image in her own novel.

Since thematic readings are intertextual and the comparative thematic study is based on finding a common theme through several texts (Makaryk, 2004: 124), this paper tries to study the common themes of the two novels through a thematic and intertextual reading. To this end, the effects of the themes of the translated text of *One Hundred Years of Solitude* and *Tuba and the Meaning of the Night* will be explored; those effects will be analysed in depicting the image of the woman in Parsipur's novel as well.

Women as House Custodians

In these two novels, home is one of the inter-textual and common themes; apparently it is related to the representation of woman's image in both novels. Úrsula's home in Macondo is the location of different events in *One Hundred Years of Solitude*. She and her husband, José Arcadio Buendía built this home after a long trip. She knew that she wouldn't abandon this home for ever (Márquez, 1978: 21). Home's stability was dependent on Úrsula's existence. She watered flowers, expanded the house, added new rooms for her children, put home in order and protected it. Even, she was responsible for life expenses as her husband was entangled with his own scientific illusion and totally unaware of house chores.

Touba's house was her first marriage portion. Like Úrsula, she brought up her children by herself. Fereydoun Mirza, her husband was unaware of anything about children and home. It was Touba who dealt with garden and kitchen and she was the one responsible for family's expenditure. At the end of novel, Geda Ali Shaah, Tuba's Sufi master tells her,"Touba's role in life was to be a house custodian"(Parsipur, 2003: 380). According to Bashlar, home is a feminine symbol as it signifies a shelter, mother, protection and mother's breast (Chevalier and Gheerbrant, 2000: 66).

The door of Úrsula's house is always open for strangers. Melquíades the gypsy comes over to Úrsula's home and lives there. Úrsula especially hosts little children, bringing them up like her own children. She allows Rebeca, Arcadio (son of José Arcadio and Pilar Ternera) and Aureliano José (son of Colonel Aureliano Buendía and Pilar Ternera) from their childhood to stay in her home. In this way, some people seek shelter at Touba's home and she accepts them in spite of her own troubles. Aghaa Biyuk and his family take refuge at her home from Bolshevik attack. Touba's mad aunt also goes to Touba's home and lives there until her death. Little Ismail, his fourteen year old sister and their almost mad mother are the third refugee group; builder Mahmoud and his three little children are the forth group. After Mahmoud's death, his children become Touba's foster children.

At both homes, children growing up and playing with each other, gradually fall in love with each other. At Úrsula's home, Aureliano falls in love with Amaranta Úrsula, his childhood playmate, and in Touba's, Ismail and Munes fall in love with each other. When Úrsula feels her children have grown up and her daughters have become mature and beautiful, expands the house. "She ordered to build a drawing room for parties, a living room, compatible for everyday use, a dining room with a twelve-person table for all of family members and guests…" (Márquez, 1978: 54). Touba's home turned cheerful with the presence of children. When builder Mahmoud repaired Touba's home, they started having water in pipes and electricity; rooms turned white and "a new feeling had been discovered at home. Some kind of happiness was boiling from home's depth. The sound of children's laugh was scattered on the grey colour of home's texture and the perfume of light filled up the home's colour. A kind of spiritual rainbow floated at home (Parsipur, 2003: 319). At the end of novel, when children abandoned Touba, she thought if she had repaired the home, maybe they didn't go.

It can be said that happiness, vitality and largeness of home reflect spiritual power and affection of women- Úrsula and Touba; their love and grace leave the house open to the unprotected and orphans. On the other hand, destruction of home is due to woman's death (about Úrsula) or women's neglect (about Fernanda and Touba in the end of their life). In both novels, it is shown that how home falls in to ruin. In *One Hundred Years of Solitude*, "the house after the death of Úrsula was once again destroyed, and even the resolute determination of Amaranta Úrsula was not able to save it" (Márquez, 1978: 294). Fernanda drowned in her correspondence with the "invisible doctors" and her son, unaware of constant and cruel destruction of the house. Touba, busy with the spirit of Setare, was also unaware of the house getting destroyed.

In both novels, home is the location for dialogue among different world views. Bakhtin considers the novel as a prototype for the emergence and display of dialogue. He describes characters as representing an idea or worldview and dialogue between them as dialogue between worldviews (Bakhtin, 2008). After war, Colonel Aureliano Buendía talks to government officials from this house (Márquez, 1978: 150). In Macondo, gypsies and then foreigners go to this house first. Úrsula house is in fact a symbol of Colombia and Latin America. The same is true of the novel *Touba and the Meaning of Night*. Dialogue between Sheykh Mohammad Khiabani-advocate of modernity- and conservative Haj Mahmoud occurs at Touba's home (Parsipur, 2003: 34). Prince of the Qajar asks for Touba's hand in marriage in this house and Mirza Kazem, her constitutionalist suitor, brings newspaper for her and acquaints her with Iranian Constitutionalism in this house (ibid: 77). The hatred between Ismail (liberal intellectual) and Habib Allah (aristocratic conservative) is reinforced in this house. Thus, the Tuba House can be regarded as a symbol of the state of Iran from the

pre-constitutionalism to the 1979 revolution. In other words, in both novels, the home can be considered a metaphor of the homeland.

Touba, Úrsula and Fernanda

The characteristics of the protagonist of *Tuba and the Meaning of Night*, Tuba, can be regarded as a selection of characteristics of Ursula and Fernanda in *One Hundred Years of Solitude*. Most of all, Tuba can be called Ursula counterpart. Tuba and Ursula, the protagonists of the novels, are both mother of the family and the solidarity of the house depend on their existence. This common feature is described in the previous section

Ursula has come to such deep insights as to her children that the only thorough and exact grasp of the novel's characters can be comprehended through Ursula's thoughts. When old, she reviews her life in detail, "she realizes that Colonel Aureliano Buendia from the beginning has not loved anyone ... a man who simply could not love. A night when she is pregnant with him, hears him crying ... Now that she is old, she realizes that the baby's crying in her mother's womb is merely a definite sign of lack of love capacity "(Márquez, 1978: 217). When Mémé (daughter of Fernanda and Aurillantine II) falls in love with a mechanic's assistant, Ursula is the first one to notice her quiet grief and sadness though Ursula is old, sick and blind (Ibid 245). Ursula was surprised how Fernanda is ignorant of her own daughter's life. When Úrsula got old and disabled, Fernanda was the lady in charge of the house and her rules were run instead of Ursula's. At the time of her daughter's love affairs, Fernanda was busy writing letters to "invisible physicians", ignorant of her daughter's the problems.

In this way, Touba is similar to Fernanda. She is entangled with her own inner problems. Sometimes, she tried to connect to the spirit of Setare, and other times as soon as she stopped working at the carpet loom, started dreaming of meeting with majesty Geda Ali Shah (Parsipur, 2003: 127). So she never noticed the love between Ismail and Munes (her daughter), who lived in her home. When Munes, depressed and sad, got divorce from her first husband and came back home, Touba selfishly didn't want to admit her to her private realm (Ibid: 242). Touba dealt with Munes so reluctantly that she went to live in the basement of the house. Ismail and Munes got married secretly while Touba was still unaware of her daughter's situation.

In *One Hundred Years of Solitude*, Meme gets so involved with the mechanic's assistant that "even the dullest person could suspect it too" (Márquez, 1978: 245), but Fernanda does not notice it. When Fernanda finally realizes it, imprisons her daughter in her room. Eventually, after the mechanic assistant is killed, Fernanda sends her daughter to a monastery in her hometown by train and forever denies her (Ibid: 254). In the other novel, Touba didn't notice her daughter's pregnancy though living together in the same house. Munes having a miscarriage in the basement and suffering from a heavy loss of blood, Setare's spirit informs Touba to go to help Munes. After that, Munes becomes infertile, and Touba is delighted for that believing that is a true punishment for Munes and from then on humiliates Munes (Parsipur, 2003: 267). When Munes was caught in terrible nightmares and wished to sleep in her mother's room, Touba created a barrier between herself and Munes (Ibid: 269).

In *One Hundred Years of Solitude*, when Mauricio Babilonia, the mechanic's assistant, went to see Fernanda to talk about Meme, Fernanda immediately notices his poverty. "She didn't allow him to talk at all and even didn't let him enter the house. She said, go away from here! You aren't allowed to come over to respectable people's house." (Márquez, 1978: 246) although Touba had brought up Ismail herself and distinguished some virtues in him, believed Munes was too much for him (Parsipur, 2003: 267).

Fernanda and Touba have common sufferings in their life. Their husbands are unfaithful, cheating on them just after marriage (Ibid: 45) (Márquez, 1978: 180). Fernanda's husband keeps on betraying her so that finally she sends his things to his mistress's house, and practically stops living with him. From then on, she is satisfied just by letters from her children (Ibid: 224). Touba's husband is unfaithful too, but she is too busy with her own thoughts so that has no time nor mood to deal with his betrayals (Parsipur, 2003: 168). After suffering all the troubles, her husband, when old, marries a fourteen year old girl. Touba suddenly gets twenty years older (Ibid: 166). Hence, the terrible fact of having a fourteen year old co-wife sweeps away all thoughts from Touba's mind (Ibid: 170). She wants to kill the prince. Thousands of times, in her mind, she hits him by a knife, a dagger, a sword, and a knuckle knife (Ibid: 184). Finally, she divorces him, turning a widow for the second time.

Tuba and Fernaada were both religious and proud of having religious fathers. Fernanda always remarked that her father was a holly man, an honorable Christian… (Márquez, 1978: 276). Touba also considered her father as great as the world (Parsipur, 2003: 267). Touba's sarcastic language towards her irresponsible husband (Ibid: 122) and bombarding her brother-in-law with lots of words (Ibid: 172) remind us Fernanda's long nagging her ignorant husband (Márquez, 1978: 276, 277). Touba and Fernanda both had religious education and were superstitious as well. Touba considers the heavy seven day rain as a result of her own obstinacy (Parsipur, 2003: 59). She also thinks she has committed some sin so the famine is there (Ibid: 116). Úrsula is superstitious too, but her superstitions are different

from Fernanda's (and Touba's). Her superstitions originate from instant inspirations rather than tradition, and were defeated by Fernanda's superstitions inherited from her parents (Márquez, 1978: 186).

All these three women, in both novels, liked to grow up a religious child. Fernanda and Úrsula liked to turn José Arcadio to a priest. He was educated from childhood for such a career and eventually sent to a religious school (Ibid: 219). They wished him to become the Pope. Touba encouraged Karim, since he was five years old (Parsipur, 2003: 337) and regarded him as the gift of God (Ibid: 338) and wished that Karim would once be the greatest preacher in the city.

Conclusion

According to Allen, Reading the novels and their thematic similarities through the concept of intertextuality, this paper depicted how Parsipur, based on the characterization, imageries and themes of *One Hundred Years of Solitude*, portrays the image of Touba as the female protagonist in *Touba and the Meaning of Night*. It can be said that representation of Touba's image is under the influence of the characterization of Úrsula and Fernanda, female characters in *One Hundred Years of Solitude*. The influence of Úrsula on Touba is noticeable reading both novels; both women are "house Custodians", home's stability is dependent on their existence. They are the only ones responsible for family's problems. They host strangers and especially helpless children. But Touba, at end of her life, like Fernanda, drowned in her mental world, turns ignorant of the home and her daughter's situation. Touba deals with her cruelly and selfishly. Home is one of the inter-textual and common themes in both novels and in other words, home can be considered a metaphor for the homeland. Touba, like Fernanda, trained based on religion since childhood, is proud of her religious father and gets involved with unpredictable and unfaithful husband. All three women, in both novels, wish to grow up a religious child.

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Pragmatic Analysis: Gratitude Speech Act among Azerbaijani Turkish (Azeri) Speakers Based on Gender

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Abstract

This study aimed to fulfill the common gratitude strategies in Tabriz, Azerbaijani Turkish (Azeri) language. Although numerous scholars have delved into pragmatic realm namely speech acts considering diverse cultures and languages, the investigation on thanking strategies in Turkish (Azeri) language has not been done yet. To achieve this aim, a Discourse Completion Task (DCT) which introduced true life situations was applied. The participants of this study were 78 students, enrolling in differing programs and levels in a university in Tabriz City. The students were both male and female, aging from 19 to 41 years old. The results of the study indicated that 'Thanking' and 'Positive Feeling' were the most frequently used strategies among all respondents. However, there were significant differences between the overall male and female groups' use of strategies. In this regard, male Azeri speakers used 'Apology', 'Recognition of Imposition', and 'Others' more than female speakers. On the other hand; female speakers employed 'Appreciation, 'Positive feeling', 'Repayment', and 'Thanking' more than their counterparts.

Keywords: pragmatic; gratitude; speech act; Azerbaijani Turkish (Azeri)

1. Introduction

When we converse we do actions, from "aspirating a consonant, to constructing a relative clause, to insulting a guest, to starting a war. These are all, pre-theoretically, speech acts – acts done in the process of speaking" (Sadock, 2004; Schmidt &Richards, 1980). Bac & Harnish (1979) contend that by uttering a sentence someone has a 'certain intention' and the communication act becomes successful if the intention to be distinguished by the listener. Speech acts actualization may be indicated by diverse methods, indirect and/or direct (Searle, 1975). A speech act as ubiquitous as expressing thanks is one example (Hinkel, 1992, p.3). Sadock (2004) illustrates this with a salient example; when we thank a guest by saying, "Oh I love chocolates" the speaker's intention in making the utterance and a recognition by the addressee of that intention under the conditions of utterance clearly plays an important role. Speaker means more than he/she actually utters (Leech, 1990). Or saying, "Thank you for bringing it" which both utterances could be realized as expression of gratitude. In the latter, however, "there is a direct relationship between form and function" (Cutting, 2008, p.17). According to McCullough et.al. (2001) approximately in all cultures and through larger part of human memoir, gratitude "has been treated as both a normal and normative aspect of personality and social life. Gratitude is a highly prized human disposition in Christian, Jewish, Muslim, Buddhist, and Hindu thought" (p.249). Searle (1975) classified the thanking paradigm in the group of expressive illocutionary acts. Emmons (2004) defines gratitude as "a sense of thankfulness and joy in response to receiving a gift, whether the gift be a tangible benefit from a specific other or a moment of peaceful bliss evoked by natural beauty'' (p. 554). "In various context gratitude can refer to an emotional state, an emotional expression, a character trait, or even a virtue (p.13), gratitude clearly promotes prosocial action tendencies" (Watkins, 2014, p.32). Kumar (2001) highlights the significance of expressions of gratitude in the following words:

"Expressions of gratitude in the normal day-to-day interactions between the members of a society seem obviously to fall in the category of the "social" use of language. Expressions of gratitude and politeness are a major instrument the use of which keeps the bonds between the members of a society well cemented and strong" (p.6). Coulmas (1981) similarly indicated that gratitude, could be remarked as a pragmatic universal, since all languages representing a wide range of prevalent semantic formulas to perform such an act. Thanking is a strategic device whose most important function is to balance politeness relations between interlocutors. It has been convincingly argued by Lakoff (1973) among others that politeness is a universal linguistic variable. As regards (apologies) and thanks, it seems to be a reasonable assumption that they exist as generic speech acts in every speech community. I would even go so far as to venture the hypothesis that every language provides a stock of conventionalized means for fulfilling these functions (Coulmas 1981, p.81). Nevertheless, the expression of 'thank you', based on researches, has been referred to other language functions rather than gratitude such as rejecting an offer (i.e., No, thank you or Thanks, I'm fine) (Rubin, 1983) or irritation (Eisenstein & Bodman, 1993) in the exchange:

A. That haircut doesn't do a thing for you,

B. Thanks a lot! You really know how to make me feel good!

Substantially, the expression of gratitude as a holistic concept may function cross culturally. 'Thank you' used in American English is more common as an expression of gratitude, as Eisenstein and Bodman (1993) submit that "expressing gratitude has important social value in American English (p.64). Greif and Gleason (1980) accentuate it as 'everyday politeness routine' and learning such 'routines' is part of the child's earliest training in communicative competence' (p.160). Conversely, Apte (1974) reports that in many south Asian languages saying 'thank you' often entails obligation not only for the speaker, but also for members of the speaker's kin. Eisenstein and Bodman (1993) assert that "this function, when appropriately expressed, can en gender feelings of warmth and solidarity among interlocutors" (p. 64). Coulmas (1981) puts it: "The social relation of the participants and the inherent properties of the object of gratitude work together to determine the degree of gratefulness that should be expressed in a given situation. Differences in this respect are obviously subject to cultural variation" (p.75). Thus, Jiang's (2000) metaphor effectively captures the nature of language and culture as a whole: "communication is like transportation: language is the vehicle and culture is the traffic light" (p. 329).

Eisenstein and Bodman (1993) state that "expressions of gratitude can range from simple, phatic utterances to lengthy communicative events mutually developed by both the giver and the recipient of a gift, favor, reward, or service. Most native speakers of English on a conscious level associate the expression of gratitude with the words "thank you"; however, they are unaware of the underlying complex rules and the mutuality needed for expressing gratitude in a manner satisfying to both the giver and recipient (p. 64).

Harder (1980) found that second language learners appear to have great difficulty expressing their emotional or psychological state (i.e., expressive speech acts), which results in the appearance of a "reduced personality" (p.268). Similarly, Eisenstein and Bodman (1993) pointed out that even advanced learners of English have considerable difficulty adequately expressing gratitude. They need information on the nature of what to say, the language used to express it, and the context in which it is needed (p.75). Accordingly, speech acts paradigm which Blum-Kulka, et.al (1989, p.1) coined "one of the most compelling notions in the study of language use" can carry social implications (Ervin-Tripp, 1976) while still being discrete points of contrast and contact between cultures and languages (Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989, cited in Tsutagawa, 2013), however numerous researches, focusing on differing speech acts in the light of the importance of cross-cultural and inter-cultural variations in diverse languages in Iran, had been done. In this study gratitude -which attained no attention in such a language as Turkish (Azeri) with diverse culture and norm - had been examined.

2. Method
2.1 *Research Questions and Hypothesis*
1. What are the common gratitude strategies used by male and female Azerbaijani Turkish (Azeri) speakers?
2. How do male and female Azerbaijani Turkish (Azeri) speakers differ in the expression of gratitude?

2.2*. Related Hypothesis*
❖ There is no meaningful difference between male and female Azerbaijani Turkish (Azeri) speakers in using gratitude strategies.

2.3. *Participants and procedures*
In the present study 78 university students enrolling in differing programs and levels in a university in Tabriz City (Iran), 35 males and 43 females, participated. All the respondents were native speakers of Azerbaijani Turkish (Azeri). The researchers in the study implemented a Discourse Completion Task, which was the adapted version of DCT based on Cheng (2005) and some other articles, consisted of 21 open-ended scenarios according to social status, familiarity and Imposition. It was designed in Persian and administered to the participants who responded to 21 differing true life situations. Furthermore, the collected data were coded in accordance with a coding system devised by Cheng (2005). Thus, to check the reliability, Cronbach's Alpha was measured which turned out to be 0.79 which was admitted.

3. Results
Data analysis in the present study revealed interesting findings as represented in the following tables. According to table 4.1, male Azeri speakers used apology (57.9 %), recognition of imposition (60.9%) and others (53.1 %) more than female speakers. On the other hand; female speakers employed appreciation (58.8 %), positive feeling (62.1 %), repayment (61.4%) and thanking (63.5 %) more than male speakers.

Table 4.1 *Frequencies, Percentages and Standardized Residuals of Gratitude Strategies by Gender*

		Thanking	Appreciation	Positive feelings	Apology	Recognition of imposition	Repayment	Others	Attention getters	Total
Male	N	342	21	159	73	28	61	86	64	834
	%	36.5%	41.2%	37.9%	57.9%	60.9%	38.6%	53.1%	47.8%	41.0%
	Std. Res	-2.2	.0	-1.0	3.0	2.1	-.5	2.4	1.2	
Female	N	595	30	261	53	18	97	76	70	1200
	%	63.5%	58.8%	62.1%	42.1%	39.1%	61.4%	46.9%	52.2%	59.0%
	Std. Res	1.8	.0	.8	-2.5	-1.8	.4	-2.0	-1.0	
Total	N	937	51	420	126	46	158	162	134	2034
	%	46.07%	2.51%	20.65%	6.19%	2.26%	7.77%	7.96%	6.59%	100.0%

The overall results indicated that thanking (46.07 %) was the most frequent gratitude strategy used. This was followed by positive feeling (20.65 %) and other strategies (7.96 %). The least frequently employed strategies were recognition of imposition (2.26 %) and appreciation (2.51 %). Figure 4.1 displays the overall percentages of the gratitude strategies.
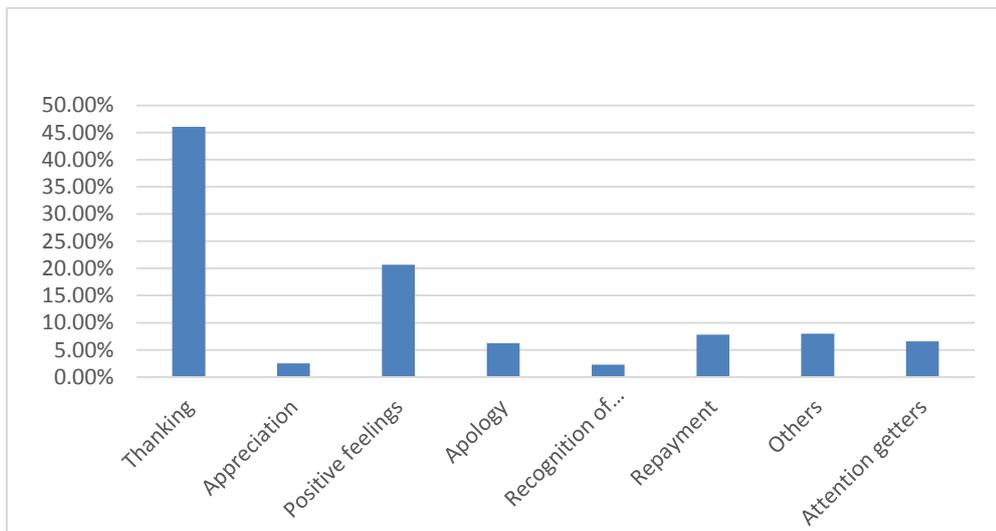

Figure 4.1, percentages of the gratitude strategies

An inspection of the std. residuals indicated that male Azeri speakers employed apology (57.9 %, std. residual = 3> 1.96), recognition of imposition (60.9 %, std. residual = 2.1 > 1.96) and other strategies (53.1 %, std. residual = 2.4 > 1.96) significantly more than female speakers. On the other hand; female

Azeri's did not use any strategy (Std. Residual < 1.96) significantly higher than the male speakers. The results also indicated that there were not any significant differences between the two groups' use of appreciation, apology, re-payment and attention getters. Std. residuals for the above mentioned strategies were lower than +/- 1.96; that is to say; the differences could have occurred by chance.

According to the results of analysis of chi-square (χ^2 (7) = 44.69, p < .05) in table 4.2, the frequencies observed in table 4.1 indicated significant differences between the two groups' uses of gratitude strategies. Thus the null-hypothesis

as "there were no significant differences between male and female Azeri speakers' use of gratitude strategies" was rejected.

Table 4.2, *Chi-Square Tests; Gratitude Strategies by Gender*

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	44.698[a]	7	.000
Likelihood Ratio	44.108	7	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	20.089	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	2034		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 18.86.

Table 4.3 displays the results of the Cramer's V and phi effect sizes. The significant results of Cramer's V (V = .148, p < .05) indicated that the results of the Chi-square test enjoyed a large effect size. Moreover, figure 4.2 displays the percentages of gratitude strategies by gender.

Table 4.3, *Cramer's V and Phi Effect Sizes; Gratitude Strategies by Gender*

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.148	.000
	Cramer's V	.148	.000
N of Valid Cases		2034	
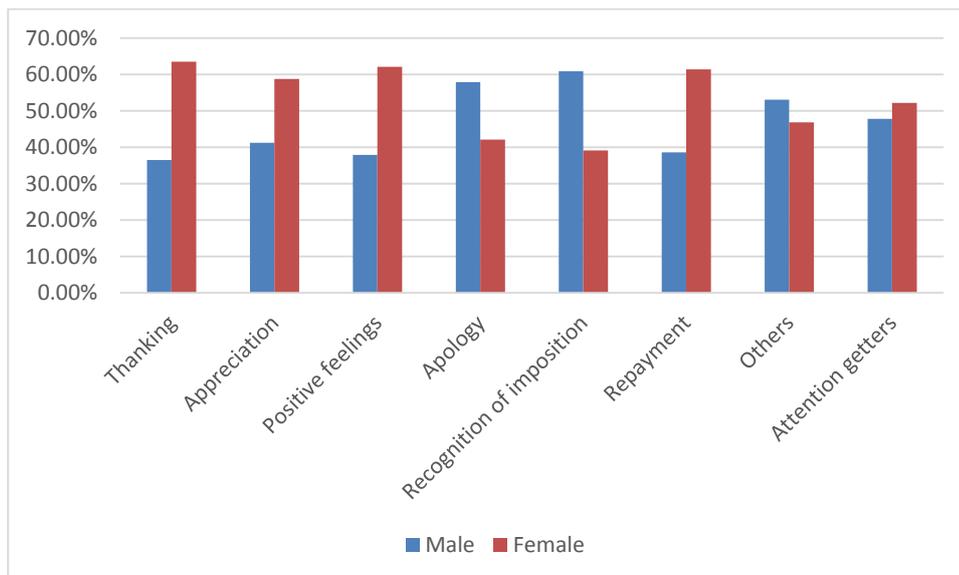
Figure 4.2, Percentages of gratitude strategies by gender

Conclusion

The present study attempted to interrogate gratitude strategies among Azeri university students in Tabriz city. Considering the first research question the results revealed that 'thanking' and 'positive feeling' were the most frequently popular used strategies in diverse situations among Azeri informants respectively. It seems that they may be inclined to show their gratefulness by employing the former strategy. And also employed the latter one to save the positive face in communication while expressing gratitude. Regarding the second research question related to gender though, there had been significant differences in the use of gratitude strategies between Azeri male and female informants. It is worth mentioning that gender as an independent variable has a significant impact on using gratitude strategies in Turkish (Azeri) community. Surprisingly, the findings indicated that male informants were inclined to express their gratitude using 'apology', 'recognition of imposition', 'others' and 'attention getters' strategies. On the other hand; female informants used 'thanking', 'appreciation', 'positive feeling', and 'repayment' strategies. According to Levant and Kopecky, (1995) men by expressing their sentiments, their masculinity may be threatened. The finding

are not in line with research by Yusefi et.al (2015), indicated that gender was not an effective factor in the use of gratitude strategies in Kurdish society in Iran.

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Issues in Applied Linguistics in Armenia

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Abstract

Applied Linguistics is a new emerging linguistic direction in Armenia. Of course, studies are being made in this field, but they are very controversial. In particular, it relates to the different understandings of the terminology of Applied Linguistics as well as to the diversity of studies. For example, as we know, in the beginning, Applied Linguistics has come as a sphere dealing with foreign language learning. Over time, Applied Linguistics has expanded its boundaries of application, turned into an interdisciplinary research field, and has started dealing with related issues. However, we should state that this process in Armenia has the opposite trajectory. Here, this field is first understood as a sphere dealing with IT and linguistic issues and, in very limited cases, as a foreign language teaching area. In this article, we try to clarify the limits of understanding and application of Applied Linguistics term and concept within Armenian linguists. We have developed questionnaires and surveys among professionals. Based on the surveys, we also highlighted problems in different areas of Applied Linguistics and outlined the ways in which they were implemented.

Keywords: Applied Linguistics, Terminology, Interdisciplinary Research, Armenian linguistics, Language Teaching

Intoduction

Linguistics, like other fields of science, is intended to satisfy some of the society's needs (learning, practicing, studying, etc.). The subject of linguistic study is human language. As we know, human knowledge is primarily manifested through language, and logical and psychological phenomena get their material expression in the language. That is to say, that the needs of the society are not only practical: if the development of science at first was intended to satisfy the needs of the society, gradually theoretical interests were also emerging. Therefore, the primary task of linguists is to satisfy these needs.

It should be noted, however, that there are different perceptions of language in every stage of development, which act as linguistic streams and concepts. When linguists examine the nature, origin, development, and use of language, they come from existing perceptions or put forward their own perceptions, which, however, differ in different stages of linguistic development. In the second half of the 20th century, with the influence of external and internal factors, and in the 21st century, one-sided study of language was overcome. Linguists begin to realize that linguistics can achieve great success if achievements in one direction will be applied by representatives of the other direction. The newest period of linguistic history was characterized by the emergence of new disciplines and research fields. On the one hand, the basic and related disciplines emerged, on the other hand, began to define the theoretical and applied linguistic study areas, increased the role of metatheory and metalinguistics, which also made important achievements in one area the achievements of others. And so, new trends emerged in linguistics, and at the same time, the first attempts of classification of linguistics were made (Sargsyan M. A., 2017).

At present, linguistics is freely interacts with other sciences. Hence, it can be assumed that immanent linguistics turns into an interdisciplinary, anthropological linguistics. Martin Haspelmath (Professor of Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology after Max Planck in Leipzig), referring to the development of linguistics, emphasizes that linguistics is becoming increasingly quantitative (Haspelmath M., 2014).

Quantitative approach is becoming more and more dominant in language research. Corpus linguistics begins to play a central role in linguistic research as well as increases the role of experimental research in both grammar and pragmatism. Language typology also becomes more quantitative, and the use of complex statistics becomes important (Balthasar B., 2015).

As for linguistic new directions, it should be noted that the new definition is, of course, conditional. The theory is new for as long as it is not widely used and does not have followers. Thus, such directions as *political linguistics, cultural linguistics, applied linguistics, ethnolinguistics, cognitive linguistics, gender linguistics, pragmatism* are new conditionally. On the one hand, these have already had a stable place in scientific research, and on the other hand, they have not yet become traditional. Linguists have disagreements in defining these linguistic trends. Thus, it is difficult to determine these are science, direction, section, interdisciplinary field, theory or concept. It should be noted that all these definitions are equally applied in linguistic literature, and these applications are not net clear and distinct.

Material and methods

As we know, the term "Applied Linguistics" first came officially at the University of Michigan in 1946. Initially, applied linguistics was understood as a field dealing with foreign language teaching, the methodology of teaching English to foreigners. In the late 1950s and early 1960s, the use of the term gradually expanded including a field such as "automatic translation". Soon, the *International Association of Applied Linguistics*, which is usually called in French abbreviation, AILA, was formed. In that period the study of applied linguistics included two main areas: foreign language teaching and automatic translation (Tucker G. R., 2019).

Today, applied linguistics has a broad scope. The International Association of Applied Linguistics, AILA, notes: "as a means to help solve specific problems in society…applied linguistics focuses on the numerous and complex areas in society in which language plays a role" (AILA Vademecum, 1992). In other words, it is not difficult to notice that the field of applied linguistics is attributed both to language teaching issues and the use of information technology in linguistics and to the study of language issues. However, we should state that this process in Armenia has the opposite trajectory. Here, this field is first understood as a sphere dealing with IT and linguistic issues and, in very limited cases, as a foreign language teaching area.

Thus, the first studies in the field of applied linguistics in Armenia relate to the beginning of the 21st century. Initially they were either theoretical or informative. The gradual transition to practical problems and research was also accomplished. In the Armenian language literature of applied linguistics, the following fields are considered: automatic text processing, linguistic provision of information systems, machine translation, automated learning systems, linguistic problems of artificial intelligence, linguistic support of sound recognition and generating systems. Regarding the issue of language learning area, it should be noted that similar work is now being done. However, it refers to English as a foreign and as a second language. These works are mainly viewed as methodological works, not in the field of applied linguistics. Additionally, Armenian is widely taught as a foreign language, but there is no study, any manual, methodological guide that will present the problems and methods of teaching Armenian as a second language. To find out the scope of the applied linguistics study, as well as the perception of the specialists, we made questionnaires, organize inquiries. In this article, we try to clarify the limits of understanding and application of applied linguistics term and concept within Armenian linguists. We have developed questionnaires and surveys among professionals. Based on the surveys, we also highlighted problems in different areas of applied linguistics and outlined the ways in which they were implemented.

50 specialists from various scientific and educational institutions of Armenia participated in the survey. The respondents are linguists, aged 30-60. Some of them teach applied linguistics in higher education institutions.

Research results

The first two questions in the questionnaire are as follows: *What is the application linguistics* and *what is its subject?* With these questions, we try to find out what does it mean when speaking of applied linguistics, whether people comprehend it in narrow and broader meanings. The overwhelming majority of possible answers were as follows: applied linguistics is a field dealing with language use, as well as a new interdisciplinary approach that linguists link to information technology. Only 10% of respondents said that applied linguistics deals with language teaching, but noted that it only applies English language: English as a foreign language and English as a second language.

The next question was trying to figure out the *areas that applied linguistics is included*. It was noteworthy that none of the respondents included the following areas: language for special purposes, language policy and planning, language and literacy issues, language contact (language & culture), translation and interpretation. More than 50% of respondents mentioned the following answers: language and technology, language use.

To the question, "*What is the relationship between applied linguistics and other language related disciplines*?" almost 90% of the respondents said that applied linguistics is related to the field of information technology.

We presented the collected data in the form of tables and subjugated the group. Then, by the mathematical statistics method, the assembled material was evaluated, and as a result, we made some generalizations. It should be noted, however, that these data are not yet adequate for a full understanding. We compared these data with the results of studies in the field of applied linguistics. After all, it is only possible to present a full picture of the current state of the applied linguistics in Armenia, its problems and trends.

Conclusions

Let's sum up the following:

- The interest in the sphere of applied linguistics has appeared in the 20th century, in Armenia at the beginning of the 21st century.

- Initial studies in the field of applied linguistics were related to language learning issues, in Armenia is the opposite. Initial studies were related to the joint use of language and technology, gradually shifting to language learning issues.

- Language learning issues are considered in all languages, and only English language teaching studies are examined in the field of applied linguistics in Armenia. Sometimes there are also references to other languages. As for examining the Armenian language as a foreign language, there is no reference to it.

- There is no clear methodology to distinguish the levels of knowledge of Armenian language. As we know, in accordance with an internationally accepted standard, three general levels of language proficiency are separated: A, B, C. Knowledge of Armenian language is not separated by these criteria. Even if conditionally try to separate, it would be a little wrong, since grammar of Armenian differs from other languages and it is necessary to develop proper standards of Armenian grammar, vocabulary, and clearly define what level of linguistic knowledge is needed.

- In Armenia, there is still no clear link between applied linguistics and other areas, such as psychology, anthropology, and sociolinguistics.

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Situation and Text: Representation of Migrants Whilst the Escalation of Refugee Crisis in Great Britain as Compared to Russia

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Abstract

Increasing migration is a vital concern for a globalizing sociocultural environment in today's world. The UK and developed European countries have become an attractive destination for asylum seekers (labelled as "migrants") in the past decade. The rapid rise in the number of asylum seekers, which was labelled "migration crisis" (Ruz 2015), made this topic an integral part of scientific discussion on sociocultural environment. There are different factors underlying the perception of migrants by local population. The given study is devoted to the review of the usage of different linguistic means and its strategies by mass media whilst the escalation of refugee crisis in Great Britain as compared to Russia. We implement situational approach to the non-fiction factual texts, in particular, texts representing a concrete (actual) situation. Today due to the development of neural network technology we can easily define thematic structure of the text, specify the central lexis, the near peripheral lexis and the far peripheral lexis and reveal implicit information. The data of British National Corpus and Russian National Corpus is analyzed using text mining software- TextAnalyst 2.01. The relationships and patterns among key words and their associations are cluster-analyzed and contextual interpretation of semantic core is provided. Associative structures enable us to define the lexical experience of its speakers (White&Abrams 2004) while the analysis of associative network helps to study public opinion on different social issues (File, Keczer, Vancsó et al. 2018). The data for the text mine is gathered from the website Ruscorpora.ru (data set 1) and British National Corpus (data set 2). The thematic network depicts the structure of the text and the most pertinent information in the data. The semantic network constructs a list of topics and their semantic weights. It is a tree structure of the concepts of the text and identifies the relationships in the text. Just like in data set 1 public attitudes in data set 2 towards refugees and migrants are complex. Representation of migrants and hence public opinion are complicated by predisposition to favor those using legal means to enter a country with national culture, traditional customs, laws and ability to speak the language of the host country being the key factor in integrating migrants.

Keywords: Text mining, media discourse, representation of migrants

Introduction

Increasing migration is a vital concern for a globalizing sociocultural environment in today's world. The UK and developed European countries have become an attractive destination for asylum seekers (labelled as "migrants") in the past decade. The rapid rise in the number of asylum seekers, which was labelled "migration crisis" [Ruz 2015], made this topic an integral part of scientific discussion on sociocultural environment. According to the Times "in the past 12 years Britain has changed significantly. European Union citizens have grown as a share of the total population from 2 per cent to 6.3 per cent" (Quality, not quantity, is the big issue when talking about migration, the Times, 2016).

The "change demanded explanation" and it was mass media that the politicians used to build public opinion. Mass media is a mediator between politicians and people [Шейгал 2000; Schaffner, Bassnett 2009], and it provides a means for public perceptions manipulation by presenting events, issues and people in different ways. [Bleich et al 2015, Blakar 1987]. Wodak suggests that mass media uses various discursive practices of "inclusion and exclusion" while representing different groups of people [Delanty G., Wodak R., Jones P., p. 54]. Wodak lays out the most widespread topoi when it comes to migrants: "they are a burden on our society", "they are dangerous, a threat", "they cost too much", "their culture is too different" and so on.

There are different factors underlying the perception of migrants by local population. As follows from a recent study including 15 European countries, they are: humanitarian concerns, anti-Muslim sentiments, economic reasoning [Bansak et al., 2016]. With negative stories on migration being amplified by British mass media, the criminalization of asylum seekers resulted in terms confusion: the denotata "migrant", "asylum seeker", "refugee", "immigrant" standing for the significatum "newcomer". According to the report prepared for the United Nations High Commission for Refugees (Press Coverage of the Refugee and Migrant Crisis in the EU: A Content Analysis of Five European Countries, 2015) the press coverage in the UK is the most negative and they employ the term "migrant" whereas in Germany and Sweden they use the words "refugee" and "asylum seekers". These terms stress the tenor of the countries'

position. As it was pointed out in the article «UK is the most aggressive in reporting on Europe's 'migrant' crisis» originally being neutral the concept "migrant" has recently acquired negative connotation.

The umbrella term migrant is no longer fit for purpose when it comes to describing the horror unfolding in the Mediterranean. It has evolved from its dictionary definitions into a tool that dehumanises and distances, a blunt pejorative.

As an opposition to negative perception solidarity movements have emerged. The problem of the dehumanization of the language of migrant crisis or "hate-speech" has become acute.

It also calls for industry wide and in-house training on migration issues and problems of hate-speech; improved links with migrant and refugee groups; and more employment of journalists from ethnic minority communities to strengthen diversity in newsrooms. The Guardian (17.12.2015)

Negative representation of migrants by Western mass media implicitly impacts public opinion of people in Russia. The Russians negatively assess not only the European refugee crisis but also the migration in their own country.

It should be pointed out that the problem in Russia echoes the one of Great Britain. According to The Federal State Statistics Service of the Russian Federation there are 3 200 000 migrants out of the total number of population of 12 506 468 in Russia. They also state that Russia ranks highest in the number of Muslim people in European cities in quantity. At the moment there are 1,7 mln Muslim people in Moscow whereas, for example, in London – 1,1. Another feature of the given issue is the quality of migration, which used to contribute to cultural exchange and now Moscow serves as a transit hub for migrants who come there to earn some money and then leave. [Колокол России, 2018].

Data for study and methods

The given study is devoted to the review of the usage of different linguistic means and its strategies whilst the escalation of refugee crisis in Great Britain as compared to Russia. We implement situational approach to the non-fiction factual texts, in particular, texts representing a concrete (actual) situation. In the given study we will be sticking to Glazkov interpretation of the term "factual text", i.e. "the type of text based on real or probable situation" [Glazkov 2016]. Situations are represented by facts: "Situations present, at different levels of specification, the information that we handle, and they offer us the necessary feedback for building valid conceptions of the outer world as a basis for valid predictions about what will happen and what will be the outcome of our own behaviors" [Magnusson]. Following Berelson assumptions viewing content-analysis as "a research technique for the objective, systematic and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication", we can reveal the conceptual structure; identify propaganda strokes, used by mass media; reveal the intentions of communication parties; discover the interests, values and attitudes of different groups of people and public institutions (and, on a wider scale, set of beliefs and world models).

The data of British National Corpus and Russian National Corpus will be analyzed using text mining software-TextAnalyst 2.01. The relationships and patterns among key words and their associations will be cluster-analyzed and contextual interpretation of semantic core will be provided. Associative structures help to define the lexical experience of its speakers [White&Abrams 2004] whilst the analysis of associative network can help to study public opinion on different social issues [File, Keczer, Vancsó et al. 2018]. Today due to the development of neural network technology we can easily define thematic structure of the text, specify the central lexis, the near peripheral lexis and the far peripheral lexis [Hofmann1999, Kharlamov, Le 2017]. The text-minig software we use, TextAnalyst 2.01, simplifies the process of semantic analysis providing us with semantic network, which is a list of topics and their semantic weights. It enables to identify the concepts of the text, their relationships and study the given data-set at different semantic layers. Association search is a useful tool for extrapolating implicit information.

Results

The data for the text mine was gathered from the website Ruscorpora.ru (data set1). This website contains a corpus of the modern Russian language incorporating over 300 million words. The corpus of Russian is a reference system based on a collection of Russian texts in electronic form. We carried out the search on newspapers only within a period of most frequent use of the word "migrant"- 2013-14 years (see figure1).
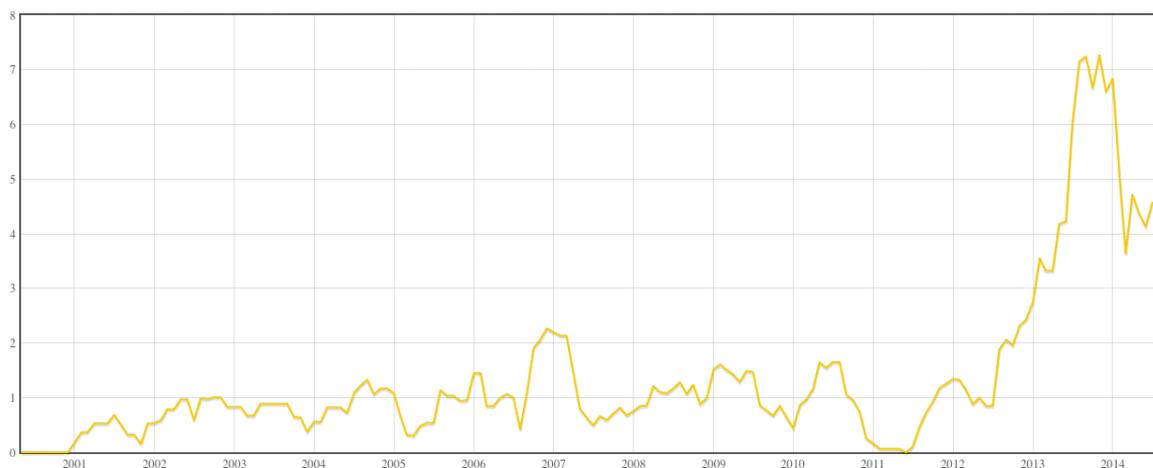
Figure 1: yearly instances per million words. www.ruscorpora.ru

The thematic network depicts the structure of the text and the most pertinent information in the data, producing a heirarchy of themes and subthemes and corresponds to semantic network nodes:
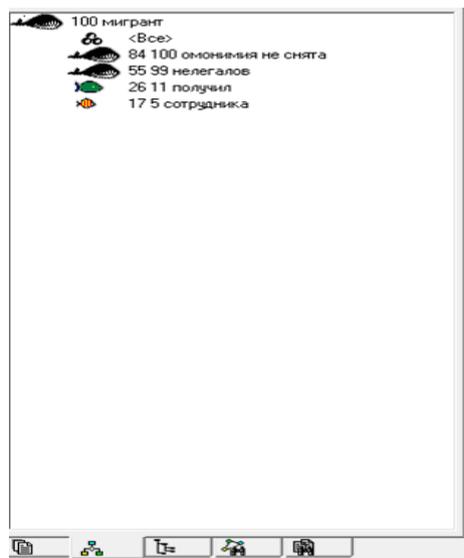

figure 2: thematic network

The semantic network constructs a list of topics and their semantic weights. It is a tree structure of the concepts of the text and identifies the relationships in the text. Each concept is preceded by a pair of numbers. The first set of numbers is the semantic relationship between the parent and the concept, the second is a semantic weight of the concept. For example, the term "нелегал" has a semantic weight of 99 and it shares a semantic relationship with "мигрант" with a strength of 55 (see figure3).
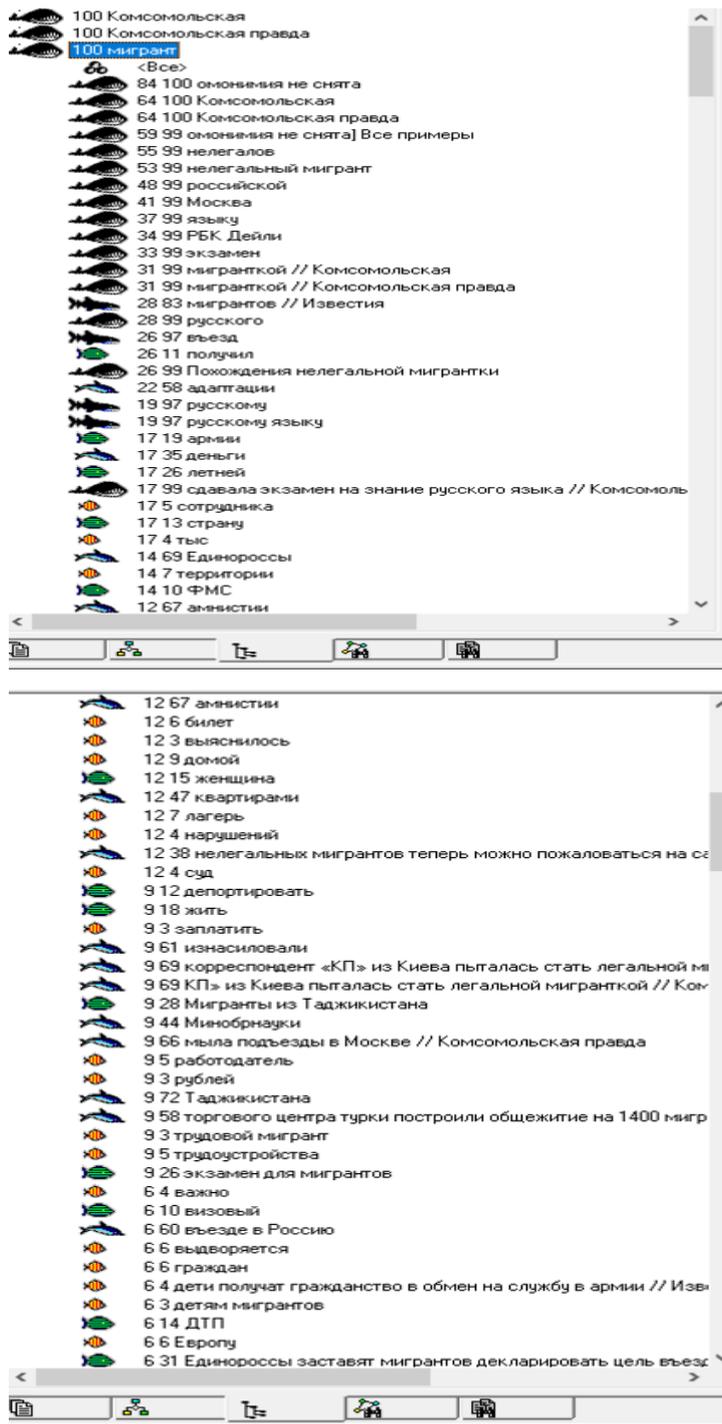
Figure 3: semantic network

It is obvious that initially being neutral different direct nominations of the term 'migrant' in the analyzed texts acquire negative connotation due to the way they are represented by mass media. The adjectives in attributive position define the nature of the term ("нелегальный мигрант").

The study of lexical associations enables us to analyze implicit information. Migrants are represented as illegal without any knowledge of the Russian language and culture. They are subjected to a large number of discursive means, using practices of differentiation between us and them and drawing analogies with the refugee crisis in Europe. The most largely used othering practice is the representation of migrants as foreign culture-bearers.
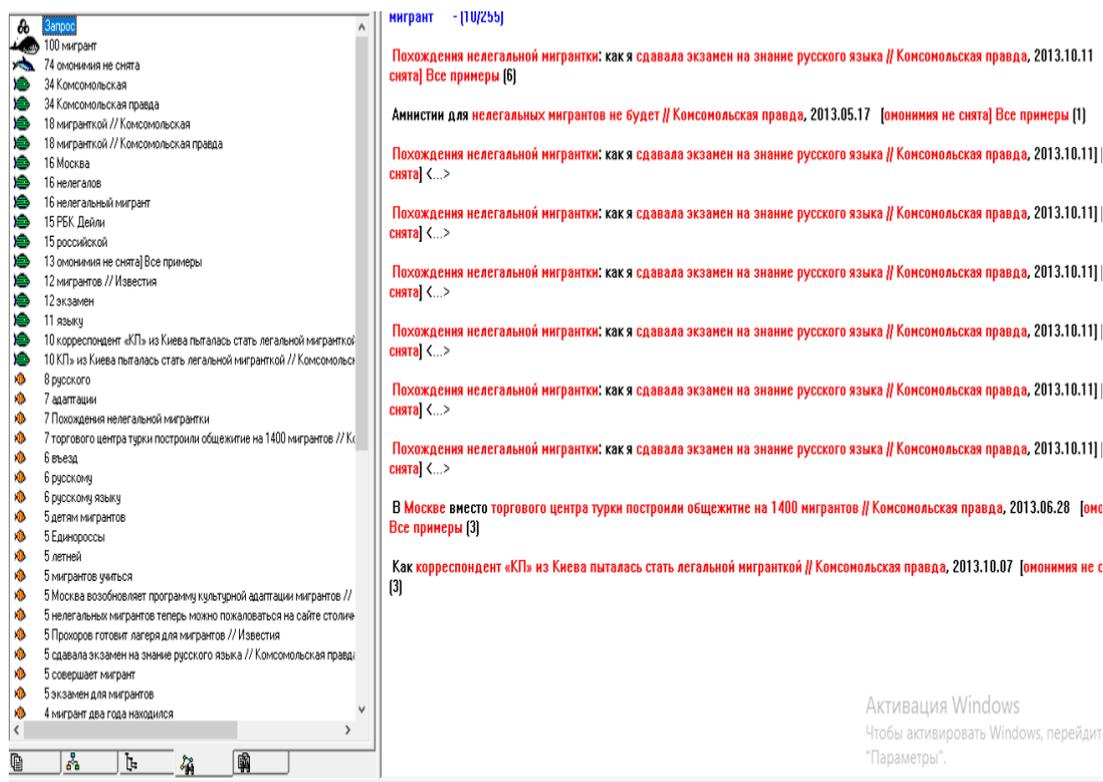
figure 4: association search

There are 2 major topoi which can be identified:

- crime rate increase

Запретив детям мигрантов учиться в наших школах, не создадим ли мы уличные банды маргиналов?

Нелегальный мигрант снимал квартиру во втором доме по улице Чехова у 53-летней местной жительницы Ольги Мартыновой.

Достичь гармонии нелегальный мигрант решился в среду, приметив в первых лучах солнца гибкое тело 36-летней жительницы Строгинского бульвара Марии М. Молодая женщина регулярно бегала по утрам купаться в лесопарковую зону "Строгинской поймы", что напротив 18-го дома по улице Твардовского.

Маньяком оказался 25-летний нелегальный мигрант из Таджикистана Зарипов.

- another language

В Москве нелегальный мигрант без знания русского языка занимался частным извозом на иномарке довольно сомнительного происхождения.

Инициатива Минобрнауки: Чтобы жить в России, мигрант должен знать минимум 850 слов по-русски // Комсомольская правда, 2013.03.13

The same method was applied while analyzing the 2d data-set- British National Corpus. The data for the text mine was gathered from the website www.english-corpora.org. The NOW corpus (News on the Web) contains 7.6 billion words of data from web-based newspapers and magazines from 2010 to the present time. We studied the NOW corpus of 2015 since it is the time when the numbers of migrants coming to Europe rose dramatically (see figure 5).

Number of asylum seekers in Europe surges to record 1.3 million in 2015

Annual number of asylum applications received by EU-28 countries, Norway and Switzerland, 1985 to 2015

Note: "Europe" consists of the EU-28, Norway and Switzerland. Asylum seeker definitions varied by European country prior to 2008. Numbers for asylum applications since 2008 are based on first-time applicants and do not include appeals or transfer of applications between countries. See methodology for more details. Data on asylum applications is missing for some countries in some years. See Appendix A for list of countries with missing data. All countries that are part of the EU today are included in previous years' data even though several were not part of the European Union in earlier years. Rounded to nearest thousand.

Source: Pew Research Center analysis of Eurostat data, accessed June 22, 2016.

"Number of Refugees to Europe Surges to Record 1.3 Million in 2015"
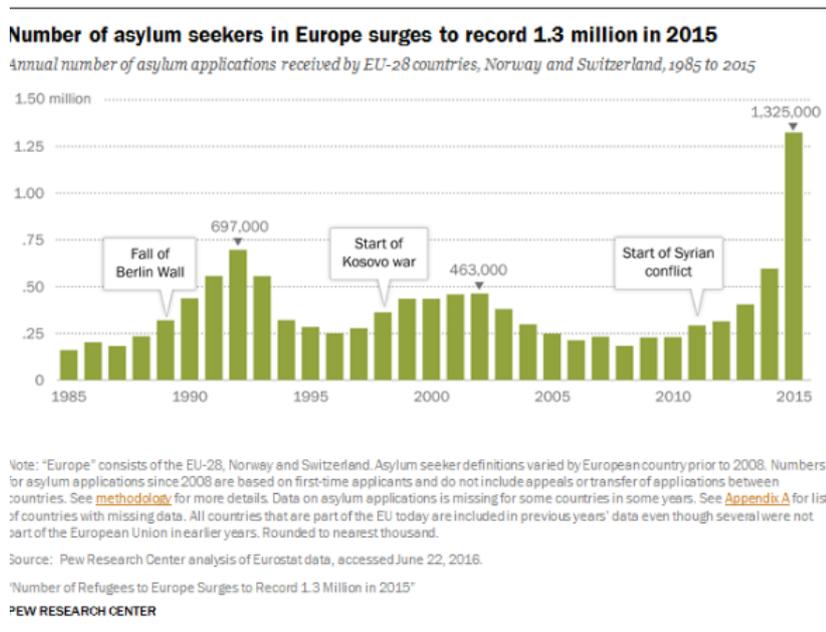
PEW RESEARCH CENTER

Figure 5: number of migrants in Europe. Pew research center

The analysis expectedly revealed that the information hierarchy in the given data has a single parent: "migrant". The nominations "migrant", "refugee", "number of migrants", "migrant crisis", "illegal migrant", "migrant workers", "economic migrants", "million migrants" have maximum semantic weight. The nominations: "arrive", "cross", "rescue", "African", "undocumented", "European", "Muslim" have maximum semantic relationship weight for the term "migrant". So the central lexis of semantic field "migrant" comprises direct nominations (*migrants, immigrants, refugees, asylum seekers, migration, migrate, move, resettle, relocate, displacement*), which are stylistically neutral. The near peripheral lexis and the far peripheral lexis have some connotation and reveal the nature of the parent word (resettled… *under a new government scheme*, *sexual harassment* by young refugees, *barefoot* toddlers in *filthy* clothes).

There is a wide number of issues covered, such as the Mediterranean migration crisis, the economy, employment, housing, healthcare, illegality, migrant detention, deportation, border security, EU free movement. Still the most important is the number of migrants entering the UK. The scale of migration to the UK is presented as a justification for a crackdown on the phenomenon while the impact of migration on society is not so widely discussed (Victims&Villains. Migrant voices in the British media, Crawley H. et al, 2016).

Tony Blair's decision to throw open the doors early to Poland and the other eastern European accession countries 11 years ago brought some of the best and brightest to our shores. But the latest wave is less impressive: waitresses who cannot read the menu and drivers doing the minimum hours to get tax credits. Britain is now a country looking for the emergency brake. (Britain and Europe must slam the brakes on mass immigration. The Sunday Times, 8th March 2015)

Migrants are depicted as a threat to national security and employment: the most common collocates are "migrant workers", "migrant worker", "migrant crisis", "illegal migrants". However, there is some support for compassion towards refugees: there are nominations with less semantic weight found, such as "vulnerable persons", "the global dispossessed", "the world's dispossessed".

Just like in data set 1 public attitudes in data set 2 towards refugees and migrants are complex. The authors of the given texts choose the facts to be associated with the concept "migrant" and their choice depends on the way they intend to present the situation. Although the actual information is in focus, the situation cannot be devoid of situation-type.

Representation of migrants and hence public opinion are complicated by predisposition to favor those using legal means to enter a country. Public show clear concerns about "illegal migrants", i.e. illegal entries. [Blinder et al., 2011; Duffy et al., 2014]. Another key factor in integrating migrants is national culture, traditional customs, laws and ability to speak the language of the host country. As Spring 2016 Global Attitudes Survey suggests "being able to speak our national language" is the main criterion for national identity and successful integration.
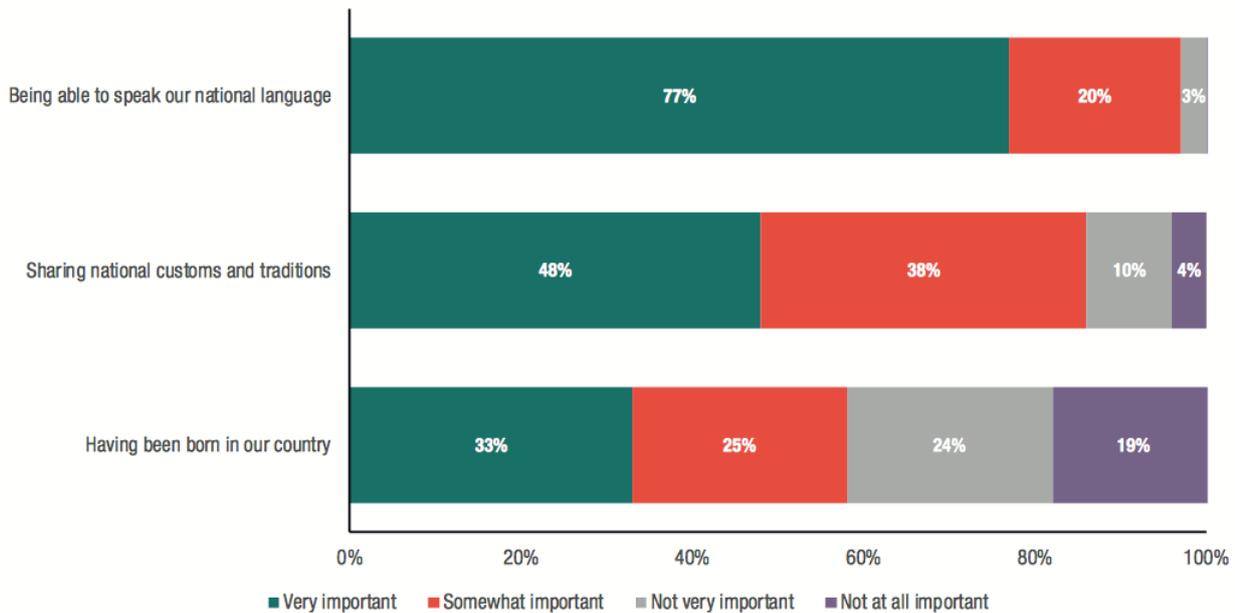
Source: Spring 2016 Global Attitudes Survey Q85e-d, cited in Wike et al., 2016.

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Complex Diagnostic Test as a Resource for Correcting the Individual Educational Roadmap for Migrants' Children on the Example of the Russian General-Education School

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Abstract

Relevance of the topic is connected with a phenomenon of the 21st century – multilingualism (based on bilingualism of migrants), which, in the context of globalization, is inextricably linked to each ethnicity's quest for self-identification and self-representation. We regard bilingualism as a complex linguocultural and ethnolinguocultural phenomenon that is not restricted to being able to speak two languages at a certain level, as well as manifestation of a complex communicative competence (self-, social, ethnic, intercultural, linguistic, and media competences) of a bi- and polylingual person during real communication. The complex diagnostic test, which has been carried out since 2008 (Elabuga Institute of Kazan Federal University, International Network Laboratory "Innovative Technologies in Polycultural Education") was aimed at not only determining whether the 3-14-year-old children of migrants and refugees are ready to obtain systemic education and develop themselves in the ethnolinguocultural environment of the host country (on the example of Russian-speaking children and teenagers outside the Russian Federation and children of migrant workers from Central Asian in Russia), but also at identifying the ways of correcting the educational roadmap of each child considering the anamneses of their bi- and polylingualism (multilingualism), family situation and educational standards of the host society. Based on the test conducted in the Russian Federation, it is possible to come to the following conclusions: 23% of the respondents (who completed 60% or more of communicative tasks) are ready to learn in Russian; 34% (less than 60% of the total mark for 3-4 types of speech activity) of respondents are not ready to learn in Russian; 43% of respondents need to correct individual (mostly functional letter-writing) types of speech activity. Teachers, while performing their educational activities, need to understand the language systems and cultures of students and take into account the peculiarities of how these students become immersed in communication oral and written in Russian. In addition, it is necessary to perform systematic work aimed at real integration of migrant children into the Russian-speaking community, but "with a return ticket" (the opportunity to return to their parents' historical homeland) and with a development perspective, i.e. self-actualization of a student in other areas of activity and other social status than their parents.

Keywords: Language acquisition, bilingualism, multilingualism, ethno-linguistic culture, complex diagnostic test for bilingual children, bilingual education, education in Russian Federation, speech activity, migrants and refugees children, migration in Russian Federation.

Introduction

The relevance of the topic is associated with the phenomenon of the XXI century – multilingualism (based on bilingualism), which is inseparable from the striving of every ethnic group for self-identification and self-presentation in the context of globalization process as well as with the understanding of the need to maintain and develop in children of emigrants, labor migrants and refugees of the ethno-linguistic culture of the outcome country. So, future generations of migrants have to get an internal root connection with their historical homeland and the possibility of re-emigration, freedom of choice of the country of residence (founded on the implementation of extra-linguistic components of the bi- and multilingualism (Leikin, 2012)). The purpose of education of migrant children, migrants and refugees is not only learning Russian as a foreign language in the Russian Federation or acquisition of Russian as second language, but also the support of ethno-linguistic cultures of their families, establishment of educational content based on immersion approach (see the CLIL system), immersion in communication in Russian as the status language of the country of residence, taking into account the need for dialogue of ethno-linguistic cultures.

Introduction. Definition of bilingualism

The simplest definition of bilingualism is so: this is the "knowing" of two languages. But, such a definition, as emphasized by J. Hamers and M. Blanc (Hamers, Blanc 2000), raises a number of questions: they, in particular, do not take into account the variability of the phenomenon of bilingualism, different ways of "becoming" bilingual person and

ignore its extra-linguistic aspect (cultural, in particular). Therefore, it is necessary to speak about a complex multidimensional study of bilingualism.

Bilingualism is a complex phenomenon that is influenced by many factors. In particular, S. Pokrivčáková describes the main factors that influences on the bilingualism development: the age which each of the languages is acquired at, the time of "being" in one or another language environment, communicative successes and achievements in the acquisition of each of the languages, the way the language is acquired (Pokrivčáková 2013). In the work of T. Tokuhama (Tokuhama 2009), sex and gender of the bilingual person, the influence of the nearest social environment, motivation to learn a language, language abilities (as T. Tokuhama writes, "linguistic talent" (Tokuhama 2009)), the strategy of learning of each language, support of the language community when learning each language, the possibility of using each of the languages in communication are described as factors of influence. There is also an impact of language contacts and historical-linguistic relationship of languages on bilingualism.

Manifestation of self-competence and social competence in relationship with the linguistic competence in the composition of the communicative competence of natural bilingual person.

A few words should be said about how we this paper understands and understands the phenomenon of natural bilingualism with ethnolinguistic-cultural points of view (a multidimensional aspect of the study of bilingualism is considered in the cited work of J. Hamers and M. Blanc (Hamers Blanc 2000)). Since it is obvious that language is closely connected with culture, and culture even influences the language system, it is necessary to comprehensively consider the phenomenon of bilingualism, both at the language level and at the extra-linguistic (cultural, ethnic, social, psychological) levels. The foundation idea of the communicative competence is representation of the person as a holistic complex of substantial and instrumental competencies as part of unit competence field core of a person.

That maturity of all the components of communicative competence (self-competence and ethno-competence as a "core of identity", social competence and intercultural competence as mobilizers in a multicultural community and a linguistic competence and media competence as tools) is the basis of their ability to successful non-violent integration. Thus, it is necessary to take into account all the components of communicative competence in relatively equal proportions, when we test (it is considered complex diagnostic test) natural bilinguals. It is necessary to take into account the age (ontogenesis) characteristics of their manifestation of the tested persons too.

So, the history of natural bilingual, relatively balanced in the history of its development, is considered by us as a bi-national or international personality who is (agitating and reacting) in two ethno-linguistic cultures with their conceptual field and the corresponding verbal and visual manifestations. The task of teachers and parents of natural bilinguals is to create optimal ethno-linguistic and cultural conditions (immersion that aim is education in action and communication in action, considering ethno-linguistic and cultural contexts) for the development relatively balanced natural bilingualism in all its diversity. The task of our testing is mainly practice-oriented, but it can give materials and for theoretical research. We verify readiness to get educated the children from other cultures (preferably non-Slavic cultures) in Russian ethno-linguistic cultural environment and the effect on the success of the process integration factors such as the presence and level of balance in all the components of communicative competence in each of their ethno-linguistic cultures: the presence of national-Russian or Russian-national natural bilingualism and the level of its formation which is revealed during complex diagnostic testing.

Even-aged children are in the actual educational environment in the same school classes. That is the age-related, rather than the competence principle of distribution into general education classes. Due to this reason the tested persons with a practice-oriented ethno- linguistic cultural dominant in the competence structure got various ethno-linguistic cultural combinations with different history and different level of natural bilingualism formation and balance. There are no homogeneous monocultural groups or groups that are equal to the history of multiculturalism in the modern education. It must be taken into account when conducting diagnostic tests that aim is to create and adjust the individual educational routes of real students.

Based on the results of complex diagnostic testing, we propose the creation of full-scale practical recommendations for teachers of secondary schools with similar students. Their aim is to help them in the successful ethno-linguistic and cultural integration into both educational and broad social space, considering the "points of growth" and "points of expertise" of both students and the teaching staff of schools.

Accordingly, a sample test (testing all the children of migrant workers who are in a few elementary schools in the city of Ekaterinburg) is determined not only by science needs (statistics- and highly specialized disciplines-oriented), but the practical needs and the actual conditions of the Russian education system. Testing has been done on the basis of the application of complex diagnostic tests for bilinguals of 3-14 years old (Martínková, Kudrjavceva, 2016); (Salimova, Koudrjavtseva, 2017) which manual has been published by Publishing House of the Elabuga Institute of Kazan Federal University (Russian Federation) and International Network Laboratory "Innovative Technologies in the Multicultural Education".

From the experience of testing and working with Russian-speaking labor migrants, emigrants and refugees in the EU on the example of Germany.

Balanced level of bi- and multilingualism defines "grade" of self-identification and "depth" of bi- and polylinguality in each language correlating to each ethnolinguistic culture which they represent. At the same time, the language is only a kind of "thermometer", demonstrating the state (level of development) of the communicative competence of the person in this communicative situation (Ibrahim et all 2013).

If we take into account that the communicative competence includes 5 key components (self-competence, social competence, ethnic and intercultural competences, linguistic competence and media competence), it can be assumed that the choice of language of communication is based on the possibility/impossibility and level of implementation of each of these competencies in the languages available for bilinguals and polylinguals. "Switching codes" in the communication process of bi- u and polylinguals is determined not primarily linguistic factors, but extra-linguistic indicators, some of which could be found in the biographic history of the family and the child. Our task is to find out exactly what the parameters of individual development, the situation of communication, family biography (Schwartz 2010), etc. are fundamental when choosing a language of communication (moreover, by "language" we understand both verbal and non-verbal behavioral characteristics) (Kudryavtseva, Korin 2012, 66-78).

So far, researchers have paid attention to the following aspects that facilitate or hinder the establishment and development of a balanced bi- and multilingualism and define the freedom to choose the language of communication, language preference of natural bi- and polylinguals: age at the time of the formation of bilingualism, mixed culture or monoculture of the family, language of communication in the family, education of a child in the family language, language of the country of residence (LCR), does a child have an adult or children's social circle of this language's speakers, communication situation (comfort, is this situation typical or not, etc.). Moreover, non-Russian-speaking scholars pay attention to purely linguistic factors, while their Russian-speaking colleagues, regardless of the country of their permanent residence, also take into account different socio-cultural and psychological-pedagogical components. Common elements are underlined everywhere: family communication languages, the intensity of communication in each of a child's languages in the family, the wish to be understood, communication situation (Salimova, Koudrjavtseva 2017).

New approach to the issue of switching the ethnolinguistic-cultural (and not only linguistic) codes is proposed by us. It is based on a complex socio-linguistic-ethno-psycho-cultural analysis of the personality of a bilingual person of 3–14 years old (age indicators, ontogenesis as a starting point). About 200 children and adolescents have been tested in our research field. We were done with them (with parental consent) out multi-level work to identify their level of communicative competence (self-, social, intercultural, media and linguistic components), with study of a dominant on their ethno-cultural and linguistic preferences.

Our research was based on the analysis of already existing ways of evaluating the state of linguistic-cultural development of bilinguals: scanning methods, profile analysis, tests, observation sheets and survey questionnaires for parents and teachers. A sample of measuring tools for evaluating the levels of linguistic and cultural development of preschool and elementary school students is given in: (Mazunova, Kudryavtseva, Danilova, Martinkova 2016, 38-42).

Methods of this research

Today, the parents and teachers use observation and questionnaires most intensively, since it is often not possible to carry out formalized testing. Observations of the individual process of the child's physical, mental and speech development are documented (for example, on the pages of the calendar-portfolio of a bilingual, in the section "Portfolio of communications"). Considering that the development of children (especially, bilinguals) and the procedures for measuring it are defined as external factors (time spent in emigration, parental status, communication situation, etc.) (Schwartz 2009, 2010), and internal factors (physiological, psychological, psychosomatic, etc.), these methods should be used systemically.

We developed the **"Road Map Bilingual" (RMB),** as a result of the studies of the prototypes which have been described above. This diagnostic and developmental system consist of three parts: 1) questionnaire for parents and teachers combined automatically into a single electronic RMB, 2) tests diagnosing the presence of natural bilingualism and its level of balance, including bilingual complexity analysis sheets with certain ethno-linguistic combinations (Russian-German, Russian-Kazakh, and etc.), 3) interactive **"Calendar-portfolio of preschooler-bilingual" and "Competence field of personality"** for all levels of school, university and post-graduate education and self-education.

Let us briefly discuss the first two components of this system. The RMB takes into account the specificity of the age and mental development of the natural bilingual, as well as the role of the ethno-cultural and biographical (both family and child biographies) component. *The questionnaires* combine the information of the Child *Observation* Sheet and information about the activity approach to the self-diagnosis of the family and the teacher of the pre-school or

elementary school. The RMB was successfully tested in 2011-2014 in Germany, Italy, Kazakhstan, Russia and other countries (more than 300 tested persons).

The second component of the system is **tests** for the formation of communicative competence of greatest interest for us in connection with the theme of this article. They allow objectifying and comparing the observations and conclusions of parents and teachers, recorded in the RMB, with the results of testing the bilingual itself. Testing of children and adolescents is carried out taking into account age groups (ontogenesis of age, main problems and main topics of age) and a specific ethno-linguistic-cultural combination. Testing of tests began in 2011, the introduction and use continues to the present time at the Bilingual Testing Centers of Elabuga Institute of Kazan Federal University (Russian Federation), in Germany, Austria, Korea, Kazakhstan, Spain, Greece, the Czech Republic and others (more than 1500 tested ones).

The purpose of our proposed system RMB is optimization of psycho-pedagogical support of bilingual children and adolescents (usually migrants or refugees) in educational institutions in view of the history of migration, family situation and personal development of the child. The RMB system is designed to solve the following tasks: 1) to involve families in active participation in the educational process by informing parents about the role of the family in the development of the bi- and multilingualism; 2) to draw the attention of teachers, social workers, and parents to the peculiarities of bilingual child development and the importance of the interaction of family, society and educational institution for their support or correction; 3) to study the dynamics of the formation and development of bi- and multilingualism in connection with the dynamics of the overall age development of the child as well as with the characteristics of the ethno-linguistic and cultural environment; 4) to study the causes and mechanisms of child's de-bilingualization or, on the contrary, the formation of a balanced bi- and multilingualism; 5) to observe the interaction of languages and cultures in the child's environment (in the family, educational institution) and their impact on the ethnic and linguistic and cultural self-determination of the child.

Competence- and student-centered analysis of the responses of our target audience was carried out different ways according to age, place of residence, region of the country and other respondents' outcome parameters. These tests included a number of questions that indirectly and directly consider the topic of choosing the language of communication. In addition, the entire test was based on the need to choose a language and the corresponding ethnic culture. That is, not only the immediate responses of children were taken into account, but also the whole data on their actual communicative behavior in the testing process.

Part of the questions of complete diagnostic testing is aimed at finding out the amount of vocabulary tested by key age topics. In this case, the test person is given the right to switch codes (switching to another language if vocabulary in Russian is not enough). To this end, there is a tester assistant on the oral part of the test who speaks in another, non-Russian language that is being tested as a mother tongue. The tests exist both in Russian, taking into account the ethno-linguistic culture of Russia, and on other language of the person being tested as well as with considering the ethno-linguistic culture of the country of his/her outcome. This allows us to determine the level of speech development and the overall development of children and adolescents, registering the compensatory nature that is obligatory for them and allowing them to choose the language (ethno-linguistic culture) of actions and reactions.

The choice of language is also determined by the speaker's tendency to be understood by all those people around him or only by the immediate interlocutor(s) who is the part of his social, ethnic, etc. group. In this case, a pidgin-like form of a language mixing elements from several languages is used in the jargon function quite often. However, according to our observations, children from families with low social status often use such forms of communication (low levels of education in family history, parents and the environment do not speak any of the communication languages sufficiently/above level B1).

The process of practice-oriented testing of bilinguals in Ekaterinburg and the discussion of its results

As part of the pilot project 61 school children from a school in Yekaterinburg aged 8-12 years were interviewed, incl. 22 schoolchildren of 8 years old, 8 schoolchildren of 9 years old, 20 schoolchildren of 10 years old, 8 schoolchildren of 11 years old, 3 schoolchildren of 12 years old. In total, over 300 pupils in the city's elementary school took part in the testing project in May 2019. Of these, 10% were born in Russia, 15% arrived at the preschool age, and the rest came straight to the beginning of classes in elementary school and later. The minimum readiness for training in the Russian secondary school was diagnosed in 23%, the rest are not ready. Next, we consider only the results of the pilot project.

The students themselves decided to accomplish or not accomplish the tasks (voluntariness of testing was an important parameter for assessing the level of complexity of the test tasks for specific students with probable subsequent in-depth interview about the causes of complexity that sometimes were lying in the field of psychology and sociology).

For the survey, the materials of the complex diagnostic tests were used, which correspond exactly to the "passport" age of the test subjects, which made it possible to solve problems:

• to ascertain the relative conformity of the overall development of migrant students and with migration in the history of a family to the level of general development of their age-mates born and permanently residing in the Russian Federation;

• to ascertain the level of development of the language and speech of the respondents (including the volume of vocabulary and experience of using it in real communication);

• to identify the quality of the ethno-linguistic cultural input in Russian and other language received by students in the family and in an educational institution;

• to ascertain the impact of individual components of a history of bilingualism on the development of bi- or mono- or multilingualism of students (role of the family, the role of the school, the role of the surrounding community of the Russian Federation) and to draw conclusions on the need for specialized training of teachers, social workers, psychologists and targeted work with parents pupils taking into account the ethno-linguistic cultural component of each of these communities listed here.

The conclusions that allow us to make the obtained empirical data relate to four aspects of the problem of bilingual education in a contemporary Russian comprehensive school:

• readiness of schoolchildren with a migration history to study in non-native Russian language in the Russian Federation;

• the level of balance of bilingualism and the extra-linguistic potential of a bilingual personality, which results from this point (for more details, see the work of (Chernigovskaya, Balonov, Deglin 1983));

• the readiness of teachers to carry out pedagogical activity in classes that unite native speakers of the Russian language and children whom Russian is non-native for;

• the readiness of teachers, psychologists, social workers for active preventive (proactive) interaction with families, whose personal history or family history includes a fact of migration (so-called "diasporas").

The ethnic composition of the tested children in the pilot project (that confirms our findings on the multiculturalism of the social environment) is so: Kyrgyz – 19 people, Tajiks – 18 people, Azerbaijanis – 6 people, Armenians – 7 people, Uzbeks – 5 people; Kumyks, Kurds, Pamirs, and Ukrainians – 1 person each (nationality was recorded according to the words of students themselves). Of those surveyed, 33 were born in Russia (54%), 7 people lived in Russia for more than 5 years (11%), 14 people lived in Russia for 3-4 years (14%), 7 people (11%) came to Russia less than 2 years ago. There is no direct relationship between the length of stay in Russia and the level of proficiency in Russian.

Five respondents report that they speak only their native language at home (Tajik or Kyrgyz), the absolute majority in the family use two languages of communication (native and Russian) in a more or less balanced way (the level of balance and following of the parents the rule "1 person – 1 ethno-linguistic culture" depends on the educational history of parents and their social status, social circle and level of knowledge of each language resulting from this directly). There are cases when parents use their native language in communication with each other (they speak Kumyk or Kurdish, the child does not understand the parents), and they speak Russian with their daughter. The parents do not perhaps recognize that thereby they exclude her from the family context. It may have influence on her self-identification regarding the culture and traditions of the family and the country of the parents' origin, intra-family and intra-diaspora relationships in the future. One of the respondents indicates that they speak 3 languages: Tajik, Uzbek and Russian in the family. It can draw a conclusion from the child's responses that those languages are mixed: there is interference at all levels of the system. A possible reason is a low social status and a minimum educational history of the family of market workers.

The survey includes the subtests "Speaking", "Reading", "Writing", "Listening". We present only selected and most representative (according to our goal-setting) results of the test as illustrations to the testing process and inferences made from it in connection with the limited volume of the article.

Practice-oriented conclusions from the test results

Relatively balanced bilingualism was formed in 5 respondents from families with higher social status and level of education of parents (8%). Bilingualism of 7 respondents approaches balance (11%). These students need to correct only one type of speech activity (usually writing).

Most of the respondents are in a situation of gradual attrition of their native language: communication in the native language is focused on everyday topics, the children do not make progress with the help of family ethno-linguistic culture and the family language.

10% of respondents represent the situation of so-called semilingualism: not only the field of the native language usage is extremely narrowed, but the knowledge of the Russian language is on the elementary level, i.e., students cannot fully study in non-native Russian and they cannot make progress with the help of a new language.

Three respondents (5%) are nurtured as monolinguals: their parents speak exclusively Russian with the children, keeping their native languages for communication in adult society.

The children's answers indicate that the ethnic component of the new language and the new linguistic culture is formed insufficiently: the respondents do not know the meaning of phraseological units, proverbs and sayings, heroes of Russian and Soviet cartoons, the respondents cannot say the name the favorite hero of the preferable fairy tale and cartoon, they have difficulties in saying the home address to the tester, writing the letter text, etc. The lack of formation of the ethnic component of the respondents' language, the isolation of the language which they are taught in from cultural and ethno-cultural reality testifies to a global misunderstanding.

Teachers are advised to keep current the ethnic-cultural meanings of the material under study (not only linguistic meanings), to work towards acquiring the key codes of Russian culture by students as the basis of cross-cultural communication in the territory of the Russian Federation.

23% of respondents **get ready to learn in Russian**. 34% of respondents **are not ready to learn in Russian because they got less than 60% of the total number of points for 3-4 types of speech activity**. 43% of respondents got the next results: **individual types (1-2 types) of speech activity need to be corrected**. Teachers need in their work to rely on the reading and speaking of the students themselves (reproductive activity as the basis of productive one, aimed at the awareness and appropriation of experience information). It needs to make progress in listening and correct the writing gradually.

Most respondents find it difficult to perceive learning information by ear. In this case, teachers should speak slowly, articulating distinctly, using short, accurate in meaning and thoughtful phrases-instructions. It is recommended to duplicate the wording of tasks in writing form. It is recommended too to use the visual line commenting on the teacher's tasks by the selected materials with illustrations or illustrations of the studied materials. Simultaneous visual and auditory presentation of tasks etc., i.e. voicing the written text will be helpful to the progresses of a complex reading and listening.

The non-formed reading and listening leads to educational information miss. In this case, students do not act following the instructions, and focus on a subject area or on issue of a text. They act according to the learned rules of behavior and modes of action: in response to any question they write: the main idea of this text is.... 100% of the answers concerning TV programs contain errors that indicate that students have not acquired various types of reading: viewing reading, selective reading, searching reading, critical reading, and there is lack of work experience with non-school subject text. Consequently, teachers can be recommended to expand the range of texts that are read and discussed in the classroom materials on the basis of actual child communication. It can be used children's magazines, children's TV programs, and content for children on the Internet. This stuff could be helpful to improve media competence and to accumulate and to acquire the important content needs for socialization.

All respondents need to improve the writing activity. We have inspected the slow speed of writing of 8 years old-students in the process of answering questions of subtest ""Reading" and "Listening". Then, we were forced to reduce the number of tasks on the subtest "Writing". We include in it only the name, surname and home address.

We surveyed that the tested children do not consider language as a system. There are some isolated, learned by heart, but not acquired elements. They cause the children to mistakes: for example, there are some mistakes in derivation in connection with the lexical meaning of the word. Here is an example of that mistake: *«если я во дворе, то я дворянка; в Германии – германка»* (in Russian). The child forms the word with meaning 'female person, inhabitant of Germany' as *германка* (it should be in Russian *немка* correctly). The child uses the Russian word *дворянка* in meaning 'a female person who stands in a yard' that is lexically incorrect: the word *дворянка* means 'a noblewoman' in standard Russian.

Duration of residence in Russian Federation and the level of acquisition of Russian are not directly related. Not only children who have recently arrived in Russia, but also those who have born here do not speak Russian at a basic level.

Teachers are also advised to be more attentive to their own speech. They have to articulate the flexions of adjectives and participles actively, designate the boundaries of sentences and structural parts of sentences by intonation, speak at an optimal pace, carefully articulating and using short, structurally transparent phrases instructions. It can help children understanding the teacher and improving their receptive skills.

Many respondents are not familiar with the test survey form, so they rewrite tasks and answers simply instead of writing the corresponding numbers and letters (35% of respondents of 11 years old).

Our children live today, in most cases, not in the system dialogue of ethno-linguistic cultures, but in ethno-linguistic cultural chaos. Their parents cannot systematize it due to their insufficient education and lack of a temporary resource, as well as an understanding of the need for such systematization. The teachers do not systematize, because they do not have information about the methodology of it and the need for such systematization, also they have lack of

information about the ethno-linguistic cultures of the students. All groups involved in the diagnosis test, differ. The difference is in the heterogeneity of the age, social and ethno-cultural composition, resulting from this various levels of general developmental growth of students and their motivation to implement the educational process. There are different levels of proficiency of students in Russian/uneven proficiency in students of various types of speech activity in Russian. It depends on the peculiarities of the linguistic personality of children (monolinguals, bilinguals and children with semi-language study) and on degree of adaptation to the sociocultural realities of the country of permanent residence. There is the relation with the proficiency in the ethno-cultural component of both languages too. The work of the teacher becomes more complicated due to this reason. Today, the main pedagogical task is to create conditions for students to acquire not only the language of instruction (Russian as non-native language, other native language), but also the ethno-linguistic culture as the basis for the process of successful cross-cultural communication and integration into the surrounding diaspora and indigenous community. And therefore, it is necessary to involve in the educational process all the resources available to the indigenous people of the country, and to build this process as based on the activities and needs of children who are non-native speakers. It presupposes self-education of the teacher, teacher's capture of the methods and technologies of teaching Russian as foreign language, Russian as non-native language, blended learning and the formation of teacher's pedagogical knowledge base for working with multi-level multicultural classes, including non-native speakers.

The teachers are like a "beacons" for other children in the educational institution, because they show how to interact with foreign speakers in relation to families with a migration history, as well as for parents of indigenous students. Due to this reason the systematic work is needed. The aim of that should be real integration of non-native speakers into the community, integration with, metaphorically called, "a return ticket": an opportunity for the non-native speaker child to return to the parents' historic homeland. This integration should get developmental growth perspective: self-realization of students in other areas of activity and other social status in comparison with parents. It is important to form the positive attitude to non-native speakers as potentially successful students, and not as unsuccessful students who get worse the educational parameters of school with their educational history.

The school's position on parents of non-native speakers-students is equally important: they need maintenance, consulting, accompanying their integration, taking into account the peculiarities of their social status and ethno-linguistic culture of their outcome country, with understanding their traditions and norms (!) and respect with them. In this case, the considered results of the Complex Diagnostic Tests can become and often become a positive focus on the future progresses and successes of a bilingual personality.

Interest in the results of the complex, not only linguistic testing of bi- and multilinguals both in the world and in the Russian Federation has caused by the movement for the preservation, maintenance, spread and revitalization of minority languages. The political situation, migration process (difficulties with acceptance of documents in the different countries) and educational concepts (competency approach) influence on this interest., The extra-linguistic advantages of bilingualism (creativity, variability of decisions, the ability to switch the points of view, communication openness, etc.) demonstrated by children who have passed complex diagnostic testing and are relatively balanced bilinguals are excellent proof that quality of input is important. The correspondence of the immersion languages (immersion approach) to the native languages and the culture of the real social environment of the child has importance too. This conclusion is the key to the success of the maintenance of a multicultural and multilingual world community.

Practical application of test results
Our data can be used not only in the practical field of pedagogics. It may also use for coordinating academic research in the field of cultural, linguistic and historical interaction of the peoples of Russia and other countries of the world, as well as developing joint research programs to study some ethno-linguistic cultural phenomena. For example, the Russian Germans and other National-Russian bi - and multilingualism phenomena have been studied (Salimova, Koudrjavtseva 2017), (Martinkova, Danilova, Salimova, Kudryavtseva 2015, 325-329). We have developed recommendations for practicing teachers (Koudrjavtseva, Volkova 2014) and a whole package of innovative materials (Kudryavtseva. Chibisova, Martinkova., Kulkova 2018). They consist of the above-mentioned complex tests, portfolio of a bilingual person, game technologies and didactic materials as applications to the text, etc. It allows, for example, practicing the mechanism for switching verbal and non-verbal codes, increasing the level of intercultural communicative competence, etc., taking into account the linguistic-cultural dominant. In particular, we have identified the importance of such moments in the educational process. We describe the next important points in practice work with bilinguals shortly:

• to attract parents and centers of supplementary education for active participation in the continuity of the educational process in the language of the country of origin and in the evolvement of the bi- and multilingualism (so-called "triangle of mutual integrational preservation");

- to inspect the formation and evolvement of the bi- and multilingualism and to measure competencies in each of ethno-linguistic cultures not only in connection with levels of TORFL, and in connection with the dynamics of the overall age development of a child, considering the peculiarities of its ethno-linguistic-cultural and socio-cultural environment;

- to maintain the process of life-long education instead of "traditional" learning in Russian in the country of residence of a child, with regard to the specific features of the country context;

- to pay an attention (parental, methodological, research one) consistently to the language of the ancestors, the historical roots of bilingual children that contributes to the revival of their historical and cultural memory, tolerance, elaboration of the "globally minded person" who is in demand in the 21st century.

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Syntactic Synonymy and Antonymy as a Means of Describing a Landscape (on the Material of English Fiction)

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Abstract

The article reveals the problem of the existence of syntactical synonyms and antonyms which in traditional linguistics are lexical categories. The study of these phenomena at the level of syntax puts forward a sentence as its basic unit, which should meet the same requirements as a lexeme: to have the same structural type, a similar semantic meaning and a possibility of complete or partial interchangeability. The hypothesis of the study is the assumption that if the transformation of a sentence structure, the values of the original and the resulting statements are identical the sentences are syntactically synonymous, and if the values are opposite, then the sentences are syntactic antonyms. To confirm the hypothesis, the theoretical basis of the sentence features, the types of word order and the levels of relations between the sentences in English were studied. Based on the above, the subject of the study was defined: it is a syntactic synonymy as a type of relationship between sentences based on the similarity of syntactic structures (structural homonymy) or identity of informative denotation and distinction of stylistic connotations (pragmatic and syntactic synonymy) and a syntactic antonymy as a type of relationship between sentences based on the opposite syntactic structures (structural opposition) or meaning (pragmatic and syntactic antonymy). This article mostly focuses on the similarity or the opposition of syntactic constructions of sentences, as they reflect the main characteristics of the phenomena under study. The theory presented in the article is illustrated by the examples from English language fiction, which confirm synonymous and antonymic relations at the level of syntax.

Keywords: syntactic level; word order; synonyms; antonyms; structural opposition; structural identity; norm; deviation.

1. Introduction

Synonyms and antonyms are linguistically universal categories that are mainly inherent in the lexical level of a language. This ability of vocabulary is due to the semantic potential, which has the meaning of words and affix elements. In linguistics there are cases of synonymy at the levels of vocabulary, phraseology, word formation and grammar of various languages. Lexical meaning in works of linguists is understood as a realization of concepts, emotions or relations by language means, due to the presence of core meaning - the denotation and additional shades of meaning - connotations in the semantic structure of a word (Ilyish B. A., 1971). Respectively, it can be asserted that synonyms are based on the coincidence of words denotation, and differences in connotations indicate the ability (or inability) of words (and sometimes morpheme) to interchangeability and refer synonymous to this or that functional style. Thus, the core of synonymous relations is meaning, although the elements that enter into the relations are words and morphemes.

The traditional concept of synonymy and antonymy puts the word and its meaning in the center of the research. The study of these phenomena at the syntactic level puts forward a sentence as the main unit of syntax and as an object of the study. But in order to assert that sentences can act as elements of synonymous or antonymic relations, it is necessary to have a traditional understanding of these phenomena and to investigate their nature.

2. Materials and methods

As noted above synonymy and antonymy are characteristic mainly of a word, therefore to prove that a syntactic unit is able to act as an object of the study of these phenomena, it is necessary to draw an analogy between the structure of a lexeme and a sentence (Table No. 1). Such analogy should affect phonetic, lexical and grammatical structures of the compared language elements. It is necessary to pay special attention to the specifics of the grammatical structure, since in our opinion it is, that contains the main proof of the existence of synonymy and antonymy at the level of syntax.

The morphological core of a word is a root, which contains its basic meaning: other morphemes introduce either additional lexical and stylistic changes or perform the function of grammatical transformers. Therefore, the root meaning of words plays the most important role in the formation of synonymous and antonymic bonds. The subject and the predicate are the core of the sentence, then the secondary members of the sentence may be some kind of "syntactic affixes" that add additional information to the statement.

Transformations in the phonetic-graphical structure of a word lead to its complete change: it is impossible to predict the result of such a change because of the unlimited potential of the vocabulary in a language. On the contrary the structure of the sentence is limited, and therefore possible options for transforming the core of the sentence are also limited. In lexemes combined into syntagmatic groups there are not only grammatical transformations but also reconsideration of the meaning. A sentence is not a mechanical set of meanings of individual words, it is a new unit with its own set of semantic quantities (Ivanova, I. P., Burlakova V. V.& Pochepcov G. G., 1981)

When considering the semantic potential of a sentence it is necessary to emphasize that a sentence can act as a minimal statement and has a certain meaning, i.e. information. Decontextual information is neutral and does not have any subjective-evaluative or emotional component. However it is known that a statement may contain the attitude of the speaker to the subject through the use of various stylistic means of the language. Given the above we propose to draw an analogy of the meaning structure of a word and a sentence and highlight such components as informative denotation and functional connotations of different types in the meaning structure of the sentence.

Table 1.
Matching the structure of a word and a sentence

Word	Sentence
Phonetic structure	
Phonemes / Word stress	Phonemes / Intonation
Semantic structure	
Dictionary meaning of words	Contextual meaning of words
Grammatical structure	
Morphemes	Members of a sentence

According to professor O. S. Akhmanova a connotation contains semantic and stylistic shades accompanying the meaning which are superimposed on its basic meaning and serve to express all sorts of emotional, evaluative and expressive overtones (Ahmanova O. S., 1969). Depending on the choice of the sentence structure as the basis of synonymy, its function also changes. Thus, possessing similar properties of a word, a sentence can act as an object of synonymy and antonymy study at the syntactic level and as an element of semantic relations.

In this work we tend to believe that the phenomena of synonymy and antonymy of sentences should be based only on the syntactic structure, the stylistic potential of which will reflect both similarities and differences in their meanings. To display the structure of relations between sentences we distinguish three main types of synonymy and antonymy at the level of syntax:

1.　　Complex (pragmatic) level. Relationships between sentences are built on transformations that affect all the language levels. The attempts undertaken at the beginning of the 20th century to investigate the phenomenon at the level of statements, to some extent similar to synonymy, were based on the so-called deep-syntactic transformations that subject lexical and grammatical system of a sentence to a complete transformation (Apresjan Ju. D., 1974). The aim of that approach was to understand how the meanings of two statements which differ in a set of lexemes and sentence organization have almost absolute identity. Certain transformation models were put forward, combining the rules of syntax and semantics: in addition to the reorganization of the order of sentence members, there were changes in *functional* words, transformations of one part of speech into another, the destruction and the emergence of grammatical links. Therefore pragmatic level will not be considered in this work.

2. Syntactic-pragmatic level: syntactic synonymy and syntactic antonymy. Relations between sentences are based on the syntactic transformation of the sentence with the identical set of lexemes. Transformation and word order in a sentence entail not only grammatical, but also stylistic changes. By synonymy on the syntactic - pragmatic level we mean sentences with common informative denotation due to the same set of lexemes, but different functional connotations. For example,

(1) "Around the brave of Tiger Lily were a dozen of her stoutest warriors ..." (Barrie J.M., 2006)
(2) "A dozen of her stoutest warriors were around the brave Tiger Lily".

It is obvious that in sentence (1) there is a shift in speaker's accent and a change of rheme in comparison with the second sentence, which is the norm of the language and it is a synonymic dominant. In this case differences in connotations can be represented as: "absence of connotation" - "theme - rheme reorganization of a sentence".

3. Structural level: structural synonymy (structural homonymy) and structural antonymy (structural opposition). The relationship between sentences at this level is represented by the identical (or inverse) construction models but not transformations. In contrast to the synonymy at the syntactic - pragmatic level, sentences are considered synonymous if their meanings coincide in functional connotations and are different in informative denotation. Sentences must be in close proximity in the text. For example, "This is a very strange story, Poole; this is rather a wild tale, my man" (Stevenson R.L., 1994)

The framework of this article does not allow to study both the structural and syntactic-pragmatic level in detail, so we limit ourselves to the study of syntactic synonymy and antonymy at the structural level and denote the study of such relations at the syntactic-pragmatic level as a prospect for further work.

Possessing properties similar to a word, a sentence can act as an object of synonymy and antonymy study at the syntactic level, where the relations between sentences are represented by identical or inverse construction models. Therefore, syntactic synonymy is a type of relationship between sentences based on the similarity of syntactic structures, and syntactic antonymy is a type of relationship between sentences based on the opposite of syntactic structures.

Based on the above the main variants of syntactic synonymy and antonymy at the structural level are such linguistic phenomena as parallelism and chiasmus of syntactic constructions. Parallelism as a manifestation of structural synonymy is a syntactic stylistic device, which should be considered in two aspects: parallelism as a construction similarity and parallelism as a repetition. Chiasmus is a "reverse parallelism", i.e. syntactic stylistic device in structure opposite to parallel constructions. Such presentation determines the two main directions of functioning of structural synonymy in the text.

3. Results and discussion

We believe that synonymous and antonymic relations at the syntax level are most reflected in the landscape, because it is the description of the landscape that serves as a basic material for analyzing these phenomena at the lexical level. In addition writers often turn to the image of nature in fiction, since this type of description is extremely significant and functional.

For the analysis of structural synonymy we will consider this phenomenon on the texts from English fiction. The first example is a landscape description in the poem of the American writer E. A. Poe "Ulalume" which the author dedicated to the anniversary of his wife's funeral.

The peculiarity of the poet's work is the wide use of repetitions both lexical and syntactic. Let us analyze the following lines:

"The skies they were ashen and sober;
The leaves they were crisped and sere —
The leaves they were withering and sere;
It was night in the lonesome October
Of my most immemorial year:
It was hard by the dim lake of Auber,
In the misty mid region of Weir —
It was down by the dank tarn of Auber,
In the ghoul-haunted woodland of Weir" (Poe E.A., 1997)

This stanza contains two examples of parallel structures. The first three lines represent complete parallelism — absolutely analogous forms of constructing sentences. In addition syntactic tautology and anaphoric repetitions are observed in the structures.

We will consider the functionality of the structural synonymy in this passage. It should be noted how exactly the author conveys the emotional tension by the description of the autumn landscape. Parallelism allows to convey the melancholic monotony of the environment, gloom and fatality of what happened. Syntactic tautology in combination with anaphora gives the statement the slowness of events. The semantic field used by the author in the poem strengthens the mood of the whole work — synonymous repetitions create the effect of the detailed description: "crisped" — "withering" — "sere", "dim" — "misty", which is clearly seen against the background of the parallel constructions.

Another example of structural synonymy is the description of South African nature in G. R. Haggard 's novel "King's Solomon Mines":

"All this while we had been pressing on at a good rate towards the undulating plain beneath us. The mountains we had crossed now loomed high above our heads, and Sheba's Breasts were veiled modestly in diaphanous wreaths of

mist. As we went the country grew more and more lovely. The vegetation was luxuriant, without being tropical; the sun was bright and warm, but not burning; and a gracious breeze blew softy along the odorous slopes of the mountains. Indeed, this new land was little less than an earthly paradise; in beauty, in natural wealth, and in climate I have never seen its like. The Transvaal is a fine country, but it is nothing to Kukuanaland" (Haggard H. R., 1994).

In general syntactically complex structures create the atmosphere of admiration of the mountain peaks described in this work. Parallel constructions act as a background for the contrast: "without being tropical", "but not burning". In addition, the hyperbole "little less than an earthly paradise" concluded between parallelism and stylistic inversion has a stronger effect in such a frame. Due to the use of structural synonymy in this sentence the emotional mood of the narrator, his feelings, and delight are expressed.

Let us analyze an excerpt from the story of K. Mansfield "At the Bay":

"Very early morning. (1) The sun was not yet risen, and the whole of Crescent Bay was hidden under a white sea-mist. The big bush-covered hills at the back were smothered. You could not see where they ended and the paddocks and bungalows began. The sandy road was gone and the paddocks and bungalows the other side of it; (2) there were no white dunes covered with reddish grass beyond them; there was nothing to mark which was beach and where was the sea. A heavy dew had fallen. The grass was blue. (3) Big drops hung on the bushes and just did not fall; the silvery, fluffy toi-toi was limp on its long stalks, and all the marigolds and the pinks in the bungalow gardens were bowed to the earth with wetness.

(4) Drenched were the cold fuchsias, round pearls of dew lay on the flat nasturtium leaves. It looked as though the sea had beaten up softly in the darkness, as though one immense wave had come rippling, rippling — how far? Perhaps if you had waked up in the middle of the night you might have seen a big fish flicking in at the window and gone again…

Ah-Aah! sounded the sleepy sea. (5) And from the bush there came the sound of little streams flowing, quickly, lightly, slipping between the smooth stones, gushing into ferny basins and out again; and there was the splashing of big drops on large leaves, and something else — what was it? — a faint stirring and shaking, the snapping of a twig and then such silence that it seemed someone was listening.

(6) Round the corner of Crescent Bay, between the piled-up masses of broken rock, a flock of sheep came pattering. They were huddled together, a small, tossing, woolly mass, and their thin, stick-like legs trotted along quickly as if the cold and the quiet had frightened them. Behind them an old sheep-dog, his soaking paws covered with sand, ran along with his nose to the ground, but carelessly, as if thinking of something else. And then in the rocky gateway the shepherd himself appeared" (Mansfield K., 2008)

Let's consider the parallelism features in the sentences of group (1): in addition to the identical sentence structures, the grammatical forms of the predicates are also repeated: "the sun was not risen", "the whole of Crescent Bay was hidden", etc. The use of the passive voice instead of the active one "the sun was not yet risen" reinforces the effect of calmness and tranquility in the picture achieved by the structural synonymy. The same function is performed by parallelisms in group (3).

Very often there is an inverse structure of the sentence with the indefinite pronoun "there" in the description of the landscape. Parallelism of this level is typical for the so-called static description. In the passage from the story "At the Bay" we find this type of structures in the group of sentences (2) and (5). The purpose of their use is to reflect the serenity of the morning landscape.

It is interesting the sequential arrangement of sentences in group (4), they are alternating constructions with the direct word order and the inversion. Here we see chiasmus as a manifestation of structural antonymy which we will consider later.

In group (6), the structure of sentences is rather unusual. The complete inversion in the construction with a preposition of an adverbial modifier of place is replaced by the direct word order with maintaining arrangement of secondary parts of the sentence. Moreover, this structure was duplicated by the author in the next two sentences. The purpose of such an organization of the text, perhaps, is to move from a static description to a narration: it is an acquaintance with the characters and with the events taking place.

Parallel constructions can also be found in the dynamic description although they are more typical for the determination of a particular state. In addition the sentence with homogeneous subjects conveys spatial dynamics: the author uses the method of gradation, which emphasizes the sequence, the gradualness of what is happening. In the novel by J. M. Folkner "Moonfleet" the author displays the gradual action by means of semantics and structural synonymy:

"There at my feet lay the Manor woods and the old house, and lower down the white road and the straggling cottages, and farther still the Why Not? and the glassy Fleet, and beyond that the open sea. I cannot say how sad, yet sweet, the sight was: it seemed like the mirage of the desert, of which I had been told — so beautiful, but never to be reached again by me. The air was still, and the blue smoke of the morning wood-fires rose straight up, but none from the Why Not? or Manor House. The sun was already very hot, and I dropped at once from the hill-top, digging my heels

into the brown-burned turf, and keeping as much as might be among the furze champs" (Falkner J. M., 1995)

We see a similar use of parallelism in the story "Cat in the Rain" by E. Hemingway (Hemingway E.): "It was raining. The rain dripped from the palm trees. Water stood in pools on the gravel paths. The sea broke in a long line in the rain".

Next, we proceed to the consideration of syntactic antonymy. Antonymy at the structural level is a syntactic relationship between two opposing models of the structure of neighboring sentences or elements of the same sentence (Gurevich V. V., 2008). Above it was indicated that the main manifestation of structural antonymy is chiasmus or reverse parallelism.

Let's return to the landscape from the story "At the Bay" by K. Mansfield: "Drenched were the cold fuchsias, round pearl leaves on the flat nasturtium leaves." (Mansfield, K., 2008) The inversion in the first part of the complex sentence and the direct word order in the second one are combined by a common semantic field ("drenched", "cold", "dew") and to some extent express the same concept. The chiasmus is the basis for clarification and detailed description. The author focuses the reader's attention on the fact through two similar in meaning, but different in structure statements.

Structural antonymy can occur not only among the members of sentences. Let's analyze the passage from the poem of G. Longfellow "The Golden Sunset":

"The sea is but another sky,

The sky a sea as well,

And which is earth and which is heaven

The eye can scarcely tell!" (Longfellow, H.W.).

The words order is the same in both sentences, but the subject in the first one plays the role of the predicate in the second sentence, and the predicate in the first sentence plays the role of the subject in the second one. Thus, reverse parallelism can be based not only on the formal structure of sentences (sentence members), but also on their semantic elements. Hence it is possible to define that syntactic chiasmus is an opposition "direct word order – inversion" in the adjacent sentences; and semantic chiasmus is an opposition of semantic roles of words in a sentence.

In the same poem, there is another pattern of semantic reverse parallelism:

"The cloud-like rocks, the rock-like cloud

Dissolved in glory float,

And midway of the radiant flood,

Hangs silently the boat" (Longfellow, H. W.).

Consequently a more precise definition of chiasmus as a manifestation of structural antonymy would be as follows: it is an opposite arrangement of parallel terms in two adjacent sentences.

We systematize the obtained data in Table 2, which reflects the main features of the functioning of syntactic synonymy and antonymy. The following characteristics of the landscape are put forward as criteria: landscape statics; landscape dynamics; emotiveness of the landscape; emphasis of the landscape.

Table 2
Stylistic functions of structural synonyms and antonyms in the landscape description

Function / Stylistic device	Statics	Dynamics	Emotiveness	Emphasis
Parallelism	Basic: Simultaneity, consistency	Movement of nature	Monotony, expectation, serenity	Background for antithesis, synonymous repeatition
Chiasmus	Clarification, detail	Energy of nature, its power and strength	Emotional increase	Primary: the opposition of two subjects of speech or the emphasis on common features

Thus, we have combined and classified the functions of structural synonymy and antonymy in terms of stylistic significance. It turned out that such concepts as parallelism and chiasmus have different stylistic potential, although they are related in terms of constructions. Firstly, using one or another stylistic device the author pursues completely different goals. Secondly, the emotional context transmitted by parallelism differs from the context introduced by chiasmus. Thirdly, synonymy and antonymy of syntactic structures perform various functions in landscape statics.

4. Conclusions

Summing up the results of the research aimed at the studying of the problem of structural synonymy and antonymy of sentences in the English language, one can say that the goal and objectives were fully implemented. Based on the linguistic studies of the problems of synonymy and antonymy in general, the assumption about the role of word order in the existence of similar semantic relations at the syntax level was confirmed.

Previously, the researches of a sentence as an element of relations similar to lexical synonymy were based on transformational models that affected not only syntactic but also lexical system, i.e. the statement was rephrased. The theory of synonymous and antonymic relations between sentences should be created only taking into account syntactic parameters. Therefore, the sentence should not be the subject to any lexical or morphological changes, and therefore the study of syntactic synonymy does not include the study of pragmatic synonymy.

In the study of structural synonymy and antonymy of sentences, namely parallelism and chiasmus, we identified that, having similar structural characteristics they are different in basic functions; the emotional context conveyed by parallelism is different from the context introduced by the chiasmus; synonymy and antonymy of syntactic structures perform various functions in landscape descriptions.

Of course, it is impossible to cover such a multifaceted phenomenon as synonymy or antonymy of sentences in one work. This problem is interesting, relevant and therefore requires further study.

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Fronting and Deferment in Standard English and Arabic: A Contrastive Study

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Abstract

The syntactic processes of fronting and deferment are considered a prevalent linguistic phenomenon among the world's languages. In spite of the fact that the non-canonical grammatical counterparts have canonical SVOCA order in English and VSOCA order in Arabic whose truth conditions are identical, the usage of such non-canonical syntactic devices allows language users to exploit alternative word orders for multiple purposes.

In actual communication, these syntactic devices do not directly interact with the text, but they are a reflection of both mental and contextual factors.

This study sets out to investigate and analyze the syntactic and semantic processes of fronting and deferment in English and Arabic in written discourse. It tries to find evidence for the hypotheses that English diverges from Arabic in its syntactic strategies and that both languages converge on the application of the Hallidayan "reason principle" manipulated to show a multitude of prominent thematic meanings.

It is found that all the syntactic processes of fronting and deferment in Arabic are confined to its word order level which is considered flexible according to the inflectional language specifics, whereas English uses other grammatical constructions of fronting and deferment to compensate for its rigid word order. This study proves that the Hallidayan "reason principle" is useful for both English and Arabic to give prominence to their thematic meanings. Other aspects of similarity and difference are spelled out.

Keywords: fronting, deferment, rigid, thematic, prominence, contextual.

Section One

Introduction

The processes of fronting and deferment represent a phenomenon of human communication. This phenomenon is characterized by the manipulation of immense varieties of sentence-element reorderings so as to achieve the intended and most effective communicative function.

The process of moving an element to the front of the sentence in this way (fronting), to act as a theme, is known as thematization (or topicalization) or thematic fronting.

(Crystal, 1991: 351)

1.1 The Problem

The syntactic reordering of sentence elements may rest in certain semantic problems and syntactic complications for both learners of the target language. Such reshuffling of sentence elements leads them to err in their understanding and using of the target language. Learners may find it difficult to elucidate the precise equivalent semantic interpretation resulting from the processes of fronting and deferment of sentence elements.

1.2 Aims of the Study
This study aims at:
1. Conducting the syntactic and semantic processes of fronting and deferment in both Arabic and English.
2. Contrasting the two on the basis of similarities and differences.

1.3 The Hypothesis

It is predicted that Arabic and English word orders manifest some changes via the processes of fronting and deferment. It is also hypothesized that the phenomenon of fronting and deferment in Arabic differs considerably in its syntactic specifications from that in English. Another hypothesis is that the two languages under study largely agree on the thematic meanings of fronting and deferment.

1.4 Limits of the Study

This study will be limited to a syntactic and semantic study of fronting and deferment in Standard English and Standard Arabic.

Section Two

Fronting and Deferment in English

2.1   Definitions

Leech (1969: 57) defines 'foregrounding' as the deviation from linguistic and other social accepted norms. Leech and Short (1981: 43) measure style in terms of deviations- higher frequencies or lower frequencies from the norm. While Jones (1977: 6) uses the term prominence to refer to the notion of foregrounding. She states that focus or grammatical foregrounding is a kind of "off norm" arrangement of a word or group of words.

Fowler (1986: 8) states that foregrounding breaks the conventional coding of expressions and their meanings. Also, Ghazala (1995: 18) defines fronting as a major stylistic device at both sentence and text levels, aiming primarily at assigning more accentuation to the fronted clause. Leech and Short (1981: 48) distinguish prominence from deviance saying that deviance is a purely statistical notion, while prominence is a psychological notion. Halliday (1971: 340) defines prominence simply as the general name for the phenomenon of linguistic highlighting, whereby some linguistic feature stands out in some way. In addition, Nash (1986: 25) states that fronting produces a sense of marked construction, emphatically deviant from the customary or unmarked pattern.

Talm (1985: 122) elaborates the processes of foregrounding and backgrounding in terms of salience as the degree to which a component of meaning, due to its type of linguistic representation, emerges into the foreground or, on contrary, forms part of the semantic background where it attracts little direct attention.

2.2 Fronting and Deferment Strategies

Besides the manipulation of prosodic devices such as stress and intonation, English employs several syntactic strategies for encoding the processes of fronting and deferment. These strategies display non-canonical/marked types of sentence patterns which are mostly topic-oriented or context-motivated. (Green,1980:582)   Among these strategies are: word-order variation (thematization), it-clauses, pseudo-clefts, dislocation, passives, existential constructions, anextraposition.The first two are fronting devices, while the rest are deferment ones (Khalil, 1999: 89)

2.2.1 Word-Order Variation/ Thematization

Quirk et al. (1985: 1377) define thematic fronting as "the achievement of marked theme by moving into initial position an item which is otherwise unusual there".

However, Palmer (1976: 159) states that it is possible in English to place a word at the beginning of a sentence when this is not its normal syntactic position as in:

(1) The man over there do not like very much.

He states that this placing is a device for indicating topicalization; concluding that it is a fairly rare phenomenon in English, and that we do not usually place words or phrases initially for this purpose. Moreover, if this is 'topic', it is marked only if the words or phrases are not in their normal positions.

Muir (1972: 97ff) states that what is called the thematic element in a sentence is the first element which results from choice. He proposes four different marked themes as indicated below:

a. Thematic complement.

(2) Football I'll play any time.

(3) These papers you can have.

In the above examples the underlined fronted complements are considered themes of the sentences irrespective of their grammatical function.

b. Thematic adjunct:

(4) On a former occasion we had discussed this.

In this example, the adjunct is the theme of the sentence which is determined by its marked movement to the front position of the sentence.

(c) Subject 'New":

In English, a subject can be marked as 'new' information if it carries tonic stress:

(5) John read the book (i.e. not Mary or Bill).

This is only one of the possibilities of marked tonicity; and could be included in the information systems.

(d) Predicated theme:

Example (5) above correlates with the predicated theme, as in:
(6) It was <u>John</u> who read the book.

2.2.1.1 Types of Thematic-Fronted Elements
Syntactically, front position elements can be divided into two major types:

2.2.1.1.1. Fronted Elements without Word-Order Reversal
There is, in English, as in other languages, a normal word order in the sentence, an order which, though widely followed, is never rigidly maintained. This word order is: subject, predicate, extension of the verb. But even when for various reasons there are deviations from the normal order, when one part or another is moved from its proper place, the rest of the sentence follows the customary order. The sentence is never chaotic. Deviations are made for various reasons, among which the following may be noted:

One.   to give emphasis.
Two.   To avoid monotony.
Three.   For the sake of rhythm in individual sentences.
Four.   To avoid awkwardness.
Five.   To avoid obscurity   (Glassey, 1962: 15)

However, the elements occupying the marked front position in a sentence can be grouped into the following categories:

a.   Objects
It is possible to begin an affirmative sentence with an object in order to give it more immediate importance. This device of fronting is common in informal speech and also in a more formal style, as in the following example:
(7)   <u>A very good lesson</u> we had yesterday (informal).
(8)   <u>This question</u> we have already discussed at some length (formal).
(Eastwood, 2000, 56)

b.   Complements
Subject, object and prepositional complements can be highlighted via putting them in front positions.
(9) <u>Traitor</u> he has become and <u>traitor</u> we shall call him.

       (Cs.)   (Co.)

<u>(10) His face</u> not many were enamoured of.

        (Pc.)   (Quirk et al., 1985: 1378)

c.Adverbs and Adverbials
Many adverbs and adverbial expressions can be fronted in narrative and descriptive writing.

(11) Once upon a time, there were three little pigs. One day ….. Then ….. Soon after that…… After dark……. (narrative).

(12) Inside the front door there is …… Opposite the living room is ….. On the right you can see …… At the top of the stairs ……. (descriptive)

(Swan, 1995: 218)

d.   Predication
This type of fronting which is commonly used in journalism is largely determined by the desire to give end focus to the subject.

(13) They have promised to finish the work, and <u>finish it</u> they will.
(14) <u>Addressing the demonstration</u> was a quite elderly woman.

e. The cleft sentence can be subject to fronting
(15) They hoped that John would be elected and <u>John</u> indeed it was that topped the poll.   (Quirk et al., 1985: 1378)

f. **In a few exclamatory expressions**, a noun is fronted before <u>that</u>, but these are uncommon in modern English. For instance:
<u>(16)</u> <u>Fool</u> that I was!

g.   **Wh-clauses** are often fronted as shown in the following examples:

(17) <u>What I'm going to do next</u> I just don't know.

h.   **Fronted adjectives** and adverbs are permissible in a structure with <u>as</u> or <u>though</u>, as indicated below:

(18) <u>Young</u> as I was, I realized what was happening.   (Ibid)

2.2.1.1.2. Fronted Elements Associated with
Word-Order Reversal

This strategy of fronting can be manifested in two types of word-order reversals:

2.2.1.1.2.1. Fronting Associated with Subject-

Verb Inversion

Fronting associated with subject-verb inversion can be manipulated in the following sentence patterns:

(a)   The unmarked sentence patterns SVC and SVA can be made marked as indicated by the following types:

1.   CVS

(19) <u>Especially remarkable</u> was her oval face.

(20) <u>Faint</u> grew the sound of the bell.

2. AVS

(21) <u>In a distant country</u> lies my dearest friend.

The above examples seem to have a sense of poetic tone; however, they can be commonly used in informal speech too.

(22) Here's the milkman.

It is to be noted that besides their stylistic choice, the types of Here/There + Be manifest a sharp semantic difference from the unmarked pattern SVA. Let us compare the following examples:

(23a)   <u>The   milkman   is   here</u> (i.e.,   at   the   door: shall   I   get   two pints?)

                  S   V A

(23b) <u>Here's the milkman</u> (i.e., he's come at last).

          A V   S

(23a) <u>The book</u> is <u>there</u> (i.e., on the shelf).

           S   V A

(23b) <u>There 's the book I want</u> (i.e. I have been looking for it all

          A V   S   the week).

(Green, 1980: 582)

(b)   The unmarked pattern SVO can be made marked OVS. fronting

(24) Well, said Robert.

(25) 'Please go away', said one child, 'And don't come back', pleaded another.

(Broughton, 1990: 116)

(c)   The marked types CVS and AVS are important where the fronted complement and the fronted adjunct make comparative reference to something that has preceded.

(26) Her face was stony and even <u>stonier</u> was the tone of her voice.

(Ibid)

2.2.1.1.2.2 Fronting Associated with Subject-
Operator Inversion

Quirk et al. (1985: 1378ff.) display the following cases of fronting where the subject-operator inversion takes place:

1.   When   the   negative   particles   which   normally   occupy   mid-position   in   a sentence   (e.g.   never,   nor,   not,   nowhere)   are   fronted,   inversion   of subject-operator is used, as shown in the following example:

(27) Nor had Louise.

(28) He didn't ask, nor did I give him your address.

2.   <u>So</u>   meaning   "too"   or   the   corresponding   negatives   <u>neither</u>   or   <u>nor</u>   are often   fronted   in   an   elliptical   second   utterance.   The   effect   here   is   to give emphasis to the subject.

(29) John saw the accident and so did Mary.

(30) John didn't see the accident and neither did Mary.

3.   <u>So</u>   and   <u>such</u>   introducing   a   noun   or   degree   clause   can   be   fronted   but must have subject-operator inversion. For instance:

(31) I hadn't really thought about it, so occupied had I been with all the arrangements for the funeral, the interviews with the solicitor….

4.   When   the   subject   of   the   sentence   is   not   a   personal   pronoun,   subject-operator inversion is permissible in comparative clauses.

(32) I spend more than do my friends.

(Broughton, 1990, 115)

2.2.2 IT-CLEFTS

Crystal (1990: 201) declares that the first clause consists of the pronoun IT (with no meaning) and a form of the verb BE. The second clause begins with a pronoun such as THAT or WHO. The formula for the cleft sentence can be as follows:

IT + BE + S, C, A, O + WHO-/ THAT-Clause   (Nash, 1986: 30)

Quirk et al. (1985: 1384) show that cleft sentences indicate divided focus, and which of the two focused items is dominant (i.e., new) depends on the context, as in the following examples:

(33) A. You should criticize his callousness.

  B. No, it is his callousness that I shall ignore.

   (Callousness: given, ignore: new).

(34) A. You should ignore his dishonesty.

  B. No, it is his callousness I shall ignore.

   (Callousness: new, ignore: given)   (Ibid)

2.2.3 Pseudo Clefts

Pseudo clefts (wh-clefts) constructions represent one of the deferment strategies used in English. These constructions are manipulated to give end focus to a chosen part of a sentence.

(Khalil, 1999: 90f)

One of the two parts of the sentence is put in a superordinate clause, the other is a subordinate clause (basically a relative clause); the general effect is to give added prominence to the former.

(35) What caused the trouble was a faulty switch.

(Huddleston, 1984: 463)

Syntactically a pseudo-cleft sentence is essentially an SVC pattern in which the subject or the complement is realized by a wh-clause, mostly starting with <u>what</u> and sometimes by <u>who</u>, <u>which</u>, <u>why</u>, <u>how</u> etc.

(36) Why she did it is a mystery.

(37) How she managed is a miracle.

(Ibid)

2.2.4 Passivization

Huddleston (1984: 17) states that passivization may have the extra advantage of either allowing 'end focus' or deleting the agent, where this is of no interest or relevance; and that object-fronting is also used for contrastive purposes.

This construction provides a convenient device of deferring the agentive subject by turning it into the agent in a passive construction. We thus reverse the active order of the agentive and affected element where the agentive requires end focus.

(38)   A. Who made these table mats?

B. They are made by my sister-in-law.

(Quirk et al., 1985: 1390)

Although end focus belongs to phonology, it clearly has important implications in syntax, where the ordering of the constituents of the message is largely determined. It can influence the choice between active and passive constructions.

(39) A. John wrote the whole book.

B. The whole book was written by John.

However, in a passive sentence the point of interest can be other information than the agent or the object such as time, place, manner or instrument.

(40) The electron was discovered in 1897.

(41) The electron was discovered at Cambridge.

(42) The gas should be lit carefully.

(43) The gas should be lit with a match.

In such cases, the agent is not mentioned at all.

(Eastwwood, 2000, 132f)

2.2.5 Extraposition

Extraposition is the process or result of moving (or 'extraposing') an element from its normal position to a position at or near the end of the sentence.   (Crystal, 1991: 131) This position is what Quirk et al. (1985: 1357) call the principle of end-focus. Similarly, Khalil (1999: 92) describes this process of deferment in terms of pushing an element to the right so as to make it more salient.

It is to be noted that the process of extraposition involves the replacement of the deferred element by a substitute form. This form is known as extrapositive IT (Crystal, 1991: 131) or anticipatory IT (Quirk et al., 1985: 1391).

2.2.5.1 Types of Extraposition Clauses
The process of extraposition can be manipulated in the following types of clause structures:

(a)   Extraposition of a Clausal Subject:
This type of extraposition operates on subordinate nominal clauses. The most important type of extraposition is that a clausal subject, namely a subject realized by a finite or nonfinite clause. This subject is moved to the end of the sentence, and the normal subject position is filled by the anticipatory pronoun IT.

However, a simple rule for deriving a sentence with subject extraposition from one of a more orthodox (unmarked) order is as follows:

Subject + Predicate ~ IT + Predicate + Subject.

(44) A. To hear him say that surprised me. ~

B. It surprised me to hear him say that.

(Quirk et al., 1985: 1391ff)

(b)   Extraposition of –ing Clause
The nominal –ing clauses occur very naturally in ordinary/canonical subject positions, as in:

(45) Teaching her to drive turned out to be quite enjoyable.

(46) Getting the equipment loaded was easy.

(Ibid)

(c)   Extraposition of a Clausal Object
The –ing, to-infinitive and that-clausal objects can be extraposed in SVOC and SVOA clause types.

(47) You must find it exciting working here.

(48) I made it my objective to settle the matter.   (Ibid)

2.2.6 Existential Constructions

Generally, the organization of sentences in terms of theme and focus presumes that a sentence begins with reference to 'given' information and proceeds to provide 'new' information (Ibid: 1402)

So, the main means of achieving this effect is to use the word THERE followed by the simple present or past tense of BE.

(49) There is a cat on the roof.

This construction is more natural than the following:

(50) A cat is on the roof.

(Swan, 1995: 289)

Moreover, the use of THERE is totally different from THERE used as an adverb of place. It has no locative meaning. Besides it carries no emphasis at all, whereas the adverb does.

(51) There he is.

(Crystal, 1990: 202)

2.2.7 Dislocation
Left and right dislocations are grammatical constructions which involve the phenomenon of fronting and deferment. According to Quirk et al. (1985: 1310), these constructions are labelled as a special subtype of 'postponed' and 'anticipated' identification.
The postponed identification involves placing a proform earlier in the sentences while the noun phrase to which it refers is placed finally as an amplificatory tag. This construction, which is sometimes called 'right dislocation', is commonly used in informal spoken English.
(52) He's a complete idiot, that president of America.
However, in informal spoken English we also have the reverse process, namely 'anticipated identification'(also called 'left dislocation'), where a noun phrase is positioned initially and a reinforcing pronoun stands 'proxy' for it in the relevant position in the sentences as indicated below:
(53) Your friend John, I saw him here last night.
(54) That play, it was terrible.   (Ibid)

Section Three
Fronting and Deferment in Arabic
3.1 Language Types: Arabic Word Order

There are many ways of classifying languages. Modes of this classification can be either according to their "family" or according to their linguistic traits regardless of the family. Moreover, languages have been classified according to the basic or unmarked order of their sentence constituents.

Syntactically, every language has sentences which include a subject (S), a verb (V) and an object (O). In this respect the classification of languages, according to the basic order of such constituents, may permit six possible language types:

SVO: English, French, Swahili, Hausa, Thai.
VSO: (Classical) Arabic, (Biblical) Hebrew, Irish, Tagalog.
SOV: Turkish, Japanese, Persian, Georgian, Eskimo.
OVS: Apalai (Brazil), Barasano (Colombia), Panare (Venezuela).
OSV: Apurina and Xavante (Brazil).
VOS: Cokchiquel (Guatemala), Coeur d'Alene (Idaho), Hauve (Oaxaca, Mexico).

Arabic can be classified as (i) Classical Arabic, (ii) Modern Literary Arabic, and (iii) Modern Spoken or Colloquial Arabic. Classical Arabic dates from the sixth century A.D. It is the language of the Glorious Qur'an, a body of pre Islamic and early Islamic literature and other records dating back up to the period when the rules of the language were codified by ancient grammarians around the tenth century A.D.

Arabic grammar has essentially remained stable throughout the centuries. This is because Arab grammarians' efforts have been oriented basically toward the study of the Glorious Qur'an and Prophetic Traditions, in an attempt to preserve them from alteration.

(Hassan, 1973: 11)

3.2. Word order and Arabic Sentence Types
Arabic sentences fall into two main types:
3.2.1. Verbal Sentences

The normal order of a verbal sentence is a verb/predicate followed by a noun/subject, and then complements. Complements usually include one or two objects of the verb, an adverb, a prepositional phrase, or any combination of these.

3.2.2 Non-Verbal (Nominal) Sentences

The normal order of a non-verbal sentence is a noun/subject followed by a predicate. The predicate may be a noun, an adjective, an adverb or a prepositional phrase. Nominals (pronouns, noun phrases or clauses) may occupy the syntactic positions of regular nouns in both verbal and non-verbal sentences. (Bishai, 1971: 19-21)
The difference between verbal and nominal sentences is that the former relates an act or event, the latter gives a description of a person or thing, either absolutely, or in the form of a clause descriptive of state.

(Wright, 1971: 251-2)

(i)   Nominal: SC

(1)الطفلة جميلة.(The child is pretty).

(ii)   Nominal: SA

(2)الطفلة في سريرها.(The child is in her bed).

(iii)   Verbal: VS

(3)جاءَ صديقك(lit. came your friend)

(Your friend came).

The following remaining patterns are usually verbal, (Ibid: 198).

(iv)   Type VSO:

(4)كتب زيدٌ الرسالة.(Zayd wrote the letter).

(v)   Type VSA

(5)يذهب الولد إلى المدرسة

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(The boy goes to school)

(vi)   Type VSOO

(6)أعطى عليٌّ أخاه كتاباً

(Ali gave his brother a book)

(vii)   Type VSOC

(7)ظنّ محمدٌ علياً عاقلاً

(Mohammad considered Ali wise)

(viii)   Type VSOOC

(8)أبلغ زيدٌ الناسَ علياً صادقاً

(Zayd told the people that Ali was honest).

3.3 Word Order Variation
Greenberg (1963: 60-1) asserts that languages have a single "dominant" word order in addition to several variants.

(Al-Jatlawi, 1998: 526-7)

Arabic is generally described as having a relatively free word order. Certain elements can be transposed from their normal slots in the sentence pattern. This implies that some of these elements are going to be fronted while others are going to be deferred. These processes of reordering sentence patterns are called Attaqdim التقديم 'fronting' and At-ta'khir التأخير 'deferment' by Arab grammarians and rhetoricians.

(Lashin, 1983: 217)

3.4 The Syntax of Fronting and Deferment
3.4.1 Fronting and Deferment in Nominal
  Sentences
The basic nominal sentence is composed of two parts mubtada' مبتدأ 'topic' and khabar خبر 'comment'.
(Owens, 1984: 28; Khalil, 1999: 97) Arab grammarians traditionally emphasize the canonical word order of the nominal sentence as being subject-predicate, as opposed to the verbal sentence in which the word order is stated as (verbal) predicate-subject.

(9) زيدٌ جاءَ   (Zayd came)

This sentence can be parsed as follows: Zayd زيد is the subject of a nominal sentence; ja'a جاء 'he came' is a verbal sentence which primarily functions as Zayd's nominal predicate.

(Cantarino, 1975: 1, 27)

3.4.1.1 Syntactic Constraints on the Processes of Fronting and Deferment in Nominal Sentences
Variability in the ordering of sentence elements can be syntactically motivated. This may involve the fronting and deferment of the subject and predicate which is either obligatory wujuban وجوباً or optional Jawazan جوازاً.

3.4.1.1.1 The Obligatory Fronting of the Topic
Taqdimul Mubtada? Wujuban تقديم المبتدأ وجوباً

The topic of a nominal sentence is obligatorily fronted in the following cases:
(a)   When it belongs to one of the following inchoative particles:
i.   An emphatic formula known as ma al-ta'ajub ما التعجب "ma of exclamation".
(10) ما أكرمَ زيداً (How generous Zayd is!)

ii.   An enuntiative kam (Kam al-ikhbariyya) كم الأخبارية
(11) كم حفظت؟ (How much did you learn?)

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iii.   A conditional particle

(12) من يحاول ينجح (Whoever tries succeeds)

iv.   An interrogative particle

(13) من في الدار؟ (Who is at whom?)

v.   When it is joined with inceptive particles:

(14) لزيدٌ قائمٌ (Verily, Zayd is standing).

vi.   When it is quasi-inchoative

(15) الذي يدلني على مطلوبي فله درهم

(He who tells me what I want, I'll give him Dirham)

(b)   If the topic and comment are definitely and indefinitely equated:

(16) زيدٌ أخوك (Zayd is your brother)

(c)   If the comment is restricted by the particle illa الا

(17) ما محمدٌ إلا رسولٌ

(Mohammad is no more than a Messenger)

(d)   If the comment is restricted by the particle 'innama انما "truly, verily".

(18) إنما زيدٌ قائمٌ (Truly Zayd is standing)

(e)   If the comment is an imperative sentence:

(19) الدرهم أنفقه (As for the Dirham, spend it).

(f)   If the comment is a verb governing the pronoun of the topic in the nominative case:

(20) الحاكمُ أنصفَ في حكمه

(The judge was just in his decision).

3.4.1.1.2 The Obligatory Fronting of the Comment

Taqdim Al-khbar wujuban تقديم الخبر وجوباً

The obligatory fronting of the comment is confined to the following cases:

i.   If the comment is an adverbial or a prepositional phrase and the topic is indefinite:

(21) عندي كتابٌ (lit. with me a book) (I have a book).

ii.   If the comment is an interrogative particle:

(22) ما هذا؟ (What is this?)

iii.   If the topic has a possessive pronominal suffix that is anaphoric with the comment:

(23) في الدار صاحبها

(The owner of the house is in the house)

iv.   If the comment is restricted by the exceptive particles ?illa إلا 'but' and innama إنما 'only':

(24) ما ذكيٌ إلا عليٌ

(None but Ali is clever)

(25) إنما ذكيٌ عليٌ

(Truly Ali is the clever one)

v.   When the deferment of the comment is likely to spoil the meaning:

(26) لله درك (What a man you are!)   (Ibid: 29, 30)

3.4.1.2 Fronting and Deferment in Expanded

Nominal Sentences

Subject-predicate is retained in expanded nominal sentences. Any complements modifying the subject or the predicate will follow the part they modify:

(27) منزل روكسان منزلٌ جميلٌ وأنيقٌ

(Roxane's house is beautiful and elegant)

(Manfaluti, cited in Cantarino, 1975: 2, 507)

i.   The   modifying   prepositional   and   adverbial   phrases   can   be   fronted   before   the   predicate   on   condition   that   the   subject   is   not   deferred.

(28) هنَّ عليها أقدرُ

(They are more capable in those [themes].

(Amin, cited in Cantarino, 1975: 2, 508)

ii. The adverbial and prepositional phrases can be fronted before the subject they modify but only when the predicate is placed before that subject:

(29) لي إليكَ حاجةٌ (I need you)

(Manfaluti, cited in Cantarino, 1975: 2, 508)

iii. The predicate, with the elements that modify it, is frequently fronted before the subject with the resulting word order of predicate-subject:

(30) غريبٌ أمرُ هذا الحب (Strange- this love!)

(Mahfuz, cited in Cantarino, 1975: 2, 508)

iv. The adverb or adverbial modification, and the prepositional phrases that modify the whole sentence, can be deferred after both the subject and the predicate. The word order becomes subject-predicate-adverbial:

(31) المرأة شريك الرجل في حياته

(The woman is man's companion during his life)   (Ibid)

3.4.2 Fronting and Deferment in Verbal

Sentences

The verbal sentences represents the subject as acting (performer) with transitive verbs; or as being in temporary state or condition with intransitive verbs. The word order of verb-subject represents the canonical order in the verbal sentence.   (Cantarino: 1975, 1, 41)

This suggests that the subject must follow the predicate or verb, for example:

(32) مات زيدٌ (Zayd is dead)

However, when the subject is slotted before the predicate, the former is not fa'il فاعل "agent" but a mubtada? مبتدأ "inchoative", of which the latter is the khabar خبر "enunciative", the whole being a nominal sentence, i.e. jumla ismiyya جملة أسمية. Moreover, this kind of sentences is called compound:

(33) زيدٌ مات (It is Zayd who died)

(Wright, 1971: 255)

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3.4.2.1 Fronting and Deferment in Expanded
Verbal Sentences

The most elementary form of an expanded verbal sentence usually preserves the same canonical order VS. However, in expanded verbal sentences, the basic syntactic pattern is VSOCA:

(34) ظن محمدٌ علياً مسافراً اليومَ

(Mohammad considered Ali leaving today)

However, although Arabic allows flexibility in word order, there are examples where word order is obligatory. For instance, the fronting of the object in VOS and OVS patterns entails the deferment of Al-fa'il الفاعل "agent". This occurs in the following cases:

i.   If the object is Dhamirun muttasilun "a pronominal enclitic" ضمير متصل and the subject is a noun:
(35) ساعدني أخوكَ

(Your brother helped me)

ii.   If the subject is restricted by the restrictive particle ?illa الا "except:
(36) ما كسر النافذة إلا التلميذُ

(The one who broke the window is the pupil).

iii. If the subject has a possessive pronominal suffix that is anaphoric with the object:

(37) زار المعلمَ طالبُهُ

(lit. Visited the teacher acc. His student nom.)

The teacher was visited by his student).

iv.   If the object is an interrogative particle:
(38) من رأيتَ

(Whom did you see?)

v. If the object is preceded by ?amma أما "as for":

(39) أما اليتيمَ فلا تقهر

(Treat not the orphan with harshness)

(40) أما الغريبَ فلا تسأل

(AS for the stranger, don't ask him)

v.   If the object is Dhamiru nasbinn munfasilun ضمير فصل منفصل "an independent accusative pronoun"
(41) إياكَ نعبد

(Only Thee do we worship)

(Dahdah, 1981: 139; Khalil, 1999: 93-4)

3.5 The Semantics of Fronting and Deferment
The most important semantic function of the fronted constituents is to convey concentrated semantic information which is of great importance to the speaker-hearer's communicative knowledge which is considered to be "focus" or "theme".

(Al-Waer, 1990: 51)

3.5.1 The Semantics of Fronting and Deferment in Arabic Sentences
The structure of the Arabic sentence consists of three constituents, two are essential, the third is peripheral. The first essential constituent is called musnad M, مسند, i.e. the predicate of the sentence regardless of the syntactic nature of that predicate which might be a verb, a verbal noun, or a sentence. The second essential constituent is called musnad ?ilay-hi MI, مسند إليه, i.e. the argument or the subject which the predicate describes and depends on in conveying the message. This can have different syntactic categories such as noun phrase, prepositional phrase, adjectival phrase,

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adverbial phrase, verbal noun, and sentence, but never a verb. The third peripheral constituent is called fadhla, F., فضلة, i.e. all constituents which are neither M nor MI. F enters the structure as an extra constituent which contributes to the meaning of the sentence and deepens it. The relation which holds among these structural constituents is called 'isnad إسناد, i.e., configurational predication which governs the sentential constituents and dominates them.

(Al-Istarabadi, 1985: 8-22) Al-Makhzumi (1964: 31) defines Al-'isnad as a mental process which joins MI with M.

3.5.1.1 Fronting and Deferment of MI

The MI occupies the following positions in the canonical/unmarked sentence patterns:

i. The agent of a verb 'al-fa'il الفاعل or its derivatives, e.g. 'ismu-l fa'il اسم الفاعل "Present Participle", 's-sifatul-mushabaha الصفة المشبهة "verbal adjective". Let us consider the following examples:

(42) زيدٌ عالمٌ   (agent of a participle)

   (Zayd is a scholar)

Na'ib 'al-fa'il نائب الفاعل "the attribute of the agent"

(43) فقطع دابرُ الذين ظلموا (attribute of the agent)

   Of the wrong-doers the last

   Remnant was cut off.   (Quran, Sura 6, 45)

ii. Mubtada' li Khabar مبتدأ الخبر "a topic of a comment"
(44) المالُ والبنون زينة الحياة الدنيا

   Wealth and Sons are allurements of the life of this world.

(Quran, Sura 18, 46)

iii. Ma'aslu-hu mubtada? wa khabar ما أصله مبتدأ وخبر
"That which is basically a topic and a comment"

3.5.1.2 Fronting and Deferment of M

Al-musnad (M) is that part of the sentence which says something further about 'Al-musnad 'ilay-hi (MI) (Crystal, 1993: 63)

M occupies the following (unmarked) positions in Arabic sentences:

i. The verb:

(45) قد أفلح من زكاها

   Truly he succeeds

   That purifies it.   (Quran, Sura, 91, 9)

ii. The verbal noun:

It is a verb substitute which implies the meaning of the verb, e.g. 'amin آمين refers to the verb 'istajib إستجب "grant a request", shat-tana شتان meaning 'iftaraqa إفترق "differ" and hayhata هيهات meaning "ba'uda" to be far from it. Let us consider the following example:

(46) هيهات هيهات لما توعدون

Far, very far is that

Which ye are promised.   (Quran, Sura, 23, 36)

iii. The comment of a topic

(47) الله نور السموات والأرض

   God is the light

   Of the heavens and the earth.   (Quran, Sura, 24, 35)

iv. An agent supplying the place of the comment 'khabar' "فاعل سد مسد الخبر".

أ راغب أنتَ عن آلهتي يا إبراهيم (48)

(The father) replied: :Dost thou

Hate my gods, O Abraham?

(Quran, Sura, 19, 46)

3.5.1.3 Fronting and Deferment of F

According to Wright (1971: 2,113,123,150), "fadhla" (فضلة – redundancy) represents all the constituents which are neither MI no M. In Arabic, most of the constructions termed "object" by Arab grammarians are actually adverbials. They are called "object" because they are used in the accusative case. This applies to the following types:

i. Al-mafʻulu l-mutlaq المفعول المطلق "the cognate object":

رضَّ عظامه رضاً (49)

(He crushed his bones to pieces)   (Wright, 1971: 2, 55)

ii. 'Al-mafʻulu maʼahu المفعول معه "the object of accompaniment":

سارَ الولدُ والنهرَ (50)

(The boy walked along the river)

iii. 'Al-mafʻulu li 'ajlihi المفعول لاجله "the object of purpose":

قمتُ احتراماً لأستاذي (51)

(I stood up to respect my teacher)

iv. 'Al-mafʻulu fi-hi المفعول فيه "that in which the acts is done whether time or place. (Ibid: 2, 113)

وصل الضيوف مساءً (52)

(The guests arrived in the evening)

v. Al-hal الحال "state":

جاء الرجل مسرعاً (53)

(The man came quickly)   (Aziz, 1989: 198-9)

Section Four
Fronting and Deferment: Advantages and Disadvantages

The different types of fronting and deferment may be looked upon as just mere scrambling of sentence patterns and may pose tremendous difficulties on the Arabic parser besides the deviations from the canonical norms they manifest. Such deviations are represented by changing the unmarked sentence patterns to marked ones.

However, the shortcomings of the so-called deviations from the norms are very limited in number, and can be confined to the following cases:

i.   The deferment of the comment and its final insertion in a long sentence may make the hearer forget it.
ii.   The processes of fronting and deferment may make the word order sound strange or odd to the hearer.
Az-Zamakhshari (1953: 344) attributes this case of being odd to the difference in the chrono-logical sequence of events. Let us consider the following examples:
وامرأته قائمة فضحكت فبشرناها باسحق (220)

And his wife was standing
(There) and she laughed:
But we gave her
Glad tidings of Isaac.   (Quran, Sura, 11, 71)
The logical order is:

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وامرأته قائمة فبشرناها باسحق فضحكت

ثم دنا فتدلى (221)

Then he approached
And came closer.   (Quran, Sura, 53, 8)
The logical order is: تدلى ثم دنى

A part from these minor complications, the deviations resulting from the processes of fronting and deferment should not be looked on as a means of marring of the grammatical canons. On the contrary, the marked ordering of the sentence elements makes the structures loose and gives prominence to the fronted or deferred elements. (Al-Jatlawi, 1998: 533). This suggests that the processes of fronting and deferment are semantically a like in their roles of particularization and prominence. Let us consider the following example:

إذ قال يوسف لأبيه يا أبت أني رأيت أحدَ عشر كوكباً والشمسَ والقمر رأيتهم لي ساجدين (222)

Behold, Joseph said
To his father: "O my father!
I did see eleven stars
And the sun and the moon:
I saw them prostrate themselves
To me.   (Quran, Sura, 12, 4)

The sun الشمس and the moon القمر are deferred for particularization or to give prominence to their importance compared with other stars. (Az-Zamakhshari, 1953: 3-2). Moreover, these devices of fronting and deferment may have their own unique semantic norms though they disagree with those of the grammarians. (Abdulmut talib, 1984: 256).

Section Five

Conclusions
5.1 Conclusions

i. In the light of the universal, continuous, and regular changes of living languages, Arabic and English have been shown empirically to offer a considerable number of syntactic strategies of fronting and deferment, and display marked types of sentence patterns which are mostly topic-oriented or context-motivated, hence the first hypothesis of the present study is verified.

ii. The findings at the end of Section Two and Section Three prove that Arabic and English manipulate different syntactic strategies of fronting and deferment. This difference can be summed up as follows:

(a) Unlike English, Arabic has a free word-order that allows moving elements from their positions to other slots. This is due to the fact that Arabic is an inflectional language. On the other hand, English word-order is relatively fixed. This is ascribed to the fact that English is a non-inflectional language,

(b) As a result of (a) above, the grammatical functions of the fronted and deferred constituents are inflectionally defined in Arabic as long as these constituents maintain their functions that mark their case, while they are positionally defined in English.

(c) The Arabic syntactic processes of fronting are prior to those of deferment, whereas the English syntactic processes of deferment are prior to those of fronting. The only devices that front elements to initial position in English sentences are thematization and passivization, as far as the SVOCA word order is concerned. This implies that fronting syntactic devices are more frequent in Arabic than in English.

(d) Unlike Arabic, to compensate for its rigid word-order, English has developed a number of grammatical constructions to allocate appropriate prominence to the fronted or deferred elements, via Cleft and pseudo-cleft sentences, left and right dislocations, existential-there constructions and extraposition sentences.

(e) A two-element declarative sentence in English has a fixed word-order, via (SV) while that in Arabic is subject to processes of fronting and deferment that may rest in changes in sentence perspective, i.e. having the SV pattern in lieu of the VS pattern.

(f) Unlike English, Arabic manifests certain prescribed constraints on fronting and deferring its sentence elements, viz. Obligatory and optional word-orders. The former is syntactically motivated, whereas the latter is optional and contextually motivated.

These conclusions validate the second hypothesis of the present work.

(iii) However, Arabic and English agree on the following semantic aspects:

(a) Arabic and English utilize their word-orders to give prominence to the fronted thematic element or end focus to the deferred | element.

(b) In both languages, the syntactic fronting and deferment may rest in informational redistribution, placing new information either initially or finally.

(c) Semantically, both Arabic and English apply the principle of end focus, but they diverge syntactically in the way of achieving this principle; Arabic manipulates its word order, whereas English utilizes a number of grammatical constructions to achieve end focus, via Pseudo-cleft sentences, extraposition sentences, existential-there constructions, and right dislocation.

(d) Both English and Arabic apply the processes of fronting and deferment to adverbial and prepositional phrases to give salience to certain ideational meanings of time, place, manner, etc….

(e) Arabic and English exhibit cases of fronting direct and indirect objects to make them prominent.

(f) The process of passivization in Arabic and English redistributes theme and rheme elements of a sentence, it also redistributes old and new information in the sentence.

(g) In some cases, passives are used to obscure the identity of an agent in both languages. This is mainly applicable in scientific and academic texts.

(h) Where English manipulates the existential-there construction to avoid starting a sentence with new information, Arabic is found to be more restricted in this area.

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A Case of Technology-enhanced Language Learning in University Students in Iran

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Abstract

Technology-enhanced language learning in general and blended learning in particular are central issues in recent years in tertiary educational system in the world. In addition, self-regulation and self-control are topics of interest in second language acquisition settings. The present study attempts to evaluate the role of self-control and self-regulation in a blended course with 64 EFL university students in Iran. Self-control as the potentiality of the learners in achieving their goals and self-regulation as their actual practices in achieving it were investigated through Self-control Scale and Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaires respectively. The multiple regression analysis unraveled that learning achievement was significantly correlated with self-regulation ($r = .41$) but not self-control. Frequency of the posts and total words used did not behave similarly for self-control and self-regulation. It is implicated that educational parties can resort to some programs to develop the students' planning, self-monitoring, and reflection which are variables of self-regulation.

Keywords: Blended learning; self-control; self-regulation; learning outcome; participation

1. Introduction

Blended learning is the integration of both in flesh traditional and on-line technological learning. However, the latter component is much more emphasized. Undoubtedly, face to face process of teaching with its demising role of learners and having live interactions between learners and teachers has long proved as an appropriate learning environment while by the new improvements in the technologies murmur of distributed learning was heard which put an emphasis on autonomous learners (Graham, 2006; as cited in Bonk & Graham, 2006). Graham (2006) highlighted the importance of interaction in defining these two important approaches that in a face to face environment, we have an interaction between the students and the teacher while in the second one the interaction is only between the students and the communicative instruments.

In fact, blended learning was developed due to such features as "effective and low-risk" since the educational institutes cannot make their learners encountered with pure learning technological advancements (Garrison & Kanuka, 2004, p. 96) suddenly. Although combining the two synchronous and asynchronous modalities can have many supporters, but the way of applying it is very challenging.

Thorne (2003) knows blended learning not only as a good modality for learning, but also as an ubiquitous chance for learning in any place which can turn the world into a uniform class compromising of many learners of different backgrounds and areas. In other words, it relieves the problems aroused by considering the needs of the learners in the curriculum program (Thorne, 2003). In planning blended learning, the interesting point is that this type of learning is like any other types in the major points concerned like: elaborating on the learners' needs and their learning styles, determining the forthcoming objectives, seeing the ordinary learning activities in another perspective, considering both teaching and learning procedure, and preparing the testing process of the learners (Thorne, 2003). However, under the umbrella term of principles of blended learning, we come across three premises, namely, design, facilitation, and direction in preparing a blended learning educational environment (Garrison & Vaughan, 2008). Garrison and Vaughan (2008) believe that in designing blended learning environments, many options are at the front like video and audio manifestations that can bring about more autonomous learners for the learning society at large which can transcend the chains imposed by traditional face to face environments. Here, they mention two platforms in designing the hybrid contexts: social and cognitive presences. By social presence, they meant developing a good atmosphere of cognitive and social exchange between the learners. By cognitive presence, they meant a problem solving process in which the upcoming alternatives are handled for ultimate assessment. Furthermore, the materials used in the environment can lead to the cognitive presence. Facilitation of discourse is another premise in designing blended learning. It is intertwining the two social presence and cognitive presence (Swan & Shih, 2005). In fact, e-learning can reach its learning objectives when this facilitation of teaching discourse is realized on the part of the learners (Shea, Pickett, & Pelz, 2003). Direction

or direct teaching as another premise attempts to integrate both two authority and contributory roles in teachers leading to constructivist approach to learning (Garrison & Vaughan, 2008). By constructivist, here, it means a good learning opportunity for learners which can result in beneficial and more enduring retention.

In general, if we classify technological learning and face to face learning, we can come to some ordinary principles. Using technology can contribute learners to communicate with each other at any time and place that they desire. In addition, it can be claimed that all of the students can take part in the digital classroom since they do not need to consider the limitations of ordinary classrooms like being on time and commuting their classroom. Furthermore, having no time limitation, students are freer to think deeper and consider the mentioned points (Mikulecky, 1998). On the other hand, having face to face classes, students can make a social connectivity with each other which in effect can lead to deeper relationships among them. Likewise, this kind of relationship can result in emerging new ideas which are produced by their contributions (Mikulecky, 1998). Teachers and university administrators can have the benefits of these two modalities of teaching if they combine them. For instance, they can make a deep bond between the students and at the same time traverse the time and place limitations of traditional teaching.

"Self-control" deals with the planning of the students and their attempt to come up with it in spite of many problems (Vohs & Baumeister, 2004). It can be defined as "thinking through long term goals, resisting temptations, delaying gratification, and controlling emotional impulses." (Zhu, Au, & Yate, 2016, p. 54). However, people trace different patterns in achieving their goals since the difficulties with which they confront is diverse (Baumeister & Tierney, 2011). It is confessed that self-control can affect the learners' learning. Mischel, Shoda, and Rodriguez (1989) and Shoda, Mischel, and Peake (1990) in a study unraveled a positive relationship between self-control and the consequences of learning in young students. Along the same lines, Moffitt et al. (2011) showed that self-control and achieving instructional goals have predictive relationship with each other. Their research was also concerned with some other life achievements too in which a predictive relationship was also found. As far as the function of self-control in university students is concerned, Wolfe and Johnson (1995) in their study described 32 personality variables as mentioned in Jackson Personality Inventory (JPI, Jackson, 1976) and found self-control as the best predictor among them in enhancing the learners' grade point average (GPA). In an on-line course, Tsai (2009) found some self-control strategies which the college students uses in order to focus on their learning goals. In other words, they tried to use time effectively and appropriately avading disruption from intermission, concentrating on learning, and utilizing time efficiently appeared to be significant for students' on-line learning. Furthermore, Yu, Chen, Yang, Wang, and Yen (2007) stated low self-control as the stimulus behind the reluctance of the students in learning through electronic tools.

Self-regulation some how is related to self-control in that it paves the way for the learners to achieve their goals. The measures in this respect are controlling and producing proper thoughts, feelings, and actions which can propel them to their desired learning objectives (Pintrich, 1995; Zimmerman, 1998, 2000). Self-regulation is composed of three constructs of metacognitive, cognitive, and controlling the effort in dealing with the material (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990).

Self-regulation is held to play a crucial role in learning regardless of the age in which the students are in. Feldmann et al. (1995) investigated self regulation in eight grades and found that those who used more self-regulation strategies had a higher achievement in their studies. Pokay and Blumenfeld (1990) found that controlling the effort and course achievement had a significant relationship with each other in 283 high school students. Along the same lines, Pintrich and De Groot (1990) unraveled a significant relationship between course grades and their internal significance, anxiety on tests, self-efficacy, strategy practice, and self-regulation. In a research project, Yukselturk and Bulut (2007) employed Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) (Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, & Mckeachie, 1991, 1993) to investigate self regulation in 80 university students. The on-line course revealed better students learning when they used the self-regulation strategies.

In order to elaborate the two concepts of self-control and self-regulation, it can be said that self-control is the potentiality of the learners in achieving their objectives (Baumeister & Tierney, 2011) but self-regulation is what the learners actually do to achieve that goal (Zimmerman, 1989). Zhu, Au, and Yate (2016), in a study investigated the impact of self-control and self-regulated learning on tertiary students in a blended program through quantitative and qualitative research methodologies. Their 74 participants unraveled the prediction of learning outcome using self-control and self-regulation indexes. Furthermore, they found that the "impact of self-control on the participants' learning outcomes was mediated through their self-regulated learning and course participation." (Zhu, Au, & Yate, 2016, p. 4).

As far as we searched in the literature, we could not find adequate evidence for the way self-control and self-regulation can affect blended learning. The present study intends to identify facilitative or debilitative role of blended learning on the participants' self-control, self-regulation, and their using motivated strategies for learning.

2. Methods

The present paper intends to investigate the relationship between blended mode of learning on 64 university students in Iran. We resorted to some instruments in order to collect our data: a questionnaire for the participants' self-control and one for their self-regulation. These tools were administered prior to and after the blended learning course.

2.1. Research hypotheses

1. There is no relationship between self-control and course contribution variables as number of week participation, total words used, learning outcome, and post frequency.
2. There is no relationship between self- regulation and course contribution variables as number of week participation, total words used, learning outcome, and post frequency.

2.2. Participants

Sixty-four intermediate male and female students aged 20 – 27 participated in this study through nonrandom sampling. They studied English at an English institute in Isfahan through both on-line and traditional learning from October to December of 2016 for 12 weeks. The English class intended to teach the language skills through the blended face to face learning (teaching every week at the institute) and on-line learning (on-line materials, on-line forums, on-line assignments).

2.3. Instruments

Self-control Scale by Tangney, Baumeister, and Boone (2004) was applied to assess self-control of the participants, and examines how the students can confront with their problems and achieve their goals (Baumeister & Tierney, 2011). The reliability of the measure was calculated as .97 which suggests high internal consistency for the questionnaire. The participants were to reply if the statement was very like them or not. The scale for "Not like me at all" was indexed as one and the scale for "Very much like me" was indexed as five. The items were about the participants' general self-control which is concerned with their general planning for their goals. Both positive and negative statement are used in this scale. Tangney et al. (2004) in their research could have the mean self-control of 39.85 and the *SD* of 8.6 for their American university students.

To measure the participants' self-regulated learning, Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire used by Pintrich and DeGroot (1990) was applied and its reliability has been reported 0.74. It included variables like self-management, metacognitive awareness, intrinsic orientation, and performance orientation and had 44 items to be answered. Its scale for "Not at all true of me" was indexed as one and the scale for "Very true of me" was indexed as seven.

2.4. Procedure

Prior to the study, the subjects were familiarized with the purposes of the study and the questionnaires they were supposed to fill. Although they were already in the same institute and experienced blended learning, the researchers again explained them the principles of this mode of learning and the tasks we expected them to do in Persian. In the first session, the two self-control and self-regulated learning questionnaires were distributed and they were supposed to fill them based on whatever they thought about themselves. They could complete the questionnaires in 15 minutes. During the study, their feedback in the on-line learning was investigated through their posts in the forum. In the last session, an achievement test and the two questionnaires were administered to examine their progress in learning English, self-control, and self-regulation.

The participants were supposed to do the on-line exercises and post their comments in the on-line forums. In other words, they needed to engage in their course. Messages length, the frequency of their message and their teachers are the usual criteria which the researchers used in the investigations (Angeli, Bonk, & Hara, 1998). Messages length can reveal the depth of processing for the data to be processed on the surface or deeper. For example, Picciano (2002) found that the frequency of the participants' posts and their learning is positively related. Cheng, Paré, Collimore, and Joordens (2011) also found a positive correlation between the students' participation in on-line course (measured by the frequency of their comments) and their course achievement. In this study, the frequency of the posts in the on-line forum, the number of the weeks they participated in the forum discussions, and the total number of the words they used in their contributions in the forum were calculated.

3. Results

3.1. Correlations between learning achievement, self-control and course contribution

To understand the correlation between self-control and learning achievement and other related variables in their course, multiple regression analysis was run.

Table 1. *Correlations between learning achievement, self-control and course contribution*

		Self-control	Number of weeks participation	Total words used	Learning outcome	Post frequency
Pearson Correlation	Self-control	1.000	.203	.336	-.082	.253
	Number of weeks participation	.203	1.000	.516	.157	.599
	Total words used	.336	.516	1.000	.096	.151
	Learning outcome	-.082	.157	.096	1.000	.010
	Post frequency	.253	.599	.151	.010	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	Self-control	.	.053	.003	.260	.022
	Number of weeks participation	.053	.	.000	.107	.000
	Total words used	.003	.000	.	.226	.116
	Learning outcome	.260	.107	.226	.	.469
	Post frequency	.022	.000	.116	.469	.

Table 1 shows that self-control and learning outcome are not significantly correlated. However, frequency and the total used words were significant. Total words used variable was correlated with self-control more than the other independent variables.

Table 2. *Contribution of variables to self-control*

Model		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.	Correlations		
		Beta		Zero-order	Partial	Part
	(Constant)		.006			
	Number of weeks participation	-.146	.413	.203	-.107	-.097
	Total words used	.378	.010	.336	.328	.315
	Learning outcome	-.098	.418	-.082	-.106	-.096
	Post frequency	.284	.068	.253	.236	.220

Table 2 explains which of the variables explains makes the strongest unique contribution to self-control. The beta value for total words used was .37 which indicates that this variable made the strongest statistically unique contribution to self-control when the other variables are controlled for. However, the prediction of other variables were not significant. The part correlation coefficient also shows that total words used can explain 9.6 percent of the variance in self-control. The frequency of posts, however, can explain the least percentage of variance in self-control. It is also noteworthy to say that number of weeks can not explain so much of the variance in this dependent variable.

3.2. Correlations between learning achievement, self-regulation and course contribution

Table 3 shows that multiple regression analysis between self-regulation, learning achievement and other related variables in their course including number of week participation, total words used, learning outcome, and post frequency.

Table 3. *Correlations between Learning Achievement, Self-Regulation and Course Contribution*

		Self-regulation	Number of weeks participation	Total words used	Learning outcome	Post frequency
Pearson Correlation	Self-regulation	1.000	.410	.305	.414	.524
	Number of weeks participation	.410	1.000	.417	.022	.499
	Total words used	.305	.417	1.000	.032	.139
	Learning outcome	.414	.022	.032	1.000	.005
	Post frequency	.524	.499	.139	.005	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	Self-regulation	.	.000	.007	.000	.000
	Number of weeks participation	.000	.	.000	.432	.000
	Total words used	.007	.000	.	.402	.137
	Learning outcome	.000	.432	.402	.	.486
	Post frequency	.000	.000	.137	.486	.

Table 3 shows that self-regulation and learning outcome are significantly correlated ($r = .41$). In addition, the correlation of all independent variables with self-regulation were statistically significant. Among these, post frequency was mostly correlated and total words used variable was not so much correlated.

Table 4. *Contribution of Variables to Self-regulation*

Model		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.	Correlations		
		Beta		Zero-order	Partial	Part

1	(Constant)			.011				
	Number of weeks participation	.100		.395	.410	.111	.079
	Total words used	.189		.068	.305	.235	.171
	Learning outcome	.404		.000	.414	.496	.404
	Post frequency	.446		.000	.524	.478	.385

The part correlation coefficient shows that the number of week participation could explain least of the variance in the participants' self-regulation (Table 4). Learning achievement, however, could explain much of its variance. On the other hand, Beta coefficient for post frequency is .44 which means that this variable makes the strongest statistically significant unique contribution to self-regulation when the variance explained by all other variable are controlled for. Nevertheless, Beta coefficient for number of week participation is .10 which means that this variable makes the least statistically significant contribution to self-regulation when the variance explained by all other variable are controlled for. Furthermore, contribution to the prediction of self-regulation are somehow similar for learning achievement and post frequency.

4. Discussion and Conclusions

Blended learning is a mode of learning in which more independency of learners can be observed and the learners can receive content from many channels. This independency along with providing an opportunity to set their own goals and use appropriate strategies have changed blended learning into an appropriate learning opportunity. Self-control and self-regulation are among the variables which can bring about the success of the learners into surface in blended learning (Feldmann, et al., 1995; Moffitt et al., 2011). The present study attempts to see the way blended learning can affect self-control and self-regulation. The data for the self-control and self-regulation questionnaires were investigated.

4.1. Correlations between learning achievement, self-control and course contribution

The correlation between self-control learning achievement and other related variables (i.e., variables indicated that the number of week participation, Total words used, Learning outcome, and Post frequency) were investigated. The multiple regression analysis revealed no statistically significant relationship between self-control and learning outcome. But frequency and the total used words unraveled significant relationship with self-control. Along the same lines, total words used variable was the variable which made the strongest unique contribution to self-control in controlling other variables. The frequency of posts can explain the least percentage of variance in self-control.

4.2. Correlations between learning achievement, self-regulation and course contribution

The multiple regression analysis between self-regulation, learning achievement and other related variables indicated that contrary to self-control, self-regulation and learning outcome are significantly correlated ($r = .41$). However, post frequency and total words used variables showed opposite behaviors in their correlation with self-regulation with post frequency as the highest and total words used as the lowest correlation. The number of week participation variable could not explain much of the variance in the participants' self-regulation. The number of the weeks which they participated could not predict their self-regulation. The learning achievement and post frequency could similarly predict self-regulation.

The research results revealed the participants' achievement was statistically correlated with self-regulation but not with self-control. However, the frequency of the posts and the total words used demonstrated contradictory behaviors with regard to self-control and self-regulation. It was found that the subjects' scores of self-control can not predict their learning outcome but self-regulation can. In other words, the participants' using self-regulated learning strategies, that is, their motivational, cognitive, and metacognitive strategies could predict their learning achievement. This is in line with the research by Ho & Kuo, 2010, Saba (2012) and Sharma, Dick, Chin, & Land (2007). This significant relationship was also unraveled in the studies by Saba (2012) and Sharma et al. (2007) who investigated these two variables in on-line environment.

However, for the amount of course contribution and participation, in the present study, no significant relationship was found between course participation and learning outcome in both self-control and self-regulation results. On the contrary, Davies and Graff (2005) found that in case students could get more engaged in the program, they could perform better. In an on-line course, Chen and Jang (2010) also found significant correlation between students' scores and their exposure to on-line materials. The obtained statistical correlation between the participants' self-regulation and

learning achievement suggests using self-regulatory strategies in teaching and learning models. However, many researchers (e.g., Romer, Duckworth, Sznitman, & Park, 2010; Tarullo, Obradovic, & Gunnar, 2009) believe that developing this skill needs a lot of time. However, self-regulation can not be enhanced just through the students' exposure to on-line learning (Barnard-Brak, Paton, & Lan, 2010). Parent and educational parties need to put the students in situations in which they could develop their self-regulated learning skills. For instance, teachers can use some methods which not only teach the students the learning content, but also motivated them to generalize self-regulated learning strategies in their own learnings (Barnard-Brak et al., 2010; Rowe & Rafferty, 2013). Some other researchers (e.g., Hu, 2007; Kauffman, Ge, Xie, & Chen, 2008; Kauffman, Zhao, &Yang, 2011; Tsai, Shen, & Tsai, 2011) believe that teachers can also make this incentive in their students by clarifying its premises and explaining the ways of doing its strategies. Some digital software can also be used in developing the students' self-regulated learning including self-monitoring, planning, and reflection. Chang (2007) believes that since using web-requiring technologies can save the time and place, and the partner with whom they studies, their self-regulated learning can be increased. In other words, informing students about their studying can contribute them to improve their way of learning. Furthermore, allowing students to go out of the ordinary pedagogical tasks and exercises and be more autonomous, learners can enhance their self-regulatory skills (McLoughlin & Lee, 2010; Saba, 2012). Limiting students to some definite tasks is also crucial in making self-regulatory skills permanent in learners (Zimmerman, 1998). In other words, some strategies which students need in doing their assignments like investigating, having critical thinking, elaborating information, and problem solving can increase their self-regulation. In general, learners who are more autonomous and self-regulated can achieve their goals easier. Learners in blended learning have more opportunity to use this type of learning. Universities can use this chance to combine this mode of learning in their pedagogical programs (Bartimote-Aufflick, Brew, & Ainley, 2010; Williams & Hellman, 2004). Thus, using self-regulatory learning skills in blended courses is noteworthy (Barnard, Lan, To, Paton, & Lai, 2009). In general, elaborating and exploring methods which can increase the students' self-control and self-regulated learning skills is important.

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Conversations across Cultures

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Abstract

Communicating in English globally is very important in this century (Wu, Yen, & Marek, 2011), and in Turkey the demand for English speaking ability has never been greater as the economic value of multilingual communication rises. However, for English language learners (ELLs) in Turkey, the process of learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL), with emphasis on speaking, is often daunting. Several factors, including, but not limited to: language differences, shyness, self-efficacy, apathy, and cultural practices, can especially hinder the Turkish ELLs' speaking ability (Anandari, 2015; Kazemi & Abdollahi-Guilani, 2015; Wu, Yen, & Marek 2011; Yang, 2014). Turkish ELLs themselves often times lament to their English language teachers: "Teacher, we can understand, but we can't speak," a statement which has become the unfortunate catchphrase of a syndrome, according to Coşkun (2016). The purpose of this study was twofold: In an effort to help Turkish university students become more comfortable speaking English, and also to give an opportunity to native English speaking EFL teachers in a TESOL Master's program in USA to test their teaching skills with foreign speakers, an online 'communication and cultural exchange experiment' was conducted for the first time in both institutions' history. This experimental speaking class was conducted via video-conferencing software between two universities—one in Istanbul, Turkey, the other in Los Angeles, California, USA. The resulting, mainly positive comments in the form of qualitative data from the Turkish students and the American pre-service teachers, are presented in this paper.

Keywords: ELLs, EFL, TESOL, ESL, LMS, conversations across cultures, contextualized speaking

Introduction

English as a foreign language (EFL) learners speaking online with native English speakers is not a new practice, rather it is a developing one. With the Internet, bridging distances between people who desire to practice English, it is a current reality for foreign language speakers to connect with speakers of the target language with relative ease. An effort was recently generated to give the students in a small, Turkish university evening preparatory English course the opportunity to speak with native English speaking pre-service EFL teachers in the United States via videoconferencing software and computers. Videoconferencing, as defined by Eguchi, (2014) involves the use of synchronous communications via Internet technology, allowing people in different countries or cities to meet online and have discussions for learning purposes in the target language, in this case, English. To accomplish this for the Turkish students, their English teachers cooperated with the University of Southern California (USC) teacher Dr. Jenifer Crawford and her TESOL Master's degree students in an online experimental format which we termed "Conversations Across Cultures."With the cooperation of Dr. Crawford, and six of her Master's in TESOL program students, a weekly, online, face-to-face discussion session with six students from an evening Turkish Preparatory English Program, began in order to facilitate "Contextualized Speaking" practice, plus language and culture exchange between the two groups. The findings and implications of the study are discussed in this paper.

Purpose of the study

The idea for the study helped formulate the following two research questions:
1. Do Turkish students find it helpful to communicate with native English speakers online?
2. Do English speaking pre-service EFL teachers find it helpful to speak to foreign English- speaking students?

The purpose of this experiment was twofold: For the six Turkish students in the study, this was an opportunity to speak English and exchange cultural information with a group of native English speakers who were enrolled in the Master's degree in TESOL program at USC; for the six TESOL students, who were also pre-service EFL teachers at USC, it was an opportunity to test their online teaching pedagogical skills on the non-native English speaking students.

In the case of the Turkish ELLs, the experience of practicing speaking and also learning new vocabulary would be highly beneficial for them as their exposure to native English speaking teachers is somewhat limited in their English language learning context. Additionally, the opportunity to interact over the Internet with native English pre-service teachers exchanging language and culture could have a positive effect on both their English and cultural acquisitions. According to Wu, Yen, & Marek (2011), using Internet-based videoconferencing technology for language learning profoundly affects students' motivation, confidence, and overall English language ability. Wu, et al's findings mirror those from this study, as will be discussed later in the paper. For the six TESOL pre-service teachers, and students in the USC program, the study would also turn out to be a valuable opportunity for them to practice their online

pedagogical strategies as well as their use of online and curriculum design technology for teaching. Merç (2015) feels that using technology for teaching and learning English has advantages, because ELLs in the EFL context may have few opportunities to practice speaking and assess their skills. Also, he feels teaching with technology is necessary for instructors because of the need to keep up with the technological knowledge of their students as well as give them instruction which will help keep them motivated. This will prove to be an equally accurate acknowledgement regarding the TESOL students from USC as their reflections are discussed in detail later in the paper.

Review of literature

Historically, Krashen (1985) maintains that comprehensible input for language learners is the most important factor in their acquisition of a second or foreign language. Without this linguistic exposure, learners cannot understand the meanings of other's messages. Although learners can use extensive input in the target language from books and movies, or YouTube videos, they are not always enough to provide that comprehensible input that the learners can receive from face-to-face communications (whether in person or over Internet technology).

Eguchi (2014) underscores the fact that EFL learners do not receive enough genuine verbal communication with native English speakers in their daily routines. This lack of authentic exchange usually leads to low English proficiency among those trying to learn the language. She also maintains that the benefits of videoconferencing over the Internet can be a viable way to bring English speakers to the language learners where it previously would not have been possible or difficult at best. Another vitally important point offered by Eguchi concerns the cross-cultural factor of English speaking natives communicating with foreigners, in her study, Japanese students speaking with Mexican English speakers learned about the information gaps between the cultures (2014). This led to much greater meaning-making for the Japanese students. Similarly, in the case of the study which is the focus of this paper, all the participants in USA were Americans, and all the student participants in Turkey were Turkish. This difference gave a great deal of texture and meaning to the English being learned by the Turkish students, both linguistically and culturally.

Several different factors are involved in the speaking skills portion of English language learning, including, but not limited to: ability, self-efficacy, motivation, and anxiety. One of the most consistent barriers to a foreign language learner is the fear of or anxiety regarding speaking in the target language, which can occur for a variety of reasons. Anandari (2015) points out that most EFL teachers do not focus on speaking anxiety of their students when teaching English. Their main objective is to transfer language knowledge of the four basic skills of English, so other issues go mainly disregarded. The same author also reminds us that speaking anxiety is a more complicated issue because it involves psychological conditions, not just learning ability. In the context of this study, the Turkish student participants all discussed how difficult it was for them to speak English, even though their knowledge of the language was at B level or greater, because of their lack of practice. Speaking opportunities were rare for them and consequently their anxiety grew because of this.

Social aspects of videoconferencing are also of great importance for English language learners. Alshahrani (2016), reported that his data from 36 students who participated in a 12-week online videoconferencing study, yielded positive attitudes toward videoconferencing as a learning and English practicing opportunity. The participants revealed that their experience in the study allowed them to have social interaction in their L2 which helped them to build their identities as English language users outside the formal classroom settings, and to create social connections with others. This rings true in the current study also, as it was observed that several of the Turkish student participants formed social bonds with the American pre-service TESOL teachers they were communicating with. Several of these participants are still communicating with their teacher counterparts to this day. In the same vein, Vurdien (2019) discusses her project using videoconferencing not only as an online learning tool, but also as a scaffold to foster motivation for her students to participate in online discussions with their own peer group in order to help them develop their communication abilities before they started to engage in face-to-face interactions with target language speakers. This was to help the students negotiate meaning in English, being the target language. The interaction patterns in this discourse was different from conventional communications in that it gave the participants time to communicate with their peers outside of the classroom environment using the videoconferencing among themselves, helping their inhibitions to be lower when discussing their opinions.

Study Methodology

The six Turkish students included in the current study used a computer lab at a private, two-year technical university in Istanbul, and were given webcams and microphones, plus headsets, and the necessary login information necessary for them to connect to Dr. Jenifer Crawford's MA TESOL class at USC in Los Angeles, California, USA. Using the USC learning management system (LMS) via Adobe Connect software on PC computers in the lab, the Turkish students engaged in conversation with the six native English speaking teachers in Dr. Crawford's class. The Turkish students studied materials provided to them by the USC students prior to some of the sessions. The sessions lasted between one

and 1.5 hours every Tuesday evening beginning at 6pm Istanbul time. Each of the speaking sessions was designed by a different student (future teacher) in the USC program every week. The lessons widely varied in subject matter from comparisons between landmarks in Istanbul and Los Angeles, to bird species. Students were asked specific questions with the purpose of eliciting sentences with proper English grammar formation. Turkish students made verbal and typed responses, and received positive, corrective feedback from the USC students. This practice continued until the end of May, 2016. After the study was completed, the Turkish students filled out the survey which contained five yes/no or positive/negative type of questions as well as one open-ended question which required an opinion answer, regarding the students' thoughts about the study, this paper, and the USC teachers wrote self-reflection papers for their instructor at USC, a synthesis of which also follows. Additionally, in Appendix A, there are four photos of the students interacting real-time with the pre-service TESOL teachers online.

Survey results and reflections – Turkish university students

Example of the post-experiment survey in English and Turkish Languages:

1. How was your experience speaking to USC students online in "Conversations Across Cultures" (Choose one answer): *USC öğrencileriyle "Kültürler arası sohbet" online konuşma dersiile ilgiliizleniminiz nedir? (Bir yanıt seçiniz.)*
   _____Positive
   _____Negative

2. Has your experience with USC and "Conversations Across Cultures" helped to improve your confidence in speaking English? *USC ve "Kültürlerarası Sohbet" dersindene dinmiş bulunduğunuz deneyim, İngilizce konuşma hususunda özgüveninizi artırdımı?*
   _____ Yes
   _____ No

3. Did you enjoy sharing language and cultural information with the students at USC during "Conversations Across Cultures"? *"Kültürlerarası Sohbet" dersinde USC ile dilve kültürel konularda yapılan paylaşımlardan keyifaldınızmı?*
   _____ Yes
   _____ No

4. Did the experience make you feel more open to conversations with others who speak English? *Bu deneyim, size İngilizce konuşan insanlarla sohbetetmeye dahaaçık bir hale getirdi mi?*
   _____ Yes
   _____ No

5. Do you feel that the experience has helped to improve your English speaking ability? *Bu tecrübe İngilizce konuşma becerile inizigeliştirdi mi?*
   _____Yes
   _____No

6. Please write some comments about your feelings and experience speaking with Dr. Jenifer Crawford's TESOL class participating in "Conversations Across Cultures" online. *Lütfen, Dr. Jennifer Crawford'un TESOL sınıfıile "Kültürler arası sohbet" dersine katılarak edindiğiniz deneyimlerin yahut hisleriniz leilgilibir kaçyorum yazınız.*

   _____
   _____
   _____

Figure 1. Student Survey Results Table

Q#	Question	Response: Positive/Yes	Response: Negative/No
1	How was your experience speaking to USC Students online in "Conversations Across Cultures"?	6	0
2	Has your experience with USC and "Conversations Across Cultures" helped to	6	0

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	improve your confidence in speaking English?		
3	Did you enjoy sharing language and cultural information with the students at USC during "Conversations Across Cultures"?	6	0
4	Did the experience make you feel more open to conversations with others who speak English?	6	0
5	Do you feel that the experience has helped to improve your English speaking ability?	6	0
6	Please write some comments about your feelings and experience speaking with Dr. Jenifer Crawford's TESOL class participating in "Conversations Across Cultures" online.	See reflections summary below	N/A

Reflections summary – Turkish university students.

All six of the Turkish students responded that the Conversations Across Cultures class and speaking to the TESOL teachers from USC was a positive experience that helped them tremendously in improving their English speaking confidence. All maintained that they enjoyed meeting the USC teachers and considered them new friends. They felt their fluency had improved along with their vocabulary. They all enjoyed exchanging language and culture. Two of the students mentioned that they felt the sessions were not enough, and would have liked to have participated more than once per week with USC. Two other students reported their frustration with the technology, regarding how it sometimes did not work ideally. Overall, the comments from the Turkish students, although brief, were extremely positive.

Reflection summaries – USC pre-service EFL/ESL teachers.

The USC pre-service teacher responses are based upon their own written reflections on how they felt about their teaching abilities and limitations. Although not explicitly spelled out in the following summaries, the instructor Dr. Crawford, reported that the teachers were very enthusiastic about the project and enjoyed their interactions with the Turkish students in Istanbul. Each teacher created a different lesson for the Turkish students in Istanbul, and thus each USC teacher experienced different as well as similar issues regarding the effectiveness of his/her lesson. Pertinent excerpts from the teachers' papers are displayed separately below. A complete synthesis of all responses from the teachers was not possible in this study due to the different lessons and varying experiences involved with each pre-service teacher's lesson plan for the Turkish students.

Pre-Service USC teacher No. 1 discussed their lack of understanding about Turkish student's limited or no knowledge of 'flipped classroom format' teaching, where students read or study by watching a video of something in preparation for a future class or lecture (Sung, 2015). This was a revelation once it was discovered as a problem. They also mentioned how just starting a discussion about movies was great for getting students to talk because everyone loves going to movies. They also mentioned how elements beyond their control such as poor internet connectivity, noises and issues from the technology, plus having to wait for the Istanbul students to come online, were just part of something that had to be accepted. They also noted that just talking for a brief period was worth celebrating. Another comment was that they should be aware there are cultural differences and support can be unique.

Pre-Service USC teacher No. 2 commented on how they felt the lesson they provided had met expectations in one way while not meeting them in another. Although the content of the lesson was understood, some of the syntax in written portions was not, resulting in a question or query not being accurately understood by the Turkish students who didn't derive the exact meaning of a sentence. They felt confident in their technology skills, but felt they have to adjust the lesson objectives and also pose additional questions, add a task toolkit, and provide students with compare/contrast worked examples.

Pre-Service USC teacher No. 3 commented that they allowed for learner autonomy by asking students to respond using their prior knowledge of the subject they were discussing. They also felt their strength in this type of teaching was definitely strong pedagogically and regarding their knowledge. However, they also felt that technology was an issue to be mindful of. The lack of visuals in their lesson presented problems because they felt too many words can be overwhelming for the non-native English speakers. They felt that in the future they would incorporate visuals and videos to assist in teaching the material.

Pre-Service USC teacher No. 4 felt an overall positive outcome for their lesson because even though there was no assessment to ascertain whether or not the Turkish students had enough knowledge and vocabulary to complete the lesson, they were responding, participating actively and communicating. This respondent felt that the greatest weakness of the lesson was that the Turkish students sometimes did not have microphone rights in the main room on the USC platform's LMS, so they could not verbally respond, they could only respond to questions via typing in the chat. The teacher said they could speak during the break out room sessions though. This teacher also suggested there should be a Facebook or social media group set up for these students to be able to reflect on the lesson and discuss it afterward. The teacher also believed that having a pre-meeting lesson plan for the students to complete tasks prior to the online meeting would be a good idea.

Pre-Service USC teacher No. 5 reported that they felt that the students were receiving a great deal of practice and experience with the task they had them completing, which was comparing and contrasting places in Los Angeles with places in Istanbul. The teacher felt as though the students were conversing and exchanging information well in the break-out sessions, where each student spoke exclusively with one teacher, and that the objective was well met. The only negative was the lack of technology connected to the pedagogy by that teacher, who remarked that they shall be mindful about incorporating more technological aspects in the future lessons. The teacher was very pleased overall that the Turkish students could form their own sentences, even going above and beyond what the task called for.

Pre-Service USC teacher No. 6 reported that their greatest strength while working with the Turkish students was their ability to use visuals and visual design to engage the students. They also described how their weakness regarding the lack of cultural knowledge of the Turkish students was a hindrance because they were not a widely traveled individual and had a limited view regarding facilitating student learning. This teacher also recommended lessons that involved problem solving rather than lessons that depend solely on the mechanics of the language.

Discussion, considerations, and implications.

Data revealed that both of the groups included in the study had met their goals of practicing both the teaching and learning of English language and the exchange of culture. This was a very small first study or experiment which was performed with the cooperation of two entities, not predicting the outcomes or whether it would be successful or not. There are several issues both groups dealt with, and lessons learned which can be transferred to the next level of experimentation for the possible continuation of the program next year. First, considerations and modifications must be made on both sides of the world. On the USC side, some modifications regarding the format of the lessons should be considered so that the Turkish students can better-understand the flipped format, and are more prepared on the day of the 'live' lesson. The teachers can also make sure their own technology and pedagogical assets and procedures are best suited for the online platform as suggested in their reflection papers. On the Turkish University side, Turkish students need to be trained beforehand in the flipped classroom format lesson plans so that they are prepared in advance of the live lesson, and able to communicate their answers to the pre-lesson requirements. Also in the Turkish context, there needs to be a few technological issues remedied if possible, such as improving the low Internet speed and connection problems. Another issue is the availability of the computer lab, which changes available times during the semesters at the Turkish university. This created a problem with the day for the online class changing abruptly from Tuesday evening to Thursday evening toward the end of the course. It was able to continue with some time modifications, but for the next run of this experiment, there needs to be oversight of the computer lab's schedule so that any disruptions to the class flow are avoided.

In the future, other studies similar to this one are recommended. A significantly larger sample of study participants is suggested, along with a pre- as well as post-study survey so that comparative data can be collected and analyzed. As this was a new experiment with little preparation time before its commencement, some factors regarding data collection and analysis were missing.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Considering some of the uncontrollable aspects of the study, both groups learned a great deal about conducting Conversations Across Cultures between two universities on different sides of the world. The importance of speaking practice and cultural exchange with native English speakers for English learning foreign students was the greatest consideration for the teachers and administration at the university in Istanbul, and the first experiment using contextualized speaking approach to EFL practice. The University of Southern California made this experiment possible by offering the time and the teachers involved in this study. Developing partnerships between schools in other foreign countries and schools in countries whose native language is English is vital and highly desirable. This was the first experiment of its kind conducted in this particular university English preparation program, and was considered successful by all the participants.

Appendix

Photos of the student participants in Istanbul communicating online with the pre-service TESOL teachers at the University of Southern California, USA.

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Destined for the Space of Self-knowledge in the Fiction of Paulo Coelho: A Lacanian Reading

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Abstract

Paulo Coelho's writings not only catalogued his own experiences, but also provided one of the earliest examples of the psychological processes involved in ego and memory storage. It demonstrates the self's psychological use of the Ego, in a classical sense, to negotiate between emotional response and reality, in order to create meaning around a set of events. More specifically, the death of his significant characters operates as a catalyst for the author's journey of self-discovery, which is richly tied to the psychoanalytical principles of Freud and Lacan, and which ultimately allows him to fully appreciate his experience of loss, by supporting the wish fulfillment related to his relationship with his characters, and his need to understand the rejection he perceives suffering as a child. This highlights the difference between the inner child's ego-centric or narcissistic perception, and the adult's ability to rationalize, especially as it relates to memory and unfulfilled need.

Keywords: existence, psychoanalysis, journey, memory, self-myth

1. Introduction

The concept of self and its identity, which resulted in self-knowledge, has been one of the most prominent issues of debate throughout the history of human civilization. Postmodernist critics have tried to study the concept of self and its identity through the linguistic expression of texts. They pay attention the language used by different individuals and groups. Poststructuralist critics define identity as some position in a context, which cannot be claimed fully and finally. Their view is based on the argument that meaning is never present in any context because of endless possibilities and endless power structures. Modern psychoanalytic critics have applied the theories of Freud and Lacan to study the concept of self and its identity. As for Freud, the unconscious is a storehouse of repressed desires, feelings, memories and instinctual drives (objective self). The 'I' or the 'self' is the same as one's person, as the subject who desires, thinks, feels and acts.

Lacan points out how self and identity can be conceptualized and how the experience of "oneself" is influenced by the interplay of mental forces including languages. *According to him,* one enters the world through words. One, in fact, observes the world through his/her senses and the world that one senses is structured in his/her mind through languages.

The whole range of human existence at any moment, from the most squalid depths to the heights of self-mastery, has recurred and will recur endlessly through infinite self-knowledge. When it comes to personal well being, most of us know that taking care of our overall self-view is important. How we make progress in our emotional, mental and spiritual lives is largely up for debate in the course of human literature.

Understanding the issue of self-knowledge delineates the process of establishing one's identity so that one can describe who and what one is. However, this process of identification is not as smooth as it appears since it is highly informed with all pervading and confusing sense of paradoxes, strains and politics (external forces). It is the urge for self-development that puts the self and its liberty at the centre of human life. By claiming a particular identity, an individual can fit his life story into some well-defined space and thus, define the kind of person he or she is. The individual is unconsciously living an inner myth rather than a life. We all weave our own personal mythology each time we interpret the events of our life stories. It helps to investigate and shape our own personal stories. When we begin to investigate the stories that shape our lives we can actively envision our future and understand the real status of the self, one has to get through sufferings and create the myth of one-self, which makes the meaningful stories of life. The topic of self and its liberty about to improve and know itself is as old as humanity. Spending time and energy nourishing our souls has been treated as the goal by many of history's most celebrated thinkers.

Self-reflection is free and can be done anytime, anywhere. Whether going for a walk or pouring a cup of tea (or wine) and writing in a journal, taking time to self-reflect is part of how we get through our personal life stories in the words of Socrates via Plato, well-examined lives. Creating a personal life's scripts can facilitate better self-understanding. A personal script is any life story explaining one's personal spiritual origins or identity. It may not even be a story, so much as an internal understanding, for as a story creates an internal reality, so too is an internal reality expressed as a story even if it is never actually told. The personal script of life helps to explain what makes, or has made one and who he/she is.

Unlike the ancient hero who set out on a voyage in which he dared to face many challenges or did many labors in order to find his true self the modern man decenters himself either yielding to the chains surrounding him or disguising himself in other identities, camouflaging his own identity. A modern man creates a world of illusions to hide the madness resulting from his fragmented mind, and when this illusory world collapses and he faces his real self, he realizes that the world in which he lives is nothing but a waste land. He fears seeing his own fragments in himself and prefers to disguise himself in the world of appearances or illusions.

Acknowledged as one of the most remarkable iconoclasts of the Brazilian tradition Coelho's rebellious adolescence forced his parents to send him to a mental asylum three times, starting when he was 17. He became a songwriter for Elis Regina, Rita Lee and Raul Seixas. His association with Raul made him familiar with magic and occultism. Coelho's life changed when he visited Spain in 1986 at the age of 36. Coelho walked more than 500 miles along the Road to Santiago de Compostela, a site of Catholic pilgrimage. The walk and the spiritual awakening he experienced within this route inspired him to write *The Pilgrimage*, an autobiographical account of the trek, in his native Portuguese.

He continues to surprise his readers with an interesting mixture of realism, magic realism, existentialism and literary criticism that places his work in a space where modernism overlaps postmodernism. At the core of Coelho is fictional universe, fragmentary and alienating, lies a continuous search for true self, which primarily confronts the hero with the space he inhabits, the language that translates his thoughts and the subtlest feelings and the truth he is always looking for. The manner in which all these diverse spaces coexist and influence each other and the strategies used by Coelho to relate them to the fragile self of his characters represent the main concerns of this paper.

This is the root of Paulo Coelho's writing, the game of writing that starts when nothing can be explained anymore because bewildering experience reduces one to silence. The imagination that springs out from the presence of extraordinary reality is what haunts and propels him to reach into the depths of his memory to find a whole world within the walls of the inner self. The self-knowledge and pursuit of its identity for Coelho comprise endless life stories, which come to mind involuntarily because we cannot order what to remember. The self-knowledge comes according to Coelho, as a voice of one's inner mind which is the flash-back and flash-forward of his personality.

Paulo Coelho's characters proceed to an assessment of space in their desperate need to find a coherent ordering principle. He constructs his spaces of liberty, self-knowledge and love according to its mappable or unmappable coordinates around a series of dichotomies: in/out (the private sphere of "home" versus the public domain), up/down (the cozy space of bourgeois comfort versus the slums of the homeless and the bums) and open/closed dialectics (the closed space of private rooms versus the open exterior space of the city).

In this paper, the researcher has consulted selected works of Paulo Coelho, which includes *The Alchemist* (1988), *Veronika Decides to Die* (1998), and *The Zahir* (2005)*, which* explores the representation of self-knowledge and the space of identity. I have chosen the term "Destined for Liberty", which means when a person twists episodes of his personal history in order to create an image of himself that he wants other people to believe in. By destined for liberty, I mean the significance of the self-knowledge and the subsequent achieved inner self by Paulo Coelho. Indeed, Coelho's literary self-knowledge is epical in its dimensions since he got through the world of self-knowledge. He reminds us that he is a vintage manual type-writer, a silent man cut off from the rest of the world to explore the interior of his own head". (Paulo Coelho 2005)

2. Review of the Literature

Although a review of related literature is a highly significant feature of empirical study and since there is not much annotated bibliography of Coelho's works, the investigator tries all possible efforts to review maximum studies within a limited period of time.

Vijay R. More in his article (July 2015) makes a critical study of Coelho narrative. He states that Coelho is a self-consciously postmodern author and Coelho ensures that the inclusion of autobiographical detail in his writings can be interpreted in a variety of ways as it explores his inner self. Every book of Paulo Coelho looks like a journey or a search for a way of life that enriches the meaning of existence. It also brings a message of hope. A man's life is considered successful when he struggles and fights against his ego and his greatest achievement are in the wisdom acquired in this process. In The Fifth Mountain Elijah says: 'I have discovered that there resides in me a soul better than ever I thought.'(29). Life is a continuous activity involving innumerable deeds, encountering various events and facing successes and defeats. It does not have any other purpose or aim except the process of this participation in all such activities. Coelho also suggests that one should face all these activities as a game of entertainment. Coelho goes into the minds of his various protagonists, but it is the voice of the fictional character that dictates the action of the plot. He assigns his fictive creations authorship and authority.

Maria Figueredo in her article; Paulo Coelho: The Author's Quest as Reader of the World examines the realistic assertion of Coelho's writings and believes that it is true that many of the characters he creates, and some incidents in his books, come from real life and the effect in later novels especially is one of deceptive realism. At the same time,

however, Coelho's fiction is, if anything, over determined, full of allusions and references to other books and writers. Even if that were not the case, it would still be problematic to say that his books come out of the real world. Books are written, and received, with reference to other books, while 'lived experience' itself is not available in any pure, unmediated form. Coelho recreates the Borgian intertextual impulse as a creative and inductive act, multiplying the distance from the original source. However, what is prevalent is not a mere use of literary source as reference, but rather an engagement with a literary language developed by Borges for those who are fluent in the paradigms of Babel, as we read in other stories by Borges, such as in his short story "The Library of Babel"

Sivapriya. S in her thesis; Journey of Self-Discovery in the Selected Novels of Paulo Coelho analyzed the characters endeavors and states the characters of Coelho attain the realization of what their essence is, or in other words it is the process of revealing the real "I" rather than what the others think of a person. Their endeavors are various forms of journeys. It is an exalted process – the strenuous physical journey and the tumultuous spiritual journey seeking the real meaning of the inner Self. It is an achievement that undergoes the classical procedure of incomparable dimensions. It is an inward growth revealing the real "I." Through this inward movement the individual attains self-respect, learns to diminish the profound ego, and voluntarily trains to break free from the fetters of already set, preconceived notions.

3. Research Methods

For the purpose of the following study, the researcher textually analyzed coelho's self-myth, and his use of psychoanalytic principles within the text of his fiction. This analysis allowed the researcher to consider the way that memory and the ego work together to create the self-myth, as well as how that self-myth functions, from a psychoanalytic perspective, and as it aligns with Lacanian theories of self, and psychological need, especially as it relates to the nearest way the individual processes trauma. Textual analysis through 'psychoanalytical approach' (Lacanian) along with Stream of consciousness are going to be applied in this paper to conduct a close and critical study of the selected works to arrive at a clear and comprehensive understanding of Coelho's perspectives on self-knowledge.

4. Results

Coelho is a consciously literary writer who re-examines conventional literature and its structure. His novels employ a variety of elements and themes of the classic novel, the quest for an individual liberty apart from family and culture, in that it not only catalogued his own experiences, but also provided one of the earliest examples of the psychological processes involved in trauma and memory storage. It demonstrates the self's psychological use of the Ego, in a classical sense, to negotiate between emotional response and reality, in order to create meaning around a set of events.

Paulo Coelho's various means of playing with fictional spaces bring into discussion the problems of authorship, which he complicates by blurring the boundaries between author, narrator and reader, and sometimes even by playing with their identification. The attempt to find out the truth and the solution of the enigma in the classic story becomes in Coelho's metaphysical mysteries a profound epistemological interrogation of the means used in order to understand the world around us, to map the spaces that define us and to know ourselves. It also means reading the author's intent and negotiating between multiple truths. The problems related to the self, to its place within the postmodern urban setting, get further complicated by the multiplication of physical, social and mental spaces and even by a multiplication of the selves and their final inaccessibility in all stories.

Moreover the complexity of narration, the abundance of the allusion, the references and variety of quotes may put off the reader and what is more problematic about most of his novels is not their postmodern skepticism about the stability of the narrative, but the gravity and the emotional logic that Coelho tries to extract from the realist side of his stories. There is also much discussion about the malleability of language the so-called double meaning of words in his texts, which further underscores the ambiguity and arbitrariness of the choice.

Jacques Lacan, a post-Freudian psychoanalytic theorist treats the unconscious as a language. When Lacan speaks of the unconscious as being structured like a language he means that its nature and interpretation are analogous to language. Confronted with the self, we have the speaking voice, the "conscious" self, the one who is called into a kind of presence through a name. But this self, like any piece of language cannot occur in a vacuum. Its total meaning/being cannot be present just in itself, as total meaning/being is fundamentally not present in language. In this sense that meaning is never present which refers to the Derridian theory of meaning that the ultimate meaning is elusive since we have multiplicity of meanings due to the multiplicity of perceptions and influence of external experiences (space, worlds) which is close to Lacan's idea of "mirror stage". According to Lacan somewhere between the age six and eighteen month, the child sees its image in a mirror and experiences this reflection as the first illustration of a unified self-concept but the child cannot distinguish between itself and the outside world. Lacan argues that every human infant has to enter its existence in this world to achieve subjectivity and with this entry the self of the person is consolidated and becomes a gendered being. At this point the external world imposes norms on this gendered subject (self). According to Lacan we discover our own subjectivity (self-knowledge) when we accede to a space in the ideological

structure that surrounds us. It would be fair to say that there are few twentieth century thinkers who have had such a far-reaching influence on subsequent intellectual life in the humanities as Jacques Lacan. Lacan's "return to the meaning of Freud" profoundly changed the institutional face of the psychoanalytic movement internationally.

The applicability and usage of these psychoanalytic theories such as unconsciousness, mirror stage, desire, Other along with stream of unconsciousness stage to this research would prove themselves through the main incidents and plots of each story along with mind conflicts and flow of the main characters as they flashes either backward to their unconscious which make their confrontation with new faced predicaments getting more tough since they have been introduced as hybrid postmodern man or through their self image as reflected by the mirror of new faced situation which is clearly arguable in the case of Santiago when he faced by Romani fortune-teller and her interpretation of dream and his confrontation by thefts and alchemist through getting new image of himself by many reflection in the mirror of others and the same case for Veronica in the second story as she rescued from suicide when she played the first piano machine through her unconsciousness power and her love story as it was a vivid view of others as mirror for her recognition of self and as well as in the case of Zahir's protagonist when he moved to search his wife who is a mirror and reflection of his own image and the upcoming predicaments which troubled him on the way to self-knowledge as a mirror to get through more.

Coelho's protagonists are often writers who challenge their unconscious (objective self) to hypothesize and establish meaning in their lives through writing or by their adventurous efforts tries to explore the inner self, interpret its interaction with the external world (multiplicity of meaning) and find their true place of liberty, love and self-knowledge in the world.

5. Discussion

A close scrutiny of the writer's work shows that Coelho has one central topic, which he treats in an ever-changing and always fascinating way in all his writings. This is the theme of the crisis of an individual's search for self-knowledge, which is the focus of this project of the Coelho fiction. By focusing upon the overlapping of physical, mental, social and fictional spaces, this project analyses the subtle connections Coelho establishes between self-knowledge, and its identity. Self-knowledge always reveals its shifting and dislocated nature in his novels and is most often marred by a sense of incompleteness and failure. That is perhaps why there is always something that escapes the reader's grasp in Coelho novels and short stories; something, which is either left, unsaid or is indefinitely deferred.

This paper would present and clarify Coelho's views on the status of contemporary self-knowledge and identity, particularly in Brazilian society, and show how and why the author substitutes single self with multiple selves. I have selected some of his fiction because they provide a wide range of views on the topic and deal with the same questions and they reflect Coelho's opinion on the role of self-knowledge and identity in postmodern times. This paper also tends to feature the healing power and complexity of Coelho's writing, evaluate the perception and critical analysis of Coelho as expounded in his writing, and study the recent narrative techniques and contemporary literary behavior thorough the fiction of Paulo Coelho.

5.1 The Alchemist

By an overall analysis on self-knowledge and the space of its identity in *The Alchemist* and gives an account of a shepherd boy named Santiago and all his space of mind toward the self-knowledge. His thoughts and unconscious reaction to events directly and indirectly throughout his streams of mind and how self and identity can be conceptualized. Believing a recurring dream to be prophetic, he asks a fortune-teller who interprets the dream as a prophecy telling the boy that he will discover a treasure at the Egyptian pyramids. It symbolizes man's insatiable spiritual and material quest and suggests a four-fold way to make one's dream viable. The four basic principles are listening to the heart, following the omens of the world, comprehending the interconnecting nature of the things in this world, and realizing the importance to follow the personal legend. Getting through the main plots of the story such as Santiago decides to cash in his earnings and continue pursuing his Personal Legend, When Santiago arrives in Tangier, a thief robs him, forcing him to find work with a local crystal merchant and his other experiences implicitly prove the applicability of unconsciousness theory and even the theory of ommlette in such a way that all these spots act like mirror to look backward and forward to get through all his weakness to be more consolidated. Lacan's foregrounding of the unconscious lends to his speculation of the mechanism whereby an individual emerges into consciousness.

5.2 Veronika Decides to Die

The psychoanalytical portrait of the main character and her life stories toward self-knowledge through the space of memory. Veronika is a beautiful young woman from Slovenia who appears to have the perfect life, but nevertheless decides to die (commit suicide) by overdosing with sleeping pills. The trace of her thoughts and reaction (mirror stage) to all space of her mind is clearly visible through all plots of the story. While she waits to die, she cancels the suicide

letter she starts to her parents while suddenly provoked by a magazine article. Veronika is now faced with the prospect of 'waiting' for death; a much different approach to the whole thing, but nevertheless she still gets her initial wish. However, as the days shorten and her resolve wanes, Veronika starts seeing life in a different light (desire). The overall space of her unconsciousness shows itself through the main events for example when for the first time she saw the piano machine in the salon she start to play the forbidden fruit as in her early life she was banned to pursue music and Meanwhile, narration also explores the experiences, both past and present, of Veronika's fellow inmates which prove the applicability of Lacanian desire & unconsciousness along with technique of stream of unconsciousness which concern with dreams, obsessions and past thoughts. For Lacan, desire is established in the dialectic of the fault. The Other gives the subject an experience of his desire which is the basis of the position in the structure. This implies a certain dependence on the desire of the subject with respect to the desire of the Other, whereby the desire for desire is the essential dimension.

5.3 The Zahir

Focused on the mind and the faced spaces by a novelist on his quest for true self .The story revolves around the life of the narrator, a bestselling novelist, his occupied space of mind toward the events that happened around his life and the trace of all events (all space of stream of consciousness) and in particular his search for his missing wife, Esther. He enjoys all the privileges that money and celebrity bring. He is suspected of foul play by both the police and the press, who suspect that he may have had a role in the inexplicable disappearance of his wife from their Paris home. As a result of this disappearance, the protagonist is forced to re-examine his own life as well as his marriage. The narrator is unable to figure out what led to Esther's disappearance.

Through the analysis of main plots such as his dream to be a writer but discouraged by parents to be an engineer (desire & Other) and the abrupt disappearance of Esther who becomes the Zahir for him, the obsession and the only way out of his misery and agony and there is also a point in the book where the main character writes about our progress in life which he signifies the definite point in everyone's life at which forward progress stops. All these scenes prone toward the unconsciousness and Lacanian mirror stage and Other to concern with his obsessions and his forward path.

6. Conclusion

The overall analysis of the selected major works by Paulo Coelho and the theme of self-knowledge are to be compared and discussed together. We can discover a certain pattern in the search for self and its identity common to the central characters of all Coelho's books. They all suffer from displacement at multiple levels, retreat into solitude, and often get lost. I briefly throw a light on the psychoanalytic theories of Lacan along with the technique of stream of unconsciousness (person's thoughts and conscious reactions to events, perceived as a continuous flow) to explain the dissociative self of modern man and to re-affirm the central themes of Coelho's selected works.

Lacan claimed that the unconscious is structured like language. According to Lacan human life is life in a symbolic universe of language and multiplicity of meanings emerge from its nature and the entry of the individual into a system of representation, meanings, images, discourses, and myths provided by society. So the concept of self-knowledge or individuality is influenced by the instability and multiplicity of social norms, meanings and behaviors, which lead to the dissociative self and its liberty of modern man. In fact, it is the uneasiness following from the uncertainty, instability, inaccessibility and elusiveness of self-knowledge that constantly compels Coelho's characters to self-reflect and search for self-understanding and a stable centre within themselves.

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Adaptive Analysis of Disagreement Strategies by Iranian EFL Learners and Native English Speakers: An Impoliteness Perspective

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Abstract

The development of speech-act theory has provided the hearers with a better understanding of what speakers intend to perform in the act of communication. However, some of these speech acts (refusal, disagreement, etc.) may put the relationship between interlocutors in a great danger, therefore application of politeness strategies is vital for maintaining face. The present study compared the speech act of disagreement employed by Iranian EFL learners and those of American native English speakers from an impoliteness perspective. A group of 20 native speakers of American English (both male and female), and a group of 50 native speakers of Persian (25 male, 25 female) participated in this research. A Discourse Completion Test (DCT) consisting of six scenarios was used to gather the needed data. This study employed Muntigl and Turnbull taxonomy for disagreement (1998), in addition to Culpeper's (2015) taxonomy of impoliteness strategies. The obtained results revealed that Iranian EFL learners and native English speakers used roughly the same disagreement strategies including irrelevancy claim, challenges, contradiction, counterclaims, and counterclaims followed by contradictions. In addition, the results of a chi-square test showed that there is no significant difference in the frequency of disagreement strategies between Iranian upper intermediate EFL learners and native English speakers. In addition, it was found that both Iranian EFL learners and native English speakers make use of a number of strategies such as personalized negative assertions, personalized negative references, personalized third-person negative references in the hearing of the target, personalized negative vocatives, pointed criticisms/complaints, challenging or unpalatable questions and/or presuppositions. Finally, it was found that there is no statistically significant difference between native English speakers and Iranian EFL learners in employing impoliteness strategies.

Keywords: Pragmatics, Speech act theory, Speech act of disagreement, communicative competetnce

Introduction

Pragmatics can be defined as the study of the relationship between language, its communication, and its contextualized use (Koike, 1996). Interlanguage is referred to as the learners' language system that is not consistent with the native speakers' language system (Selinker, 1972). In Kasper (1998), the study of the two areas of pragmatics and interlanguage is combined and interlanguage pragmatics is defined as "the study of nonnative speaker's comprehension, production, and acquisition of linguistic action in second language or nonnative speakers' how to do things with words in second language" (p. 184).

Leech (1983) stated that pragmatics can be divided into a pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic component. Pragmalinguistic component refers to linguistic means of transmission of illocutionary force and politeness values. The ability to comprehend and produce a communicative act is referred to as pragmatic competence (Kasper, 1997). Accordingly, pragmatics deals with the intention of the speaker and not the meaning of utterance.

The study of speech act realization patterns and strategies in a wide range of language use situations has given insightful results in comparative cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics research (e.g., Al-Zumor, 2011; Nureddeen, 2008; Ogiermann, 2009). This cross-cultural pragmatics line of research has mainly examined how different types of speech acts are realized by nonnative speakers (NNSs) of a second language (L2) with a variety of language backgrounds and other learner-specific variations.

Regarding the above mentioned concepts, pragmatic transfer occurs when interlocutors communicate with each other. While communicating with others we may use words to perform various actions such as making apology, giving thanks, expressing disagreement, making requests, and so on (Yule, 1996, p. 46), but the point that is worth mentioning is that some of these speech acts (refusal, disagreement, etc.) may put the relationship between interlocutors in a great danger; therefore, application of impoliteness strategies is vital for maintaining face (Locher, 2004). Whenever using strategies of impoliteness to soften the threat from the threatening act of disagreement, people consider different social factors such as power, solidarity, age, and gender (Liu, 2004).

Empirical Background

A number of studies have been conducted to study the speech act of apology in different languages with different points of view such as the strategies used by native and non-native speakers (Trosborg, 1987; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984; Nguyen, 2009; Parvaresh and Eslamirasekh, 2009; Farahani and Molkizadeh, 2013).

For instance, Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) examined speech acts of requests and apologies and its goal was to study how native speakers understood these acts and to distinguish similarities and differences between native speakers and non-native speakers in their understanding of these two acts. The discourse completion test (DCT) was used in collecting the data. The results showed that participants from different groups used similar strategies and those cultural preferences influenced their use. In addition, Nguyen (2009) compared the disagreement strategies used by Vietnamese and American undergraduate students. The American participants of the study were asked to compare the strategies used by male and female respondents, it was also found that the male respondents of both groups tended to be more direct than the female respondents. The findings showed that females are more likely to use mitigated strategies than males, and males tend to use aggravated strategies more frequently than females. Such differences indicated different gender psychology and gender identities in their socialization process.

Parvaresh and Eslamirasekh (2009) revealed that while disagreeing with males, young women use the strategies which are less confrontational, but when the addressee is of the same sex sometimes the conflictives which have the most impolite intention are put in to use. Moreover, Farahani and Molkizadeh's (2013) study revealed that there was no significant difference between the two genders with regard to the type of politeness strategies in disagreement speech act. Mehregan, Eslamirasekh, Dabaghi, and Jafari (2013) focused on the role gender may play in the process of selecting appropriate strategies of disagreement. The results showed that the degree of formality of the female participants was more than that of males. The study also revealed that a positive correlation exists between the degree of conservativeness and level of formality in the scenarios of the DCT. Furthermore, GhafarSamar, Abaszadeh & Pourmohamadi (2013) investigated the expression of disagreement by Iranian advanced English learners. They concluded that the linguistic markers cannot safely categorize disagreement turns into polite/impolite or preferred/dispreferred acts.

Niroomand (2011) in a study investigated the ways power relations influence politeness strategies in disagreement. Results of this study showed relations between the learners' level of language proficiency and type and frequency of disagreement and choice of politeness strategies according to people different power status. The study showed that there is a relation between the type and frequency of disagreement and choice of politeness strategies when people are dealing with different power statuses. From a politeness perspective, Bavarsad, Eslami-Rasekh, and Simin (2015) attempted to find out the role, that power might play in the employment of strategies to mitigate the threat of the act of disagreement Among Iranian EFL learners compared to American native speakers. The results revealed that although both nationalities were concerned about the power status of interlocutors and try to apply the appropriate strategies while expressing their disagreements, Persian EFL learners were more cautious.

Review of related literature shows that not much study has so far been conducted in Iranian context on impoliteness strategies. Furthermore, the Iranian EFL learners usually face problems in dealing with speech acts and pragmatic aspects of language, to this end, this research aimed to help Iranian EFL learners deal with the speech act of disagreement in terms of impoliteness strategies.

The Present Study

Drawing upon a prior study by Muntigl and Turnbull taxonomy for disagreement (1998) and the taxonomy of impoliteness strategies for disagreement presented by Culpeper (2015) as framework, the present study aimed to compare similarities and differences in the production of speech act of disagreement in English and Persian languages in terms of type and frequency. To this end, the study first attempted to analyze the types of disagreement strategies used in English and Persian. As the next step, it tried to locate any possible similarity or differences in the performance of the face threatening speech act of disagreement by Iranian learners of English and native English speakers in terms of frequency.

Methodology

Participants

This study recruited 70 participants living in Iran and an English speaking country. Participants were organized into two groups. The first group included 20 native speakers of American English, both male and female, whose ages ranged from 19 to 29. Most of them were undergraduate students involved in different majors. They were chosen from among those people living in America who had not experienced living in other countries.

The second group comprised of 50 native speakers of Persian (25 male, 25 female) was selected as the native Iranian; participants of the study. Some of them were graduate and undergraduate students enrolled in different

programs at PNU, and others were students who had graduated from the same university. None of the participants in this group had the experience of living abroad. The Persian participants were given an Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT) and upper-intermediate ones were selected in order to have a homogeneous group.

In order to choose the participants at first a sociocultural background survey was run in order to choose the participants with roughly similar background. The participants were chosen non-randomly through availability sampling. They included both male and female learners. Since conducting this study with a large sample was difficult, 70 respondents were chosen. In order to ensure that the American participants were native English speakers, before filling the DCT, a demographic survey was used. To set the homogeneity of the participants in terms of age, it was tried to choose all of them in the age range of 19 to 29 years old. It was also tried to select the native English-speaking participants from college student or college graduates to ensure the same educational level of all the participants.

Instruments
The instruments used in the present thesis included:

Demographic Survey
In the demographic survey, the participants were asked to give basic information such as age, gender, level of education and first language.

Discourse Completion Test (DCT)
The DCT (see Appendix) is a written questionnaire that consists of a number of designed situations used to elicit specific speech acts. Each situation contains a prompt to make it easy for the participants to respond to the situation in writing. The DCT used in this study was prepared by the researcher, and its purpose was to examine the speech act under investigation. A number of six situations were elaborated on through which the participants were expected to react and make disagreement. More specifically, the DCT consisted of six scenarios, in which the participants were supposed to disagree with two higher statuses, two peers and two lower statuses. The situations were written on the form and the participants were asked to answer them. In order to prevent any misunderstanding and confusion the DCT was translated into Persian for Persian native speakers.

Oxford Quick Placement Test
The Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT) was used to measure the participants' language proficiency.

Muntigl and Turnbull Taxonomy for Disagreement (1998)
Muntigl and Turnbull taxonomy for disagreement (1998) recognizes five types of disagreement including: irrelevancy claim, challenge, contradiction and counterclaim and contradiction followed by counterclaim. Different disagreement strategies according to Muntigl and Turnbull taxonomy (1998) are as follows: Irrelevancy Claims (IC), Challenges (CH), Contradictions (CT), and Counterclaims (CC) (p. 39).

Culpeper's (2015) Taxonomy of Impoliteness Strategies for Disagreement
In order to check traces of impoliteness in the realization of disagreement speech act, the theory of impoliteness as introduced by Culpeper (2015) was employed. The impoliteness strategies proposed in Culpeper (2015), are insults, pointed criticisms/complaints, challenging or unpalatable questions and/or presuppositions, condescension, message enforcers, dismissals, silencers, threats, curses and ill-wishes, and sarcasm.

Procedures
The present study intended to compare impoliteness strategies while fulfilling the speech act of disagreement in Persian and English. The participants were also provided with information about the study and their participation and it was also explained that they were free to withdraw from the research project at any time, that is, the participants were told that their participation in this study was completely voluntary. They were also assured about the anonymity and the confidentiality of their responses to the fullest possible extent.

To reach the aims of the study, first, the required data were gathered through the DCT, then the collected data were coded into and analyzed by SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences version 20). Firstly, the participants' responses were identified and then coded according to the strategies presented in the model presented in Muntigl and Turnbull taxonomy for disagreement (1998), in addition, Culpeper's (2015) taxonomy of impoliteness strategies was used. Both descriptive statistics like frequency, percentage, mean, standard deviation, and chi-square were used to

analyze the gathered data. To compare the responses of Persian and English native speakers, content analysis was run. The statistical package for social sciences SPSS version 20 was used to conduct the statistical analysis.

Results

The present research aimed at identifying disagreement and impoliteness strategies employed by Iranian EFL students and American native English speakers. In addition, it was also intended to compare the Iranian EFL learners and American native English speakers' use of these two strategies.

The following section is devoted to the results of the analysis of the DCT investigating the disagreement strategies used by native English speakers and Iranian upper intermediate EFL learners.

Table 1

Disagreement Strategies Used in Six Situations by Native English Speakers and Iranian EFL Learners

Disagreement Strategies	Native Speakers		Iranian EFL learners	
	F	P (%)	F	P (%)
1.Irrelevancy claims	40	10.78	56	7.23
2.Challenges	80	21.56	160	20.67
3.Contradictions	86	23.18	182	23.51
4.Counterclaims	85	22.91	184	23.77
5.Counterclaims followed by contradictions	80	21.56	192	24.80
6.Total	371	100	774	100

Note: F: Frequency   P: Percentage

As shown in Table 1, totally the strategy of irrelevancy claim was employed by native English speakers more than Iranian EFL learners (10.78% in contrast with 7.23%). *Challenges* was used by native speakers with a percentage of 21.56%, and by Iranian EFL learners with a percentage of 20.67%. *Contradiction* was utilized by both groups of respondents in roughly the same percentage (23.18% in comparison with 23.51%). Counterclaims was utilized by Iranian EFL learners (23.77%) more than native speakers (22.91%). Similarly, counterclaims followed by contradictions was employed by Iranian EFL learners (24.80%) more than native speakers (21.56%). Figure 1 depicts the differences between native English speakers and Iranian EFL learners in their employment of disagreement strategies.
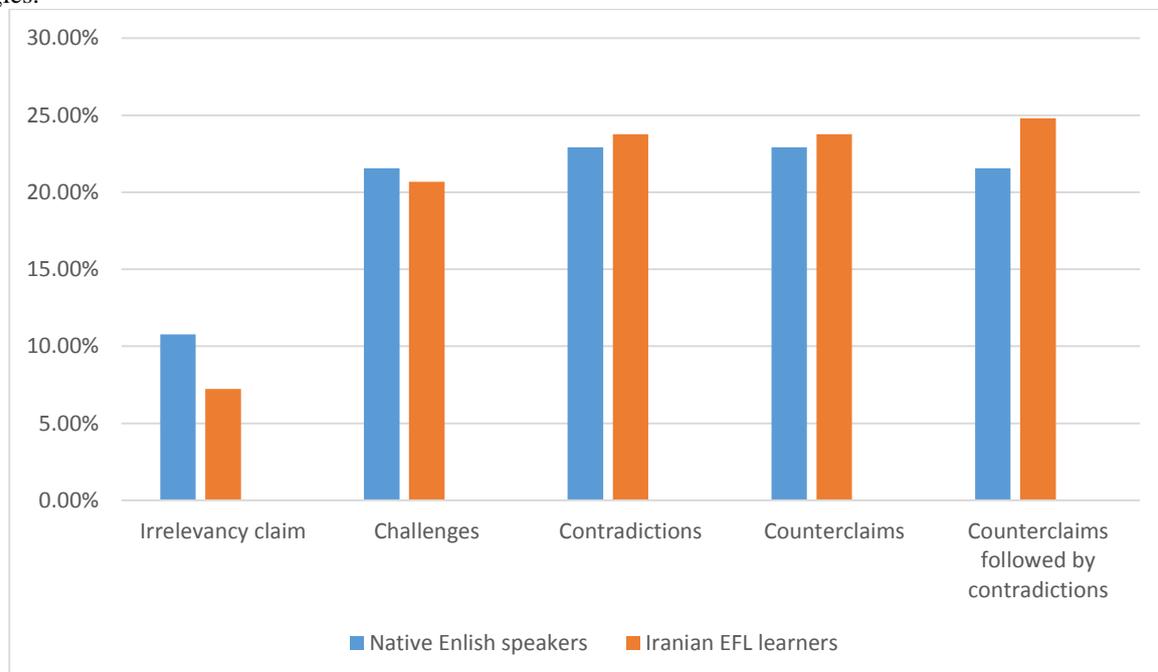

Figure 1 Disagreement Strategies Used in Six Situations by Native English Speakers and Iranian EFL Learners

As shown in Figure 1, there are some differences between native English speakers and Iranian EFL learners in the use of disagreement strategy; however, in order to assure the significance of the difference, a chi-square test was run. The results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2
Results of Chi-Square Test Between Native Speakers and Iranian EFL Learners in Disagreement Strategies

	Value	*df*	*Asymp. Sig.* (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	15.000	3	.241
Likelihood Ratio	13.322	3	.346
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.812	1	.051
N of Valid Cases	5		

As shown in Table 2, the significance value is greater than the identified level of significance (.241 > .05). Accordingly, it can be claimed that the first null hypothesis of the study was maintained; hence, there is no significant difference in the frequency of disagreement strategies between Iranian upper intermediate EFL learners and native English speakers.

The second hypothesis of the present research claimed that there is no significant difference in the types of impoliteness strategies applied by Iranian upper intermediate EFL learners and native English speakers in disagreement speech acts. In order to find evidence to prove or reject this research hypothesis, the framework of impoliteness strategies proposed by Culpeper (2015) was used to classify different strategies. The results of the analysis of the impoliteness strategies are presented in Table 3.

Table 3
Impoliteness Strategies Used by Native English Speakers and Iranian EFL Learners

	Impoliteness strategies	Native English Speakers		Iranian EFL learners	
		F	P (%)	F	P (%)
Insults	Personalized negative vocatives	4	4.25	9	4.68
	Personalized negative assertions	6	6.38	16	8.33
	Personalized negative references	7	7.44	14	7.29
	Personalized third-person negative references in the hearing of the target	5	5.31	12	6.25
	Pointed criticisms/complaints	9	9.57	21	10.93
	Challenging or unpalatable questions and/or presuppositions	11	11.70	21	10.93
	Condescension	8	8.51	17	8.85
	Message enforcers	14	14.89	23	11.97
	Dismissals	10	10.63	18	9.37

Silencers	5	5.31	9	4.68
Threats	7	7.44	13	6.77
Curses and ill-wishes	9	9.57	6	3.12
Sarcasm	3	3.19	13	6.77
Total	94	100	192	100

Examples of impoliteness strategies include items like 'you stupid, Get away, Get lost, damn you, Shut your mouth, Shut up'. Your behavior is still childish. According to the results presented in Table 3, the subcategories of the strategy of *insult* was used more than other strategies, with a percentage of 23.38% employed by native English speakers and 26.55% employed by Iranian EFL learners. Among the subcategories of *insults*, *personalized negative assertions* was used by Iranian EFL learners more than native English speakers (8.33% compared with .38%). *Personalized negative references* were used by native English speakers and Iranian EFL learners with roughly the same percentage (7.44% and 7.29%, respectively). *Personalized third-person negative references in the hearing of the target* as the next impoliteness strategy was used by Iranian EFL learners (6.25%) more than native English speakers (5.31%). Similarly, *personalized negative vocatives* was used by the groups of respondents with the same percentage (4.25% and 4.68%). *Pointed criticisms/complaints* as the next class of impoliteness strategies was used by Iranian EFL learners (10.93%) more than native English speakers (9.53%). On the contrary, *Challenging or unpalatable questions and/or presuppositions* was used by native English speakers (11.70%) more than Iranian EFL learners (10.93%).

In addition, *Condescension* was used by Iranian EFL learners and native English speakers at roughly the same percentage (8.85% compared with 8.51%). *Message enforcers* as the next group of impoliteness strategies was used by native English speakers with a percentage of 14.89% which was more than the used percentage by Iranian EFL learners (11.97%). *Dismissal* was employed by native English speakers (10.63) more than Iranian EFL learners (9.37%). *Silencers* was also used by native English speakers (5.31%) more than Iranian EFL learners (4.38%). Similarly, *Threats* as the next class of impoliteness strategies was employed by native English speakers (7.44%) more than Iranian EFL learners (6.77%). *Curses and ill-wishes* were also employed by native English speakers with a percentage of 9.57% which was more than the percentage of its usage by Iranian EFL learners (3.12%). Sarcasm as the last class of impoliteness strategy was used by Iranian EFL learners (6.77%) more than native English speakers (3.19%). Figure 2, displays the impoliteness strategies as employed by native English speakers and Iranian EFL learners.
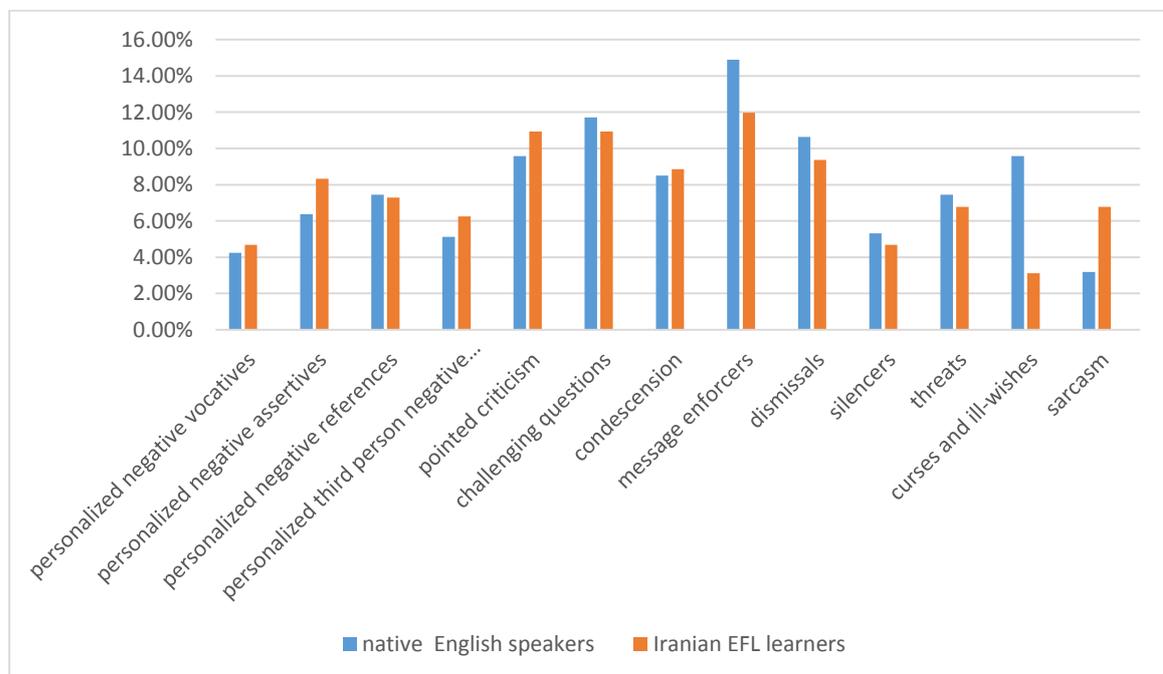

Figure 2. Impoliteness Strategies Used by Native English Speakers and Iranian EFL Learners

As depicted in Figure 2, there are some differences between native English speakers and Iranian EFL learners; however, in order to assure whether the differences were statistically significant or not, a chi-square test was run, the results of which are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Results of Chi-Square Tests for Impoliteness Strategies Used by Native English Speakers and Iranian EFL Learners

	Value	*df*	*Asymp. Sig*. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	87.750[a]	11	.285
Likelihood Ratio	50.053	11	.997
Linear-by-Linear Association	5.556	1	.018
N of Valid Cases	13		

According to the figures given in Table 4, the significance value is 0.285, which is higher than the observed level of significance ($.05 < .285$). This tells us that there is no statistically significant difference between native English speakers and Iranian EFL learners in employing impoliteness strategies. This can be a basis for retaining the second null hypothesis of the study.

Discussion

According to the obtained results, both Iranian EFL learners and native English speakers more or less used the same strategies in conducting the speech act of disagreement. On the other hand, as far as impoliteness is concerned, similar strategies were used by native Iranian and English speakers, too.

The results showed that in general people are more sensitive in conducting the speech act of disagreement while talking to their interlocutors who are in a higher status than them. In dealing with people who are in the same status, the amount of directness increases. As shown, in disagreeing with classmates and friends, people used more direct strategies like irrelevancy claims and challenges. In dealing with people from lower status like little sister and serviceman, both native English speakers and Iranian EFL learners were more direct.

If we consider native speakers as proficient speakers, the results of the present research are in contradiction with the study by Choyimah and Adnan Latief (2014) who found that students at each level performed various strategies in disagreeing; advanced-level students were in contrast to pre-intermediate ones. The patterns of relationship between language proficiency and disagreeing found in this study are also in contradiction with some previous studies by Xuehua (2006) and Behnam and Niroomand (2011) who found that with the increase of proficiency levels, Chinese EFL learners might use less direct strategies to express disagreement to minimize the face threat to the interlocutors. Likewise, Behnam and Niroomand's study about Iranian EFL learners in disagreeing found that "with the increasing proficiency level, learners' use of direct way of disagreeing decreased, but indirect way of disagreeing increased" (2011, p. 213).

Additionally, findings obtained in the present study indicated that no strong relationship was found between proficiency and realizing disagreement. This is in line with the findings of the research conducted by Kreutel (2007) who showed that there was no strong correlation between proficiency levels and the use of desirable or undesirable features of disagreement. Similalrly, Kreutel's study proved that lexico-grammatical proficiency did not automatically facilitate pragmatic proficiency.

The present research found that the more the social distance is, the more direct the strategies for disagreement are. As far as the level of directness and the status of the interlocutors are concerned, the findings of the present research can be justified regarding Brown and Levinson's model in doing face threatening acts (FTAs) and their explanation of possible factors contributing to the choice of strategies in FTAs. The model suggests that the choice of the FTA strategy is determined by three social factors: "the social distance (D), the relative power (P) of a speaker over his/her addressee, and the rank (R) of imposition or the severity of the act" (1987, p. 68). In terms of social distance (D), Brown and

Levinson (1987, p. 68) propose that "the degree of politeness for performing an FTA increases if the relationship between a speaker and his/her addressee is distant".

Another issue investigated in the present research was the impoliteness strategies which were employed in conducting disagreement. It was revealed that learners are more sensitive to the use of more politeness strategies in disagreeing to the boss and supervisor. The sensitivity in using these strategies decreased with change in status of the partners. Close partners like friends and classmates were more relaxed in expressing disagreement, that is, they were not sensitive to politeness. Those with lower status were still less sensitive. In dealing with serviceman, for example, the politeness strategies were observed less than other situations.

This finding was in line with those of Bavarsad, Eslami-Rasekh, and Simin (2015) who attempted to find out the role that power might play in the employment of strategies to mitigate the threat of the act of disagreement among Iranian EFL learners compared to American native speakers. The results revealed that although both nationalities were concerned about the power status of interlocutors and try to apply the appropriate strategies while expressing their disagreements, Persian EFL learners were more cautious.

Conclusion

Language learning is a complicated process through which language learners should acquire the pragmatic competence of the target language as well as linguistic competence. Mastering sociolinguistic competence of the target language usually is problematic for language learners which is partly due to cultural differences between languages. Speech acts as a sub branch of socio-pragmatic competence are of importance for language learners. Among speech acts, disagreement is a face threatening one; therefore, this speech act must be realized with care. This research helps language teachers to put more emphasis on speech acts.

The study was in fact an attempt to investigate the speech acts of disagreement and impoliteness as used by Iranian upper intermediate EFL learners and native English speakers. As it was illuminated in the preceding section of the study, the findings of the study revealed that more or less both Iranian EFL learners and native English speakers used the same disagreement strategies including irrelevancy claim, challenges, contradiction, counterclaims, and counterclaims followed by contradictions.

As far as the second aim of the present study is concerned, it was found that both Iranian EFL learners and native English speakers make use of a number of strategies such as personalized negative assertions, personalized negative references, personalized third-person negative references in the hearing of the target, personalized negative vocatives, pointed criticisms/complaints, challenging or unpalatable questions and/or presuppositions. Finally, it was found that there is no statistically significant difference between native English speakers and Iranian EFL learners in employing impoliteness strategies.

The present study is in the hope that an understanding of native speakers' and nonnative speakers' variation of disagreement strategies under the effect of contextual factors could enable the teachers to inject not only (in Leech's, 1983, sense) pragmalinguistic, but also sociopragmatic essence to teaching materials and equip the learners with some socioculturally appropriate knowledge in acquiring and producing the target language, although no one kind of instruction or a single study could perfectly furnish all the insights that foreign language learners need to master the comprehension or production of speech acts.

Including L2 pragmatic patterns inside the classroom is a major factor that guarantees a good perception of the target language by EFL learners. Ghawi and Johnson (1993) stated that the lack of socio-cultural pragmatic teaching and the error correction have been the reason for what Scarcella (1992) called a fossilized 'discourse accent' in advanced L2 speakers of English. In this sense, EFL teachers can cover any issue arising from learners' unawareness of L2 pragmatic patterns by including those patterns in the syllabus.

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A Corpus-based Comparative Evaluation of Internationally Published vs. Locally Designed EFL Textbooks Regarding Politeness Strategy Teaching: Interchange vs. Prospect

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Abstract

Due to the important roles of textbooks in language curricula, different experts approached them from different perspectives and devised different procedures for textbook evaluation. The purpose of this study was to investigate politeness strategies included in Iranian high school EFL learners' textbook: Prospect 3 and in internationally published EFL learners' textbook: Interchange 2. Moreover, it investigated the difference between these two textbooks in terms of the politeness strategies included and the differences regarding the use of politeness strategies among Prospect 3, Interchange 2, and British National Corpus (BNC). In order to achieve these goals, the researcher analyzed each task in the books in order to know what functions were incorporated and what the frequencies of each function were. Then these frequencies were used to compare the textbooks with one another and with the corpus. The results of the study showed that both textbooks included the strategies heterogeneously among the lessons. Moreover, further investigations showed that the types of strategies used in the lessons were varying greatly in one lesson to another. However, direct politeness strategies were the exceptions since they were present in all lessons. In addition, there was not a significant difference between the two textbooks in terms of the distribution of the types of strategies including direct, positive, negative and indirect politeness strategies. Finally, there was a significant difference between the two textbooks in terms of applying the natural English bundles, collocations, and terms related to politeness in terms of their frequency in authentic English as it was reflected in BNC.

Keywords: Textbook analysis, British National Corpus (BNC), Politeness strategies

1. Introduction

Teachers and students can hardly imagine their classroom without textbooks. Moreover, textbooks put teaching procedures into an operational frame which, to some extent, dictates pedagogical techniques, activities, and atmosphere. Considering the axiomatic role of textbook in a language course, it seems necessary to evaluate them based on different but well established criteria. Foreign language textbooks in general and Iranian high school textbooks in particular have been evaluated from various perspectives, for example, Jahangard (2007), Amerian (1987), Razmjoo (2007), and Shirvani, 2009. These studies have led to a better understanding of the potentials of these textbooks. However, few studies - such as AkbariKelishadi and Sharifzadeh (2013) and Alemi and Irandoost (2012) - have evaluated from the perspective of politeness strategy use, and to the best knowledge of the researcher none of Iranian high school course textbooks – Prospect – has been evaluated from this perspective since the Iranian educational system modification in 2011.

However, considering the previous research done in Iran, pragmatic aspects of language learning has not been the cannon of the studies done by Iranian researchers on locally developed textbook, except few recent such as Jalilian and Roohani (2016), Gholami (2015), and Athar (2014). Furthermore, there exists a bigger gap regarding textbook evaluation in Iran. Since the revolutionary change in the textbooks occurred in 2011 along with the modification of educational system in Iran, there has been very few analysis and evaluation of the textbooks done in Iran en the two new locally developed textbooks, Perspective and Vision, developed by the Ministry of Education for high school students.

The present study aimed at probing the high school textbooks (i.e. Prospect3) and the internationally published one (Interchange Series), regarding a specific aspect of communicative competence, that is, politeness strategy teaching from a different perspective, even distinct from the angle which recent studies - for example Jalilian and Roohani (2016), Gholami (2015), and Athar (2014) – adopted. This study relies on a corpus-based approach to evaluate the textbooks.

2. Review of the Related Literature

Due to the important roles of textbooks in language curricula, different experts approached them from different perspectives and devised different procedures for textbook evaluation. According to the researcher's review of the literature, there are three major procedures for textbook analysis:

1. Using checklists
2. Using questionnaires
3. Analyzing content

Jahangard's (2007) study is the most recent example of the evaluation which has incorporated valid a checklist to analyze foreign language course books taught at Iranian high schools. He focused on 4 high school textbooks and developed a checklist after consulting the checklists offered by Tucker (1975), Sheldon (1988), and Ur (1996).

The first attempts to develop an evaluation questionnaire were accomplished by Tucker (1975). Their questionnaires were based on a number of criteria each of which was realized in a number of questions. Each question was followed by a Likert-scale type scoring procedure; that is, each question may be scored from one to four.

Ansary and Babaii (2002), in a more recent attempt, analyzed a corpus of 10 EFL/ESL textbook reviews plus 10 EFL/ESL textbook evaluation checklists and outlined what they perceived to be the common core features of standard EFL/ESL textbooks. The major categories comprise approach, content presentation, physical make-up and administration concerns. Each set of major features of EFL/ESL textbooks consists of a number of subcategories. They concluded the article mentioning that not all of these characteristics would be present in each and every textbook.

This trend of evaluation is mainly dependent on the use of computer technology and computerized corpora. With the emergence of data banks, linguistics and especially lexicographers developed a data base of language instances called language corpus which later evolved into a basic tool for further research in applied linguistics, especially, material development and assessment. There are many definitions of a corpus, but it is generally defined as a collection of *machine-readableauthentic texts*which is *sampled*to be*representative*of a particular language or language variety (McEnery et al., 2006). In simpler words, a corpus is a collection of texts, written or spoken which is stored on a computer (O'Keeffe et al., 2007).

The theory used in the present study is the *model of politeness strategy* offered by Brown and Levinson (1987). Most of the research into politeness may be characterized as somehow related to Brown and Levinson's theory. Although different aspects of this theory have been criticized by many researchers, it has been the preferred model focusing on the notion of politeness (Watts, 2003).

Brown and Levinson's politeness model is founded on the notions of face which was explained by Goffman (1967, p. 5) as the "positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by his or her self-presentation". Additionally, Deutsch (1961, p. 897) referred to face as "one of an individuals' most sacred possessions" and insisted that maintaining this possession is necessary to sustain one's self-esteem. Brown and Levinson (1987) sought to develop an explicit model of politeness based on what it is to be a human being.

Brown and Levinson (1987) outline four main types of politeness strategies including bald on record, positive politeness, negative politeness, and off-record (indirect). The main idea is realizing various strategies used by various people in their interactional behavior to satisfy specific wants of face.

Brown and Levinson (1987) outline four main types of politeness strategies including bald on-record, positive politeness, negative politeness, and off-record (indirect). The main idea is realizing various strategies used by various people in their interactional behavior to satisfy specific wants of face.

In the field of textbook evaluation, Alemi and Irandoost (2012) evaluate speech act of complaints and compliments in English Result series. The result indicated that the books were rich in terms of the number of the two speech acts, but in presenting them, there were one or two dominant strategies in both cases. However, the books were reported to provide learners with adequate amount of complaints and compliments, but with low variations in strategy types, which may result in learners not having sufficient conceptual and practical knowledge of speech acts to use them appropriately in different context.

Anotherstudy examines politeness strategies in model conversation in English textbooks (Purwanto&Soepriatmadji, 2013). They carry out a qualitative research to find politeness strategies integrated in the conversation models in five English textbooks for grade-6 elementary school student. The result of the study revealed that politeness strategies have been adopted in the five books under study with the most significant use of non Face Threatening Act (FTA).

In Iranian context, AkbariKelishadi and Sharifzadeh (2013) evaluate Top Notch series framework. The findings indicated that the series fulfill the intended objectives and enjoy benefits for language learners through encouraging the L2 learners to communicate successfully by offering opportunities for interaction. However, one shortcoming of the series is the lack of activities or discussions for presenting new words that require EFL teachers' consideration.

Sznajder (2013) aimed to evaluate the selection of metaphors in a published business English textbook using findings from a specialized corpus of written business English. The results obtained from this analysis reveal only a

slight overlap between the textbook metaphors and the metaphors from the corpus sample, ranging from two to three items depending on the source domain examined. The results confirm the need to base the selection of metaphors for classroom instruction on real language use.

Orio (2014) showed that the distribution of vocabulary knowledge dimensions is different in the two textbooks under examination, which may give rise to differences in learners' lexical acquisition and output.

Moiinvaziri (2012) tried to investigate the vocabulary content of the General English textbook of Payame Noor University one of the state universities in Iran. He concluded that the type and amount of vocabulary presented was not appropriate for the level of the students.

3. Methodology

This study is going to focus on three sources of contents as follows:

1-   An internationally developed textbook, Interchange 2, developed by Jack C. Richards, Jonathan Hull, Susan Proctor, and David Bohlke published by Cambriedge University Press in 2011.

2-   Prospect 3, by seyyedBehnamAlaviMoghaddam, Reza Kheyr-Abadi, ElhamForoozandeh, SharamKhadirshariban, and JahanbakhshNikpoor. published by the Ministry of Education in 2013. It is worth mentioning that this book was first published in 2013 along with the renewal of the educational system in the public schools.

3-   British National Corpus (BNC) which includes a 100-million-word collection of samples of written and spoken language from a wide range of sources, designed to represent a wide cross-section of British English from the later part of the 20th century, both spoken and written.

As stated before, the research at hand aimed at analyzing current widely used textbooks in Iran in terms of their pragmatic conscious-raising based on a corpus-based approach in order to know, to what extent they engage English pragmatic function, and to what extent they are comparable to a standard corpus.

In order to accomplish these goals, the researcher selected two series of textbooks, Prospect 3 and Interchange Series – that are being widely used in Iranian context and analyzed each task in the books in order to know the what functions were incorporated and what were frequencies of each function. Then these frequencies were used to compare the textbooks with one another and with the BNC.

Besides high school textbooks which were used in Iranian high schools, the researcher selected Interchange Series that have been used in different private institutes for several years in Iran. The textbooks were analyzed to determine if pragmatic functions are included in those books and to identify the pragmatic function profile of the books. The researcher identified which functions were included, which functions were predominant and which ones were less common or not included in these two textbooks. The conversations included in the two textbooks were reviewed for the identification of the strategies embedded in each. The focus of the study was to focus on politeness function or speech act of the questions and statements included in the model conversations provided in each textbook; in other words the model conversations which were used to be role-played or practiced in a way or the other in the class.

4. Results and Conclusion

Considering the distribution of the types of strategies in the lessons, it should be noted that not all main types of the strategies are included evenly in the six lessons of the textbook. According to the Brown and Levinson's (1987) model, there are four main types of politeness strategies. The distribution of these types are shown below in figure 1.
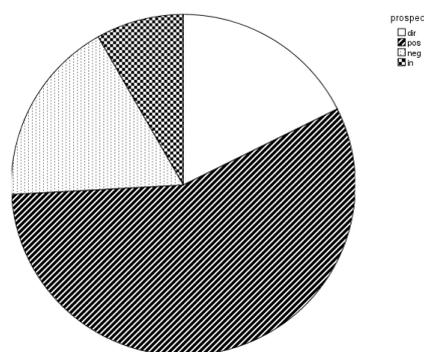

Figure 1. The distribution of the main types of politeness strategies in Prospect 3

As shown in the figure 1, the positive politeness strategies included in the textbook include more than half the types of the strategies in the textbook (56%) while the indirect strategies form only 7% percent of the strategies. However, it is worth mentioning that the other two types of the strategies, direct and negative types, are distributed rather evenly in Prospect 3.

Considering the main types of politeness strategies the positive politeness strategy was the most commonly used in the textbook while the direct politeness strategy was the least common one. The distribution of the main categories of the strategies are shown below in figure 2.
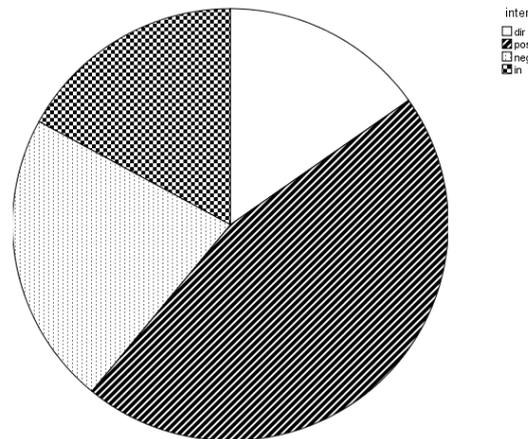

Figure 2. The distribution of the strategies in Interchange 2

According to the figure above, 47% of the whole instances of politeness strategies used in the textbook are positive politeness strategies and negative politeness strategies and indirect strategies appeared at the next level with 22% and 17%. Although the direct strategies used in the textbook are the most frequent type of politeness strategy used in terms of subcategories, it is the least type of strategy used in terms of the broader four-category classification of the politeness strategy according to Brown and Levinson's model.

A glance at the statistics in tables 1 and 2 shows that the distribution of the politeness strategies are not very similar in the two textbooks in terms of the frequency. The following table shows the distribution of the strategies in the two textbooks, Interchange 2 and Prospect 3, comparatively.
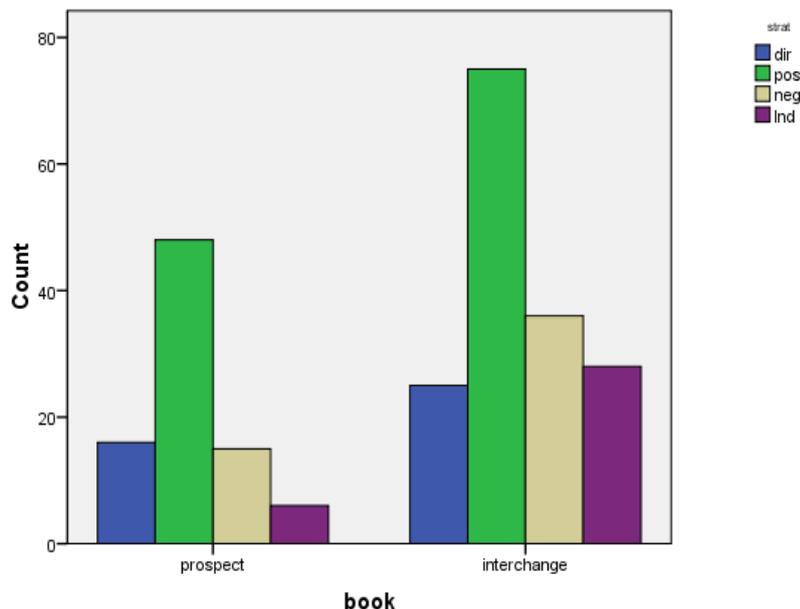

Figure 3. Comparative distribution of the politeness strategies in Interchange 2 and Prospect 3

Although there is a big gap between the two textbooks in terms of the frequency of the politeness strategies used, there seems to be a similar pattern regarding the types of the strategies used in the two textbooks. A closer look at the

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figure above shows that in both textbooks, the negative politeness strategies are the most commonly used strategies in the textbook while the indirect strategies are the least commonly used strategies in the textbooks. The negative politeness strategies and direct ones are at the second and third rank respectively in these two textbooks.

In order to have a precise statistical comparison between the two textbooks, a chi-square analysis was used to shed light on the issue.

Table 3. *Chi-square for comparing the distribution of the strategies in the textbook*

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.361	3	.095

Based on table 3, the chi-square statistic was calculated to be 6.36. With reference to the table, the obtained *p*-value was .07 which was larger than .05. So, it was concluded that the result was *not* significant at *p< .05.*

Based on the statistics shown above, it can be concluded that there is no significant difference between the two textbooks, Prospect 3 and Interchange 2, in terms of the distribution of the politeness strategies.

The instances of the each main type of politeness strategies obtained from each textbook were first entered into BNC search engine and the obtained frequencies were recorded. The frequencies of the types of strategies as found in the BNC are recorded in the following table for each textbook.

Table 4
Frequencies of the distribution of each type of strategy in BNC according to Prospect 3 and Interchange 3

	Direct	Positive politeness	Negative politeness	Indirect
Prospect 3	581	1728	503	196
Interchange 2	828	2391	1308	1018

The frequencies of the types of strategies as found in the BNC are recorded in the above table for each textbook. A closer look at the table shows that the generally the expressions used in Interchange 2 are more common in BNC than the ones used in Prospect 3. However, in order to compare the frequencies in the textbooks, a chi-square test was run. The results are shown below in table 5.

Table 5. *Chi-square for comparing the distribution of the strategies in the textbook according to BNC*

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.006	3	.000

Based on table 5, the chi-square statistic was calculated to be 6.00. With reference to the table, the obtained *p*-value was .00 which was smaller than .05. So, it was concluded that the result was significant at *p< .05.* Based on the observed statistics, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference between the two textbooks in terms of including the politeness strategies according to the frequencies of the instances of the four types of strategies used in the BNC. Moreover, considering the frequencies of instances of the availability of the terms, bundles and collocations in the BNC, it can be concluded that in comparison with Prospect 3, Interchange 2 is more faithful to the occurrence of the instances of the politeness strategy markers as used in the natural English in everyday life. More interpretation and discussion of the findings are provided in the next section.

As shown by Orio (2014) and Sznajder (2013) the results obtained from corpus analysis of the locally developed textbooks reveal that there is only a slight overlap between the textbook and corpus sample. This fact suggest that the corpus evidence, including frequency data, should be considered when selecting instructional material for English courses, especially when the authors are non-native. Although there has been a number of studies on the local textbooks developed in Iran for high school, it is not logical to make a direct comparison of the results of the present study with the ones obtained in those past studies since the new English textbook series has recently undergone a thorough revision in Iran and actually, a new team of authors were in charge of developing a new material under a new title for the new series, that is, Prospect.

However, the general conclusions made in the past research on the high school textbooks are worth mentioning and discussing. For example, Amerian (1987) indicated that high school textbooks represent the structural syllabus and design. It can be still true for the current textbooks since a comparison of a pragmatic aspect of the textbook, politeness,

shows that there is a wide gap between the way the bundles and collocations are used in the locally developed textbook and in the corpus.

The similarity of the pattern of adopting the types of strategies in the textbooks analyzed in this study shows that there may be universal pattern in terms of incorporating politeness strategies in that it is not possible to focus on these strategies homogeneously along the courses and there may be considerable fluctuations depending on the nature of tasks or situations embedded in each lesson. On the other hand, there seems to be a gap regarding locally developed textbooks by non-naive speakers and the ones developed by the native ones. That is, native speakers may have the superiority of being better familiar with the way language is used for achieving pragmatic functions while the non-native ones have less mastery over the communicative values of the expression and the commonality of the bundles and clues.

However it is not easy to generalize the findings of the previous studies to the current textbooks taught in high schools due to the fact that Prospect 3 has been used in high schools for about three years and little, if any, research has been done on it. Regarding the previous studies done the previous textbooks used in Iranian high school it can be argued that Iranian textbook writers are mainly willing to focus on the structural aspects of language (Jahangard, 2007; Shirvani (2009). Unlike the Iranian authors, those who are developing books for international use are more careful about corporation of a variety of pragmatic functions in order to stic to communicative use of language (Shirvani, 2009).

However, as shown by Shirvani (2009) and the present research, the Interchange series and the high school textbooks series are similar regarding the attendance to communicative and linguistic aspects. However, when it comes to the variety of lexical items and the richness of the strategies, they are far apart in terms of providing rich input for their audience, especially the ones learning English in a foreign language learning context with rather poor opportunities to use language in communicative speech events.

As seen in previous research, for example the one done by Alemi and Irandoost (2012), the textbooks developed by Iranian writers are limited in terms of the use of politeness strategies in conversations and conversation practice sections. The limited number of strategies may be due to the fact that the writers themselves have not included the real world conditions and situations in which the language is going to be used or the fact that the language is going to be used for come communicative purpose (Alemi&Irandoost, 2012).

This study was interested in the investigation of how the politeness strategies proposed by Brown and Levinson are used in the local textbooks of Iran, Prospect 3, written by local authors who were all non-native speakers of English and one of the most commonly used textbooks in Iran, interchange 2, as an example of a successful international textbook which was developed by native speakers of English. Moreover, this study adopted a comparative perspective to the issue and compared the textbooks with one another regarding the use of the strategies and also compared these textbooks with BNC which can be considered as a true reflection of natural English as used in everyday life.

The results showed that there was a not a significant difference between the two textbooks in terms of the distribution of the types of strategies according to Brown and Levinson's main categorization including direct, positive, negative and indirect politeness strategies. Both textbooks, based on the results obtained from chi square test, had the same pattern; negative politeness being the most common strategy while the positive politeness, direct and indirect in the following rank. In both textbooks, the indirect strategies were the least common ones.

Considering the natural use of politeness strategies in everyday life, a reference was made to BNC. According to the results obtained from investigating the instances of each strategies in the corpus, the researcher searched the instances of the bundles, terms and clues found in each conversation, role play and the related tasks in BNC and added up the frequencies found for each category. Finally, a chi-square test was run to compare the two sets of data. The results showed that there was a significant difference between the two textbooks in terms of applying the natural English bundles, collocations, and terms related to politeness in terms of their frequency in authentic English as it was reflected in BNC.

The findings of this study have a number of implications for the teachers and material developers. First, there is need to incorporate corpus of the real language use and authentic material when developing a textbook or even a temporary material, especially for non-native learners. Moreover, when the writers are developing material in a non-native context there is a chance to ask a native speaker expert to review the developed material to give constructive suggestions regarding the pragmatic aspects of language use.

Moreover, teacher trainers and material developers should develop opportunities regarding the ways and techniques corpus may be best used for developing material in a non-native context or a foreign language teaching situation in order to further the incorporation of authentic material in the textbook and thus the classes. There is a need to familiarize the teachers of different levels with various years of experience with the possible applications of BNC or similar corpora in order to help them to learn authentic natural English to the learners in foreign language teaching situation, rather the scripted ones.

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Non-literary Translation as a Precondition of Strengthening Language Vitality of National and Ethnic Languages in Russia

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Abstract

Popular and actively developing subjects of research aimed at studying conditions for preserving life of the language(s) are considered in the article in the context of the problems of preserving and developing Russian vs a national-language bilingualism and strengthening position of national languages in Russia as the source and target languages in situations of intercultural exchange. The author's assessment of "vitality of language" is based on research and analytical reviews as well as methods and approaches initiated by Professor Igor E. Klyukanov, expert in the field of translation theory and communication studies. The article states that one of the key prerequisites for preserving the status of a national language (alongside with Russian being the official language) is for that tongue to be used in international, intercultural, business, scientific and economic contacts. According to the author, expansion of business contacts, involving active interaction using national languages, forms the need to improve translation skills and practice, to create specialized manuals and simulators, to revise the entire infrastructure of training and skills development for specialists using a national language in the system of translation activities. As positive examples, the author refers to translation bureaus, whose work proves effective, in a number of regions of Russia where national languages are widely used (the Republic of Tatarstan, the Republic of Komi, the Republic of Sakha-Yakutia, etc.); their national languages go in combination with Russian, and with English, Finnish, or other foreign languages as well. Speaking about the need to develop both prescriptive and descriptive principles of defining the national language as a target language, the author insists on the need to develop a system of basic methodologically organized translation exercises for national translators. The author considers it necessary to form a system of additional professional training in the national regions, addressed to those who wish to undergo re-training or improve their professional skills as interpreters/translators. According to the author, only target system activity can become the basis of actual positive results.

Keywords: ecology of language, language vitality, cross-language translation, languages of the peoples of Russia, methodological support for translation studies from / into languages of the peoples living in Russia

1. Introduction

Preserving languages is a serious challenge applied linguistics and cultural anthropology face today. In the era of globalization, intercultural and economic integration, all world languages (including national varieties of English, which in its unified and culturally impersonal form has become a major language of international and intercultural communication) are experiencing phonetic, lexical and grammatical interference, forcing them to reduce the scope of their use and lose their communicative positions. Although these trends affect all languages without exception, they make a particularly destructive impact on languages limited to smaller populations. The problem of preserving the civilization phenomenon – which serves as a means of communication, preserves and translates the culture of a particular linguistic and cultural community – belongs to linguistic ecology (or ecology of language, ecolinguistics), one of the areas of applied linguistics today. As a scientific branch it has not yet received formal definition accepted by the entire scientific community. A fairly detailed exposition of its history and current state, as well as the content of discussions about its name in Russian and foreign science, is presented in the article by a Russian researcher 'On Ecology of Language and Ecological Linguistics' (Zheleznova, 2016). The researcher believes that ecolinguistics, being a branch of linguistics, is designed to "solve problems of preserving linguistic diversity" (Zheleznova, 2016: 70–73). A popular-science publication "Why languages are that different" by Vladimir A. Plungyan, a Russian linguist, which attracted considerable attention of general public and researchers alike, has also played a role in strengthening positions of environmental linguistics in Russia. (Plungyan, 2010). Maxim Krongauz's book, "Russian on the verge of a nervous breakdown" (its latest 2013 edition being no exception) is written in the paradigm of ecological linguistics. (Krongauz, 2013)

Linguistic diversity, no doubt, is only possible when a society maintains a language-ecology balance, which guarantees each language a high status of ethno-linguistic vitality – another important category in our study. Ethno-linguistic vitality, as we see it, is one of the categories of ecological linguistics included in its space, although attempts of scientific comprehension of this concept go back chronologically to an earlier period of linguistic research. Environmental linguistics as a field of research emerged later than the issue of linguistic vitality.

Historically, the question and study of ethno-linguistic vitality begins with publications by a group of English linguists, among them H. Giles who is considered to be one of the founding fathers of linguistic or ethno-linguistic

vitality research (Giles, Bourhis, Taylor, 1977). Despite the initial critical attitude to ethno-linguistic vitality as a research category, it is expanding globalization, intensification of migration processes, increasing vulnerability of languages, both dominated (languages of small ethnic groups) and dominating (big languages like Russian, French, etc.), that have become incentives strong enough to convince linguists it is time to continue and expand research and specialist discussion of the essence of this phenomenon. Over the past two decades, a significant number of studies have appeared on fundamental theoretical (Ehala, 2010; Vedernikova, 2014; Voronova, 2015) and specific practical problems of ethno-linguistic vitality (Khilkhanova, 2008; Yagmur, 2011; Bulatova, Protasova, 2010) related to a search for mechanisms to strengthen it in situations of specific ethnic-community existence. Igor E. Klyukanov (Klyukanov, 2011) looks at theoretical issues of ethno-linguistic vitality (in particular, the question of communicative behavior components affecting ethno-linguistic vitality) in the context of modern Russian language vitality. A number of questions raised in his article, connected with the current state of the Russian language, clearly and in a more concentrated form are mirrored in other languages of Russia's peoples. El.V. Voronova, largely guided by Klyukanov's ideas, writes in her article: "Ethno-linguistic vitality is sort of a spiritual force uniting representatives of a linguistic community. As an intention, it is comparable with Aristotle's entelechy and is quite capable of competing with it in modern scientific discourse on forces that spiritualize ethnic and cultural communities and determine positive dynamics of their development. In this sense, ethno-linguistic vitality can and should be classified as a category of culture studies (culturology). Language being at the core of it, ethno-linguistic vitality can and should be referred to categories of linguistics." (Voronova, 2015).

As we consider problems of language vitality in the context of language ecology, it should be noted that language ecology can be looked at from a few angles: a) general linguistic ecology (ecology of language as a phenomenon of civilization); b) specific language ecology (language ecology of a particular nation, ecology of a particular language); c) comparative language ecology (a comparative study of ecology situations in a number or within two nations or languages). It goes without saying that external (general) and internal (specific) levels of language ecology closely interact. Thus, in this paper, we consider language ecology as a sphere (system) of scientific knowledge, having, like any science, its object, subject and a certain structure. The object of language ecology is the human language in its general and specific manifestations, and the subject is language vitality, ways and forms of those manifestations, mechanisms of destruction (in order to prevent the evil) and of strengthening its positions.

In a multinational (multiethnic), and therefore multilingual, country, language policy reflected primarily in the state legislation, as well as in various state institutions (whose activities are aimed at implementing the country's language policy) is a factor of regulating and improving linguistic ecology and ethno-linguistic vitality of both dominated and dominating ethno-linguistic groups (Vedernikova, 2014, 93). In the Russian Federation, such tools of language policy are Federal Law "On the state language of the Russian Federation" of 01.06.2005 N 53-FZ (Federal Law, 2005) and Law of the Russian Federation "On languages of the peoples of the Russian Federation" of 25.10.1991 N 1807-1 (The Law of the Russian Federation, 1991). Among most recent developments is the establishment in 2019 of the Foundation for Preservation and Study of the Native languages of the Peoples of Russia (co-founded by the Russian education ministry) and of the Federal Agency for Ethnic Affairs. The creation of the Fund serves as an illustration that, at the state level, a course is officially announced to forming a situation (from the ecology of the language/languages viewpoint) where a presence of balance in the interaction between the state and national (native) languages and search for means to achieve it, including studying mechanisms to ensure ethno-linguistic vitality of the native languages of Russia's peoples, is considered ecologically harmonious.

In the context of emerging trends (establishment of the Fund), it is noteworthy to consider the role of translation in the developing and strengthening the language. In this study, our hypothesis is that translation process to/from a particular language is an effective tool to strengthen the ethno-linguistic vitality of that language. Our research is about whether development of interlinguistic translation as a form of communication of a dominated ethno-linguistic group could serve as a tool to strengthen ethno-linguistic vitality of the group and become an effective means of preserving its specific linguistic ecology. At the same time, we strongly believe this approach will ultimately contribute to convergent and integrative trends in the framework of state-language policy and intercultural dialogue in a multinational state, despite the obvious divergence of this process (Vedernikova, 2014, 93).

Here, we consider problems of organizing interlanguage translation within the following pairs: a) national language, i.e. the language of a people (ethnic minority) of Russia↔Russian as the state language; b) national language, i.e. the language of a people of Russia↔foreign language (thus intentionally not describing them in traditional "source language↔target language" terms because of their pragmatics difference). Our goal is, in particular, to prove that using national languages in international and domestic intercultural, business, scientific and economic contacts is a major condition to preserve them and maintain their vitality. The relevance of the theme under consideration is directly connected to the highly significant issues of preserving the linguistic diversity in the Russian society. However, it should be noted that, despite the relevance, this topic has not been studied comprehensively.

2. Materials and Methods

It is research work carried out by the staff of Russian New University in the framework of the Russian Ministry of Education and Science project, "Creation of Scientific and Information Resource, Organization and Carrying out Professional Re-training in Literary Translation of Fiction from the Languages of Russian Federation Peoples into Russian" (№ 2/2017-7.0-08-P28-I-21 from 01.09.2017) that encouraged this publication. Researchers analysed available data on the state of affairs of literary and non-literary (business, social, social-and-political) translation from/into languages of Russia's peoples, of forms and ways to improve the skills of specialists in this field. The data came from surveys of regional translation-bureaus employees who translate business and socially important documents from/into languages of Russia's peoples in those Russian regions where national languages have the status of state languages and can be used in office work, according to the Law. Also analysed were materials of higher education institutions which are officially entitled to train translators of national languages, materials of regional, all-Russian and international conferences on translation (including peoples' of Russia languages), content of Internet sites and portals on translation from/into national languages and also reports on specialized Ministry of Education and Science grants on literary translation from and into languages of Russia's peoples, etc. The research methods were mainly empirical. The obtained data was systematized and analyzed, with some results presented below.

3. Results

In the Russian Federation, there are more than 100 written ethnic languages, 51 of them create fiction. Despite the fact that the state language of Russia in all its territory is Russian, according to Article 68 of the Constitution, the republics within Russia have the right to grant that status to their ethnic languages as well. The status of Republican State Languages is assigned to more than 20 languages of the Russian Federation. Besides, in some territories, local governments have the right to use languages that have official status there; for example, Veps, Karelian and Finnish in Karelia; Evenk, Evenk, Chukchi, Yukaghir in Yakutia.

In the Soviet era, much official attention was paid to development of fiction translation from national (ethnic) languages into Russian. That, of course, contributed a lot to mutual enrichment of cultures and literatures and to mutual understanding between different peoples of the country – thus leading to a comprehension that a different culture is not alien, let alone hostile. In the last three decades, this aspect of intercultural interaction has received much less attention than it used to, destroying cultural ties among ethnic groups living in the Russian Federation.

In the last two or three years, though, we have witnessed a revival of literary translation processes from ethnic languages of Russia's peoples into Russian. On the initiative of Russian Education and Science Ministry, and in the framework of the big Federal Target-Programme "The Russian Language", three projects aimed at creating conditions for training and re-training of literary translators from ethnic languages into Russian, have already been implemented. History and the current state of ethnic literatures, based on exemplary classical and modern translations, are presented in the Bachelor textbook edited by R.Z. Khairullin and T.I. Zaitseva (Literature of the peoples of Russia, 2019). In 2017, anthology "Modern Literature of Peoples of Russia. Poetry" (Modern Literature, 2017), which demonstrates, among other things, high competence levels of literary translators from national (ethnic) languages. The Russian Academy of Education has established the Strategic Centre for Translation Education in Russia, headed by I.S. Alexeyeva, whose activities in particular provide for improvement of the quality of translations from ethnic languages. Gorky Literary Institute administration speak about a comeback of training courses for literary translators from ethnic languages. Serious work on translating Russian and world classics and modern Russian-speaking authors, as well as Tatar literature authors has traditionally been carried out by Tatarstan translators; numerous issues of literary Tatar-to-Russian and Russian-to-Tatar translation have been touched upon and discussed at conferences held by Kazan Federal University. Literary translation activity from languages, still having the status of official today though practically out of use in official and business spheres, continues; for example, there are interesting literary translations from Moksha, Karelian and other languages. (It is not a rare case that some authors translate their works into Russian themselves.) Important for the multinational and multiethnic Russia is the initiative of Bashkir writer, Aydar Khusainov, who created the "Natsionalnaya Literatura" ("National Literature") website (www.husainov.com), aimed at a consolidation and promotion of information on literary translations from Russia's ethnic languages. Literary translators are traditionally trained by the Department of the Yakut-Language Stylistics and Russian–Yakut Translation in the M.K. Ammosov North-Eastern Federal University; on the Department's initiative, dissertations analysing Yakut–Russian and Russian–Yakut fiction-translation problems have repeatedly been defended – mostly in academic speciality 10.02.02 Languages of the Peoples of the Russian Federation (the Yakut Language)).

All the work and facts mentioned above are, undoubtedly, of great value as factors strengthening culture dialogue in the multicultural and multilingual country of ours; they help develop literary translation as an important area of translation. At the same time, in the field of non-literary translation, as analysis of data shows, state languages of national republics, and languages having the status of official in some regions of Russia, find limited or little use.

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Thorough lexicography is practically non-existent for those languages. As a positive, and rare, example we cannot but mention again the North-Eastern Federal University Department; it opened the Master-degree programme "Translation and Translation Studies (Russian–Yakut, Yakut–Russian (simultaneous translation, literary translation, translation of business writing and correspondence)" in Direction 45.04.02 "Linguistics". Nevertheless, but for some individual courses developed by the Department for the "Russian↔Yakut" language pair, there are in fact no materials which methodologically support translation in pairs "national language↔Russian language" – and no plans for elaboration in other regions.

Meanwhile, in a number of regions, translation activities do take place within the framework of the "national language↔foreign language" pair, and not only in translating fiction at that. It should be noted that for a number of state languages of Russia, thanks to direct international contacts, it is the development of precisely the latter direction that is very important these days (for example, Komi↔Finnish, Komi↔Hungarian, Buryat↔Mongolian, etc.).

There is another disquieting fact though. The staff of the few regional translation bureaus working as interpreters (including simultaneous interpreters) and written translators from/into national (ethnic) languages in the field of business, social and international official translation, improve their skills as specialists and undergo re-training (if necessary) in leading universities of the country most often within the framework of the "Russian–English" pair. That approach distorts pragmatics of intra-state ("domestic") translation, no account is taken of its features; lost is its uniqueness (psycholinguistic mostly), since translation processes within "national (native, but not Russian) language↔foreign language" pair do not fully reflect the ones in the "Russian (state but not native) ↔foreign language". Those processes are not interchangeable.

It is worth mentioning, though, that discussions of prospects for development of "domestic" translation, and its relevance, have significantly intensified over the past two years. Most extensively, those questions were raised at the international conferences: in Syktyvkar (2018) and in Yakutsk (2019), both organized by their respective national federal universities. Recently elected President of the Union of Translators of Russia Olga Yu. Ivanova has repeatedly raised the issue: when discussing drafts of Professional Standard "Translator", and at the Third All-Russian Methodological Conference "Structure and Content of Translator Training" (February 2019), as well as in her reports at those meetings. Of course, certain specific steps taken by the Russian Government (and in particular the fact already mentioned – the creation of a fund to promote development and study of the languages of Russia's peoples) have contributed to the intensification of discussions on the role of "domestic" translation and on the translation status of national languages.

4. Discussion.

Historically, translation has seen numerous examples of the way it contributed to development of the literary language of the translating side. Literary English and literary German, for that matter, were being formed in the process of translation from Latin texts of the Bible as well. Literary Russian also followed that Bible-translation path, if only the source language in that case was ancient Greek. Speaking about the present situation with the languages of Russia's peoples, we believe that in most cases we deal with languages that have a moulded literary form consolidated by rich and diverse fiction created in these tongues, which is not forgotten and, fortunately, now again is being actively promoted by translation thus strengthening intercultural dialogue and understanding in a multilingual and multicultural Russian society.

The aim of this study is not to speak about the culture- and linguo-shaping role of translation again. Our purpose is to speak about it as a means of preserving the national (state, official) languages of Russia, to strengthen their position as an instrument of intra-state (internal) and inter-state (external) business, social, socio-political, intercultural communication, i.e. to create conditions for preserving their vitality.

The direction we offer – of developing translation from the standpoint of ethnolinguistic vitality – has obvious divergent qualities (Vedernikova, 2014, 93). At the same time, the divergence is the only way to increase national self-esteem; strengthen national self-sufficiency; it is a true freedom of choice. On that basis, in the modern multicultural state, harmonious (from the point of view of linguistic and in general – ethno-cultural ecology) intercultural, inter-ethnic, interpersonal relations are formed.

To systematically develop a direction which could be referred here as "domestic" (intra-state) translation it is necessary to create legislative, professional, organizational, educational and methodological prerequisites. We have already noted that pragmatics of intra-state translation is different from that of the usual "source↔target" language pair translation, due to specifics of its implementation and specifics of using the language defined as native, and many other circumstances. That is why the direction under discussion should be treated to as a separate sphere/field both in the framework of the professional standard "Translator", not yet completed, and within those educational standards that will follow after it has been completed. Of course, the status of the "domestic" translator, the scope of their activities, their responsibilities as well as specific details of professional ethics should be introduced in the federal law on languages of

the Russian Federation, and also in the upcoming law on culture when describing translator activities. An infrastructure should be established to provide training for domestic translators in various language areas, including both general didactic approaches defined according to specifics of the direction, and private didactic ones defined by the specific language and culture. Moreover, the training should take into account the level of basic vocational education (bachelor's, master's, specialty) and also various forms of additional vocational education. Of course, while establishing common certification principles for translators, also important is working out specifics of certifying "domestic" translators, not least since their work is often connected with court interpreting.

That, unfortunately, can only be said in a hypothetical context, although attempts to resolve the problem have been made, and those could be used as a basis for elaboration of common approaches. At this point we should get back to the already mentioned university department again. They obviously show a conceptual and reasoned view of the need to develop "domestic" translation and a systematic approaches to training "domestic" translators. It is noteworthy that the Yakut translators have long raised the question that development of "intra-state" translation is an effective means to preserve a national language. This, in particular, is the subject of an article by a Yakut translator, A. Shaposhnikova, published in 2013 in the newspaper "Yakutia" and then posted on the portal of the Yakutia Writers Association (Shaposhnikova, 2013). Noting that translation from/into national languages is a way to save them, she adds: "Today, 93% of the inhabitants of Yakutia speak the great and mighty [Russian language], about 50% speak the Sakha language, and less than 1% speak other languages of the peoples of the North. For some young people it is easier to speak English or Chinese than their native Yakut (Evenk, Yukaghir, Chukchi, Dolgan) language. Because of this dissonance, tensions are constantly smouldering in the society. Those can hardly lead to serious conflicts; rather, due to our northern mentality, the trend could cause abolition of the Republican law on languages in a couple of generations. As being of no use at all". (ibid) She goes further to offer several approaches to the issue of establishing an institute of internal translation in Yakutia assuming that the measures taken could influence both the Yakut language and languages of other, including small, Northern peoples living in Yakutia. She considers a creation of the normative base of translation (including its various forms, e.g. standards of simultaneous translation) to be an important organizational point. To add to discussions carried out by Yakut translators and teachers of translation, a few words should be dedicated to the results of the all-Russian scientific and practical conference held in Yakutsk in April 2019, with international guests there, "Translation in the Multicultural Language Space of the Russian Federation: Potential and Prospects". The decisions made at the conference closely coincide with the viewpoint of the author of this article and her colleagues in the Union of Translators of Russia (UTR):

"• Translation into the languages of peoples of the Russian Federation is as complex a phenomenon as translation into foreign languages, so it is necessary that the society finally comes to the understanding that translation is not at all limited to foreign languages.

• Training "intra-state translators" in universities should have the same position in the education hierarchy as training translators of foreign languages.

• At this stage of translation education in Russia, with 3++ FGOSes being formed, which are closely related to professional standards, there is a need for special steps taken by governing bodies, for close cooperation of everybody concerned that languages do not disappear and who cares about mutual understanding among the peoples of a great country". (according to Vasilyeva, 2019).

5. Conclusion

Summarizing facts and data mentioned in this article, we consider it necessary to emphasize that development of "domestic" translation is one of the most primary and promising areas of translation services development today. Domestic translation can also constitute an important segment in translation theory due to the linguistic diversity and lack of systematic scientific research, both in general and in specific (in the context of specific language pairs) terms. Domestic translation can provide a great incentive for wide and diverse lexicographic studies, including those aimed at developing national-language terminology bases of various subject areas.

In our opinion, a convincing epilogue to the article could be words of political scientist, B. Murzagaleev, of "Berlek-Unity" Geopolitical Centre, at the International Round Table "Turkic languages in the multinational culture of Russia": "For our multinational and multiethnic country, development and strengthening of linguistic diversity have always been of socio-cultural, and also strategic, importance, which could be explained by the entire course of historical development of the multinational statehood where the culture segment has always played a significant role in the unity of Russia's peoples, all equally great." In the context of our topic, the phrase "equally great" has a particular resonance emphasizing the role of linguo-cultural self-sufficiency as a condition of ethno-cultural ecological harmony where the unity of the state is ensured by the complementary interaction of languages and cultures.

The decision of the May-2019 UTR Congress to organise national-and-ethnic-language translators of Russia into an inter-regional section within the Union also indicates that the author's reflections conform to the current trends in translation business.

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Testing Problems in Russian as a Foreign Language in a Technical University

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Abstract

Problems of theory and practice of the Russian as a foreign language testing for entrants in technical universities are considered. The benefits of test forms for controlling the foreign students skills in the Russian language during a hard time limit are presented. The structure and content of the tests, all types of tasks offered on the entrance and final examinations in the Russian language, the requirements to the skills and abilities of students in the types of speech activity - listening, speaking, reading and writing - on the basis of common-literary and scientific styles of speech are described in details. The conducted researches take into account the fact that numerous scientific and methodological researches are devoted to the problems of the foreign citizens testing, classification and selection of texts. The results of text analysis of the Russian textbooks required for testing, two types of tests in Russian as a foreign language for technical direction of training students, future bachelors and masters, are presented. It was found that for control of skills, knowledge, and skills in scientific style of speech should offer on basic science texts, fragments of authentic texts containing grammatical frequency constructions, typical for fundamental science texts in. After analyzing the types of educational texts in relation to the training of future graduate students the authors came to the conclusion that the most frequency texts are the ones of proofs and ones of discourse that were proposed to students when they were having exams in reading and listening. All the tasks were being tested for several years, which ultimately optimized the learning process significantly.

Keywords: Testing, typical test, Russian as a foreign language, Testing, tasks, Selection of texts, Technical direction of training

A Retrospective Evaluation of Prospect 1 in Light of Cunningsworth's Quick-Reference Checklist

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Abstract

In 2013, in line with the revision policy of Iranian ministry of education which updated the teaching methodology of English in schools, the Reading Method and Grammar Translation Method were replaced by Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach. Consequently, the previously taught textbooks were put aside and the newly published CLT-based textbook called Prospect Series replaced them. The named books are claimed to have been designed in such a way that can promote communicative competence of the learners. In the course of this study, 25 teachers of English who are teaching the first book of the said series named Prospect 1 in junior high schools of Karaj city of Iran participated. They were selected through convenience sampling method. The instruments used in this study were evaluation checklist proposed by Cunningsworth (1995) and a semi-structured interview. The results of the present study revealed that the book, in spite of some practical limitations, has partially satisfied the communicative needs of the learners. The findings of this study provide evidence justifying the use of these books in Iranian schools.

Keywords: Materials, Materials evaluation, Communicative Language Teaching, Cunningsworth

The Role of Instructors in Promoting Autonomy in EFL Online Learners

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Abstract

Although learners' autonomy plays a decisive role in online learning, teacher's autonomy supportiveness has rarely been examined in online EFL contexts. Therefore, the study was carried out to investigate two main goals. The first aim of the study was to develop an autonomy-supportive questionnaire. For this purpose, the literature of autonomy and e-learning was reviewed extensively and a questionnaire was developed and validated through SEM methodology. To accomplish the second goal, i.e. investigating the extent to which online instructors are autonomy supportive, 60 online instructors and 60 e-learners of TEFL participated in the study. In order to shed more light on online instructors' performance and opinion, an interview was conducted with 10 experienced online teachers. Although Iranian online instructors overlooked developing contextualized materials and engaging students with real life tasks, they promoted autonomy through awareness and freedom. On the other hand, e-learners perceived their instructors more autonomy supportive particularly in giving freedom and scaffolding. However, the responses of e-learners indicated that their instructors were not autonomy-supportive in providing authentic materials and engaging them in e-forum activities. Furthermore, in an interview with online instructors, 8 out of 10 instructors asserted that they do not consider online classes important and helpful. The results of this study have some implications for policymakers, teacher educators, and the online instructors. They can take this information into account and run an effective and productive online course by training teachers to be prepared for and being enthusiastic about teaching in this critical environment.

Keywords: Online education, Autonomy, Autonomy Support, EFL

EFL Teachers' Perceptions of Professionalism: A Top-down or a Bottom-up Process?

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Abstract

The present study aims at investigating how a group of EFL teachers teaching at state schools perceived professionalism in their career. The study draws on two senses of professionalism: managerial or prescribed professionalism (what is prescribed by the ministries or organizations of education) versus independent or transformative professionalism (teachers' perceptions about their knowledge, teaching and skills as well as the ways by which teachers reflect on or have a critical view about their own practices, ideologies, values and beliefs. A checklist was developed based on these different senses to probe 85 EFL teachers' perceptions of the different aspects of professionalism based on several interviews with EFL teachers chosen conveniently for the purpose of this study. The results showed that the majority of the participants regarded professionalism as top-down processes depending on the extent to which society, culture, ministry of education and even school administration define, support and provide for being professional in their career. Moreover, the comparison of the results of the two groups of the participants, i.e. those who were teaching at both state and private schools and those who just taught at state school (using Chi square analysis) showed a significant difference between the two group in the sense that just-state school teachers considered themselves as much more limited in gaining the second sense of professionalism due to their teaching experiences in the past which considerably had influenced their future goals, changes and directions.

Keywords: Professionalism; EFL Teachers; Teachers' Reflection; Managerial or Prescribed Professionalism; Independent or Transformative Professionalism

Factors Leading to Demotivation Based on Key Stakeholders' Attitudes

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Abstract

Studies have mainly focused on motivating strategies or the student-teacher motivation relationships rather than the demotivation factors in the English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching process, hence, the current study was an attempt to investigate the demotivation factors based on key-stakeholders' perceptions in a context like Iran. Key-stakeholders in this study contained EFL learners, EFL teachers and institutes' principals that their attitudes were gathered via questionnaires and interviews. For this aim, a total number of 200 EFL students learning English as a foreign language from different institutes of Tehran, Iran were selected non-randomly based on convenience sampling. The other participants of the current study were 50 EFL instructors and 30 institutes' principals who took part in the interview section. Findings of factor analysis from a 35-item researcher-made questionnaire revolving around the sources of demotivation show that characteristics of classes, the experience of failure, teachers, class Materials, class environment, and lack of interest are related to demotivation factors. Also, EFL teachers believed that teachers' knowledge sharing low level, teachers' income, traditional teaching methods, anxiety, teaching materials and scores or assessment criteria are demotivating factors. Finally, based on the results of interviews from principals, teachers, lack of intrinsic motivation and lack of teaching facilities are the most important sources of demotivation in learning English. Based on the obtained data from the current study, it concluded that if more attention paid to mentioned factors, the learners would learn better and appropriately. Overall, the innovative findings of the present research improved the conditions for further studies and helped the instructors in developing the learning conditions.

Keywords: demotivation, remotivation, attitudes, motivation

On the Effectiveness of Computer-based versus Paper-based Assessment on Field Dependent and Field Independent EFL Learners' Reading Performance

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Abstract

Assessment is an essential and ubiquitous part of educational settings and with the shift from teacher-centered to learner-centered the current instructional trend favors an environment in which learners are actively involved in the process of learning and assessment. Thus, computer-based instruction as a modern area of assessment emerged as a result of the shift of focus of assessment from traditional to modern types of assessment. Therefore, the present study investigated the effect of computer-based instruction versus paper-based instruction on reading comprehension of Iranian EFL learners at advanced level. Furthermore, the focus of the current study was on learning styles of learners after the above-mentioned assessment strategies. To this end, three advanced classes from one private language institute in Tehran, Iran, comprising 72 students were administrated a homogeneity test and as a result 53 learners were chosen for the treatment. A reading comprehension test and the GEFT –Group Embedded Figure Test were the other instrument of the study. The GEFT test is authorized to determine the students' dependency and independency to the field. The data gathered and analyzed through t-test. The results indicated that there was a significant difference in the performance of computer-based assessment in the scores of reading test while the assessment strategies did not played a role in the learning styles of EFL learners. The study have implications for teachers and learners.

Keywords: Field dependent, Field independent, Learning styles, assessment strategies

Identifying Barriers and Catalysts to Learning Transfer in ESAP Writing Programs via the LTSI

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Abstract

This paper explores how postgraduates in medicine learning English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) reflected on their four constructs of ability, motivation, work environment, and trainee characteristics that might inhibit or facilitate the learning transfer in discipline-specific academic writing programs. Ensuing the current learner-centered approaches to learning transfer, this research investigated a comprehensive account of disciplinary specifications through a practice of collaborative planning. Following nonrandomized, purposive sampling techniques, 16 post-graduate students majoring in three different medical sciences were selected to participate in this research. As a diagnostic tool to identify the barriers and the catalysts to the act of learning transfer, the Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI) was administered. The analysis of the data revealed that transfer of writing outcomes would be enhanced if more consideration of work-related factors were embraced in their education. The three groups of participants reported personal capacity, resistance to change, and supervisor sanction as the major impediments induced by the work-related construct. Learners' positive assessments of all motivational factors and three ability factors suggested that a promising foundation for future educational planning exists if more institutional grounding is prearranged.

Keywords: academic writing; collaborative planning; discipline-specificity; learning transfer; the LTSI

English Language Teaching & Literary Competence

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Abstract

The recent trends in literary theory and criticism have greatly contributed to the analysis and interpretation of literary works. However, one of these theories which relies mainly on the responses of the readers and does not confine them to the one-sided and sometimes passive sessions of reading is Reader-response theory. The principal function of this theory is to provide the readers, in this context EFL readers, even the untrained ones in literary analysis, to liberate their feelings, understandings, and responses toward the literary texts. In this respect, if literary competence is viewed as the fifth skill in language teaching (Oxford 2001) containing the element of culture, then Reader-response theory can be utilized as a tool not only to raise the readers' awareness toward cultural elements in texts but also as a means to develop foreign language learners skills in communication and practice of their language skills. Thus, the first part of this article aims at discussing the historical background of the Reader-response theory from I.A. Richards to Norman Holland. In the second part, the researcher reports the response samples of students of English Language at the upper-intermediate level in Simple Verse course in English. Accordingly, the next step will be to make connections between theories in literature and its significance in developing literary competence among EFL learners.

Keywords: Literary theory, Reader-response, literary competence, Fifth skill, EFL learners

Iconicity in Divan e Hafiz

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Abstract

Peirce recognizes three types of sign relations: Symbols, icons and indexes. In symbols, there is an arbitrary, conventional relationship between the sign and its meaning; in icons the relationship between the sign and its meaning is based on similarity, and in indexes there is a direct physical or causal connection between the sign and its meaning. Iconic signs are divided into images, diagrams and metaphors. Images are the signs which are an imitation of their referents. Diagrams are the signs whose internal relationships mirror the internal relationships of their referents. In metaphor a sign is extended to include another referent because of a semantic analogy between the original referent and the new one. One of the characteristics of the poetic function of language is that the signs used are iconic rather than symbolic (which is used in referential function of language). At all levels of language, namely phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics as wells as orthography different types of iconic signs can be identified. This paper is to study imagic, diagrammatic and metaphorical iconicity at phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic and orthographical levels in Divan e Hafiz.

Keyword: Iconicity; Imagic iconicity; Diagrammatic and metaphorical iconicity; Divan e Hafiz

Is Translation Didactic? Theory or Practice

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Abstract

Translation plays a leading role in our lives and it is of a great importance as it has always consolidated human life as a tool for communication and sharing information across the world. Is translation didactic? If yes, in theory or in practice and to what extent? It is clear that no one can answer this question without preparation and investigation; we need to first define what the real nature of translation is. Is it a science, a craft, or an art? It is only then that one can decide whether it is something to be taught in the classroom or not like any other field of study and with the same existing teaching methods. The aim of this paper is to demonstrate that it is possible to teach theory of translation but not practice of translation. Focusing on this issue is beneficial because many problems regarding teaching translation arise from the fact that a great number of experienced and skilled autodidacts in the field who have been asked to educate beginner translators believe that translation is learned by experience and personal intuition and can by no means be taught in the classroom at all. Many of them also believe that translation theories are all of no use. On the opposite extreme are people who argue that translation is or can become an exact science like any other. There are still others who try to avoid the extremes and think of translation as something in-between. These debates usually leave students in confusion and bewilderment which results in their lack of motivation, interest and trust in the curriculum. In this study, it is proved that experience remains to be an indispensable part of translation practice. Findings show that translation curriculum by itself is not sufficient for translation trainees to become professional translators. The researcher draws conclusion, by raising theory-based, practice-based and experience-based translation comparison that translation theories can only be taught in the classrooms, which fail to necessitate end-result of professionalism of the translational trainees in the job market.

Keywords: Translation, Didacticism, Experience, Translation Curriculum

The Role of New Educational Technologies in the Learning of Virtual Students

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Abstract

The main objective of this research was to investigate the role of modern educational technologies in improving the learning of virtual students, including increasing and improving the level of learning, academic achievement, creativity, motivation, student participation and research spirit. The research method was descriptive survey type. The statistical population includes all active students in one of the virtual universities in the 2018 academic year in Iran.The statistical sample was 109 people based on Krejcie and Morgan's tables. Sampling method was availablity. The method of collecting library information and researcher-made questionnaire of response packet have been used. For analyzing the data, descriptive and inferential statistics were used by SPSS. The findings of the research indicated that there was a significant relationship between the use of modern educational technologies and the improvement of the level of learning and academic achievement and other hypotheses.

Keywords: ICT, e-learning, intelligent schools, motivation

The Effect of Etymological Elaboration, Pictorial Elucidation, and Podcasting on Comprehension of Idioms

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Abstract

This study investigated the effect of three idiom learning strategies; etymological elaboration, pictorial elucidation, and podcasting on idiom comprehension by the EFL learners. A total number of 60 homogeneous upper-intermediate learners studying English in Shiva language institute in Qom, Iran, were selected based on the result of Oxford Placement Test (OPT). After applying the Test, the attendees were randomly divided into three groups of almost equal size and took a thirty-item pretest to ensure their unfamiliarity with the idioms. The idioms that were familiar even to one attendee were eliminated and at last 30 idioms were chosen for the instruction. Then, the etymological elaboration, pictorial elucidation, and podcasting groups received their relevant treatments during 10 sessions. After the implementation of the experiment, the researcher administered the posttest to examine the influence of these strategies on idiom comprehension. Finally, the data were analyzed by one-way ANOVA. The results proved that etymological elaboration strategy was the less effective technique in developing learners' idiom comprehension and the two techniques of pictorial elucidation and podcasting had equal degree of impact in leading to learners' idiom comprehension. The findings of this study can be included in Teacher Training Courses (TTC) as facilitative techniques in improving the learners' comprehension of idioms.

Keywords: Idiom, Etymological elaboration, Pictorial elucidation, Podcasting