Distance teaching/learning of foreign languages mediated by information and communication technology tools

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Abstract
The inclusion of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) tools in the teaching of foreign languages support cultivating independent learning, promotes the creation of oral comprehension skills and the development of listening habits. This study reflects the perception of the use of online platforms as a tool of communication, not only of information, revealing a multitude of opportunities for teaching foreign languages, but also challenges that require an argumentation of their positive role in structured educational environments. This argument makes this study necessary in the field of didactics, not only from the point of view of the resizing and enrichment of the pedagogical framework for teaching foreign languages but also from the perspective of teaching, which will, very probably, not be the same as before. This type of education, which encourages the development of the intercultural competence of the learners, contributes to the global formation of their personality as a social being through the creation of a context where language and culture merge into an inseparable unit, given that the real or virtual teaching environment is the meeting point of at least two cultures: that of the student and the language in question.
Key words: virtual classroom, oral comprehension, competence, ICT tools, challenge

Introduction

Each segment of society is increasingly linked to Information and Communication Technologies (ICT), and in the present situation of 100 % online education, we use them by updating the context, the educational perspective of teaching, and the new roles of the actors in the teacher/learner relationship. The pursuit of my research in didactics also coincides with the current global situation, trying to improve the teaching/learning conditions for the more effective and authentic acquisition of FLE. As university professors, we have successfully identified the difficulties and obstacles encountered during the learning of French by students since the first steps of their studies. Thus, we have discovered the most effective tools to improve the language skills supported by the NICT whose implementation in the context of teaching/learning languages is a challenge due to a lack of training in terms of mastery of computer skills and equipment that are essential in this process.

This study reflects the perception of the continuous process of rapid change in the social circumstances of human relationships, of the nature of communication in virtual environments with multiple interactions between individuals or social groups with different social, cultural, and linguistic identities mediated by NICT. For these reasons, today's learners are closely and inevitably linked to the new realities created by the technologies by which they study, work, and communicate. Thus, in these new circumstances, it is essential for teachers to determine priorities and to orient the teaching/learning process of foreign languages precisely towards autonomous teaching of skills with the learner at the center.

At a time when we had to switch to 100% online education, two platforms were offered to support this situation by the institution: Google Classroom and Cisco Webex but other TICE tools such as Zoom, Duo, Kahoot, Nearpod, Pear Deck, O-Matic, Snagit, EdPuzzle etc. have been used by teachers, effective means to create

their virtual classroom essential in this new reality of teaching, around the world.

The use of these platforms as a tool of communication, not only of information, reveals a multitude of opportunities for teaching foreign languages, but also challenges which require a precise supported perception of the role of technologies in structured educational environments.

In the course of my research and professional experiences, various online platforms, and educational tools were considered to have well-defined value by their use in the service of concrete educational objectives in the curriculum. The use of this wide range of tools or platforms materialized in this study is placed in the model of the real classroom by adapting it to a whole new reality. This argument makes this study in the field of contemporary didactics, enriching the pedagogical framework for teaching foreign languages and necessary from the perspective of teaching in general.

At this point, we must reflect on the reality of the pedagogical practice of teaching skills creation in a foreign language and the possibility of integrating ICT tools in this process. Concretely, we aim to examine the role and measure the effectiveness of the virtual classroom, supported by the aforementioned platforms, in the creation and development of students' skills in distance education compared to face-to-face teaching where the aim is entirely educational and methodological in the service of improving the quality of teaching foreign languages.

Thanks to this pedagogical project of the French as a Foreign Language (FFL) teaching course with students and future teachers of French, and by observing several indicators, we are trying to ascertain whether teaching in the virtual classroom as an autonomous, interactive environment, centered on the learner promotes the creation and development of oral comprehension competence comparable to the traditional classroom. This type of teaching encourages the development of the intercultural competence of the learners, contributing to the global formation of their personality as a social being through the creation of a context where language and culture merge into an inseparable unit.

Models to guide the teaching of foreign languages

In order to properly determine whether a tool can really help the linguistic development of a learner, language teachers should be aware of models developed by various researches and theories on the learning of foreign languages, among which we can mention two which are not entirely independent of each other: psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics.

The literature and recent pedagogical practices of teaching in general, and foreign languages in particular, tend to support the interactive sociolinguistic model, which emphasizes, above all, the social aspect of language and the discovery of linguistic barriers in the communication process orienting the teaching of foreign languages towards competence teaching. "The basic principle of the interactive approach is that the foreign language is learned better through social interaction." (Claros, 2008: 147). However, it should be noted that interaction, which plays a major role in concentrating the attention of learners during activities, does not immediately "achieve" language learning, which in fact would occur gradually, over time and as a result of many interactions.

Chomsky's ideas were adopted by Stephen Krashen to explain the process of learning a foreign language in the form of a model known as Natural Learning (Krashen, 1985: 172)

Unlike the Natural Model, the interactive perspective is based on an explicit teaching model that is not isolated within the cognitive activity of the

individual. This innovation marks a significant change in attitude towards the Internet in general, and ICT in particular, as irreplaceable tools to promote and develop this type of education. The interactionist point of view finds its reflection in a certain number of models with different bases for the elaboration of which the socio-cultural theory of Lev Vygotsky served. According to this model "cognitive development, that is to say, learning foreign languages has its origins in social interaction". (Vygotsky, 1978: 27) The foundations of this theory, through their contextualization in language teaching/learning, deepen our perception of the inclusion of the Internet and ICT in the teaching of foreign languages, tools that promote social interaction. For Vygotsky, cognitive activity has a unique human character, an assertion that is based on the fact that it results from social learning, the internalization of social signs, culture and social connections. In essence, the creation of skills must, therefore, be considered as a social product realized through interaction.

This theoretical perspective can be concretized by tools of the application of differentiated forms of teaching, project work, collaborative learning, etc., where ICT is playing an important role. In fact, the socio-cultural theory of learning foreign languages has served as the basis for the development of many pedagogical models, including the idea of social constructivism, widely supported by didactics scholars. "Social constructivism" (Nawaz, 2012: 7) in scientific, educational literature is defined as a contemporary approach, "one of the most commented and accepted directions of constructivist theory" (Musai, 2013: 16), which sees the learner at the center of teaching/learning.

According to this model, learning derives from a social aspect, where the learner interacts and dialogues with the problem, the context, and their peers to discover the content and the values. The process of interaction and the knowledge used is considered very important since the social aspect serves as a basis for the processing and subsequent organization of cognitive information within the individual by drawing a parallel with the traditional classroom as a language learning environment because the new language brings with it fragments of culture that cannot be separated from the information.

The teacher, as leader and facilitator of the process, establishes with the learners an uninterrupted mutual connection, in which everyone participates by adding value and meaning to communication and evaluating and organizing information mentally. Obviously, we are dealing with a typical learner-centered teaching context, where the emphasis is on the communicative nature and social interaction for the creation of skills and knowledge.

Contemporary foreign language teaching and requirements for the learning environment

When we learn a foreign language, we go through several stages in the development of language learning that cannot be circumvented, a condition that is also accepted by the theories that we have just analyzed. We are rightly wondering about the teacher's role in guiding and speeding up this process. Of course, teachers cannot change the language development course for learners of a foreign language, but they do have the power to influence their pace and the level of learning. Thus, the teacher can help accelerate the learning process under the new conditions, but to make it possible, he must build a complete individual perception of the virtual classroom as a new learning environment – rich, unlimited in time and space – which must be updated in collaboration with the students.

Such an environment is characterized by several characteristics (Powell, Kalina, 2009: 243), among which first of all great importance is placed on the increase in possibilities for students to listen, read and write as well as to participate in discussions on oral and written documents in a foreign language, as an essential practice for the development of learning. The widening of possibilities for creating, presenting ideas, and analyzing texts of different types, promotes the development of an understanding of the concept of content and familiarity with a wide range of authentic documents. Teachers' practices during analytical reading through the modeling of clear strategic directions in context, as well as the sufficient time is given for students to process and create information, contribute to increasing the quality of the skills expected for the acquisition of foreign languages, the development of critical thinking, and responsibility for individual needs.

The construction of learning activities focusing on productive, continuous use of the language is a strategic element without which other characteristics would be devalued. Student participation in teaching is the key to success in learning a foreign language, as opposed to passive learning. Interaction facilitates and accelerates language learning because in the discussion, in the effort to give meaning, students make changes to be "more accessible", in other words, more understandable for their interlocutors by including corrective comments in order to improve their linguistic performance.

Careful planning of the teacher's program and daily activities must be carried out while preserving and promoting the principles of the new framework of the virtual classroom as a rich learning environment that transcends time and space. Considering the objectives, the roles of the actors in this process, and especially the ICT resources available to support learning, the program should be able not only to plan and analyze the process in detail but also to anticipate difficult situations.

For this reason, it is necessary to have sufficient time for each activity, in particular for learning projects, which must initially be designed at an introductory pace prior to increasing the scale. Online work must be scheduled with sufficient time to create a particular space for opportunities, but also for the improvement of the teachers' and learners' ability to apply the resources of these platforms.

Teaching based on group work requires adequate coordination by the teacher; the choice of partners in the implementation of projects and creative tasks, considered as a complex commitment which only succeeds when we take into account the differences between learners in terms of language, culture, objectives, and interests. Encouraging interaction between students requires the design of a welcoming environment and structure where the teacher must think about the deadlines of activities and provide continuous advice without neglecting the evaluation process.

The planning of this process is not limited to the traditional writing of the daily plan – the other, apparently secondary, aspects require special attention to lay the foundations for a healthy environment that promotes success in learning a foreign language online.

Principles and strategies for the introduction of ICT in language teaching

Based on theories of teaching/learning foreign languages, it would be necessary to synthesize and analyze the principles which should guide online learning activities. The successful integration of the Internet and ICT in education is both an opportunity and a challenge, given the dynamics of their changes. However, it is believed that this process is clarified and simplified by taking into account certain principles related to pedagogical rather than technical aspects and are mainly linked to teaching models, learning objectives, and planning. After all, whatever the pace of learning, before thinking about organizing the whole online course or planning it, one

should determine the direction of teaching that is linked to strategies and general objectives, which normally vary from class to class and even among groups of learners in a class.

The use of ICT in language teaching by "complementing linguistic and educational objectives". (Ruph, 2010: 6) should be accompanied by some teaching strategies.

These strategies see the learner as an individual who takes responsibility for the learning process and helps them develop "their vision of the world and freedom in discussions, characteristics which will lead them to independent learning", (Little, 2017: 173) that is to say to develop the independent learning strategies necessary to adapt to technological innovations and new situations in society, and to obtain results whose value exceeds the limits of time and space of face-to-face interaction.

Collaborative learning considered in the literature and contemporary pedagogical practices as a necessary strategy to guarantee success in language learning, creating an active learning environment, improves the understanding of the content, promotes decision-making skills, increases learners' trust and responsibility, focusing on each individual's success by assessing various learning styles. (Borich, 2003: 167).

Intercultural training depends on the ability to interpret information from different cultural contexts and effective communication between people of different cultures. Thus, the process of learning a foreign language aims at the same time to master the culture of the country where the language is spoken, and this objective should be integrated into the teaching environment thanks to NTICE, cultivating among our students at the same time habits of global education.

Critical learning is of even greater importance, given a large amount of information available on the Internet. More than ever, critical learning means reading between the lines, and while implementing virtual classroom tools, the teacher must help learners to think critically by revealing the angle of view and the objectives of each site, considering the irreversible impact that ICT has on reshaping social, political, and economic contexts.

The targeted skills are not acquired by chance, but through an interactive learning environment, where the student examines the information, integrates the knowledge acquired, and develops creative alternatives through action and interaction in active learning and which is a necessary complement to critical learning. Despite the widespread use of ICT, if teachers choose to reduce work with learners simply to searching for information online and neglecting knowledge creation through interaction, they disrupt the learning process and devalue the use of technology.

Nowadays, there is more and more talk of a symbiotic relationship between teaching/learning and action in socio-cultural contexts, evaluating learning not as an "individual psychological" process, but as a "social phenomenon". (Remi, Compernolle, Williams, 2009: 17)

Project-based teaching is one of the most important strategies that requires new ways of organization. More precisely, its realization begins with the simplest tasks to gradually expand and deepen through more complex activities, such as oral presentations, but also online publications. It is seen as a model of activity that moves from isolated, teacher-centered teaching to interdisciplinary, learner-centered teaching integrated into real-world problems. Project-based teaching can be further improved through the use of ICT, by giving students the opportunity to use a variety of online tools and access authentic material. The student, through an active online commitment, has the possibility of using real, authentic French, allowing him to be involved in the learning process, to plan, to examine, and to think about it at the same time.

Differentiated teaching in a foreign language is a basic educational strategy based on the principle that learners are different and have different needs with the goal of ensuring everyone's needs are met. This type of education provides different variations of what learners need to learn, how they will learn, and how they will assess what they have learned. Thus, the essence of differentiated teaching is "to adapt the contents, the processes, the methods, and the materials, with the learning rhythms of different learners, to achieve the same goals and objectives". (Muka, Karaj, Çela, 2006: 26) The need for differentiated instruction derives from the diversity of learners: "you cannot find two identical learners progressing at the same speed, ready to learn at the same time, using the same techniques to study the language, with the same profile interests or motivations and the same goals". (Muka, Karaj, Çela, 2006: 9)

Through differentiated instruction, students guided by the teacher have an equal opportunity to participate in the learning process by understanding, actively interpreting, creating knowledge, exploring, experiencing, and discovering the linguistic and cultural universe of the target language.

Project-based teaching and differentiated teaching go hand in hand with another approach, that of learner-centered teaching, which is imbued with the principle that the learner learns best by acting himself. This extends to group collaboration in research activities and during its critical and creative thinking development techniques, which means that the course program in general and the students' projects, in particular, will be shaped according to their own needs and interests. This capacity to adapt to the program corresponds to the needs of the new information society, where people must be able to find and create various types of knowledge tailored to their needs, rather than simply applying what they learn at school. Teaching centered on the learner does not mean that the teacher is absent, that he is passive or insignificant, but that his role is reshaped as a guide for necessary advice and support in organizing projects and using language appropriate for the activities. The more ICT are devoted to teaching, the more the center of activity moves away from the teacher and towards the learner. ICT in the virtual classroom offers new opportunities for learner-centered teaching and "autonomous learning to discovery". (Gjokutaj, 2005: 32) Collaboration in small groups would be effective in promoting these principles. A series of research studies have shown that "when teachers are able to effect this change, Internet-mediated language teaching undoubtedly produces positive results." (Warschauer, Shetzer, Meloni, 2000: 88)

Students must simultaneously "immerse themselves" in the learning of linguistic and technological skills in order to acquire effective communication skills and achieve their final objective of learning a foreign language. As part of this difficult endeavor, the teacher provides the work structure and support necessary for students who must learn to use the ICT tools in parallel with the foreign language, a skill that is essential for this new online teaching environment.

ICTs offer students the opportunity to find the right information and the ability to communicate with a real audience. In these projects, students in groups have innumerable choices for tackling various problems of a global nature, exploring and reflecting on historical events, intercultural relations, art, sport, the media, etc. When working on a subject closely related to the real world, students have the opportunity not only to browse the network but also to create and imprint their reactions.

The new teaching context in the current initiatives to foster collaborative communication between students consists essentially of promoting the linguistic skills of reading, listening, speaking, writing, and intercultural competence. Many studies see it as a reality quite possible thanks to the implementation of a new dimension of tools, like the world of the Internet. (Erben, Ban, Castaneda, 2009: 81)

For ICTs to be used systematically, it is important for the teacher to know

the level of technological competence of the learners by assessing them from the start of the project. It goes without saying that the teacher cannot expect students to learn language, technology and content at the same time since the dynamic process of learning and developing skills will follow a progressive rhythm.

The qualitative development of linguistic and cultural skills is facilitated by the provision of authentic materials to students and the creation of original resources. We consider the resources of the Internet to be of great value, but we must create tasks and choose materials according to the level of learning, the interests, and the computer skills of the learners.

The technical difficulties linked to the use of ICT can become potential obstacles for the teacher and the learner. The management of distance learning environments should be taken into account by the teacher, starting with the planning stage.

The teacher should encourage students so that they do not feel lost in this ICT-based teaching environment, involve them and guide them to avoid unreliable websites, and cultivate in all of them a critical attitude towards new information by guiding them through media education.

Characteristics of the virtual classroom

"The virtual classroom is defined as bringing together by a videoconference system a group of people, generally a trainer and learners, who can see each other, share documents and displays, discuss by audio or chat, perform, alone or together, interactive activities." [1]

The virtual classroom requires the teacher to be very precise in the use of techniques suitable for lesson planning, to encourage collaborative online work, and to be able to offer them autonomous, ergonomic, synchronous or asynchronous learning. Digital libraries are also an aid in these conditions to help design activities, provide different authentic documents, and share with learners. In this process, help is offered by ICT tools which "radically changes the way of learning and the way of teaching." (Navamuel, 2020: 1)

Assessment of distance learning to successfully transition to a new online teaching environment.

In all forms of education, the role of evaluation is quite important, both for improving strategies and for projecting into the future. Generally, in teaching, two approaches are used: by skill or by objectives, which are not clearly separated from each other and do not influence the quality of the process.

However, it is necessary to consider the limits that distance education can impose, in particular on the evaluation of objectives or skills to transmit constructive, reliable, and valid feedback. Distance education creates a situation of increased control of the learner, which requires improvements in assessment strategies on the part of the teacher. "Through an appropriate learner-centered distance education assessment practice, it is possible to recognize the learner as a major partner in the teaching/learning environment – something that may be too easily overlooked in face-to-face learning situations." (Levine, 2019: 37)

We use evaluation methods at different stages of learning that correspond to evaluation:

- diagnostic (assessment of prerequisites)
- formative (during learning)

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[1] Source : *www.elearning-news.fr*

- summative (check the degree of achievement at the end of the process)

Formative assessment and self-assessment aim to inform the teacher and the learner of the degree of skill development to assist the teaching/learning process, improve the level of learners' knowledge, and to develop various strategies for part of the teacher.

In order to verify if the objectives have been achieved, it is the summative evaluation as in the face-to-face, which can be divided between the middle and the end of the learning session.

**Sample ICT Tools that support the virtual classroom**

ICT Tools are easy to use and enriching through support to create video lessons to explain a concept, tutorials, recorded presentations etc.

a. *Aha Slides* is a platform that allows the creation of interactive multiple-choice questions (MCQ), offering the possibility of inserting a good dose of interactivity into presentations and online courses. It is simple to understand and implement and aims to arouse the interest of learners by complementing the slides with questions that the teacher wishes to ask during the lessons in the form of graphs or other formats ideal for validating understanding or learning.

b. *Bored or confused* offers students a simple and discreet way to comment or ask questions during a lesson. The students, once connected, will give insight into their state of mind-bored or confused tries to improve things by testing student follow-up and understanding.

c. *Snagit* offers a simple way to create and edit screenshots or record videos to show a complex process or provide detailed feedback. This software provides many export formats. For video, you can create files in MP4 format optimized for use on the Internet.

d. *EdPuzzle* allows online creation of tailor-made educational videos integrating video media into online courses. The platform enables you to retrieve any video presented on YouTube to create an interactive video, offer it to learners to survey, and measure their level of understanding. Above all, we can insert interactive quizzes at certain moments of the image presentation to involve the learners.
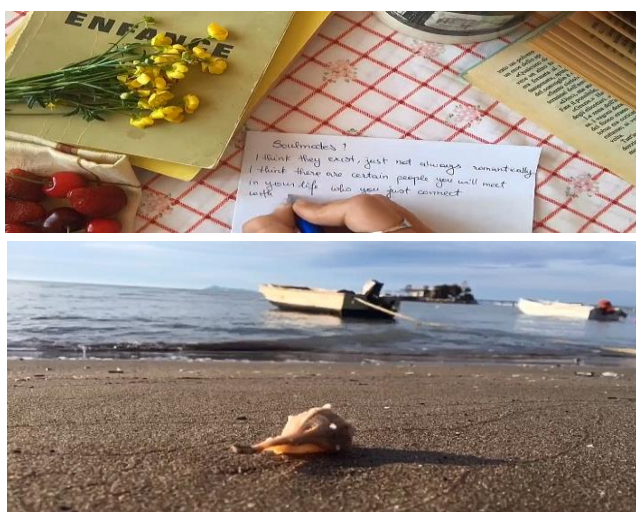
Video created by a student from the University of Tirana

e.Screencast-O-Matic is a tool that lets you edit videos once you've recorded them, add transitions to them, and keep them in different formats.
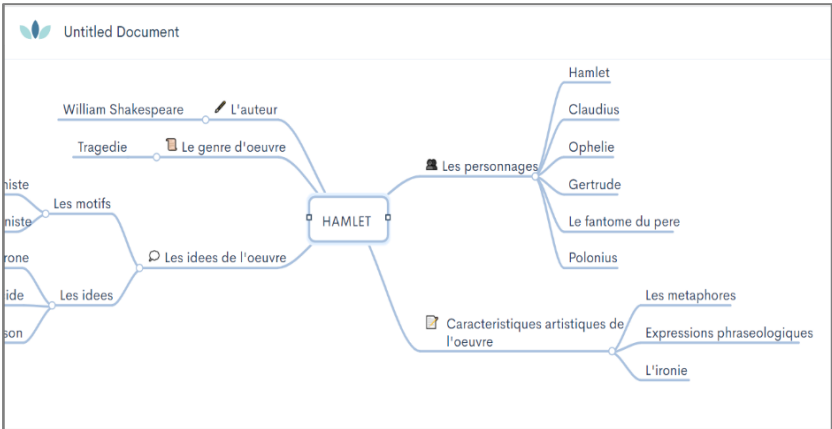

Figure 1: Mind map created by a student from the University of Tirana

Listening skills in teaching/learning foreign languages in the virtual classroom

Studies show that around "50% of communication time is spent listening." (Gilman, Moody, 1984: 333) In fact, listening is one of the most important habits we acquire in life because it precedes the other skills.

Through listening, we are able to understand each other, enrich our lives, and receive important information about our experience. Listening is described as "a mental act that activates our being by allowing thought processes to handle

information". (Pearson, 2012: 16)

The foreign language teacher must sketch motivational documents as listening supports, according to the linguistic level of the learners, and "keep pace with technological development as a necessity for learning today". (Richards, 1993: 10)   Students need to be exposed to a variety of tasks and to different listening contexts to increase listening efficiency and interest in learning a foreign language. It is important that the task sets expectations based on the language skills of the learners.

The authenticity of the material is considered essential because authentic language and real-world tasks allow students to understand the links between learning activities and real-life communication goals. It is obvious that students delve deeper into the activity when the document they are dealing with is authentic, neither artificial nor specially designed for teaching use. "Systematic knowledge and the use of listening strategies are an important element in cultivating the habits of successful listening in a foreign language. " (Brown, Lee, 2007: 397) ICTs create an ideal environment to promote communicative skills and the development of listening skills in a foreign language. They provide opportunities to explore creative forms, "to create an environment favorable to the real use of languages by motivating learners, promoting their interaction, promoting personal values, facilitating enriched learning experiences in collaboration". (Pennington, 1995: 716)

The inclusion of ICT tools in the teaching of foreign languages is a significant argument for their undeniable reforming role, cultivating the competence of oral comprehension, and assessing the level of development of the listening habit through autonomous learning.

Description of the experiment

ICT tools are an opportunity available to avoid the interruption of teaching by raising it to a new dimension, which exceeds the constraints of space and time and qualitatively developing the habit of listening in a foreign language. We will assess its development through the achievement of learning objectives for a period of three months based mainly on listening activities via online platforms.

Research focuses on the level of motivation, freedom, and diversity of choice of media for listening, learning autonomy, the authenticity of documents in different speech contexts. This is essential to learning progress by evaluating the attitude of the students and the tendency of their progress towards the achievement of tasks.

A range of methods proposed by the social sciences have been widely used: questionnaires, interviews, notes collected on the opinions of students, a vast contemporary educational literature for the construction of the pedagogical environment of the virtual classroom, as well as the use of methods and statistics to confirm the validity and veracity of the conclusions drawn.

Students are technically oriented in advance on how to participate and communicate via the offered online platforms. For each hour of online listening, activities appropriate to the level of the learners have been programmed, and each task performed has been continuously evaluated. From the analysis of learners' responses to subjective indicators such as confidence in the new teaching medium, the level of comfort, satisfaction, motivation, and the level of autonomy perceived during work, we have drawn important conclusions about the benefits of the virtual classroom. Students express their thoughts on the disadvantages or obstacles to online learning such as poor electronic skills, language difficulties, technical obstacles, lack of Internet signal, differences in style and pace of learning, noise, anxiety etc.

The material consists of a multitude of authentic documents from reliable websites, as well as numerous listening documents from a number of educational websites, which form a diverse framework of documents and subjects, starting from

real interviews, analyses, and syntheses, recent news from around the world, bringing a mosaic of interesting, complex and often unknown experiences.

The wide range of material offered for study: audio, video, sometimes accompanied by partial transcription, listening material dedicated to teaching/learning opens the way to self-assessment. More concretely, some of the most common types of activities are those of the MCQ type, to alternatives, by filling in the missing sentences through the supporting description, by defining terms and concepts according to the data in the document, by giving motivated answers to the questions asked, "true / false" choices, vocabulary exercises, creative work, literal reproduction of a certain segment of text, a summary of the material, comparison of points of view on two similar supports, etc. The completion of the tasks is followed by reflection activities and comments in the forum.

Each selected material is then developed and analyzed according to a more effective educational concept. Specific activities have been created for each listening material, with methodological guides to listening strategies designed in three stages: pre-listening, listening and post-listening activities.

In the first stage, the students receive the preliminary information necessary to plan what they will hear, asking them to observe in advance the title or the visual images of the video, to read carefully the orientation summary of the listening material given alongside, to study the questions on the activity file, the directions given by mail or on the Google Classroom platform. In the pre-listening stage, students are given introductory information on the subject that will be listened to. While listening to the material, learners are invited to take notes and answer various questions. For the post-listening phase, students are generally invited to express themselves and to give their thoughts on the subject in the group forum.

The nature of the design of the material created for the online platforms and the realization of the work in continuous cooperation with the students is based on the principles that guide listening towards a successful activity by overcoming the initial uncertainty in a complex virtual environment, towards self-confidence, which is then necessary to perform work as efficiently as possible in a familiar, stimulating and comfortable environment. For 39 hours, students from three groups worked mainly on online platforms: Cisco Webex and Google Classroom, supported by authentic documents and activities created specifically for learning activities.

The experiment is carried out in full coherence with educational standards for the evaluation of a certain number of measurable indicators such as: the progressive results of the students during the development of the habit of listening in the virtual environment, measured from several perspectives; the trend of student progression session by session in this environment, the evaluation of productions at the reflection stage, as well as an evaluation of two subjective factors of great pedagogical values: motivation and satisfaction felt by students in the online environment compared to a traditional class.

With regard to the ability of the virtual classroom to promote intercultural competence in foreign languages, research is based on the standards set by the two basic documents: the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFRL) and the Portfolio European of Languages (PEL). Thus, to analyze the performance of this dimension, the attitudes of students towards the development of different elements of the intercultural dimension are taken into account during the listening program focused on the aspects and characteristics of the characters' speech in authentic documents as well as the discussions of the participating students in the forum.

Research methodology and project structure

As part of the realization of this study, various qualitative and quantitative methods were used, the nature and scope of which was conditioned by the interdisciplinary profile of this study. On the one hand, the use of new tools to support the virtual classroom requires knowledge in the field of NICTs, while on the other hand, the creation of real teaching aids, with a view to studying the design and development of skills, requires rigorous didactic knowledge, deep mastery of academic skills, lexico-grammatical aspects of the French language, and interculturality.

This study focuses on the comparative methods of different indicators, objective and subjective, at various stages of the project in this new environment of online education, the results of which are based on data processing and statistical analysis in accordance with the context of research, ensuring reliability.

Roles and potential of online platforms to promote linguistic and intercultural skills:

In face-to-face or hybrid courses, we communicated using limited digital tools (email, forum, etc.). In the context of 100% online teaching, however, the interaction is fully publicized, hence the need to plan how and when the teacher will communicate in a "synchronous or active" and "asynchronous or proactive" manner with the learners, directly by videoconference or deferred in time by sending teaching materials through the platforms. "Communication problems do not lie in the means used, but rather in the way of using them in a particular context." (Papi, 2020: 1)

The methodological approach, the instruments, the participants, the procedures, the structure of the course on online platforms, the presentation of the objectives at the strategic stages of the session, and the data collected have demonstrated the level of effectiveness of the use of online platforms compared to traditional face-to-face environment and tools.

Reliable online resources have played multiple roles, providing not only a necessary framework, but above all a precious source of authentic and educational documents: online dictionaries of various types, magazines, and newspapers, as well as a range of audiovisual programs, used to build a listening program that would be developed in virtual environments.

Questionnaires and surveys carried out at the various stages of the project enabled the collection of quantitative and qualitative concrete data. The linguistic product by the students during the teaching activities: the grades, the homework, the comments on the activity files, and in the online forum, as well as their performance on the tests, at different stages, completed the framework of the study through which the experimentation became possible. In addition, a range of statistical calculations served as the basis necessary to demonstrate the effectiveness of the application of this study.

Objectives of the study

The main objective of the experiment is to adapt the courses and create online learning activities to promote the competence of oral comprehension. Thus, through the various pedagogical models, online teaching is prepared by communicating synchronously and asynchronously. The teacher should suggest activities and resources using educational files to consolidate the lexicon on subjects of interest to the learners with a view to developing linguistic and intercultural skills in parallel.

During the online courses, the teacher supervises the social interaction of the learners with the aim to orient them on the structures of asking and answering questions in French, as well as how to react to new information. Finally, distance

learning must be assessed after defining tools for online assessment in order to make effective correction online.

Resources/tools for the virtual classroom

ICT tools: online platforms; equipment: computers, tablets, smartphones connected to the Internet; activity file.

Reflection

Reflection is the last step to provide feedback through student feedback. During this stage, students are encouraged to promote oral and written skills on the subject treated in the materials and exercises.

Analysis of the results of the experiment on virtual teaching

This study, like other current research in didactics, attempts to analyze the trend of progress in the competence of oral comprehension and the level of satisfaction of the learners while learning a foreign language online using various ICT tools. In order to promote the competence of oral comprehension of FFL students in an autonomous online learning environment, we have developed up-to-date, authentic teaching materials appropriate to their level, needs and interests. Students' comments and observations demonstrate that the online environment offers them the freedom to express their thematic preferences and interests.
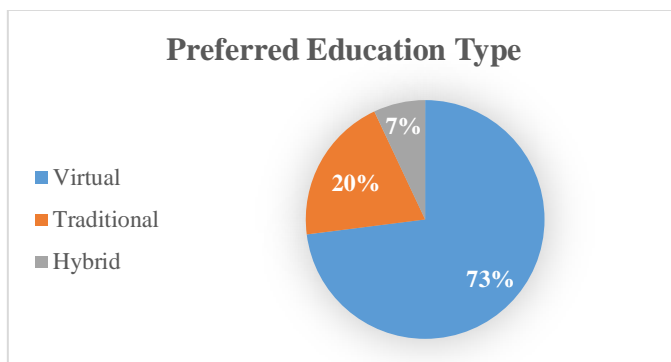

Figure 2: Results of a poll conducted with the students on their preferred education type

The design of the educational material included mechanisms, activities, and practices, was geared to facilitate the establishment of links between prior knowledge and the new information to be received, and is based on a set of principles necessary for the creation of a listening program in a virtual environment whose essential principle is interaction. The statistically processed data demonstrate the undeniable advantage of online education compared to traditional ones thanks to the continuous interaction of their actors.

The results were subjected to a detailed educational analysis in order to identify the tendency of the contribution of online platforms to achieve predetermined objectives related to the competence of oral comprehension. Students' assessments of the potential of online platforms for promoting oral comprehension skills and the integration and parallel development of other skills demonstrate the benefits of ICT

tools, as well as the positive spirit and great confidence in the new environment for learning a foreign language online.

Autonomy is one of the essential characteristics of the online environment, as students can practice listening to authentic documents at any time during their available time. Individual listening online helped them organize their learning before, during, and after the live listening activity by listening to them again if necessary, often using transcripts to confirm certain linguistic segments. All these elements have contributed to the creation of a stimulating and autonomous learning environment, increasing the responsibility of the students and truly transforming them into seekers of information and knowledge.

In order to measure the level of motivation and satisfaction of the students during the listening practice and to highlight certain concrete aspects of pleasure during learning using the ICT tools, they were polled in relation to various detailed indicators at the beginning and at the end of the experiment. Motivation and satisfaction were assessed at significantly high levels during the experience in online platforms, which further confirms the positive impact of ICT tools on the learning process.

Linguistic difficulties in online listening materials create barriers for a number of students. 47 % of the students affirmed the presence of the barriers, connecting them to problems of pronunciation, speed, but also to the frequency of unknown words and the length of authentic documents.

Statistical analysis of the survey results showed a significant improvement in the skills of oral comprehension, confirming the value of this study on the various opportunities to teach through online platforms in a 100% virtual environment. Students have adapted to a new environment with different individual tendencies.

To assess student performance during listening activities, we analyzed:
- the tendency of students to progress from task to task
- the nature or character of the students' responses during the reflection phase by measuring two indicators:
  a) the level of student participation
  b) the length of written responses

In this new environment, a considerable influence would have been exerted by the time of exposure of students to the material of the listening activity on online platforms. In addition to the exposure time, the nature of the virtual environment and the variety of materials it offers have influenced the improvement of their results.
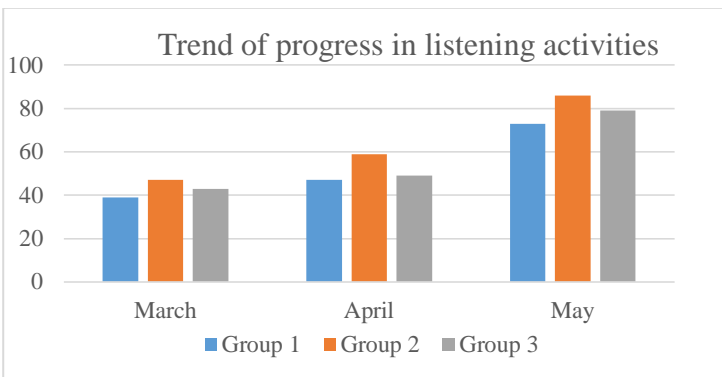

Figure 3: Results of students' performance in listening activities measure over time

The types of materials, both in form and in content, was much richer: the various real themes of current events engaged the sensitivity of the students, but also the format of their presentation in the form of videos, which provided them a complex context and in addition to the visual encounter with the speaker, better-oriented students towards listening, by offering them models that remain closer to real listening in everyday life.

Finally, students are invited to reflect and provide solutions to the problems encountered in the documents offered. The brainstorming activity consisted mainly of asking a summary question on the material heard and was primarily facilitated in the forum. This step takes on a new dimension, as discussions, debates, and suggestions are published in the forum so that they become accessible to all the students of the group where they interact in an asynchronous manner by leaving comments.

Through the comparison of various survey indicators, we notice active participation of the students, which means that this listening program aroused a lot of interest. The elements of cohesion, lexicon consistency, and grammatical domain of written productions, suggest improved efficacy of the ICT tools in this new teaching/learning environment online, as compared to the traditional environment.

Conclusions

The environment for teaching / learning foreign languages online through ICT tools like differentiated, learner-centered teaching has been shown to ensure a progressively positive process. Clearly, this new environment increases the level of responsibility and commitment of learners to present themselves as best as possible in the performance of tasks, very evident in writing and commenting posted in the group forum. The gradual improvement of the skills needed for this environment over time overcomes various difficulties when listening to documents in French, such as poor computer skills, linguistic difficulties of the text to listen to, technical obstacles, inconsistent style of learning, lack of internet signal, emotional insecurities during work etc.

Motivation and satisfaction during the listening sessions increased significantly in the presence of ICT tools. Students describe the given task as motivating, interesting, stimulating, and very useful for their training as well as affirming the pleasure of listening to interesting materials in authentic French. The use of additional links plays an essential role in improving the level of oral comprehension and promoting the expression skills of students. The students had very positive assessments of the way in which the sessions are organized through asynchronous virtual communication suitable for autonomous learning.

The qualitative work is done online, by providing reflective and varied written productions respects the guidelines for writing an essay. They are more qualitative online, thanks to the presence of virtual dictionaries and the use of additional links to find precise, authentic, and in-depth information in order to improve the students' written comprehension. The students' responses are consistent with a dynamic style, where the role of different sites is again reaffirmed in promoting students' listening skills and in promoting other linguistic and intercultural skills. It is valuable to underline that certain students, normally quiet in the traditional classroom, seemed almost "awakened" online – becoming consistently active, working hard, and displaying convincing progress.

In conclusion, the analysis of a series of objective and subjective elements, the results and the positive evaluation of the students on the effectiveness of this new environment, thanks to the various online platforms designed in accordance with the

teaching program, support an undeniable fact. that this type of education should be seen as an effective alternative for the future of education in general and foreign languages in particular.

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Teaching mediation skills at technology-enhanced ESP classes at technical universities

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Abstract
Mediation is a new trend in the language teaching methodology that has been disregarded at English language classes at technical universities. While teaching ESP students is crucial to develop and improve their complex communicative competence, it should not be limited to reading, writing, listening, and speaking skills because real-life communication involves more sophisticated language skills such as mediation. Linguistic mediation is a dual-nature phenomenon with cognitive and linguistics domains. The present study demonstrates some practical recommendations on how to implement mediation teaching into ESP courses with the integration of online educational technologies. Our study was carried out among ESP teachers at a technical university and outlines the findings of an empirical study on teachers' perception of language mediation. Our evidence-based findings and personal experience confirm that mediation can enrich the ESP syllabus and bridge the gap between the university and real professional life.
Key words: mediation, educational technologies, ESP, language competence, field-oriented communication

Introduction

The processes of international integration and globalization of the main spheres of society determine the need for specialists who act as intermediaries between their own and other professional cultures, carrying out the necessary mediation activities both in written and oral forms. Mediation, or the transmission of information through an intermediary, is becoming mainstream in the modern foreign language teaching methodology. The current level of international interaction of representatives of different professional communities indicates that knowledge of a foreign language is not always sufficient for foreign language professional communication. There is a growing need for professionals who can act as intermediaries between their own and other professional cultures, to carry out appropriate mediation activities in writing, as in the context of international integration of post-industrial society, the amount of professionally oriented information in writing in different languages increases.

Traditional strategies of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) teaching were previously constructed around four basic language skills: reading, speaking, writing, and listening. Nowadays, educational goals are set according to students' needs that impact the context of the educational process. Curricular should reflect the workplace language reality that goes beyond these four skills. Basic skills are still enough to process the text or information, but not enough to communicate it to representatives of other cultures, professions, or non-experts. Therefore, updated CEFR (2018) recommendations suggested four main dimensions of English language competence: reception, production, interaction, and mediation. The last dimension is focused on adapting the information, collaborating, explaining, synthesizing texts and ideas, managing successful interaction. The mediation skill is not completely new, but it has been transformed into a more extended and more interactive way of language, cultural, and social competence acquisition. So, this dimension can complement rather than replace the course goals. Mediation is a crucial skill that combines language

competence and "soft" skills for meaningful information communication (Lavrysh, 2016).

In order to interact effectively in society, it is necessary to introduce mediation skills training at all levels of education. In the field of theory and study of foreign languages, mediation is understood as the interaction between social agents, who, for some reason, cannot communicate directly and co-construct the meaning during the interaction. Skills of mediation include interpretation of concepts, paraphrases, summary, report, a retelling of the information, generalization of information, recording information to transfer it to another participant of interaction, annotation, abstracting. All these examples of mediation can be carried out in the context of professional or personal communication. Mediation also can be regarded as a cognitive skill because it deals with paraphrasing skills, changes in the style and level of complexity of the language depending on the needs of the interlocutor or audience, explanations through examples or generalizations. For the specialists in the field of foreign language teaching, it means that the task is to develop a special component of discursive (speech) competence, namely: language and extra-linguistic skills and ways of working in language mediation, which form the meditative competence of the student.

The purpose of the study is to demonstrate the ways of teaching language mediation in the technology-enriched educational environment for students of engineering specialties. In order to obtain credible findings, the following questions were proposed:
1. How do teachers of ESP perceive mediation as an educational phenomenon?
2. What educational strategies and educational technologies are efficient in teaching mediation in ESP course?

Theoretical background

In linguistic research, mediation is considered as a special kind of discourse, as it is characterized by specific cognitive, communicative, and pragmatic strategies that are the driving force behind the main communicative task of mediation discourse - achieving an alternative solution that would reconcile the audience. In modern methodological literature, mediation is understood as translation, adapted to social needs in order to adjust mutual understanding between representatives of different cultures in acts of communication in various fields. The concept of mediation has been outlined in a variety of works by scholars such as Brown (2002), Azadi, Biria, Nasri (2018), Cheng (2011), Chovancova (2016), who consider mediation as a constituent of adult education which involves language learning as a part of formal and informal education. It should be noted that mediating involves not only verbal forms of communication (oral, written, or interactive) but also exclusively visual or paratextual (for example, drawings, graphs, charts, etc.). In addition, mediation can be multimedia or hybrid (Viaggio, 2000) and allows predicting of different sources of information: from the verbal text (oral or written), supplemented by video and audio text. Viaggio (2000) understands mediation as a creation of relevant identity between what the author wanted to convey and what the recipient understood. Due to the mediator's heuristic competence, he creates an optimally relevant series of speech acts, taking into account that in the presence of subjective and objective limitations typical for in any intercultural mediation, it is possible to obtain the mentioned above relevant identity.

According to Bayram (2008), training mediation should begin at a stage when students have already acquired a certain language competence level (but not lower than B1) and socio-cultural knowledge and skills. Such training is focused on the formation and development of special speech skills necessary for intercultural

communication. The modern explanation of mediation is at variance with previous concepts of language acquisition that separated the notions of the language itself and language use. Nowadays, language learning, ESP, in particular, is seen through social or professional content. Such perception of mediation contributes to the language identity construction process (Pavlenko, Lantolf, 2000). Howell (2017) notices that efficient mediation requires "interpersonal skills such as appropriate non-verbal communication (distance, gesture, touch, expression) and active listening using checks, confirmations, and clarifications" (Howell, 2017:149). The relevance of mediation to ESP students was argued by Hutanu and Jieanu (2019), who states that language mediation creates meaningful activities for competence- and task-based classes due to its complexity and real-life reflection.

North and Piccardo (2016) outline two types of linguistic mediation: interlinguistic (transforming one kind of text into another, interpreting skills in terms of two or more languages) and intralinquistic that can be performed in the target language (reporting, summarizing, explaining, clarifying). However, Lewis, Jones, Baker (2012) separate the mediation that is carried out in a multilingual environment. They explain that such kind of collaborative integration is more familiar to students who study a foreign language. Thus, the mediation skills are better developed in those students who know several foreign languages.

In the process of learning a foreign language, in particular, English, mediation, according to some researchers (North, Docherty, 2016; Peacock , 2009) is demonstrated through the following forms:

1) non-interactive - transmission of information from the communicator to the recipient: a) translation; b) abstracting; c) annotation; d) review; e) retelling; f) summarizing.
2) Interactive - the communicator sends some information to the recipient in order to get a response from him. The mediator supports the interactive process by transmitting messages from the communicator to the recipient and then vice versa: a) consecutive translation; b) textualization of intentions; c) mediation in negotiations;
3) mixed-language mediation with elements of interaction between the mediator and one of the communicants (presentation of the collected information followed by discussion)

Experts who developed CEFR, highlight that mediation can be managed through three dimensions: mediating a text, mediating concepts, and mediating communication. Mediating a text means transferring the content of a text to someone who does not have access to it (CEFR 2018: 106-117). Mediating concepts refer to the process of facilitating access to knowledge and concepts to others, both from a relational and a cognitive point of view. Mediating communication outlines the process of facilitating understanding and communication by acting as a linguistic and cultural link between people. With a view of successful mediation teaching, CEFR (2018) guidelines suggest to us different mediation situations, which can be combined. In these activities, students:
- after reading a text, should produce a message with related content to another person who has no access to the first text;
- perform the role of a mediator in a face-to-face interaction between two interlocutors who do not understand one another for whatever reason;
- explain a cultural phenomenon to representatives of another culture;
- participate in a conversation or discussion that involves code-switching or changing the level of information complexity.

If we consider mediation as a learning activity, it should be assessed to demonstrate the students' academic dynamics. Scholars Coste and Cavalli (2015) carried out an empirical study to identify the descriptors of mediating activity verification and assessment. By means of these descriptors, teachers are able to

develop mediation competence relevant to all types and contexts of language application.

The modern trends in education imply the integration of technologies into the process of teaching all subjects, language learning, and mediation as well are not an exception. Educational technology as a tool for mediation teaching is projected in Shapira's study (2016) where he indicates that technologies can serve as knowledge mediators when students read Wikipedia with brief information about a subject, perform online tests or MOOCs. Computer-assisted strategies suggest more opportunities to use mediation skills while communicating in terms of internationalization and globalization of all fields of human interaction and cooperation.

Methodology

The present study is based on an action qualitative research design framework (Creswell, 2005) that was used to obtain education practitioners' reflection and perceptions of linguistic mediation teaching enhanced with mobile learning from personal teaching practice. The key idea of the study was to describe the context, experience, challenges, and perspectives of the mediation enhancement to view this educational issue holistically. The action research framework was employed to provide evidence-based results of the study, and the active involvement of participants in the study added relevance and reliability to the quality of the results. The study procedure included some stages: initial questionnaire for teachers about their perception of the mediation as educational phenomena, the follow up three webinars sessions from the experts about the mediation nature and the ways of its integration into the teaching process, classes observations to support teachers' practice and to verify the learning outcomes, final self- reflective report and open discussion on the results of the experiment.

Data collection and analysis tools

In order to collect data, we used open-ended questionnaires provided through Google Forms, 2 lessons video-recording, and 4 observations with rubrics for the evaluation of mediation teaching quality and self-reflection reports to assess the level of skills development. These data collection tools displayed teachers' perception of such issues as mediation, mobile technologies, collaborative ways of teaching, mediation skills assessment. The questionnaire included the following questions:
1. What language skills does mediation belong to: reading, writing, listening, or speaking?
2. What is the idea of language mediation?
3. What mediation activities do you use?
4. What are the criteria for mediation skill assessment?
5. How often do you suggest students mediation activities?
6. Do you integrate mobile technologies and mediation activities? If yes, list some of technologies.

With a view of questionnaires and self-reflection reports data analysis, we employed content analysis to reach credible research findings. The questions for self-reflection reports were:
1. What have you known about the mediation?
2. What issues are still disputable for you?
3. How did you integrate the mobile technologies and mediation activities in your classes?
4. What benefits of mediation have you noticed?

5. What challenges did you encounter?

The teaching quality of classes with meditation integration was evaluated according to the observation rubric suggested by the experts. The observed teachers were informed that the observation goal was to support and to identify the students' reaction, successful ideas, and challenges rather than an evaluation of class management and academic performance. Classes with meditation activities correlated the curricular of the ESP and students' language level and social background. Participants were not limited in the choice of the students' course, group, or language level.

Participants and research ethics

The participants of the study were teachers of ESP (n=50) from the Faculty of Linguistics National Technical University of Ukraine "Igor Sikorsky Kyiv Polytechnic Institute". Participants were selected randomly according to their personal wish to participate in the professional development study. Participants were with different teaching experience terms: 22 novice teachers (experience less than 3 years), teachers with experience from 3-10 years (n=23), teachers with an experience more than 20 years (n=5). Teachers gave their agreement on classes video-recording and results processing; questionnaires were anonymous. Teachers could discontinue their participation at any time of the study. Experts for webinars performance and class observations were invited from the center for English language teaching excellence. The study was designed and initiated by teachers of the Department of English for Engineering. The researchers of the study played the non-participant observer role (Creswell, 2005). The procedure of the study was approved by the Scientific Boards of the faculty of Linguistics.

Results and Discussion

The qualitative data collected from the questionnaire, self-reports, and class observations provided evidence on how mediation was perceived by teachers initially and the dynamic of meaningful transformations of the mediation integration. The questionnaire findings revealed that teachers (86%) had little knowledge of mediation and ways of its integration into the educational process. Participants (78%) mostly described the process of mediation between a teacher and students while the knowledge transition where a teacher performed the role of a mediator. Some of the participants (44%) wrongly viewed the mediation as pure translation or retelling of texts, and they were not connected to ESP discourse. The majority of teachers (77%) did not use educational technologies for mediation. However, 23% of teachers pointed out a few language technologies they used during the classes as for mediation, but in fact, mostly applied for grammar or vocabulary learning. The situation dramatically changed after the short course on mediation and personal experience of mediation teaching. The distribution of mediating activities used before the course on mediation integration is presented in Figure 1 and after the course –Figure 2 (10 points as the highest score of distribution).
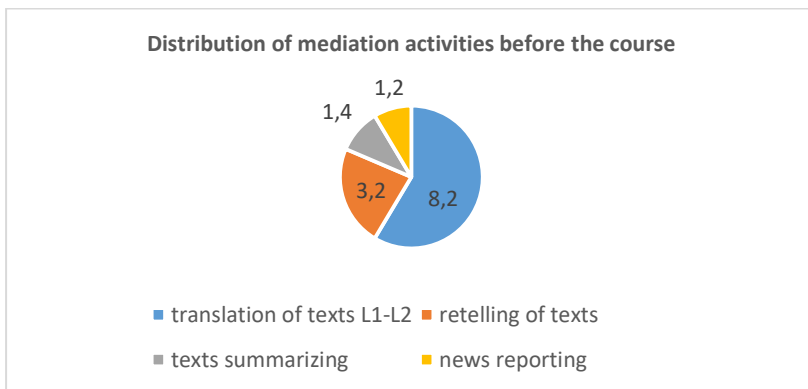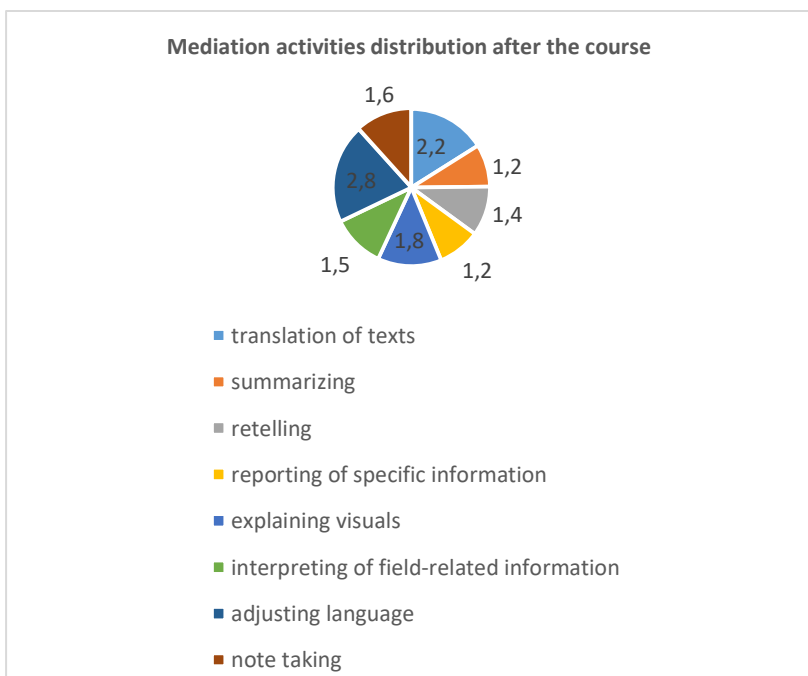
Distribution of mediation activities before the course

1,2
1,4
3,2
8,2

■ translation of texts L1-L2   ■ retelling of texts
■ texts summarizing   ■ news reporting

Figure 1: Pre-course activities distribution

Mediation activities distribution after the course

1,6
2,2
1,2
1,4
2,8
1,8
1,5
1,2

■ translation of texts

■ summarizing

■ retelling

■ reporting of specific information

■ explaining visuals

■ interpreting of field-related information

■ adjusting language

■ note taking

Figure 2: After-course activities distribution

Among more frequently used mediating activities that were suitable for our students and reflected their possible field-oriented situation, we employed clarifying or explaining activities (students of 1-2 courses) and breaking down complicated information, visually representing information and adjusting language (students of 3-4 courses). The key task was to change the professional discourse and to reduce the complexity of technical language. While transforming the texts, the student used a checklist that outlined the key strategies:

- Are you using the technical terms of high professional level;
- Are these technical terms accessible to the reader, and do they align with the idea of the content;
- Have you provided some explanation to the mentioned terms;
- Do you use terms consistently, or do you include clarification or synonyms?
- Are you using simple language to reduce jargon and technical complexity as much as possible?

These changes were seen during class observation, and their context was connected to ESP. Experts also admitted that students' engagement increased as well as the type of communication transformed from mostly teacher- students (T-S) to student-student (S-S) interaction. This shift also promoted the changes in teaching modes of classes. Our study of ESP in terms of a mediation approach was conducted allows through two models of mediation training as it was suggested by Brown (2002), and adapted according to our needs. The first model was applied for students of 1-2 courses, and the mediation initiator and assessor was a teacher who promoted interactive activities without ESP context, encouraging students to interact with familiar topics mediating given texts without mediating self-constructed concepts. The second model for students of 3-4 courses was based on the fact that students, having mastered the necessary set of professional competencies and mediating skills, could become peer and collaborative mediators and mediate concepts and manage collaborative mediation during conferences, meetings, or workshops. Classes were mostly interactive, including round tables, web quests, brainstorming, cases, web conferencing, project assignments.

According to the systematic and progression principles of pedagogy, we view the process of mediation teaching as a system of closely correlated parts. The achievement of learning outcomes depended on the correlation of all elements and factors involved in the process. It means that the level of tasks complexity should be changed gradually; every previous task should be correlated with the following; thus, mediation teaching should be systemic; every outcome should be assessed and verified.

Therefore, following the mentioned principles, we developed a framework of exercises to teach mediation skills to students at technical universities. Bearing in mind that mediation activities are divided into three types (mediating a text, concept, and communication) (CEFR), we tried to distribute our exercises considering this classification.

Future engineers deal with lots of texts which provide the information about the specification, safety rules, manuals, description of process etc. Engineers have to process the information from the texts and mediate them to colleagues, clients, apprentice students, community. Thus, the key factor for successful mediation, that we teach students is to know the audience whom students will communicate with. It helps choose appropriate mediation communication strategies so the audience could completely comprehend the information. To understand the audience needs, we suggest students asking self-reflection questions:
- What do they know about the subjects?
- What do they need to know?
- How might they use the information?

After students find out the audience type, the next step is to identify the main idea of the text for mediating. We asked students to find keywords, topic sentences, conclusions that might express the main idea. We gave students short texts (500 words) for skimming, and the task was to tell the main idea in one sentence and confirm it with five keywords.

The next stage is to teach students linguistic strategies of mediation: paraphrasing, clarification, amplification, summarizing. We involved such activities as: replacing words and phrases with synonyms, sentence rearrangement, and

transformations, putting information into a different order, avoiding description of extra details, etc. As mediation is of a dual-nature concept with linguistic and cognitive domains, the teaching of non-linguistic strategies is also very important because they help simplify the idea or concepts, predict possible points or misunderstanding, facilitate the interaction. However, we have to bear in mind that when we perform the assessment of mediating activity, we should assess both language and cognitive skills.

Regarding educational technologies integration into the mediation teaching, we suggest the following combinations:
- Youtube subtitles creation for language adjustment or specific information reporting;
- Google mind-mapping tools for information simplifying or concepts mediation;
- Flipgrid.com for oral texts summarizing, visuals description or explanation of concepts;
- Padlet.com for written translations, paraphrasing or clarifications;
- softo.org or onlineparaphrase.net for paraphrasing practice;
- online synonyms dictionaries for simplifications and clarification;
- MindMeister or MindMup for key words identification;
- AudioNote for rendering and audio recording of audio files summarizing or rendering;
- Classkick for peer assessment and collaborative work on mediating technical texts;

The contribution of technologies is hard to overestimate as among their educational benefits are: increased students' motivation and engagement through student-centered activities, visualization of information, interactivity, encourages collaboration (Hoven, Palalas, 2011); learning motivation enhancement due to mobile devices is supported by a range of studies (Baek, Guo, 2019). It is well-known that most part of teaching is instructional, but technologies make classes more emotional and creative that contributes to the development of 21st-century skills. Moreover, audio and video information bring authenticity into classes that, together with mediation bridge the gap between university and real life.

Conclusion

In this study, the aim was to assess teachers' experience on the issues of linguistic mediation teaching. According to the findings of the study, we can state that mediation is still a challenge for teachers, however, it is not a new educational concept and some activities imply the mediation teaching. Due to updated CEFR descriptors and guidelines, we have descriptors and activities examples, thus, it has become easier to develop mediation skills, especially integrating mediation and technologies. The present study has contributed towards enhancing our understanding of linguistic mediation teaching as these new skills are authentic and raise the language competence of students. Further research needs to be carried out in order to develop clear assessment criteria for such activities as language adjustment or relaying specific information.

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Process genre approach to L2 academic writing: An intervention study

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Abstract
The paper presents the research study of academic writing of Czech university students in an English Language Teacher Education study program. The authors apply an interdisciplinary approach integrating the perspectives of linguistics and language pedagogy in the evaluation of the design of the Academic Writing course and its impact on the development of students' academic writing skills. Adopting a process genre approach (Badger, White, 2000) to writing instruction as a key design principle, our study combines the genre analysis framework (Swales, 1990) and the intercultural rhetoric perspective (Connor, 2004) to design an innovated academic writing course for graduate students focusing on developing critical thinking skills and context-aware writing. The course, informed by an analysis of the academic writing needs of the students, aimed at familiarizing them with the rhetorical structure of academic texts with a focus on the genre of the Master's thesis and at introducing them to the academic writing conventions in the area of soft sciences. Piloted in 2019, the course was implemented as a blended course, where the contact sessions were complemented by online support in VLE Moodle. Apart from analyses of written texts, classroom writing, and homework tasks, it also included discourse editing tasks and peer-reviewing with peer-reviewer feedback and teacher feedback. We believe that our research findings will shed light on the potential of academic writing courses based on the process-genre approach to contribute to the enhancement of the quality of English academic texts by non-native academic writers, and specifically Czech graduate students.
Key words: academic writing, blended learning, process-genre approach, needs assessment, discourse completion tasks

Introduction

The need to study and research written academic discourse from an intercultural perspective stems from the overall globalization of the academic environment and the increasing role of English as the dominant language of academic communication. As a result, the ways in which academic knowledge is presented and disseminated have changed considerably, with a significant impact on most epistemological and educational traditions in Europe (see Bennett 2014; Burgess, Martin-Martin, 2008; Connor, 2004, 2011; Suomela-Salmi, Dervin, 2009; Swales, 1997). To reach an international audience, multilingual researchers and students from different European academic communities must present their knowledge and communicate with readers through English as a lingua franca, which means adapting the written academic discourse to common Anglophone conventions in this field. It is therefore not surprising that the teaching and learning of academic writing skills in English have recently become central issues of interest for numerous linguistically and pedagogically oriented studies dealing with the assessment of non-native writers' performance in terms of genre, disciplinary and cross-cultural variation, which are intended to inform the designing of courses aimed at developing students' communicative competence in an academic setting (e.g. Duszak, 1997; Hyland, 2002a; Hewings, 2006; Paltridge, Starfield 2007; Neff-van Aertselaer, 2013; Muller, Gregoric, Rowland, 2017; Badenhorst, 2018; Jones, 2018; Link, 2018; Van der Loo, Krahmer, Van Amelsvoort, 2018; Hsiao, 2019; Maher, Milligan, 2019).

This intervention study aims at contributing to this line of research by investigating the development of the English-medium academic writing of Czech university graduate students. Adopting a process-genre approach (Badger, White, 2000) to writing instruction, we combined the genre analysis framework (Swales, 1990) and the intercultural rhetoric perspective (Connor, 2004) to design an innovative academic writing course for graduate students.

The development of the innovative course of Academic Writing followed the principles of the cyclical process of curriculum design (Graves, 2000) and was based on the findings of corpus-based and genre research and a needs analysis survey focusing on students' target linguistic needs (Hutchinson, Waters, 1987).

To report the instructional writing intervention in a systematic way, the reporting system of Rijlaarsdam and colleagues (2018), further developed by Bouwer and De Smedt (2018), was employed. The key elements of the system include: the context (the aim of the intervention, target group, contextual factors), the theoretical and/or empirical rationale, and key design principles of the intervention at the macro-level (instructional focus, instructional mode, sequencing of instructional activities) and at the micro-level (instructional activities, learning activities and instructional materials) (Bouwer, De Smedt, 2018: 122 -127).

An additional aim of the study is to monitor the students' progress and their reflection on their learning experience during the course.

Context

The target group is represented by students in the Master's degree program of English Language Teacher Education in the Czech Republic whose mother tongue is Czech and who are to complete their study program with the defense of a Master's thesis written in English.

All the participants study English as a foreign language, and they are advanced users of English at the C1 level according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2001). Some of the students completed their Bachelor's degree program at our university, while others came from other universities, mainly in the Czech Republic. A majority of the students wrote a Bachelor's thesis in English, but there were also students whose Bachelor's thesis was written and defended in the Czech language.

The participants took an innovative course of Academic Writing, which was offered as a required course in the first year of their study program. It was delivered by one of the authors of the text, who was also the course designer in the spring semester of 2019. The course was taught exclusively in English, and also all the data in this study were collected in English.

As the Czech speaking students often struggle with the conventions of academic writing in English, we decided to assess their needs via a questionnaire survey and analyze their academic texts prior to the course. The course for graduate students was designed as a blended one (contact sessions supplemented with e-learning support in the Virtual Learning Environment Moodle). It represented the main writing support for graduate students as Czech universities do not offer services of centralized writing centers that are common at many universities worldwide. However, the fact that the course is embedded in the study program and therefore is discipline-specific can be seen as an advantage (cf. Wingate, 2010).

Prior to the intervention, a needs analysis survey and analysis of Theme patterns and Theme realisations in Master's theses written by students in the ELTE study program and defended at the Faculty of Education and the Faculty of Arts of Masaryk University between the years 2010 and 2018 were carried out.

The results of the analysis of Master's theses indicated that graduate students have an awareness of the crucial role that the theme zone plays in the build-up of discourse

coherence; however, they show a strong tendency to use only simple and two-component Theme patterns (textual + topical, and interpersonal + topical), generally overuse textual Themes (e.g. *firstly, however, for example*) and underuse interpersonal Themes (e.g. *surprisingly, to my mind, of course*) (Dontcheva-Navratilova et al., 2020). This suggests that the Master's theses of Czech graduate students show typical features of learner discourse, especially as far as the overuse of textual Themes is concerned (e.g. Adel, 2006; Gao, 2016; Wei, 2016; Chang, Lee, 2019), while the underuse of interpersonal Themes may be affected by linguacultural factors (Cmejrkova, Danes, 1997). These findings indicate that students' writing skills in the area of writer-reader interaction and persuasive argumentation need to be further enhanced.

The needs analysis was realized by means of a questionnaire survey inspired by similar instruments in published studies (Xudong et al., 2014; Chitez et al., 2015; Link, 2018). The questionnaire was filled in by 67 graduate students. The results revealed that the students are well aware of the importance of academic writing skills related to the organization of the text, flow of the argument, and linguistic aspects but seem to underestimate some key aspects, including the expression of authorial stance and engagement with the reader and other advanced argumentative skills (for details see Jancarikova et al., 2020). Therefore, we decided to focus not only on the aspects that the students identified as crucial for their academic writing skills development but also on the aspects mentioned above that, in our view, fall under students' unconscious incompetence (Huang, 2010: 533).

Whereas before the innovations, the focus of the Academic Writing course was mostly limited to academic vocabulary, formality, and citation styles, after the needs analysis and thematic analysis of the Master's theses, we decided to adopt a process-genre approach and prioritize the teaching and learning of rhetorical moves, coherent argumentation and writer-reader interaction focusing on Anglophone academic writing conventions of disciplines and genres within soft sciences.

The intervention aimed at enhancing students' academic writing skills, i.e. their ability to use English appropriately in writing for academic purposes and to conform to the rhetorical conventions of academic English when writing course assignments and Master's theses. It specifically focused on building authorial identity and communicating with the readers, writing argumentative texts using the problem-solution and cause-effect patterns, critical evaluation of sources, and references to sources. The students were encouraged to abide by the Anglophone academic style conventions in terms of formality, writer-reader interaction, academic vocabulary, and phraseology. They were expected to be able to apply the appropriate rhetorical structure of the genre of a Master's thesis. As future teachers of English as a foreign language, they were also supposed to be able to transfer the new knowledge and skills into teaching writing in English lessons at lower secondary schools and work with relevant academic genres.

Genre structure, coherent argumentation, the build-up of a credible authorial persona, and engaging with the reader are essential aspects of academic writing seen as a "persuasive endeavor" in which the writer's ability to develop an argument, step into the text and develop an appropriate relationship with readers is indispensable for the acceptance of the writer's claims and findings by readers (cf. Hyland, 2001). However, these aspects of academic writing are typically regarded as more challenging by students as they presuppose a greater degree of self-confidence and exposure to academic texts. Since successful academic writing presupposes the use of rhetorical and language choices which are established in the discursive practice of a specific disciplinary community and which this community finds convincing (Hyland, 2008), it is necessary to introduce graduate students to the academic writing conventions that they need to follow when they aspire to write their Master's theses and complete their university studies.

Theoretical framework
Academic writing of Czech speakers of English

Academic writing of non-native speakers of English has been at the center of researchers' attention for decades. The tension between pragmatic EAP (emphasizing the necessity for non-native speakers of English to comply with the conventions of Anglo-American writing) and critical EAP (claiming that academic discourse practices are socially constructed and can be challenged and /or changed by non-native authors) has been largely dealt with by corpus-based critical pragmatism, which distinguishes between conventions that should never be flouted (such as substantiating arguments or avoiding plagiarism) and those that can be open to challenge (e.g. use of personal pronouns) (Clark, 1992 in Harwood, Hadley, 2004: 367). It is this critical pragmatism that was adopted as the approach underlying the decisions made when designing the innovated course of Academic Writing. This approach allows the instructor to raise the students' awareness of the Anglophone academic writing conventions that are generally expected in English-medium academic discourse, while at the same time leaving them the possibility to make contextually motivated choices when they endeavor to bridge the gap between the Czech academic writing conventions in which they have been socialized and the Anglophone writing norms which are dominant in globalized academia.

Academic writing in the university context is situated within the expectations of the community (Link, 2018: 4). In our case, the clash of the expectations stemming from the standards of Czech academic writing, and on the other hand, the principles of Anglophone academic writing had to be considered. Dontcheva-Navratilova dealt with the divergences between the two academic discourse communities in her research (e.g. 2013, 2014, 2018). The main contrasts between the literacy traditions of the respective communities (drawing on previous research (e.g. Chamonikolasova, 2005; Cmejrkova, 1996; Duszak, 1997; Staskova, 2005) are illustrated in Table 1:

Table 1: Academic discourse traditions: Czech vs. English (Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2014: 42)

Anglophone academic discourse	Czech academic discourse
• competitive large discourse community	• small discourse community avoiding tension
• explicit discourse organisation	• low on explicit discourse organisation
• strict discourse norms	• absence of strict discourse norms
• negotiation of meaning	• conceptual and terminological clarity
• interactive, dialogic	• low-interactive, monologic
• reader-oriented	• writer-oriented
• marked authorial presence	• backgrounded authorial presence

The Czech academic discourse tradition handles discourse organization and writer-reader communication differently from the Anglophone tradition. Therefore, these aspects may be most significantly affected in the academic texts of Czech authors writing in English. Dontcheva-Navratilova concludes that "under the pressure of the Anglophone center the English-medium discourse of Czech linguists is undergoing substantial change giving rise to 'hybridizing forms' which reflect the tension deriving from intercultural clashes" (2014: 42).

Process genre approach

The process genre approach proposed by Badger and White (2000) that was adopted for the purpose of the course design represents a synthesis of positive features of three recent approaches to writing instruction, namely the product approach, the

process approach, and the genre approach. The process and product approaches to writing instruction, prevailing at the end of the 20th century, were challenged by genre approaches in the last decade of the century (e.g. Swales, 1990). Whereas product approaches perceived writing as primarily dependent on linguistic knowledge comprising appropriate use of academic vocabulary, syntax, and cohesive devices (Pincas, 1982 in Badger, White, 2000: 153), process approaches emphasized the stages of writing, including planning, drafting, revising and editing. The fact that neither of them paid appropriate attention to the context and purpose of writing led to the development of genre approaches that conceive writing as a social practice. Badger and White see them as an extension to the product approach as the students are encouraged to use their knowledge of the language, content, and context to produce written discourse for communication in a specific context and for a specific purpose. They are instructed to imitate model texts and consciously apply rules. The process genre approach draws on all of the approaches discussed above. Similarly to the product, process, and genre approaches, writing involves knowledge about language, knowledge of context and purpose of writing, and skills in using language. The process genre approach can be seen as a learner-centered approach as teachers are encouraged to act in a flexible manner, accommodating the needs of the specific group of learners. Corpora of target texts and charts for illustrating generic structures are used as key instructional materials. When facing a lack of knowledge, the learners are expected to rely on three sources: the teacher, other learners, and examples of the target genre (Badger, White, 2000: 159).

Empirical research review

When looking for relevant research studies focusing on academic writing in connection with the process genre approach, genre analysis framework, critical thinking skills, and student feedback in the context of course innovation, course design, and teacher education, we searched the Web of Science for papers from the years 2010 – 2020. The search yielded 193 papers, out of which 20 were relevant. An additional seven papers were found on Google scholar.

Most studies dealing with courses of academic writing were set in the context of academic writing in English, some of them focusing explicitly on non-native speakers of English (Min, 2016; de Armijos, 2016, 2017; Ho Pham, 2019; Ravari, Tan, 2019; Murray , Yamamoto, 2019; Plakhotnik et al., 2020). However, also some studies referring to academic writing in languages other than English were found to be relevant (e.g. Boscolo, Arfe, Quarisa, 2007; Van der Loo, Krahmer, Van Amelsvoort, 2018). Most papers reported small-scale studies, dealing with one cohort of students attending a course of academic writing. We primarily included the studies that focused on graduate students, but we also refer to some studies focusing on undergraduate students, which are inspiring for our research for some reason (e.g. Wingate, 2010).

Experimental and quasi-experimental studies of an interdisciplinary character often focused on individual differences among learners. Some dealt with learner beliefs (Boscolo, Arfe, Quarisa, 2007), self-efficacy (Plakhotnik et al., 2020), while others focused on metacognition of the learners as the ability to plan, control, monitor, and critically evaluate their learning (de Armijos, 2016; Negretti, 2017).

Learner beliefs as an example of cognitive factors were researched in an intervention study that presented a course of academic writing for undergraduate psychology students in Italy (Boscolo, Arfe, Quarisa, 2007). The authors followed a pre-test post-test design focusing not only on the performance of the students in writing but also on the development of students' beliefs about academic writing. Whereas the writing performance improved considerably after the intervention, the beliefs remained basically untouched. Negretti (2017) employed the framework of calibration from educational psychology to investigate the relationship between the accuracy of

graduate students' metacognitive judgments and the quality of their texts. She observed that the more successful authors of academic texts also displayed more accurate metacognitive judgments that were deeper and better aligned with external requirements. The alignment included genre awareness and also the students' ability to meet the course criteria and objectives.

Plakhotnik et al. (2020) explored writing self-efficacy in management students at an English-Medium Instruction university in Russia. They identified factors that contribute to the increase in self-efficacy of the students after a relatively short course of academic writing (seven sessions in seven weeks), including writing research papers in groups and explicit focus on research and genre of writing rather than the development of English as a second language.

A number of studies analyzed different instructional methods, principles, and technologies suitable for academic writing development. Van der Loo, Krahmer, and Van Amelsvoort (2018) employed experimental design in the context of a course of Dutch for academic purposes and compared observational learning and learning by doing. Their results indicate that observational learning has potential in academic writing courses. For learners who were identified as revisers (as opposed to planners), learning by observation was even more effective than learning by doing. It is noteworthy that observational learning does not have to entail reading high-quality texts only. Reading and analyzing texts of other learners also counts as observational learning. Xu and Li (2018) also emphasized the benefits of learning through reading and analyzing journal articles, which they employed in their academic writing program in China rooted in the process genre approach. They reported progress in their students' critical understanding of the genre of disciplinary-specific academic writing.

The value of explicit instruction in genre writing and the potential to improve academic writing skills even after an intervention of a relatively limited length was emphasized in studies focusing on different international contexts at the tertiary level. Muller, Gregoric, and Rowland (2017) measured the improvement in the accuracy of ESL doctoral students after only 16 weeks of support and identified substantial gains. Rakedzon and Baram-Tsabari (2016) evaluated the improvement of students' academic writing and popular science writing as a result of attending an academic writing course. They concluded that even a single genre intervention might facilitate progress in genre writing. Boscolo, Arfe, and Quarisa (2007) and de Armijos (2017) also reported improvements in writing performance after a relatively short intervention. Having come to similar conclusions, Xu and Li (2018) maintain that the traditional focus on advanced linguistic skills in academic writing courses should give way to the explicit teaching of disciplinary genres. In the same vein, Murray and Yamamoto (2019) speak about "developing the act of writing" (2019: 1) rather than focusing on presumed language deficiencies.

The suggestions proposed by Hsiao (2019) are even more specific. She emphasized the value of explicit teaching of authorial stance, starting from developing the students' awareness of different linguistic resources that express evaluation, maintaining that the students should not just rigidly follow "certain patterns as templates to construe evaluative stances and ignore evaluation as dialogic and dynamic in context" (2019: 180).

Link (2018) discussed graduate writing workshops focusing on writing dissertations. She emphasized that it is vital to tailor writing support to the needs of the learners as identified by a rigorous needs assessment. She carried out needs assessment involving both students and the faculty (resulting in some striking differences between the views of these two stakeholder groups). For the design of the writing workshops, she draws on Merrill's instructional theory of writing (2018: 375), which promotes five principles: focusing on solving a real-world problem, activation

of existing knowledge, demonstration of new knowledge, application of new knowledge, and integration of new knowledge into the learner's world.

Some of the authors focused on academic writing support or courses provided exclusively online. Cotos, Link, and Huffman (2017) employed the method of data-driven learning (DDL) and its impact on genre writing. They employed a web-based platform containing an English language corpus and investigated what the impact of the work with corpora on genre learning and writing improvement is. The findings show that both native and non-native writers benefit from work with corpora, especially in rhetorical, formal, and procedural aspects of genre knowledge. Stanchevici and Siczek (2019) converted a face-to-face course of English for Academic Purposes into a fully online mode and compared its effectiveness. They claim they achieved comparable outcomes in both versions of the course.

Formative feedback and peer feedback were recurrent topics in a number of studies (e.g. Wingate, 2010; Muller, Gregoric, Rowland, 2017; Odena, Burgess, 2017; Huisman et al., 2018; Ho Pham, 2019).

Wingate (2010) studied the impact of formative feedback in the context of an academic writing module in an undergraduate program of applied linguistics. She found out that the feedback the instructors provided had an impact on the students' writing skills. However, not all students in her study improved, which led her to investigate the reasons for engagement or non-engagement with the feedback. The interviews with the students revealed that the factors decisive for the uptake were motivation based on the enjoyment of the course and self-perception of the students as writers. Wingate also maintains that the quality of feedback is highly important, especially for students with low motivation and a low self-perception who can be easily discouraged by the feedback that is not comprehensible and sensitive.

Supervisor feedback emerged as one of the dominant themes in the interviews with doctoral and graduate students in the research study realized by Odena and Burgess, (2017). The generative model of academic writing development the authors proposed with the data from in-depth interviews with students included three components: tailored feedback, personal resilience, and support network. In order to be perceived as beneficial, the supervisor's feedback had to be tailored to suit the changing learning needs of the students and scaffold independent thinking development.

The studies of Huisman et al. (2018) and Ho Pham (2019) focused specifically on peer feedback. Huisman et al. (2018) analyzed the influence of providing feedback and receiving feedback in their quasi-experimental study. They concluded that both providers and receivers benefitted in a comparable way as both processes had a positive impact on students' performance in an authentic academic writing assignment. Ho Pham (2019) investigated the effects of a lecturer's model e-comments on graduate students' peer e-comments and the effects of a lecturer's and peer comments on writing revisions. Based on their findings, they recommend that instructors should provide model feedback comments to inspire more beneficial peer feedback that focuses more on global issues than specific details. The fact that the study did not reveal any statistically significant differences in the effects of the lecturer's feedback and peer feedback on writing revisions suggests that it is worth training and inspiring students to be able to provide high-quality feedback, which can contribute to revisions of texts in the same way as the lecturer's feedback. At the same time, dependency on the feedback from the instructor will be reduced.

As follows from the above review of research, teaching academic writing is a highly specialized field, which poses specific demands on the quality of the instructors. Xu and Li (2018) and Plakhotnik et al. (2020) recommend that attention should be paid to the nomination of the instructors. The instructors should not only have a background in advanced English, but they should also have experience with

writing research reports, and they should be offered in-service training to be able to cope with the challenging requirements of academic writing instruction.

Description of the intervention: the innovated course of Academic Writing at the Faculty of Education of Masaryk University
In order to present the intervention systematically, the guidelines of Rijlaarsdam et al. (2018) and Bouwer and De Smedt (2018) were followed. After presenting key design principles that include the context, the macro level, and micro-level components are specified.

Key design principles of the innovated course were rooted in the process-genre approach (Badger, White, 2000) and inspired by Graves' (2000) concept of the cyclical process of curriculum development. According to Graves, the key components of the curriculum development include the conceptualization of content, needs assessment, formulations of goals and objectives, materials development, assessment plan, and organization of the course (2000: 4). After completing the cycle, the course evaluation, which yields suggestions for improvements, should be realized. Graves claims the curriculum development cycle has no fixed starting point, but it is vital to go round the whole cycle without omitting any items and repeat the cycle multiple times so as to develop the course in stages.
The starting point for the innovated course of Academic Writing was needs analysis, comprising a questionnaire survey and a linguistic analysis of Master's theses. The formulations of the course objectives were based on needs analysis. The course overtly focused on the Master's thesis as the most complex piece of writing that the students produce during the course of their studies.
The connections between communicative purpose(s) of the text, the audience students address, and the rhetorical strategies and language necessary to achieve these purposes were made explicit throughout the course. The choices and existing cross-disciplinary, cross-genre, and cross-cultural variations were stressed. At the same time, a critical approach allowing students to challenge and deviate from patterns in valued texts was built in. The teacher acted as an adviser and facilitator, scaffolding students' learning and encouraging their creativity.
The course assessment followed the principles of assessment for learning (Black, William, 1998; Black et al., 2003), which is inherently formative. The formative aspects were achieved by the continuous character of the assessment and peer feedback and peer assessment, which contributed to the students being actively involved.
The last key component of Graves' cycle, course evaluation, is described in Section 5 of this paper.
The components of the course at **the macro level** include the content, the model, and the sequence of intervention (Bouwer, De Smedt, 2018: 122 -127). The content is specified in the syllabus of the innovated course of Academic writing and includes the following areas:
1. Academic writing - context, conventions, approaches. The genre of a Master's thesis.
2. Writing Introductions. General-specific openings and thesis statements
3. Writing the Thesis statement. Personal vs. impersonal stance.
4. Writing the Literature review. Citing sources.
5. Coherent information flow - topic development.
6. Describing data and method. The problem-solution pattern
7. The cause-effect pattern. Coherent information flow - connectors.
8. Reporting results and findings. Presenting arguments, expressing stance.
9. Writing the Conclusions. Comparison and contrast.

10. Writing the Summary.

The course was delivered as a blended course with a certain number of contact sessions (12 for combined students and 24 for full-time students) and e-learning support in VLE Moodle.

The course enabled a combination of learning by observation and learning by doing (cf. also Van der Loo, Krahmer, Van Amelsvoort, 2018). In the contact sessions, each module of the course focused on a specific section of the Master's thesis as a genre. The teacher explained and discussed with the students the purpose of each Master's thesis section and provided students with model texts for analysis. Specific rhetorical patterns, such as the problem-solution and the cause-effect patterns, were presented, discussed, and practiced, focusing on specific language resources associated with them. In the full-time study group, the contact sessions comprised a group writing component for producing the first draft of a text representing (a part of) the target Master's thesis section, while text editing and producing a second draft was assigned as a homework task. Preparation for contact sessions also included focused practice aiming at enhancing the writing skills of students in the area of expressing stance, personality, and impersonality and creating a cohesive text.

In VLE Moodle the teacher presented study materials providing students with model texts, guided writing modules, focused language practice, and reference to online sources, such as citation style guides, the Academic Wordlist, and the Academic Phrase Bank. An important component of the Moodle course was the Workshop module in which students produced texts which were then peer-reviewed by a randomly selected student and assessed by the teacher, who also provided feedback on the peer-review. The course comprised three Workshop modules focusing on different types of writing assignments (see Table 2 for details). The students were instructed that peer reviews should focus on the following criteria:

- The length of the text
- Content corresponding to the title
- The typical rhetorical organization of the section
- Logical structure and coherent flow of the text
- Well organized paragraphs
- Written academic English (e.g. grammar, vocabulary, sentence structure, spelling, punctuation)

They also allocated points for each item (0 – 10 points), and the overall average number of points was calculated by the online system. The instructor promoted the principles of formative feedback, especially the importance of comprehensibility and sensitivity (cf. Wingate, 2010).

To pass the course, the students were required to produce all three writing assignments and provide peer feedback to a classmate randomly selected for each of the assignments. Each student received formative feedback from a classmate and the course instructor. At the end of the semester, they took a final credit test that also served as a post-test (see Section 5 for the description of the test).

The **micro-**level includes specific instructional activities, learning activities, and instructional materials (Bouwer, De Smedt, 2018: 122 -127). The micro-level components reflect Merrill's design principles described above (Section 3). The existing knowledge of the students is activated when performing a real-world task (writing a section of a Master's thesis), new input is demonstrated and immediately practiced in a guided activity and afterward applied and integrated into the students' world.

Table 2: Academic writing course: micro-level specification

Micro level component	Activity/material	Specification
Instructional activities	Input and focused language practice	• The purpose of sections of Master's theses • Rhetorical moves • Linguistic markers of rhetorical moves • Linguistic devices for expressing evaluation, personality, citations, cohesion etc.
	Offering a variety of model texts	Research articles in the fields of linguistics, literature, cultural studies and didactics Academic theses in the fields of linguistics, literature, cultural studies and didactics
	Peer feedback training	Instructions provided in writing (Workshop module in Moodle) and discussed in the contact session.
	Comments on peer feedback	The instructor checked the assessment in the Workshop module and provided comments in writing.
Learning activities	Group writing	For full-time students only: producing a first draft of a text representing (a part of) the target Master's thesis section, while text editing and producing a second draft was assigned as a homework task.
	Preparation for contact sessions	• Moves analysis of sample sections of Master's theses/research articles • Analysis and writing of cause-effect, problem-solution and comparison and contrast texts • Guided practice of linguistics markers of personality, evaluation, stance and reader engagement
	Writing assignment 1	Writing a short introduction to an essay.
	Writing assignment 2	Guided writing aiming at producing a literature review section on the basis of summaries of secondary sources provided by the teacher (cf. Swales – Freak, 2012).
	Writing assignment 3	A discourse editing task asking the students to create a well-formed coherent text of a 'bare text' (cf. Fetzer, 2018) provided by the teacher.
	Peer feedback and assessment	Students provide peer feedback in the Workshop module in Moodle to randomly chosen classmates. Three sets of feedback in total.
Instructional materials	Recommended reading	SWALES, J. – FEAK, C. 2012. Academic Writing for Graduate Students. Essential Tasks and Skills. Ann Arbour: University of Michigan Press. PALTRIDGE, B. – STARFIELD, S. 2007. Thesis and Dissertation Writing in a Second Language: A Handbook for Supervisors. London & New York: Routledge. PALTRIDGE, B. et al. 2009. Teaching Academic Writing. Ann Arbour: University of Michigan Press. DE CHAZAL, E. – Moore, J. 2013. Oxford EAP. A Course in English for Academic Purposes. Oxford: Oxford University Press. HAMP-LYONS, L. – HEASLEY, B. 1998. Study Writing: A Course in Written English for Academic and Professional Purposes. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
	The Academic Wordlist	https://www.wgtn.ac.nz/lals/resources/academicwordlist
	Exercises for the Academic Wordlist	http://www.englishvocabularyexercises.com/AWL/id21.htm
	Academic Phrase Bank	http://www.phrasebank.manchester.ac.uk/describing-trends/
	Purdue Online Writing Lab	APA, MLA, Chicago – Formatting and Style Guide of Purdue University
	Model texts	Research articles, academic thesis

Evaluation of the course: Results (tests, feedback, teacher's reflection)

In order to evaluate the benefits of the innovated course of Academic Writing we aimed at obtaining data from the course participants and the course instructor. Apart from comparing the participants' performance in academic writing before and after the course, we were also interested in their perception of their progress and the benefits of the course. As peer feedback is still far from common in ELTE study programs, we were especially interested in their opinions on the

experience with peer feedback from the point of view of the provider as well as the receiver.

To capture a wide range of the key aspects for the course evaluation, the following questions were formulated:

Research questions

    1. Did the course contribute to the improvement of the students' academic writing skills?

If so, in what aspects of academic writing did they improve the most?

    2. Did the students perceive that the course contributed to the improvement of their academic writing skills?

If so, what was the aspect of academic writing they perceived that they improved the most in?

    3. Did the students benefit from the peer and teacher's feedback in the module Workshop in the Moodle course?

Research methods

        In order to guarantee triangulation of the data and methods, the innovated course was evaluated by 3 different procedures: first, the students took a pre-test and a post-test. Second, they were asked to fill in a feedback questionnaire, including scales and open-ended questions. Third, the course instructor observed how the students reacted to the innovated procedures and tasks, monitored their progress in the major tasks in the Workshop and their approach to peer assessment, and took field notes.

The pre-test and post-test were largely identical. The pre-test written in the preceding semester was part of the needs analysis, and the post-test was written as a final credit test.

        The pre-test and post-test comprised five sub-tests focusing on the same aspects of academic writing. The first sub-test was aimed at assessing the progress of students in the use of linking adverbials (i.e. textual themes) so as to produce a coherent text and it comprised multiple-choice and error-correction components. The second sub-test targeted the use of attitudinal markers (i.e. interpersonal themes) via editing. The third sub-test focused on sentence transformations conveying different levels of (im)personality, thematic development, cohesive relations and nominalization. The fourth component of the text was a multipurpose cloze focusing primarily on the function of textual and interpersonal themes in building up a cohesive and coherent text. The final and most complex component of the pre- and post-test was a discourse editing task aimed at assessing the ability of students to understand the argumentative chain in a 'bare' text and their ability to add the necessary elements so as to produce a coherent well-formed text. This component tested the meta-awareness of the students, their use of language structures, and their ability to employ evaluation markers and cohesive devices appropriately in the academic context.

        The feedback questionnaire consisted of four parts. The first and second parts were inspired by the questionnaire that Link (2018) used in her study of Canadian university students. We already used these parts in the needs analysis questionnaire, the results of which have been reported in Jancarikova et al. (2020). In the needs analysis, the students were presented with statements concerning different aspects of academic writing and were asked what importance they attributed to different aspects of academic writing in relation to course and degree completion. In the feedback questionnaire, the students were presented with the same lists of statements, but they were asked to state how the innovated course of Academic Writing helped them improve in and understand the same areas. They were supposed to indicate their answers on five-point Likert scales. The third part of the questionnaire was devoted to the experience of the students with the module of the Workshop in Moodle that was used as e-learning support of the innovated course and

enabled peer feedback. The last part focused on the general satisfaction of the students with the course. The questions in this part were formulated as open-ended. The students were asked about the strengths of the course and aspects that could be improved.

The research sample included 49 students in the Master's degree program who participated in the obligatory course of Academic Writing in the 1st year of their studies. The students whose mother tongue was not Czech were excluded.

Out of the 49 students, 15 were full-time students, and 34 were combined students. All of them were asked to fill in the feedback questionnaire after they completed the course. The number of complete questionnaires was 42 (14 full-time students and 28 combined students), which means the return rate was 85.7 %.
Forty-seven students out of 49 took part in both the pre-test and the post-test.

Data analysis

We used SPSS Version 23 to process the data from the pre-test, the post-test, and the feedback questionnaire. The parameters of the sample including the criteria of exclusion and inclusion in the sample, were controlled in order to make the decisions about the analyses. The non-parametrical Wilcoxon signed-rank test was employed for the comparison of pre-test and post-test results, as the sample did not meet the requirements for parametrical t-tests.

The answers from the feedback questionnaires were grouped into several factors. The internal consistencies of the factors identified in the scales were estimated using Cronbach's alpha, and the average values for each factor, and each item was calculated. The results of the open-ended questions in the feedback questionnaire and the field-notes were analyzed qualitatively using thematic analysis and constant comparison.

Results
Differences between the pre-test and post-test

The comparison of the results of the pre- and post-test showed that the students improved their performance in the test significantly (the average score rose from 71% to 79%, p=0.000).

As for the comparison of the particular sub-tests, a rather surprising result is the lower score of sub-test 1 (textual themes) in the post-test (92% to 80%, p= 0.006). We assume it was caused by the fact the subtest tasks were relatively easy, and the students were highly successful already in the pre-test. A significant improvement was identified in sub-test 3 focusing on linguistic aspects targeted in the course (59% to 80%, p= 0. 000) comprising sentence transformations conveying different levels of (im)personality, thematic development, cohesive relations and nominalization, and in sub-test 5 (discourse-editing task aimed at meta-awareness, evaluation markers, and cohesive devices, 66% to 76%, p=0.001). We find it very important that the course contributed to students' improvement in the discourse editing task, which we perceive as the most complex task, reflecting the multifaceted nature of academic writing, including reading comprehension, indicating rhetorical moves, and creating a complete, well-formed coherent text which complies with the principles of Anglophone academic writing.

Other differences between the students' performance in the pre- and post-test were not statistically significant.

It ought to be mentioned that the role of tests was only supplementary as the potential of testing the skills necessary for graduate academic writing by discrete items is limited. Most test tasks only indicate how students perform in partial aspects.

The most important part of the test was the last subtest – a discourse editing task, which replicated a writing task introduced in one of the Workshop modules.

Table 3: Comparison of pre-test and post-test results

		Mean score	Std. Deviation	Wilcoxon p-value
Sub-test 1	Pre-test	92	10.7	0.006
	Post-test	80	18.1	
Sub-test 2	Pre-test	76	26.7	0.999
	Post-test	79	14.7	
Sub-test 3	Pre-test	59	17.9	0.000
	Post-test	80	15.7	
Sub-test 4	Pre-test	91	8.4	0.728
	Post-test	89	14.4	
Sub-test 5	Pre-test	66	13.9	0.001
	Post-test	76	15.2	
Total	Pre-test	71	7.5	0.000
	Post-test	79	8.3	

Participants' feedback
Development in academic writing

The first two parts of the feedback questionnaire concerned different aspects of academic writing. The respondents reported on how the innovated course of Academic Writing helped them develop aspects on a five-point Likert scale ranging from Strongly disagree (1) to Strongly agree (5). For the reduction of dimensionality, the target aspects of academic writing were grouped into eight factors and verified the internal consistency of the factors by Cronbach's alpha (α) test. The values of Cronbach were satisfactory for all eight factors, ranging from 0.631 to 0.783.

The evaluations of the respondents were relatively high for all factors, which indicates that the students perceived the course as beneficial for the development of different aspects of their academic writing skills. The factor with the highest average scores was *Linguistic aspects* (ø=4.25), which aggregated 'the use of appropriate transitions to connect ideas'; 'information and text components'; 'the demonstration of standard written English' and 'the demonstration of facility with a range of vocabulary appropriate to the topic'. While most of these aspects pertain to general academic writing skills highlighted in most style guides and academic writing courses, the use of appropriate transitions and information processing (coherent flow of ideas) were prominent components of the course that the students found beneficial as they extended their repertoire of resources for connecting ideas to include non-finite clauses, demonstratives and shell nouns apart from the frequently overused linking adverbials.

The contribution of the course to the development of the factors of *Research Methodology* (ø=4.19) and *Argumentation* (ø=4.18) was also perceived as highly positive, followed by *Contextualisation* (ø=4.12) and *Formal requirements concerning text structure* (ø=4.0).

Research Methodology included aspects of identifying an area that needs to be addressed by research, introducing the research purpose, and explaining steps taken in the research study. *Argumentation* concerned 'writing on the topic and staying on topic without digressions'; 'using relevant reasons and examples to support a position or an idea'; 'organizing writing in order to convey major and supporting ideas' and 'compiling findings into a clearly connected argument'. These results are supported by personal communications of students to the instructor suggesting that the course participants appreciated the focused instruction on the move structure of the individual sections of a Master's thesis and advice and practice in organizing their

arguments following the problem-solution, cause-effect, and comparison and contrast patterns.

Contextualisation concerned 'using background knowledge, reference, non-text materials, and other sources to support ideas, analyze, and refine arguments'; 'effectively summarising and paraphrasing the works and words of others' and 'demonstrating knowledge of the topic'. During contact sessions, it became apparent that the students did not realize the full potential of citations to display knowledge, support their claims, compare their findings to previous research, and claim contributions to disciplinary knowledge. Considerable improvement was also achieved in their skills to paraphrase and summarise previous studies relevant to their work.

Formal requirements concerning text structure included the ability to produce a required written assignment of an expected length appropriate to the topic and to structure a Master's thesis.

Evaluation (ø=3.93) and *Meta-awareness* (ø=3.87) are two factors with slightly lower average scores. From our point of view, both of these factors include key aspects that appeared to be underestimated by the respondents during the needs analysis stage ('take an evaluative stance towards existing literature'; 'provide an extended analysis of your results through an interpretative and evaluative angle'; 'convey personal viewpoints and evaluate previous and own research to construct arguments'; 'communicate my own understanding and interpretation of the results)'. During the needs analysis stage, we concluded that "the overall results for the *Evaluation* factor seem to suggest that students do not have sufficient awareness of the importance of evaluation in academic writing and are likely to lack the skills necessary for the expression of stance, and as the last factor below indicates, of engagement with the reader" (Jancarikova et al., 2020). These results may reflect the reluctance of students to step into their texts and express their personal view; it may also stem from previous instruction stressing the role of impersonality and objectivity in academic writing recommended by numerous style manuals (cf. Bennett, 2009), which ignore the rhetorical tradition and recent developments is Anglophone academic writing (cf. Cottrell, 2003; Hyland, 2002a, 2002b; Flowerdew, 2012).

In the same vein, *Meta-awareness* (ø=3.87), targeting the awareness of the audience, seemed to be underestimated by the course participants in the needs analysis carried out prior to the course. Even though the innovated course focused explicitly on its development, the students probably perceived their development in the area of meta-awareness as less significant than in most of the other areas. This factor includes seven aspects: 'show the value of your research'; 'indicate how the findings add to existing knowledge in the field'; 'persuade readers of the credibility of your work'; 'identify the intended audience/readers and their expectations'; 'acknowledge limitations of your work'; 'show awareness of audience needs and write to a specific audience' and 'expand the meaning of findings outside my own research'. Although the students were systematically exposed to expert academic texts and writing practice in order to enhance their competencies in the given area, they still perceived that the course contributed to their development in other areas more than that of *Meta-awareness*. The underestimation of the meta-awareness factor may be due to the level of expertise of graduate students, who, similarly to numerous novice writers, do not feel entitled to claim credit for their work and perhaps think that indicating limitations may reduce the value of their work. The examination context identifying the supervisor and the second reader as the main audience of the Master's thesis perhaps explains why the students are cautious in addressing their readers in a more explicit way.

The last position of the factor called *Presentation of findings* (ø=3.4) is not surprising as transforming data into results and designing clear visual representations

of data in tables and figures are rather technical issues that were not the main focus of the course.

The Workshop module

The third part of the questionnaire was aimed at the students' perception of the Workshop module offered in VLE Moodle. The students were asked to estimate how the tasks they fulfilled in the Workshop module contributed to their understanding of how to write their Master's theses while complying with the principles of Anglophone academic writing and how they benefitted from peer feedback, both in the roles of providers and receivers.

The respondents reported on how the Workshop module in the innovated course of Academic Writing helped them develop the above-mentioned aspects on a five-point Likert scale ranging from Strongly disagree (1) to Strongly agree (5). Similarly to the first two parts of the feedback questionnaire, the evaluations of the respondents were relatively high for all items (min. ø=3.9, max. ø=4.5), which indicates the students appreciated the Workshop module and perceived its value for the development of their skills. There was an interesting difference between items 1 – 5 related to the Master's thesis (ø=4.2) and items 6 – 10 related to peer feedback (ø=4.4). The participants rated the benefits related to peer feedback higher. Concerning the items related to peer feedback, at least 50% of the students always opted for "strongly agree," and nobody opted for "strongly disagree". They reported that they found inspiration when reading their classmates' assignments, benefitted from identifying strengths and weaknesses in their classmates' assignments, improved their skills in peer assessment, improved in providing feedback to others, and benefitted from receiving feedback from their classmates.

Course assessment by the students

The last section of the questionnaire included open-ended questions concerning overall satisfaction with the course, the strengths of the course, and suggestions for improvement. 50% of the respondents claimed they were very satisfied, 40 % were satisfied, and 10% provided uncertain or unclear answers.

As for the strengths, the students most often mentioned the practical character of the course (16 comments). Peer evaluation was also mentioned very frequently (13 comments). The Workshop module was appreciated as well, although some students also commented on the high demands of the tasks in the module. Two comments emphasized the benefits of the course for teaching practice, specifically for the development of skills necessary for correcting their students' written work and providing feedback.

The suggestions for improvements yielded fewer contributions. The only dominant aspect was lack of time, which some respondents wanted to solve by allowing more time for tasks and/or for feedback or dividing the course into two semesters. Some suggested reductions in the number of tasks. Two respondents said they would appreciate an even less theoretical course, and two wanted more focus on the Master's thesis. Individual respondents suggested offering the course in the Bachelor's degree program, more focus on textual linkers, and more examples of academic texts.

Discussion and conclusion

Our findings indicate that the intervention had a positive impact on the development of the academic writing skills of Czech graduate students. Their academic writing skills improved as a result of the intervention, even if the length of the intervention was relatively limited. The innovated Academic Writing course aiming at equipping the students with the skills vital for writing a successful Master's thesis can be understood as a single genre intervention, which is regarded as

beneficial for the improvement of genre writing (cf. Boscolo, Arfe, Quarisa, 2007; Rakedzon – Baram-Tsabari, 2016; Muller, Gregoric, Rowland, 2017; Xu, Li, 2018). Despite the small scale and prevailingly qualitative character of this research, our findings have outlined several common patterns in the development of university students' academic writing skills, which concur with the findings of previous research and thus allow for tentative conclusions.

The progress of the students was evidenced by the overall score of the post-test and also by the perceptions of the students that they shared in the feedback questionnaire and by the perceptions of the instructor. The instructor's insights generally concur with the students' feedback in indicating considerable progress in the students' understanding of the rhetorical structure of the Master's thesis, improvement in the linguistic aspect of academic writing, and better awareness of the differences between the Czech and Anglophone academic writing conventions, which enables students to make conscious choices when writing academic texts in English. At the same time, the instructor also acknowledged the existence of time constraints, which should be taken into consideration when adapting the course to students' needs.

The improvement was statistically significant in the sub-test focusing on linguistic aspects targeted in the course and in the discourse editing task, which was a complex sub-test focused on meta-awareness, evaluation markers, and cohesive devices. Whereas the improvement in the factor of *Linguistic aspects* was also reported by the students in the feedback questionnaire, the factors of *Meta-awareness* and *Evaluation* reached somewhat lower scores. These results, as well as the instructor's comments, indicate that the students did not fully appreciate their relevance for academic writing, which was also identified in the stage of needs analysis that preceded the intervention (Jancarikova et al., 2020) and the lower score in the feedback questionnaire indicates that the factors of *Meta-awareness* and *Evaluation* are not easy to understand and develop. The factor of *Linguistic aspects* appears to be more tangible for students, perhaps due to their explicit teaching, as in the case of cohesive devices and different linguistic resources that express evaluation (cf. Hsiao, 2019). We assume that the factors of *Meta-awareness* and *Evaluation* are not as easily teachable as *Linguistic aspects,* and their development in the course of Academic Writing has to be explicitly explained and justified for full appreciation of their importance (cf. also Hsiao, 2019).

The fact that linguistic aspects comprise specific details also makes them more attractive than global issues for feedback providers. Although it seems easier to focus on specific details, Ho Pham (2019) recommends that instructors or peers providing feedback should strive to comment on global issues more than specific details. The instructor of our Academic Writing course also observed that students providing peer feedback tended to focus on specific linguistic details rather than global issues and had to be reminded of the global aspects they were supposed to evaluate.

Overall, the students' evaluation of the course was very positive. They perceived the course as practically oriented and conducive to the development of their skills necessary for successful completion of their Master's thesis. From their comments, it was evident that they appreciated the key aspects of the process genre approach (Badger, White, 2000) with its learner-centredness and focus on genre writing.

The students spontaneously appreciated the opportunity of providing and receiving peer feedback. This corresponds with the conclusions of Huisman et al. (2018), who observed that both roles in peer feedback are equally beneficial. It was the role of peer feedback providers that brought multiple benefits to the students in our study. First, reading their classmates' texts enabled them to learn by observation, which was proved very beneficial also by Van der Loo, Krahmer, and Van

Amelsvoort (2018). Second, by performing peer evaluation tasks, they also learned how to self-evaluate, which they confirmed in the seminar discussions with the instructor. They realized them by exposure to academic texts written by their classmates; they were better able to understand their own academic writing performance. Comparing their classmates' texts to their own enabled them to identify their own strengths and weaknesses. The last benefit can be understood as an added value in the context of English Language Teacher Education. The students understood the process of developing their skills in peer feedback and peer-assessment as an opportunity to develop their skills for providing formative feedback on writing performance to their own (future) pupils.

The suggestions for improvement formulated in the feedback questionnaire will be used for further development of the course. In the first place, the time constraints will be considered and the ways to optimize the combination of contact sessions and online support, especially in the case of the combined studies program. Another aspect that could be developed within the full-time program is group writing and editing, which can affect the beliefs of the students about academic writing. Finally, in view of the teacher training orientation of both programs, the peer-feedback component of the Workshop module may be extended to stress the importance of sensitive and detailed comments provided to peers in order to enhance the assessment skills of the teacher trainees.

Pedagogical implications

Having considered the review of recent literature and our own findings, we argue that academic writing courses rooted in the process genre approach and focusing explicitly on specific aspects of academic writing can have an impact provided that certain conditions are met. First of all, the courses have to be taught by highly qualified instructors, who are not only proficient in English but also have experience with their own research publishing (Xu, Li, 2018; Plakhotnik et al., 2020). The focus on genres should take precedence over traditional academic language development (Xu – Li, 2018; Murray, Yamamoto, 2019). Furthermore, the needs of the students have to be taken into account when designing and delivering courses and workshops (Link, 2018). Apart from linguistic needs, the psychological needs of the students also influence the course success (Hutchinson – Waters, 1987). The courses can be effectively provided that the individual differences of the students are respected and accommodated (especially those that are stable and cannot be easily modified, for example, learner beliefs, cf. also Boscolo, Arfe, Quarisa, 2007) or enhanced, if they are prone to external modifications (for example metacognition, see Negretti, 2017).

The quality of academic writing courses can be boosted by employing technology (see also Cotos, Link, Huffman, 2017; Ho Pham, 2019). Although we realize the courses can even be converted to be fully online without a negative effect on the quality (Stanchevici, Siczek, 2019), we prefer the blended variant that proved beneficial in our course. A combination of contact sessions and support in VLE Moodle, which enabled text sharing as well as other materials for self-study, observational learning, and asynchronous communication, contributed to the overall satisfaction of the graduate students, including those who followed the combined mode of the study program.

As one of the key factors in the development of students' academic writing is, without any doubt, plenty of individually tailored feedback (e.g. Wingate, 2010; Muller, Gregoric, Rowland, 2017; Odena, Burgess, 2017; Huisman et al., 2018; Ho Pham, 2019) we believe that no academic writing course can afford to go without it. Peer feedback provided in online platforms can be seen as extremely promising as it offers an opportunity of multiplying the amount of feedback an instructor is able to provide to a group of students in a course. As high-quality peer feedback requires both

initial and ongoing training, we recommend that peer training should be incorporated into academic writing courses as an integral component of the course design.

Finally, we believe that the findings of this study have contributed to our knowledge about the academic writing development of L2 university students and have evidenced the potential of courses designed on the basis of the process-genre approach to enhance learners' academic writing performance. The insights gathered from this study can inform future research into academic writing and the design of academic writing courses in various L2 university contexts.

Acknowledgement

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A plea for a cognitive linguistics perspective on the notion of linguistic competence in the Common European Framework of Reference

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Abstract
This paper demonstrates that although linguistic competence (LC) is an essential dimension of the Common European Framework of Reference (Council of Europe, 2001; 2018), it is defined in an inconsistent way resulting from combining elements of formal and functional approaches. Thus, rather than interconnected, linguistic competence emerges as dichotomized and in need of an approach that could reconcile incompatibilities in the way(s) LC is characterized in the document. We propose that a cognitive linguistic perspective built on the schematic commitment is a viable approach to re-defining LC.
Key words: linguistic competence, cognitive linguistics, schematic commitment, CEFR

Introduction

Linguistic competence is one of the significant categories underlying the CEFR in that it constitutes a generic capacity which a learner needs to possess as a language user. Built upon the pillars of language and competence, linguistic aptitude is not only internally complex itself, encompassing grammatical, lexical, semantic, phonological, orthographic, and orthoepic capacities, but also closely linked to the other communicative language competences – sociolinguistic and pragmatic – and related to general and (possibly) plurilingual/pluricultural proficiencies (Council of Europe, 2018: 46).[1]

In an apparent attempt to reconcile formal and functional traditions, these two characteristics of LC, i.e. internal complexity and external connections, are discussed in the CEFR from a broad perspective, encompassing, among others, a "traditional" model of linguistic description (Council of Europe, 2001: 109), socio-cultural and socio-constructivist theories of language learning (Council of Europe, 2018: 30), or "competence models developed in applied linguistics since the early 1980s" (Council of Europe, 2018: 130). Much as we support the Framework's endeavor to provide a maximally unified platform for negotiating linguistic theory and practice, we also argue that the way approaches and perspectives have so far been integrated is not fully motivated and leads to incongruent views upon LC, which is simultaneously defined in formal and functional terms. Building on J. R Taylor's (2014) list of features distinguishing formal and functional approaches, we associate the former with the modularity and autonomy of the language system, focus on well-formedness and a number of exclusionary fallacies (see also Langacker, 1987), including rules vs. lists, core vs. periphery, dictionaries vs. encyclopedias and high-level (often invisible or inaudible) schemas vs. lower-level (emanating from language use) generalizations, of which typically the first element is the proper objective of formal linguistic study. A functional perspective, on the other hand, will see language as closely intertwined with, at least, cognitive, social, and pragmatic contexts, internally unified, i.e. rejecting language compartments, such as syntax, morphology or phonology, serving to convey meaning and thus focused on intelligibility. Being in

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[1] The status of plurilingual and pluricultural competences vis-a-vis linguistic competence is not specified in the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2018: 29) and thus only a tentative link between plurilingual/pluricultural proficiency and LC is proposed.

support of continua rather than oppositions, functionalists do not distinguish between regular/irregular linguistic phenomena or schemas and their instantiations. Instead, all actually occurring objects are the focus of linguistic explanation.

Linguistic competence in the CEFR (2001; 2018)

The key objective of the CEFR is to describe "what language learners have to learn to do in order to use a language for communication and what knowledge and skills they have to develop so as to be able to act effectively" (Council of Europe, 2001: 1). In order to expand their communicative competence, learners need to develop (at least) general and communicative language skills, with the latter further divided into linguistic, sociolinguistic, and pragmatic proficiencies.

Linguistic competence consists of grammatical, lexical, semantic, phonological, orthographic and orthoepic competences (Council of Europe, 2001: 108-109; 2018: 130), all of which are assumed to constitute LC defined as "knowledge of, and ability to use, the formal resources from which well-formed, meaningful messages may be assembled and formulated" (Council of Europe, 2001: 109), and which are specified as "lexical, phonological, syntactical knowledge and skills and other dimensions of language as a system, independently of the sociolinguistic value of its variations and the pragmatic functions of its realizations" (Council of Europe, 2001: 13). A modular and autonomous LC, founded upon form, correctness, and rule-generated linguistic resources, is thus concerned not with language use but with "language usage (as in 'correct usage'), [...] and knowledge of the language as a system" (Council of Europe, 2018: 138), and is firmly situated within the formal approach.

Simultaneously, however, linguistic competence is closely linked to the other communicative competences – sociolinguistic and pragmatic – as well as general knowledge and skills, all of which evolve from situated language use and are "mobilized" in and "further developed through" a particular communicative situation (Council of Europe, 2018: 29). A functional perspective also emanates from some of the descriptors in the *General linguistic range* since they include a number of settings and repertoires, thus linking LC to contexts of language use, or pragmatic, sociolinguistic, and general competences, and emphasize appropriateness, clarity, and precision rather than accuracy.

The two views of LC in the CEFR, i.e. formal and functional, which transpire from its theoretical background and descriptors, can also be detected, albeit to varying degrees, in the way linguistic sub-competencies: grammatical, lexical, semantic, phonological, orthographic, and orthoepic are defined in the Framework. In fact, three classes of linguistic sub-categories can be distinguished: those dominated by the formal approach, those trying to strike a balance between functional and formal perspectives, and those shifting towards the functional stance.

The formal perspective

Grammatical, orthoepic, and semantic competences are classified as those whose characterization in the CEFR is dominated by the formal approach.

Grammatical competence is interpreted as "the ability to understand and express meaning by producing and recognizing well-formed phrases and sentences," according to general rules (Council of Europe, 2001: 113). Defined via an assembly of abstract categories ((im)perfective aspect), classes (declension), processes (suppletion) and relations (government) joined to produce regular, or core, structures (Council of Europe, 2001: 113), grammatical capacity is the quintessence of a formal approach. This perspective is also visible in the set of descriptors for *Grammatical accuracy*, which includes generic categories of agreement, tenses, basic/complex sentence structures, highlights well-formedness and the knowledge of the language

system in the form of, for instance, "simple principles of word order" and makes a distinction between general grammatical patterns, or rules, and memorized phrases and "frequently used 'routines'", or lists (Council of Europe, 2018: 133). Context, if any, is associated with cognition and takes the form of memorized repertoires for lower levels of proficiency and general psychological processes, such as attention, thinking in retrospect, or forward planning in the case of more advanced learners.

Orthoepic competence, defined as a skill "required to read aloud a prepared text, or to use in speech words first encountered in their written form" (Council of Europe, 2001: 117), is based on the knowledge of conventional forms, e.g. standard spelling, the phonetic alphabet or punctuation marks. The formal perspective is only slightly expanded when the learner's ability to refer to a dictionary is mentioned. Context, if mentioned, is understood as links between elements of the language system, such as implications of punctuation for pronunciation or the influence of syntagmatic strings upon resolving syntactic ambiguities (Council of Europe, 2001: 118).

Semantic competence, defined as "the learner's awareness and control of the organization of meaning" (Council of Europe, 2001: 115) is divided, much in line with the formal modularity hypothesis, into lexical, grammatical, and pragmatic. Word meaning – built on the principles of componential analysis and sense/reference or denotation/connotation distinctions – clearly fits in the formal approach by concentrating on the core vocabulary of a language defined through sets of abstract and highly-structured dictionary features as opposed to "speaker meaning" in context (Council of Europe, 2018: 139). Grammatical and pragmatic semantics are based on equally "invisible" notions, such as meanings of categories (for instance, (in)transitive), structures (e.g. clauses) and processes (for example, transposition) or logical relations of entailment or presupposition, thus highlighting the autonomy of the language system from its ecologies. Simultaneously, however, semantic competence is linked to the category of general competences through "knowledge of the world," which is "closely correlated" with vocabulary and grammar (Council of Europe, 2001: 101). Still, how this relationship can be modeled so that linguistic and encyclopedic knowledge could be integrated is not explained in the Framework.

The formal-functional perspective

While grammatical, orthoepic, and semantic competencies can be classified as dominated by the formal approach only randomly connected with elements of general knowledge, lexical and orthographic skills, seem to involve the functional focus a bit more noticeably.

Lexical competence, which consists of knowing and being able to use lexical and grammatical elements of a language (Council of Europe, 2001: 110), is divided into single- and multi-word forms. Individual linguistic items are deftly related to open or closed classes and thus taken to instantiate abstract grammatical categories of, for instance, nouns, adjectives, determiners, or conjunctions. Unlike the neatly-classified single-word items, multi-word structures, e.g. *kick the bucket* or *Good morning!*, are not linked to any underlying generalizations but form lists of irregular structures to be memorized. Those structures, however, are simultaneously closely connected to their socio-cultural contexts of use since analogical multi-word forms, or "fixed formulae", are subsumed under sociolinguistic competence, e.g. *a sprat to catch a mackerel*, *May we now come to order, please. Right. What about making a start?*, (Council of Europe, 2001: 120). Socio-pragmatic influences are also noticeable among the descriptors for *Vocabulary range*, with early levels of proficiency referred to familiar situations and higher stages to technical and/or specialist vocabulary (Council of Europe, 2018: 132). B2-C2 levels are also associated with the increasing mastery of idiomatic expressions, collocations, connotations, and colloquialisms which, however, is not linked to any context of use

but instead seems to come from the knowledge of the language system, "with one expression triggering another" (Council of Europe, 2018: 134). What is implied, then, is some kind of correspondence between the level of proficiency and the degree to which competence is dependent on formal vs. functional elements.

Analogically to the haphazard combination of major (formal) and minor (functional) influences, orthographic competence, mainly focusing on standard forms, e.g. letters, contracted forms or punctuation marks (Council of Europe, 2001: 117), also introduces some unsystematic references to general, pragmatic and plurilingual contexts and a blend of accuracy and intelligibility (Council of Europe, 2018: 137).

The functional perspective

The 2018 companion to the CEFR thoroughly revises phonological competence or, to be more precise, replaces the 2001 scale for *Phonological control* simultaneously preserving the original theoretical description of the notion, which is still "sufficiently broad to encompass more recent reflections on aspects of phonology in second/foreign language education" (Council of Europe, 2018: 134). The 2001 characterization of phonological competence involves knowledge and skills related to sound-units (phonemes and allophones) and their distinctive features (e.g. voicing), word and sentence phonetic, including word stress and prosody and, finally, phonetic reduction in the form of, for instance, strong and weak forms or assimilation (Council of Europe, 2001: 116-117). Importantly, the 2018 descriptors for *Phonological control* embrace all the theoretical categories introduced in the original version of the Framework and instantiated by, for instance, intonation, rhythm, word and sentence stress or speech rate. Hence, unlike previously-described competences, the only objects of linguistic description are those actually occurring in language use. A decisive departure from abstract norms and idealized models is also signaled by a shift from native-like accent to accentedness and deviation from the standard, and from accuracy to intelligibility. Learners' needs, sociolinguistic influences, and the omnipresence of context are explicitly acknowledged (Council of Europe, 2018: 134) and consistently applied in the list of descriptors (Council of Europe, 2018: 136).

While phonological proficiency is undoubtedly the most systematically-developed element of LC, it concentrates on one particular type of context, i.e. plurilingual, which unfailingly occurs throughout all levels of proficiency. Paradoxically, however, this regularity leads to substantially weakening the link between phonological competence and LC. To be more precise, while pre-existing sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences are said to be exploited and developed through plurilingual proficiency, and hence involved in phonological competence, LC becomes a blurred, or unfitting, notion, replaced by some form of "metalinguistic, interlinguistic or so to speak 'hyperlinguistic' awareness" (Council of Europe, 2018: 29). In other words, a highly-consistent and convincing description of phonological proficiency shakes its place within LC but simultaneously opens ways of re-defining linguistic competence.

Towards a unifying approach to LC in the CEFR

The way LC is currently presented in the CEFR makes the notion unconvincing and perhaps even redundant since linguistic competence is either internally torn between formal and functional perspectives or doubted when combined with the other competencies, e.g. plurilingual.

Discussing the theoretical underpinnings of the Framework, G. Fulcher (2004) observes that such obscurity of constructs may lead to chaos, and L. Vincent (2004: 43-44) specifies that much confusion in the CEFR is generated by the way relations between competencies are defined and justified. Particular criticisms refer to a lack of coherence in considering relationships between proficiencies, which, while

declared to be interconnected in the Framework, are inconsistently arranged. In the light of the present discussion, similar concerns can be voiced with reference to the way sub-competencies constituting LC are linked since the arrangement proposed in the Framework clearly separates the formal sub-categories (grammatical, semantic, and orthoepic) from the functionally-interpreted phonological competence, with lexical and orthographic skills left somewhere in between. Simultaneously though, a new category – hyperlinguistic awareness – is tentatively offered in lieu of LC, and we suggest, for reasons explained below, that this notion should indeed be as a starting point for re-defining linguistic competence in the CEFR.

From hyperlinguistic awareness to cognitive linguistics

   When discussing ways of combining social and cognitive elements in theories of language development, D. Larsen-Freeman (2018: 58) notes that what is at issue nowadays is not whether both are involved, since they always are, but how the formal and functional influences are related. The link that emanates from our discussion of LC in the CEFR is the construct of hyperlinguistic awareness (HA), developed through plurilingual/pluricultural encounters and defined as "a better perception of what is general and what is specific concerning the linguistic organization of different languages" (Council of Europe, 2018: 29). Evidently related to detecting commonalities between languages, HA enables thinking in superordinate categories which have been abstracted from actual language use. In a way, then, HA is similar to a supersystem, or "a minimally sorted and organized set of memories of what people have heard and repeated over a lifetime of language use, a set of forms, patterns, and practices that have arisen to serve the most recurrent functions that speakers find need to fulfill" (Ford et al., 2014: 122), since both are derived from multi/plurilingual experience and are fairly schematic in nature. This analogy, however, does not do much more than corroborate the validity of HA and is definitely not developed enough to systematically reconstruct LC. In fact, some of the already-asked questions, i.e. about the relation between the system and its context(s), perception and conception, linguistic and non-linguistic experience, or generality and specific, become even more relevant. Thus, we suggest that a cognitive linguistic perspective upon LC is adopted since it allows us to move from an unelaborated hyperlinguistic awareness to a more comprehensive framework for re-defining LC.

The schematic commitment of CL

   Cognitive linguistics, embracing the latest findings in complexity science, cognitive psychology, grounded cognition, and intercultural pragmatics, is a broad enterprise which can, nevertheless, be unified through a set of key assumptions, e.g. generality, cognitive, embodied or experiential commitments (Evans, Green, 2006: 4). Schematic structures, such as conceptual archetypes, image schemas or parametric concepts, which are the fundamental constructs of CL, not only fulfill all its promises but also constitute a link between CL and linguistic competence in the CEFR in that hyperlinguistic awareness – an assumed reformulation of LC – and schematic concepts are both superordinate categories. Unlike HA, however, cognitive schemas are not linked solely to plurilingual experience but are taken to permeate cognition at all its levels - from innate abilities to situated conceptualizations. Tracing the recurrence of schematic structures throughout conceptual and linguistic systems interacting with the world of experience, or acting on the schematic commitment, will enable us to re-address the paradoxes characteristic of the way LC is presented in the CEFR.

   Cognitive linguists argue that language is not learned thanks to innate, language-specific structures but through general sociocognitive abilities, including pattern-finding skills (Tomasello, 2005), which in turn facilitate the formation of basic sensorimotor schemas. These schemas have been referred to as image schemas, i.e.,

primitive cognitive universals based in genetic traits and representing embodied knowledge of the physical world as sketchy categories, such as FORCE, PATH or UP-DOWN (Johnson, 1987), conceptual archetypes, including "a physical object, an object in a location, an object moving through space, the human body, the human face, a whole, and its parts, [or] a physical container and its contents" (Langacker, 2008: 33-34). While there is a general consensus that schematic concepts are pre-linguistic, at least some of them, i.e. spatial primitives (Mandler, Cánovas, 2014), have also been classified as pre-conceptual and thus (near-)universal.

If the conceptual system is founded on schemas, they naturally become its constitutive part and effectively constrain its development. In fact, schematic concepts are necessary for the conceptual system to function effectively. As Z. Kövecses (2015: 32-35), following L. Barsalou (1999), notes, conceptual systems need to be able to represent both immediate and nonimmediate experience in a meaningful way, allow for making inferences and novel conceptualizations and be accessible to a large number of users, i.e. concepts/conceptualizations must be pairable with (linguistic) forms to become symbols. In order to fulfill its tasks, a perceptual and modal conceptual system needs to be embodied, schematic, frame-based, and linguistically coded, and all of these requirements involve schematic structures. For instance, both embodiment and schematic entail the presence of image schemas (Langacker, 1997), while frames are constituted by schematic entities and relations, e.g. PARTICIPANTS, PLACE, OBJECT, SETTING or BE PART OF (Fillmore, 1982).

Schematic structures underlie the conceptual system and are constantly reinforced by our interactions with the world. Thus, all mental representations are composed of perceptual symbols – sensory, motor, affective, introspective, social, and linguistic – derived from multimodal experience and incorporated into simulators, or concepts, which consequently contain a vast amount of knowledge and can produce an indefinite number of context-induced simulations, or meanings (Barsalou, 2016).

While linguistic and non-linguistic perceptual symbols are generally acknowledged as forming simulators, the former is granted a unique position in CL because of their particular relation with schematic structures. To begin with, the Words as Social Tools theory (Borghi, Binkofski, 2014) stipulates that although linguistic experience is captured by simulators in the form of linguistic representations, e.g. acoustic properties or inner speech, and thus linguistic and non-linguistic perceptual symbols are made to interact within a concept; this interface is based on qualitative differences between the two kinds of symbols. These differences are specified by V. Evans (2016: 6), who claims that the language system attracts two types of representations – rich and schematic. Detailed meanings come directly from the conceptual system, i.e. information encoded in multimodal simulator, while sketchy, or parametric, meanings are "not straightforwardly imageable" and thus less directly linked to the conceptual system. This unobvious link is provided by schematic concepts, i.e. conceptual archetypes, which underlie all grammatical categories as "subjective counterparts of basic aspects of everyday experience (Langacker, 2008: 538), elements of frames, such as SETTING, AGENT, OBJECT or ACTION, which are not only the classic types of slots related to linguistic structures but also "local outputs of the situation-processing architecture [within a frame]" (Barsalou, 2016: 18), or image schemas, e.g. CONTAINMENT or CENTRE-PERIPHERY, which form the schematic meanings of grammatical categories, such as ergative or monotransitive sentence patterns (Talmy, 2000: 87-88).

Schematic constructs are the foundation of inter-related conceptual and linguistic systems and constrain the way we perceive the world and arrange our new experiences. T. Nelhaus (2006) even claims that our situated interactions not only involve existing schemata but may also influence them at the neurological level. Also, individual languages may change basic concepts, but these alterations introduce only

minor refinements to foundational notions. As J. M. Mandler and C. P. Cánovas (2014: 513) put it, words in different languages, such as Korean and English, may elaborate the CONTAINMENT schema in various ways, but "both languages express containment". All in all, then, schematic structures are largely assumed to be (near-)universal. V. Evans (2016: 2), for instance, shows that virtually all languages include a pronoun system that preserves a role for the second person, interrogatives, imperatives, and deontic modality, all of which are "the linguistic resources that seek to influence others" and thus elaborate the FORCE schema. These omnipresent schematic structures are the foundation upon which LC in the CEFR can be reconstructed.

The schematic commitment in re-defining LC

(Near-)universal schematic meanings, possibly underlain by our species-specific ability to generate them (Evans, 2016: 11), are always present in a simulator, but they are not necessarily those conceptualizations that have been conventionalized by a given community. In fact, as author and author (2017: 244) argue, "encoding and decoding schematic content is not easy because neither employing nor discovering the abstract basis of language is simple". Thus, when interacting, we prefer to resort to more readily-available elements of simulators, e.g. "knowledge and beliefs that usually belong to a certain speech community as a result of prior interactions and experience" (Kecskes, 2014: 160). Consequently, schematic, socio-cultural, and pragmatic conceptualizations combine in a simulator (Croft, 2001: 18), and LC becomes closely intertwined with the other communicative competencies in the CEFR as well as with general knowledge and plurilingual/pluricultural proficiencies. An interesting illustration of how those qualitatively different dimensions of a simulator can interact is provided by I. Kecskes (2014: 117) in the form of the following exchange: A) *Why don't you sit down?* B) *Because you didn't tell me to,* where person A evokes the schematic/parametric meaning residing in the whole utterance, while person B concentrates on the more detailed/multimodal level of individual words.

The above-mentioned example reinforces not only the claim that LC is integrated with the other competencies in the CEFR, in the same way as linguistic and non-linguistic perceptual symbols are always combined in a simulator, but also the assumption that meanings of individual units, e.g. words, may be less important than meanings of wholes, e.g. sentence patterns. To illustrate this asymmetry, let us consider the verb *slice*, which can felicitously occur within transitive (*He sliced the bread*), caused-motion (*Pat sliced the carrots into the salad*), ditransitive (*Pat sliced Chris a piece of pie*), way (*Emeril sliced and diced his way to stardom*), and resultative (*Pat sliced the box open*) constructions (Goldberg, 2003: 221). To account for the distribution of the verb from the CEFR's perspective on LC, we would have to assume that *slice* has enough (grammatical) semantic information to combine with as many as five distinct patterns, which simply means that we assemble the utterances from a number of abstract and virtually meaningless categories, processes, classes and relations (cf. Section 2.1). CL's alternative is to expect general-level constructions to be meaningful themselves and hence able to decisively determine the interpretation. For example, in *What did Liza buy a child?,* six types of meaningful units combine: word, ditransitive, question, subject-auxiliary inversion, VP, and NP constructions (Goldberg, 2003: 221). And while all of them undoubtedly contribute to understanding the expression, it is the meaning of the entire utterance that determines the meanings of its parts rather than the other way round (Croft, 1993).

A non-compositional, top-down approach to LC in which all forms are meaningful, i.e. understood through perceptual symbols, entails that language is a structured inventory of symbolic units, or constructions, i.e. form-meaning pairings of various degrees of complexity and specificity, including morphemes, words, idioms and fully or partially filled general linguistic patterns (Goldberg, 2003: 219). If forms

(spoken, written, gestured) are always matched with meanings (schematic, socio-cultural, pragmatic), then the three classes of competencies distinguished in Section 2 should be changed accordingly. Phonological competence – apparently closest to the CL perspective proposed here – could nevertheless benefit from highlighting the notion of schematic meaning. In this way, phonological proficiency could both remain attached to plurilingual proficiency (through the construct of HA) and become firmly related to LC (through the concept of parametric meaning). Grammatical, orthoepic, and semantic proficiencies should be thoroughly revised and/or abandoned since the first two concentrates on either forms alone or forms combined with no (meaningful) content, while semantic competence formally sanctions abstract (amodal) "meanings" rejected through the schematic commitment. Lexical and orthographic competencies, in turn, should be systematically referred to a variety of meanings (or contexts), including schematic, socio-cultural and pragmatic. Moreover, in the case of lexical competence, two fallacies generated by the formal approach: rules/lists and (regular) core/(irregular) periphery (cf. Section 2.2) need to be re-addressed. In fact, these dilemmas are handled jointly in CL.

To begin with, J. R. Taylor (2002: 541) claims that there is virtually no regularity in language, and hence all constructions/symbolic units are more or less idiomatic, i.e. they are "conventionalized form-meaning relations at varying level of schematicity". On this account, even apparently regular expressions, e.g. *Would you like some coffee?*, do not emerge as a result of rule application but are formed from the input since, as J. R. Taylor (2002: 540) further argues, it would be unfeasible to assume that whenever we want to ask questions like the one above, we assemble them from component units according to syntactic rules. If, then, idiomaticity is the core of the language, it is the irregular and the idiosyncratic that needs to be studied in order to discover generalizations since, as J. R. Taylor (2002: 558) puts it, "grammar comes to be characterized not in terms of ever more general rules and principles, but as a huge inventory of rather particular facts, interrelated by schemas of varying levels of schematicity."

If rules and other invisible/inaudible elements of LC disappear and all linguistic units are meaningful, the difference between grammatical and lexical competences in the CERF is purely qualitative in that grammar is mostly characterized by parametric meanings while the lexicon, though founded upon cognitive schemas, by socio-cultural and pragmatic elements. Both grammatical and lexical units need to be learned since they involve a considerable degree of unpredictability. Rule-like constructions abstracted from language use and supported by (near-)universal schemas co-occur with lower-level generalizations in the language system whose core is constituted by "routine formulas, fixed and semi-fixed expressions, idioms, and frozen collocations" (Tomasello, 2005: 9), which at once show native-like mastery and hinder plurilingual (lingua franca) communication (Seidlhofer, 2004: 220). This paradox is explained by I. Kecskes (2016: 15), who notes that language learners, apparently driven by the need to sound idiomatic and hence natural, will always "make an effort in their own way to keep the original rules of the game. This means that they try to use formulas that appear to be the best means to express their immediate communicative goals [and] create new formulas if the need arises". (Kecskes, 2016: 15). Thus, rather than promote high lexical accuracy so that confusion and incorrect word choice does not obstruct communication (Council of Europe, 2018: 134), *Vocabulary control* should take imprecision and a mix of influences as a norm.

Placing intelligibility over accuracy means that schematic meanings come to the fore again. Clearly, in order to understand "novel idioms" such as, "it almost skips from my thoughts, you are not very rich in communication, [or] take a school" (Kecskes, 2016: 15), LC must be developed beyond the specific conventions of L2

and towards the schematic frames of (near)-universal nature. Likewise, to understand that *Tell me about it!* in fact, means the opposite (Kecskes, 2014: 99), the schematic element, conveyed via the intonation pattern, or an "overt closed-class element" (Talmy, 2000: 23), needs to be mastered. All in all, then, schematic meanings may turn out to be the foundation upon which effective communication is built.

Schematic meanings permeate cognition and, expectedly, manifest themselves throughout general, communicative, and plurilingual/pluricultural competences in the CEFR as (near-)universal elements of knowledge about the physical world, parametric meanings, and hyperlinguistic awareness, respectively. They tighten the links between communicative language competences since sociolinguistic and pragmatic meanings come together in a concept with linguistic meanings just as non-linguistic and linguistic perceptual symbols do. While not irrelevant for re-shaping LC in the Framework, these observations are just the background against which linguistic competence – our primary concern – should be re-interpreted.

The main changes to LC, resulting from the CL approach and the schematicity commitment adopted, naturally emerge from our discussion so far and can be summarized at general and specific levels. From the broadest perspective, LC can be defined as an ability to process constructions, or symbolic units, indispensable for effective communication. This overall characterization results in a number of particular statements:

- only naturally-occurring units and generalizations over them are elements of LC, i.e. symbolic units
- symbolic units – form-meaning pairings – are structured according to their level of schematicity,
- forms are written, spoken or gestured,
- meanings encompass schematic, socio-cultural, and pragmatic elements,
- the ability to process schematic content is crucial for developing LC,
- irregularity is the central feature of the language system,
- LC is developed through learning,
- wholes rather than parts and lists rather than rules are the basic constructs characterizing LC.

How much, if any, influence the above guidelines will have on re-constructing LC in the CEFR is a matter of speculation, but what should not be doubted is that LC needs to be re-formulated to be tenable. Perhaps a good starting point would be to expand on what has already been revamped in the Framework, i.e. the notion of phonological competence, and highlight its key aspects: meaningfulness of forms and intelligibility within the other sub-competencies of LC. Moreover, if schematic meanings, as already suggested above, were to be incorporated within phonological descriptors, particularly with reference to prosodic features, a link could be established between phonology and grammar in the CEFR since both instantiate parametric meanings. Another question to consider within phonological competence is whether skills related to the articulation of sounds and those connected with exploiting prosodic features should be treated on a par, as currently implied by the Framework (Council of Europe, 2018: 136), or whether the mastery of wholes, e.g. intonation patterns, should perhaps be more prominent than competences related to individual sounds.

Apart from, or as well as, elaborating on phonological competence, LC could be easily made more coherent if the (often unrelated) theoretical underpinnings currently attached, albeit unproportionally, to individual sub-competencies, were replaced with a consistent, possibly inspired by CL, the background to LC as a whole.

Finally, certain themes, so to speak, could be made recurrent throughout linguistic competence to facilitate its integrity. These key notions, as already partly suggested, could encompass symbolic units/constructions, meaning(s), intelligibility,

schematicity, learning/memorization, idiomaticity. Clearly, most of them are already present in the Framework, and perhaps what is needed first of all is simply a shift of focus.

Conclusion

Linguistic competence in the CEFR is not defined in a consistent way and thus does not constitute a reliable notion. This situation is far from felicitous in the case of a document whose aim is to facilitate language learning and teaching and in fact, function as a "tool for coherent, transparent and effective plurilingual education" (Council of Europe, 2018: 25). At the same time, though, this *status quo* is not unexpected since the Framework attempts to bridge (at least) two paradigms: (socio-)cognitive,[2] characteristic of the 2001 document, and socioconstructive, which emanates from the 2018 companion volume. Consequently, certain concepts are still (partly) attached to the original vision, others overlap, and still others have been thoroughly re-defined. LC illustrates all these tendencies.

Inspired by the notion of hyperlinguistic awareness, we suggested that the schematic commitment of cognitive linguistics could become a foundation upon which to re-structure LC. But in fact, there were also other stimuli, and the current proposal owes much to four sources.

Firstly, there is an undisputable relation to D. Newby's (2011: 19) idea of schematic competence, "which should be incorporated in any model which aims at describing general competence". In our view, however, schematic capabilities, though vital for all, including general competencies, are most advanced in and particularly relevant for linguistic (grammatical) and plurilingual proficiencies.

Secondly, A. M. Pirc's (2013) constructionist approach to ELF communication and her focus on learning, context-specific emergence, and grammar in general, with particular emphasis, though, on W. Croft's (2001) construction grammar, clearly resonate in our proposal, which is, nevertheless, much closer to R. Langacker's (1987; 2008) vision of grammar.

Thirdly, D. Larsen-Freeman's (2018: 58), discussing current trends in theories of language development, points out that any framework aiming at combining social and cognitive strands should do so in a way that involves "embodied cognition". Our cognitive linguistics perspective, with its focus on schematicity, clearly meets this requirement.

Finally, there is the CEFR itself, where traces of both schematicity and embodiment commitments can be found. The former is instantiated by formal, content, interactional and transactional schemata (Council of Europe, 2018: 67, 138), while the latter is extensively present in the form of the ECML's ProSign Project (Council of Europe, 2018: 145). Based on spatial and diagrammatical competences and involving facial expression, body, head, and mimics as well as hand and arm movement, sign languages are par excellence embodied systems. Perhaps then the Framework could move a step further and integrate those, and possibly other, already-available elements of cognitive linguistics into its characterization of further proficiencies. Our proposal has been created with a view to assisting in this process.

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[2] The parantheses are used to indicate that the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001) uses the term in an asymmetrical way, with apparently more emphasis on the individual than the collective, as evidenced by the way LC is defined,and thus to distinguish it from a fully balanced and integrated sociocognitive approach (Larsen-Freeman, 2018).

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Refugees' L2 learning: new perspectives on language motivation research

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Abstract

This study analyses the factors that influence the second language learning motivation of refugees in Italy. To do so, we have conducted an ethnography by making interviews and questionnaires to adult refugee students of the Italian language. The analysis of the data highlights that the peculiar migration experience of this type of students results in specific language learning motivation factors. Starting by the existing paradigm, we discuss the refugee second language (L2) learning motivation as composed by the following dimensions: Ideal L2 Self, Ought-to L2 Self, Social Distance, Learning Experience, Self-confidence, and Anxiety and Multilingual Self.
Key words: motivation, language learning, L2MSS, refugees, second language

Introduction

The positive outcomes that a good motivation gives on learning are well known. However, literature has shown that not every motivation type gives the same learning result. In the field of language learning, Lambert demonstrated in 1969 that the level of linguistic competence depends on the type of motivation. In other words, depending on their motivation typology, students can achieve different levels of competence. On the other hand, it has also been shown that based on the type of motivation, the student will adapt his learning strategy, which in turn drives to a more or less good learning level (Oxford, Nyikos, 1989).

By putting its attention on the factors that influence the motivation of the students, the research in language learning motivation has been dedicated mainly to the English language learned as a foreign language (FL) in school contexts (Boo, Dornyei, Ryan, 2015). In contrast, much less attention has been given to the motivation to learn a language other than English (LOTE) and to a second language (L2), that is to say, a second language learned in the country where this language is spoken. Nevertheless, the global diffusion of migrations has incremented the learning of a second language, not as an educational goal, but as a means of integration in the country of migration. Consequently, second language learning motivation research has recently questioned the adaptability of the current paradigms (usually used for foreign language contexts) both to the contexts of second language learning and to the learning of a language different than the global English (Ushioda, Dornyei, 2017).

The work presented in this article aims at contributing to fill this gap of the research by analyzing the motivation of refugees and asylum seekers to learn the Italian language in Italy. As refugee migration experience and learning conditions are different than the ones of the rest of immigrants, we decided to circumscribe the study to this specific class of learners. The main objective of this research is to investigate the factors that influence the motivation of this type of students. By doing this, we study whether the learning of a second language in the peculiar condition of the forced migration is moved by specific motivations.

The second language motivation research and the L2 Motivational Self System

The first steps of language learning motivation research are taken by Gardner and Lambert, who recognized two types of motivation, the instrumental and the integrative (Gardner, 1985; Lambert, 1969; Gardner and Lambert, 1959). According to these authors, those who are moved by practical goals to learn a language (get a certificate,

find a job, etc.) are influenced by an instrumental motivation. On the other hand, those who are interested in deepening their knowledge about the linguistic community and communicate with them are moved by an integrative motivation. Compared to instrumental motivation, integrative motivation is usually related to a higher level of linguistic competence. That is because this kind of motivation is usually stronger than the other one. In fact, integrative motivation is generally related to an affinity with the target language group. By living in the L2 country, the learner of this language is motivated by the need to integrate into the new country (Balboni, 2012).

The concept of integrative motivation is the foundational element of Gardner research, whose work, around sixty years ago, gave birth to the first stage of the second language motivation studies, defined as the social-psychological period (Dornyei and Ryan, 2005). Gardner and his colleagues worked on the L2 learning motivation, focusing on the affective factors related to language learning (Gardner, 2010). According to Gardner's theory, in order to learn an L2, the student needs to have an openness to the L2 community. Moreover, as stated by his theory, the L2 learning is greatly influenced by positive attitudes and motivation, while on the opposite, it is hindered by language anxiety. In order to test motivation, Gardner created the Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), a test battery that has been widely used and validated, due to Gardner's theory being the most diffused theory on this subject for many decades (Al Hoorie, 2017a).

Despite his great success, between the nineties and the first years of the third millennium, the L2 learning motivation theory witnessed a shift. The change relies on the passage from the social-psychological period to the cognitive one, which focuses its attention on the individual learner (Dornyei, Ryan, 2015). More in detail, the theoretical change consisted of the appearance of Dörnyei's theory in 2005. His theory is based on one hand on the idea of the possible selves proposed by Markus and Nurius (1986), which refers to the possible future representations of one's self. On the other hand, it originates from the self-discrepancy theory according to which there are two kinds of possible selves, the ideal self and the ought-to self, that in other words refer to what someone would like to be and what someone is ought to (Higgins, 1987). More specifically, Dörnyei expanded Gardner's theory and created the L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS), which is the most used model at the moment (Boo, Dornyei, and Ryan, 2015). Three dimensions establish the L2MSS:

- the Ideal L2 Self that refers to the student identification with the community that speaks the L2. That is to say; it is the image of the ideal L2 speaker that the student aims to become in the future;

- the Ought-to L2 Self, which is related to the external expectations, namely the attributes that the student needs to have in order to fulfill the expectations of other people;

- the L2 Learning Experience that, as the name suggests, refers to the learning experience impact on student motivation; for example, the influence of the relation with the teacher, the classmates, or the school results (You, Dornyei, 2014).

In Dörnyei's theory, Gardner's concept of integrativeness was reinterpreted and substituted by the idea of the Ideal L2 Self (Dornyei, 2005). That is because, according to Dörnyei, integrativeness is only a facet of the L2 learner's Ideal Self. This change was thought to suit the learners of a foreign language, as "in the absence of a salient L2 group in the learners' environment (as is often the case in foreign language learning contexts in which the L2 is primarily learned as a school subject) the identification can be generalized to the cultural and intellectual values associated with the language, as well as to the actual L2 itself" (Dornyei, Csizer, 2002:453). Nevertheless, the shift towards including integrativeness into the Ideal L2 Self was not meant to make the L2MSS suitable for foreign language learners only, but to include both cases, L2 learners and FL learners, into the same motivation system. This is made clear by

Dörnyei and Csizér when they say: "We suspect that the motivation dimension captured by the term is not so much related to any actual or metaphorical, integration into an L2 community as to some more basic identification process within the individual's self-concept. As described above, such a conception would not conflict with the original Gardnerian notion and would at the same time provide a broader frame of reference: it could explain the motivational setup within diverse learning contexts even if they offer little or no contact with the L2 speakers (…)" (Dornyei, Csizer, 2002:453). On the other hand, the concept of the instrumentality of the learning is associated with both Ideal L2 Self and Ought-to L2 Self. That because, according to the new theory, instrumentality can have a promotion focus, hence being a facet of the Ideal L2 Self, or a prevention focus, in which case is a part of the Ought-to L2 Self (Dornyei, 2010a).

In order to have a closer look at the L2MSS, it is necessary to observe the main research instrument used in the literature, the questionnaire. A good example of a questionnaire is the one used in the work of Taguchi, Magid, and Papi (2009). They carried out a survey in Japan, Iran, and China. The results of their work validated the L2MSS in these countries and the dimension of integrativeness as a part of the Ideal L2 Self. In order to formulate the questionnaires, the authors took into consideration the leading work of Dörnyei, Csizér, and Németh (2006), but also those of Ryan (2009), Yashima et al. (2004), Dörnyei (2001), Noels et al. (2000), Clément and Baker (2001), Neuliep and McCroskey (1997) and Gardner (1985). From the combined list of the items included in the questionnaire, it is possible to better observe the L2MSS and have a look at the factors affecting the motivation that has been considered in the literature. Ten factors were taken into consideration by the work of Taguchi, Magid, and Papi (2009):

- Criterion measures evaluate the intended effort of the student;
- Ideal L2 Self assesses the identification of the student with his future image of an L2 speaker;
- Ought-to L2 Self values the characteristics that the student believes he ought to possess to please the other people expectations;
- Family influence measures the role of the family in the student motivation;
- Instrumentality-promotion evaluates the relation of the student L2 learning motivation with his personal life goals;
- Instrumentality-prevention measures the relation of the duty to study the language in order to satisfy an obligation;
- Attitudes to learning English calculates the learning reasons related to the immediate experience;
- Attitudes to L2 community evaluates the student's attitudes towards the L2 community;
- Cultural interest estimates the interest of the student in the cultural products of the L2 society;
- Integrativeness assesses the positive attitudes of the learner toward the L2 community, language, and culture.

As anticipated earlier, integrativeness has been included in the L2MSS as a facet of the L2 Ideal Self. Between the other factors, it is interesting to note that, although the Ought-to L2 Self includes general questions about external pressure on studying the L2 (e.g. "Learning English is necessary because people surrounding me expect me to do so"), a big importance is given to the influence of the family members, due to the fact that this system is usually used to test learners at school age (Dornyei, 2010b). This is an important point for our research when coming to the analysis of the factors used by the literature that can be adaptable to our specific learners' group of the refugees. That is because our goal is to understand the factors that can be related to the motivation of refugee students, that is, to say, adult learners of an L2 with very specific living conditions. Another point that looks relevant for this purpose is the factor of

the cultural interest, which seems to be prior to a foreign language student that studies for his education rather than to an L2 adult learner who studies a language in order to live in its country.

Besides the main theoretical thread on second language motivation, we urge to mention other secondary aspects that need to be taken into consideration when discussing the motivation of an L2 learner. First of all, it is essential to remember the hypothesis of the affective filter proposed by Krashen (1982), which considers the existence of three variables that can hinder the acquisition process: motivation, anxiety, and self-confidence. Surely, we consider that for the special situation of the refugees living conditions, these factors can be relevant to their learning process. Moreover, both anxiety and self-confidence can have an impact on their learning motivation. Another factor that is important for this research is the relation of the social distance with second language learning. As Schumann says, "It is argued that social distance and hence a bad language learning situation will exist where the 2LL group is either dominant or subordinate, where both groups desire preservation and high enclosure for the 2LL group, where the 2LL group is both cohesive and large, where the two cultures are not congruent, where the two groups hold negative attitudes toward each other and where the 2LL group intends to remain in the target language area only for a short time" (Schumann, 1976:135). The factors that, according to Schumann can trigger social distance - and for instance, can hinder second language learning - seems to be relevant for our context, as for being forced migrants, refugees could particularly suffer from situations that trigger social distance with the target language community. Finally, as a conclusion of this section, we find it meaningful to mention the motivational model of Balboni (2012), according to whom we have three main sources of motivation: il dovere (the duty), il bisogno (the need) and il piacere (the pleasure). If we consider the need for integrating into the L2 community, we find that an immigrant could be moved to learn the second language mainly due to duty and need. Pleasure, on the other hand, could appear in case the migrant is also moved by an affective factor and shows positive attitudes and closeness towards the L2 society.

New paths for the second language motivation research
The present of the second language motivation research is being characterized by new changes and emerging interests. Dörnyei and Ryan define the current period as the socio-dynamic one (Dornyei, Ryan, 2015), due to the assumption that the motivation of a learner is not stable but can change over time and depending on the context. Moreover, several are open theoretical issues that characterize the current period. Nevertheless, in this context, we find it convenient to define expressly those that are more relevant to the contextualization of our study.

First of all, it must be highlighted that language learning motivation research has focused till now for more than 70% on English language learning. This is basically due to the status and the particular roles that the English language covers in the global context (Boo, Dornyei, Ryan, 2015). On the one hand, this shows that there is an evident lack of research on language motivation that refers to languages other than English; on the other hand, it raises the question of whether the theoretical paradigms used over the last decades can be applicable to the study of the motivation of other languages. It has to be noted that, due to its status, English learning motivation could be different than the motivation to learn a LOTE. Likewise, English global status could cause the learning of English to have an influence on the motivation of learning a LOTE. In addition, it is assumed that in the contemporary learning of English and a LOTE there could be motivational interferences between the two languages (Ushioda, Dornyei, 2017).

At the same time, the disproportionate number of research between English and the other languages warns on the neglecting of the important human mobility phenomena

witnessed worldwide. That is relevant because human mobility involves significant numbers of immigrants learning an L2. In other words, the literature has focused mainly on the learning of English as a global-foreign language, neglecting the world of the L2. As state of the art suggests, there is a need for validating the L2MSS as a model in second language contexts (Dornyei, Al Hoorie, 2017). For this reason, the motivation to learn a LOTE as an L2 is an emerging research topic that must take into account questioning the traditional research models that are used for the study of global English.

One important aspect is the revaluation of the integrative factor in the case of LOTE. As Hoorie says, "One interesting outcome of researching LOTEs is that the role in integrative motivation seems to resurface. Integrative motivation might be a relevant concept in the context of LOTEs as there is usually a specific community out there that speaks the language, and that is considered the "owner" of that language. In addition, many individuals who decide to take up learning a certain LOTE do so because they are already in the geographical area where the language is spoken or because they plan to move there" (Al Hoorie, 2017b:7). Indeed, integrative motivation seems to be a more important factor for L2 learners rather than foreign language learners (Oxford, 1996).

Another aspect that needs to be taken into account is the Ought-to L2 Self dimension. It has been hypothesized that different from the global English that has a homogenous Ought-to L2 Self, the Ought-to L2 Self of a LOTE's learner could be more fragmented, at the point that it could consist of multiple dimensions (Dornyei, Al Hoorie, 2017). Besides this, we consider that it is essential to highlight some other particularities of the Ought-to L2 Self that could be relevant for studying motivation in L2 contexts concerning immigrant learners. First of all, we need to take into account that the Ought-to L2 Self dimension has been found to be correlated with anxiety (Papi, 2010). Likewise, it has been argued that the Ideal L2 Self is incompatible with a contrasting Ought-to L2 Self, as this could be counterproductive in language learning (Dornyei, Ushioda, 2011; Dornyei, 2009). About this, Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie (2017) remind us of various studies that discuss the reactance to external expectations. In order to preserve their freedom, some people react to an external expectation by behaving in the opposite way (Chartrand, Dalton and Fitzsimons, 2007). That means that when the learning of a language is imposed by external expectations, the learner could react by desiring to learn another language or by refusing to learn the prescribed one. Surely, such imposition could have originated from family but also from society, the latter being the case addressed by Sugiharto (2015) work, which describes how in a nationalist country that pushes on the preservation of the local languages, people react by keeping talking English. This aspect of motivational research is of particular interest because, as Lanvers (2017) shows, there is a lack of works that relate social factors or xenophobia to language learning motivation.

In this regard, it must be highlighted that immigration and language learning are strictly correlated and undergo prescriptions and rules from society and governments (Pulinx, Van Avermaet, Extramiana, 2014). That because, due to the global diffusion of migrations, language learning is not limited anymore just to the cultural education of a student, but it has acquired importance for the migrants' integration in the new socio-cultural context (De Mauro, Vedovelli, Barni, Miraglia, 2003). This is due to the need to be able to communicate their own thoughts in order to participate in civic life (Zalec, Pavlikova, 2019). Despite this, only a few studies investigated the language learning motivation in these contexts. Between the existing researches, the work of Li Qi (2014) validated the L2MSS in the L2 context by making a comparison of its use in both second and foreign language contexts. The results of his work show relevant differences between the motivations of L2 and FL learners, with L2 learners being more motivated than the others. Besides this study, one of Stracke, Jones and Bramley (2014) also tested the L2MSS between L2 immigrant learners. In their work,

attitudes towards L1 and L2 are investigated, and the results show the development of a bicultural identity. Nevertheless, as in most of cases of foreign language learning motivation, these two studies regarded the learning of English language. After all, we can confirm that LOTE motivation research is very scarce and needs further investigations. Moreover, the research needs to deepen into the L2 migration contexts due to the importance that human mobility has got in the contemporary era.

Finally, from a different perspective, it is relevant to mention the suggestion of Henry (2017), who says that in an always more multicultural and multilingual world, the concept of the Ideal L2 Self should be reconceptualized, and the accent should be put over considering the development of Ideal Multilingual Selves. This should also be taken into account by considering that the idea of multilingual speakers is comprised of the model of instruction and communication contemplated by the Council of Europe (Henry, 2017; Ushioda, 2017).

Methodology

The aim of the present study is to fill the gap in the LOTEs motivation research. More in detail, we consider the need for more attention towards language learning motivation in the migration context. As already discussed in the previous chapter, the literature in this regard is very scarce. Furthermore, to the best of our knowledge, there is a lack of specific studies regarding the L2 learning motivation of refugees. In this work, we want to analyze the specificity of this learners' group language motivation, as we believe it is an independent class of learners. Since they are forced migrants, their migration path is not deliberately decided, but it is often due to force majeure. This brings them to live in a country that they often did not choose. Moreover, refugees' stay in the host country is often temporary and also conditioned by the factors that have caused the migration (wars, persecutions, environmental disasters, etc.) (Galli, 2017). These conditions distinguish them from other migrants, e.g. economic migrants, who often plan to settle in the country of the L2 permanently. On the contrary, refugees often plan to leave the host country for improving their life or to join family components or friends in other countries.

In this study, we investigate the language attitudes and the factors that are linked with the Italian language learning motivation of adult refugees in Italy. In order to choose the most suited methodology to conduct this study, from one side, we considered the methodologies that were used in the literature, and, from the other side, we examined the context of analysis through participant observation. Both ways helped us to elect a suitable methodology for the specific case of adult refugee learners in Italy.

As Boo, Dörnyei, and Ryan (2015) show, in the studies conducted starting from 2005, most of the research in L2 learning motivation is done by using a quantitative methodology (178 out of 335 studies), with a minority of qualitative (71), mixed methods (73) and innovative methods (13). Nevertheless, in their literature review, they showed that there is increasing use of the qualitative methods (interviews, observation, and discourse analysis) in the last period.

For our study, we have decided to conduct an ethnography. More specifically, we have used interviews and qualitative questionnaires. The choice was taken after a period of participative observation in L2 Italian classes frequented by refugees and immigrants and was due mainly to three reasons. First, in the classes of the observation, there were numerous refugees coming from West African countries or Asian countries with a very low level of education, often illiterates. This condition left a small room for the use of quantitative methods such as the questionnaire on a large-scale, which seems to not be applicable to this type of learner. The second reason that drove us to choose this method is the need for a deep understanding of the learning motivation of these students. In this sense, the qualitative approach is considered optimal, as it allows us to get close to the informants and deepen their motivation of

learning the language of the host country (Alvarez Alvarez, 2008; Goetz, LeCompte, 1998). The third reason is probably the one that relates the most to the need for a qualitative approach with adult refugee students. In fact, the reason lies in the peculiar situation of being a refugee. The administrative situation of being a refugee implies that the main relations that these persons establish with locals are linked to their status. That means that in the host country, they mainly talk to lawyers, police, and mediators. This particular situation calls attention to new ethical issues derived from the migration (Mahrik, Kralik, Tavilla, 2018). That is, such circumstances can drive refugees to feel stressed and anxious when being 'asked questions'; thus, their answers could be affected. For this reason, this situation requires from the researcher a soft and gradual approach to them in order to be able to establish a trust relationship that can lead to a deep look into the subject of analysis. In this sense, the observation that we have conducted as a previous stage of research served as the first way to approach them and establish a trust relationship with them.

Informants and research instruments
The present study was based in Puglia region, in the south of Italy. Our informants were 47 adult refugees with whom we have conducted 28 interviews and 27 questionnaires. Their country of origin is various and distributed in the following way: Nigeria (11), Gambia (7), Pakistan (6), Senegal (3), Bangladesh (3), Ivory Coast (3), Guinea Bissau (2), Guinea (2), Somalia (2), Syria (2), Egypt (1), Niger (1), Mali (1), Sierra Leone (1), Ghana (1), Mauritania (1).

The qualitative questionnaire used for this study consisted of 54 open and closed questions and has been structured into three parts: one referred to language learning motivation and expectations, one addressing the use of the spoken languages, and one regarding the relationship of the students with the Italian language. Due to the presence of low educated and illiterate students, the questionnaires were administered in both written and oral form. Moreover, because of the low level of Italian language, the questionnaires were administered in Italian, English, French, and Arabic, taking into consideration the lingua franca of the students. Similarly, lingua franca was also used during the interview sessions. Semi-structured interviews have been chosen as a research instrument in order to allow a natural and relaxed way to deepen into the student motivation and relation with languages. The interview protocol was developed starting from the questionnaire questions, and it had the intention to elicit open and in-depth answers. Both questionnaires and interviews did not focus only on Italian language learning but took into consideration the whole language learning motivation of the refugee students, thus considering also other eventual languages.

Results
In the following sections, we present the results obtained from the analysis of the data. The data have been analyzed after being codified and divided into meaningful categories, according to the principles of the grounded theory (Olabuenaga, 1996). This interpretative approach leads us to the identification of the factors that influence the motivation of adult L2 refugee students in Italy. The factors have been combined into groups by following the existing paradigm, taking into consideration the works of Dörnyei (2005) and Taguchi, Magid, and Papi (2009). However, we have included other new components that we have considered relevant for being meaningful and specific for the case of adult refugee learners. For these new components, we have considered the theories of Schumann (1976), Krashen (1982), and Henry (2017). Six major groups combine the factors found in this study: Ideal L2 Self, Ought-to L2 Self, Social Distance, Learning Experience, Self-confidence and Anxiety, and Multilingual Self.

Ideal L2 Self of adult refugee learners of Italian L2
In some situations, the interviewed refugees showed a positive attitude toward the L2 country, because they consider that living in Italy is a substantial positive change in their living conditions. That was proven by the words of Mamadou (the names are pseudonyms to ensure anonymity), a young Ivorian refugee who flees his country since a few months. He says: "I feel good (in Italy) because nobody denies my freedom". Such positive attitudes and proves of wellbeing in Italy, are often the basis for shortening the distances and learning more about the L2 country. This translates into the need to integrate into the new country and partially becoming part of it. That is what Ahmad shows by saying that "I want to learn Italian because if I speak Italian, I can talk to people and learn more about Italian culture and traditions. I am living here now, and I need to know well how life is here".

From another point of view, since Italian is the language of the country where these refugees live and are able to study, the language becomes the instrument for building their future through better education. As Mohammad says, "I want to study till university. That will help me in my future… I take this course because of my future. I want to study in Italy and that course will help me to continue my education… It is very important to write well Italian so that I can get good marks in exams".

Surely, for living in the L2 country, all the life of the refugees is related to the L2. For this reason, the L2 motivation is linked with personal outcomes like work ambitions and study. Similarly, L2 learning motivation is linked with the necessity of satisfying practical needs like being able to communicate with the doctor or solve practical issues related to immigration status. Surely, these needs and ambitions are linked with the desire to integrate into the new country. In this sense, the integrative factor is fundamental, as the willingness (or not) of the learner to integrate into the new country is often related to the willingness to learn the L2.

In sum, the motivation factors that emerge from the ethnography relate to the future L2 image of the refugee, as well as his attitudes towards the new country, its community, and its cultural products and language. From another point of view, another L2 motivation factor refers to the need to learn the language in order to achieve a personal goal. Moreover, it has to be noted that since refugees live in the geographical area of the L2, another factor refers to the L2 motivation is derived from the integration needs. That is because the refugees feel the need to know more about the L2 country's culture and traditions.

More in details, we have identified eleven factors that can be related to the concept of the Ideal L2 Self dimension Dörnyei (2005):
- (1) Future work in Italy;
- (2) Future education in Italy;
- (3) Future family in Italy;
- (4) Future friendships in Italy;
- (5) Being a future speaker of Italian;
- (6) Writing ability in Italian;
- (7) Reading ability in Italian;
- (8) Understanding Italian TV and newspapers;
- (9) Knowledge about Italian traditions and culture;
- (10) Knowledge about the politic situation in Italy;
- (11) Ability to solve daily problems alone (e.g. doing shopping, going to the doctor, or dealing with bureaucratic issues).

Some of these factors seem to be specific to the context of learning a language in its original geographical area as they relate to the integration of the students in that society. Hence, they have not been taken into consideration in previous studies due to the fact that language learning motivation research has been mainly based in foreign language contexts (Boo, Dornyei, and Ryan, 2015). However, in order to combine

such factors in bigger groups of meaning, we propose here an identification with the dimensions defined by Dörnyei (2005) and Taguchi, Magid, and Papi (2009) as:
- Ideal L2 self image (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7);
- Attitudes towards Italian L2 language, culture, and community (9, 10);
- Instrumentality promotion (1, 2, 3, 8, 11);
- Integrativeness (1, 2, 3, 4, 9, 10, 11).

Ought-to L2 Self of adult refugee learners of Italian L2
Often, during this research, we have observed that the peculiar condition of the refugees as forced migrants put them into a "forced living conditions situation" that can coincide with forced L2 learning. That is to say, not all refugees that live in Italy aspire to learn the Italian language; some of them feel forced by the situation, as they do not have other choices, though they could not reach the desired country and are legally obliged to stay in Italy. Furthermore, the existing assimilation pressure exerted by the governments put the accent on the integration of the immigrants through language learning. Such assimilative pressure is present in all Europe, and it is widely supported by specific rules defining the linguistic duties of the immigrants in order to enter or stay in a European country (Pulinx, Van Avermaet, Extramiana, 2014).
Surely, because of these conditions, L2 refugee learners are very different from FL students. A foreign language learner usually studies the language because of cultural or educative reasons, the language is often chosen by him deliberately, and the main external learning pressure that can move his motivation derives from the parents' expectations. On the contrary, in the case of L2 refugee learners, the external expectations factors are various. Thus they have much more influence on refugees' motivation.
According to the L2 refugee learners' situation, the obligations derived from the external expectations (the Ought to L2 Self dimension, in Dornyei, 2005) are a major component of the L2 learning motivation between refugees. More specifically, we have identified the following components:
- (1) Social expectations;
- (2) National expectations;
- (3) Hosting organization expectations;
- (4) Family expectations.

Each of these four components represents an independent external entity that influences refugee motivation. Hence, the dimension of the Ought-to L2 Self of refugees seems to be formed by various components, which could confirm what is suggested by Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie, (2017) about the existence of various Ought-to L2 Selves in L2 learning situations.
In addition to these factors, we can also consider the inclusion of an Instrumentality Prevention component, as it has been done by Taguchi, Magid, and Papi (2009). Nevertheless, since in this context, it would be rather hard to discuss every single factor, we prefer to focus our attention on the external expectation factors, as they are peculiars for the adult refugee learners.
Definitely, the external expectations are a determinant factor between refugees, especially when they find themselves in a forced living situation. This is because some of the refugees of this study were headed to other countries but had to live in Italy due to the Dublin regulation (EU 604/2013). According to this law, the refugee has to be taken in charge by the country of his first entrance. In other words, some of them did not plan to live in Italy. Hence they did not plan to learn the Italian language as well. It is the case of Ahmad, who says, "Austria is better, there is a job there. I have been in Austria for some months, but they made me go back because they took my fingerprints here".

In addition to this, most of the refugees speak English or other Linguas Francas (that are national languages in their home countries). Thus, they would be potentially able to communicate with the locals through global English or other Linguas Francas. However, this ethnography shows that they are forced to learn Italian for not finding Italian speakers of these languages. The case of Bamba serves as an example between the various refugees that expressed very similar feelings. Bamba plans a future in northern Europe, and his stay in Italy is temporary due to the lack of work. When talking about language learning, he says, "Living in Italy is not easy because I don't understand what people say. If I read something on the wall, I can't understand. At home, I speak English, and I can talk with Pakistani, Nigerians, all. But out… I have to learn Italian because Italian people do not speak English. When I try to talk to them they always say italiano, italiano!". Very similar is the case of Jess. This refugee from Ghana origins expressed her disappointment because she perceives that foreign people in Italy are given a diminished value if they are not able to speak the local language. She exactly says: "living here without the language. You are nothing".

Another factor that influences refugees' L2 learning motivation in Italy is the pressure exerted from the refugees hosting agency. A clear example is given by the words of Babu, when talking about the workers of the organization that hosts him: "we are many students, some people never studied. Others are good. They can speak. For me it's very hard. (…) I want to go work. No study. But my teacher says if I don't go school she doesn't give me the money". In this case, the teacher is also a worker of the organization and she controls the distribution of the weekly food ticket. In order to 'motivate' the students to go to lessons, she threatens them that she would not give the money if they do not follow the course.

Another point we want to address in this section is the influence exerted by the family, which deserves here special attention. Differently from what happens for the FL learners (see e.g. Taguchi, Magid, Papi, 2009), the L2 refugee learners seem to be rarely affected by the family influence. That is because in most of the cases refugees have reached alone the L2 country. However, there are cases in which they live with one or more family members. These are usually not influential in their language learning unless they are their sons. A demonstration is given by the case of Ahmad, who has two very young children and when referring about it, he says: "I need to learn Italian. My sons are growing here, and soon they will speak Italian. They will speak like Italians. I need to help them in the school, talk with their teachers, you know, everything…". Hence, the family influence on these cases is different than the influence exerted by the family expectations of the FL learners. Furthermore, it is important to note that the influence exerted in these cases from the sons of a student may also be correlated with the Ideal L2 Self dimension, being a promotional factor, rather than a duty correlated with the Ought-to L2 Self dimension.

Social distance
As extensively discussed in this paper, integrativeness is an important factor when talking about L2 learners, more than it is for FL learners. However, integration depends on multiple factors, one of which is the social distance between the newly arrived 'foreigner' and the local community. According to the social distance concept of Schumann (1976), the L2 learning of the newly arrived immigrant depends on the relations between the two groups (that of the L2 learner and that of the L2 community). That is, the social distance is affected by the social status of the two groups, as well as by the size and the cohesion of the L2 learner group. Besides this, the attitudes of the local community towards the L2 learner group can have an impact. Furthermore, Schumann also considers as an influencing factor the length of time that the L2 learner aims to spend in the L2 country. This means that, according to his theory, one

would be more motivated to learn the L2 the more time he plans to spend in the L2 country.

In order to exemplify the influence of Schumann's theory in this context, we find it useful to cite some fragments of the interviews. The first refers to Schumann's idea on the attitudes of the L2 group towards the L2 learners' group. It is the case of Kevin's feeling of being an undesired presence in the country. He says, "People here don't like black people. When I walk in the street, they all look at me, but when I try to talk to them, they turn on the other side. Other times they tell me they don't understand me. I don't know why they hate us. We never did something bad to them".

Secondly, another relevant aspect for our study is the refugees' temporary permanence in the L2 country, which reminds us of the Schumann idea according to which the more you intend to stay in a country, the more you are motivated to learn its language. In this regard, it has to be said that refugees often do not have a well-established migration project. That is due to the reasons for which they have left their countries, often without being able to make any plan. Hence, sometimes they move from the host country and continue their migration. That it can happen, for example, because they need to join other family components in other countries or simply because they decide to go elsewhere. In fact, many refugees plan to live somewhere else due to the lack of jobs in Italy. It is the case of Javed, who comments: "I am waiting my papers, then I will go somewhere else. I will go France. Or maybe Spain. Italian people are good, but there is no job here". In these cases, the need of learning the L2 is only temporary, though it is greatly affected by these factors.

On the contrary, in other cases, Italy is the country to live in, hence refugees image themselves as a future part of the L2 community. It is the case of John, who plans to invest his efforts to learn Italian as he firmly desires to continue his life in this country. He says "Italy is my next home after I have been rejected in my country". The ideal L2 image of this refugee seems to correspond with a renegotiation of the refugee identity. That is because this refugee needed to flee his country and now aims at rebuilding a new life in the host country. Thus, in such cases Italy represents the new home, and as a consequence Italian language is the expression of a new self.

As our ethnography work shows, these facets are relevant when it comes to the analysis of the L2 learning motivation of refugees. Starting from Schumann's concept and the data extracted from our study, we observe that the following factors can influence the L2 learning of adult refugee students:

- Dominancy/Subordination of the L2 learner group face to the local group;
- Size of the L2 learner group;
- Negative attitudes of the locals towards the L2 learner group;
- Intended time of permanence in the L2 country.

Learning Experience

As for Dörnyei (2005), the learning experience, that is, the relation with teachers and classmates and the learning results, has an influence on the student learning motivation. In our specific case, we have found that the particular learning context causes a demotivation to the student due to learning conditions that do not favor the acquisition. What Ibrahim says when talking about his classroom is representative of the cases of many other refugees. When we asked him why he does not go to school anymore, he says: "there is no improvement; we study every day the same thing. For one year, she has been repeating the same lesson. (…) The Bangladeshi are always at the same point. The problem is they never went to school. So she always repeats the same things. Why should I go?".

Self-confidence and Anxiety

Self-confidence and anxiety are two factors that, according to Krashen (1982) can hinder the L2 learning. By the observation and the analysis of the data obtained from

the ethnography, these two factors are widely related to the refugees' language learning in the host country, which is due to their particular situation and peculiarities. First of all, due to their origin, many refugees can suffer the stress of entering the education system at an adult age. In fact, a great proportion of the refugees living in Italy come from Western African countries, and many between them are illiterates or have very poor education levels. This condition affects their self-confidence, especially because different education level students often share the same classroom. As a consequence, this can generate low self-esteem and anxiety between them, as they see themselves on a lower level than their classmates. The case of Mariam is very indicative of the effect that these two factors can have on motivation, in fact, after going to school for a little more than one month, she left the course. In one of the interview sessions, she told us: "I never went to school. Never. I never went to school. I mean never ever. This is not easy for me. Others are good". According to her experience, which is very common among our students, the learning experience itself is the factor that influences the self-confidence and triggers the anxiety of the student. Nevertheless, it must not be forgotten that the administrative condition of the asylum seekers is alone a source of stress, this anxiety, which can surely affect the learning and motivation.

Multilingual Self
A final remark of this work is dedicated to the possibility of being motivated to learn more than a language. In 2017, Henry hypothesized that the concept of the Ideal L2 Self should be reconceptualized, in the view of an always more multilingual world. According to him, the accent should be put over the development of Ideal Multilingual Selves.
In this work, we have found that this concept meets the refugee linguistic world from two points of view. First, most of the refugees in this study are plurilingual. That is to say; besides learning Italian, they are able to speak one (or more) native language(s) and the national language (in most cases one between English, French or Portuguese) of their home country. Nevertheless, another characteristic of the refugees links their peculiar condition to the possibility of having Ideal Multilingual Selves. That is to say, refugees' migration path does often not complete in the host country. The case of Phil illustrates what a common case between refugees is. He says, "I want to learn Dutch because I am planning to move there. I know some people there. I want to work there and make my life there". We found that the idea of living in Holland is a common concept between Nigerians, exactly like Phil.
Similarly, many other refugees with other origins plan to leave Italy to search for a job or simply because they want to join relatives and friends who have migrated to another country. By planning to continue the migration, some of them, like Phil, want to learn a specific language, while others count on their knowledge of English as lingua franca. As previously discussed in this paper, the permanence of the refugee in a country is often temporary. Due to this, their language motivation can be multiple. Besides Italian language, they want to learn or use other languages. Accordingly, the motivation to speak other languages (and the temporariness of their stay in the host country) is potentially a factor that affects the motivation to learn the language of the host country. In this meaning, what we call here multilingual self, according to Henry (2017), seems to be a separate motivation component rather than the substitution of the ideal L2 self. Hence, we should consider the possible existence of ideal L3 self, ideal L4 self etc. taking into account that the Ideal L^n selves could interfere with each other's motivation.

Conclusion
In the field of language motivation research, a growing interest is concerning the motivation regarding the study of a LOTE and that of an L2 studied in the country

where this language is spoken. In order to refer to the difference between the motivation of an L2 student and that of a FL student, the attentions of the research are being posed on whether the integrative factor could be more important for a learners group rather than for the other (Al Hoorie, 2017b; Gardner and Lambert, 1959). Besides, some remarks on possible future works are pointing out also the probable fragmentation of the Ought-to L2 Self factor between L2 learners (Dornyei, Al Hoorie, 2017). However, we consider that this subject has to be taken into account in a more holistic way. That is because not only the motivation of the L2 learners could differ from that of the FL learners, but also because special attention needs to be given to L2 learners in order to differentiate possible sub-groups. In this study, due to the peculiarity of their migration process, we decided to focus our research exclusively on L2 adult refugee learners.

The results of this work identify the L2 motivation factors in the Italian context of refugee second language learning. By taking into consideration the works of Dörnyei (2005), Taguchi, Magid, Papi (2009), Schumann (1976), Krashen (1982), and Henry (2017), we have combined the factors found in this research into six bigger groups, adding to the existing paradigm the concept of Social Distance, Self-confidence and Anxiety and Multilingual Self. In addition, we have identified specific factors of the L2 learning motivation between adult refugees for the already existing dimensions. The profiling of these dimensions aims to be a first contribution to the adaptation of the L2MSS to Italian L2 motivation context, for the specific case of adult refugee learners. In fact, the motivation factors found in this ethnography relate to the specific learning motivation of refugees that are due to their particular migration experience. However, the Ideal L2 Self dimension found here could relate to the second language learning motivation more generally in the whole migration context. That because the factors that compose this dimension refer to the need to speak the language in order to live in the L2 country, thus considering integrative reasons and future life projections in the L2 country, next to the own attitudes towards the L2 world. In this sense, the integrative reasons constitute an important share of this dimension, confirming the hypothesis of Al-Hoorie (2017b).

Nevertheless, in the specific field investigated here, more special attention needs to be given to the Ought-to L2 Self dimension. Refugee's second language learning seems to be moved, tough even forced sometimes, by duties. Various external pressures push the refugee to learn the L2. For living as a "foreigner" in another country, the community expects the refugee to speak their language, even when he is able to speak linguas francas. Similar is the influence exerted by the government of the host country and that of the hosting organization. A special reference needs to be made to the influence given by the family. This seems different than what has been demonstrated by previous studies (e.g. Taguchi, Magid, Papi, 2009), and even suggests that the family influence in these contexts is linked to the future image of oneself, rather than to an external expectation. On the other hand, the variety of entities that are implied in the ought-to L2 self dimension seems to confirm the hypothesis over the fragmentation of the ought-to L2 self in multiple factors (Dornyei, Al Hoorie, 2017).

From another point of view, strictly related to the case of adult refugees learning are the findings over the social distance influence, based on the theory of Schumann (1976). Specifically, the life of refugees is affected by the social differences and the negative attitudes carried out by the L2 community towards the refugees. On the other hand, a relevant factor is constituted by the intended time of residence in the L2 country. In fact, refugees' permanence in the L2 country is often temporary.

Another factor that deserves to be taken into account when researching refugees' motivation is the whole learning experience dimension. That because, as our study suggests, their specific difficulties can lead to problems of self-esteem and anxiety that can hinder the motivation or even lead the student to withdraw from the course.

A final remark of this research concerns the need for considering, as already suggested by Henry (2017), the idea of multilingual selves. In light of this, this study demonstrates how the migration path of refugees can lead them to learn other languages, which can potentially trigger interactions between the languages' motivations. For this reason, it is suggested to consider the motivation for other languages as a new independent dimension.

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Synchronous personal method of language studying speech behavior in implicit pragmalinguistics

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Abstract

Any speech behavior reflects personal characteristics of the speakers. In speech, communicants actualize their individual, social, national, and cultural characteristics, which are in an inseparable unity and represent a specific linguistic behavior. However, the authors note that the features of the actualization of these characteristics and their combination change, which depends on the communication situation and on a particular speech genre. The main approach of the research is the synchronous-personal approach. The authors examined and analyzed examples of the speech behavior of a particular prosecutor. They studied his speeches in a jury, in a professional court, and a newspaper article written by him. All speeches have similar features: 1) the same parameters of the personal, social and objective planes of the implicit speech strategy "Participation / Nonparticipation of members of communication in a speech event", 2) almost similar indicators of certain / uncertain statements of the implicit speech strategy "Sure/Unsure speech behavior of an author" in the speech to professionals in the court and in the newspaper text. All three speeches have more negative attitudes to the speech event. The study distinguished significant differences. The indexes of all the planes in the speech before the jury differ in comparison with the speech before the professionals and in the newspaper article. The authors revealed a strict connection between the sender's speech behavior and various targets of the addressee. Speech behavior also depends on the recipients of these texts. It has been proved that human speech behavior is not a static system, and it can change, which depends on communicants' interaction.

Key words: pragmalinguistics, synchronous personal method of study, implicit pragmatic strategy, speech behavior, prosecutor

Introduction

A human being is the only one on the Earth that does not have such a genetic program of life, in which its activity will be strictly determined. But other representatives of the animal world (unlike a Homo Sapiens) always have a 'fixed action' model, including a complex number of actions (different rituals, such as courtship or coupling). Following Chuldini (2001) we consider, that "the fundamental feature characteristic for these models is a consistent repetition of reactions while being presented certain stimuli. Regarding a human being, scientists concluded that the genetic background determines about 50 percent of personal characteristics, and 50 percent of these characteristics are influenced by the external environment."

A man does not have an exact program of life, therefore the only way for a person to survive is to hope for the help of social reality. The people themselves create this reality contained in a special natural environment. Being involved in the constant process of socialization, receiving and processing information, people act according to certain patterns of behavior. Gradually, they are getting their own program of life, determined by its nature from the outside (see more: Chuldini, 2001).

On the one hand, it can cause something like a choice freedom and a huge space for a personal inventiveness and creative talent, while on the other it can cause freedom of actions and some mobility features of the activity program. Personal individuality and

ability for perception consider to be a mobile system. Nevertheless, an extra mobile human world threatens his being. That is why a person tries to do the best to save the stabilized behavior, to follow the algorithms and principles, which are accepted in a human society. It happens due to the repeating of definite stereotyped responses to a social important stimulus. Behavior stability is ruled by several social reflexes that are developed in the evolution process according to ready behavior models.

The main reason for stereotypes and simplification of thinking and human behavior is the inability to analyze every aspect of diverse social reality.

The purpose of the article is to describe the essence of the synchronous-personal method of learning the language of speech behavior from the position of the implicit pragmalinguistic aspect.

Literature Review

Sometimes the problems of life and death are very difficult to solve, a human being can have time, which is extremely limited or personal emotions can be very great. So, in this case people must react quickly, without any analysis of the coming information, in other words, to react at an unconscious level. The term is a 'stereotyped behavior'. The main feature of this level is in the fact that an ordinary person is not able to know and recognize definite features of structure, behavior frontiers and significant elements that a person always uses implicitly (Sepir, 1993, p. 598).

The implicit following of some definite stereotypes of behavior depends on the belonging of an addresser to a particular social group, to some significant terms and circumstances of communication (Karasik, 2000, p. 37-64).

These circumstances may include:

(a) communicative intentions of an author;

(b) relationships between an addresser and addressees;

(c) all sorts of "facts" that are meaningful and random;

(d) common ideological features and the stylistic climate of the era in general, and of environment and specific individuals to whom the information is directly or indirectly addressed, in particular; (e) genre and stylistic features of both the message and the communicative situation, in which it is included;

(f) the set of associations with the previous experience (Gasparov, 1996, p.10).

So, not all people are able to give an explanation why they behave in definite situations differently. It depends on the psyche of every person. Psyche being a brain function is a very important one, with the help of which human organism operates. Through the psyche all kinds of the external world effects influence the body. Especially it is important in the case of existing social reality. The influence of the outside world – individual social experience – creates complex dynamic system functional formations of the brain, that humans, from the social and psychological point of view, consider to be the concept of personality (Myasishchev, 1960, p. 10).

The public consciousness, which functions are at three main levels: existential, reflexive, and spiritual, forms and determines the individual culture of a member of society. It is the very existential level of consciousness that we can observe. It manifests itself in the communication of people and their behavior. According to recent research, a state that can be called unconscious governs from 92 to 98 percent of human behavior. Even in childhood, the existential level of consciousness is assimilated, being the basis that then becomes unconscious. As for reflective consciousness, the process of its formation lasts throughout all the life with the help of self-study, teaching someone, transferring knowledge, meditations on reality, on the behavior of others and one's own behavior. The spiritual level of consciousness is achieved in society by only a few persons (Prokhorov, Sternin, 2011).

All children copy the adults' behavior, which surrounds them since the very beginning of their lives. But it should be noticed that just copying cannot be a stereotype.

Definite behavior facts become 'a stereotype of behavior' only if they are often repeated, and as a result of this numerous repeating they become automated.

Stereotyped speech behavior can be due to the constant social characteristics of a person: their social position, profession, age, sex, and marital status; and due to variable characteristics determined by the situation: the role of a buyer, a passenger, a client. Therefore, a person's belonging to a particular professional type requires them to have an idea of the typical stereotypes of professional conduct.

Personal perception is depended on profession belonging of all the communicants. If people are having the same professional activity for a long time, they begin acting according to strict stereotypes, and such a behavior is a so called 'professional habit.' More often such professional habits are met in the spheres, which relate to people (for example, in medicine, theatre, law enforcement) (Bodaliov, 1995, p. 168). Without any doubt, it is also true for a profession of a public prosecutor, that is why in Russian one can even hear a word-expression 'a prosecutor tone.'

Each person has characteristic reactions, which he or she expresses in individual behavior. Hence there are some options in human speech. In the process of transition of these variants of the reaction from random to permanent, when they have not yet become pathology, one can speak of the appearance of accentuations of personality qualities.

By the way, about half of the total population can be considered highly personalized (Leongard, 1989, p. 271). Accentuations of a character are extreme variants of a norm where certain traits of character are greatly predominant.

A character quality is a manifestation of a meaningful attitude towards facts and towards one's own actions. Integrity, honesty, cheerfulness, rigor, exactingness, sociability, sensitivity, and other character traits are clearly visible. They originate in relationships with reality, other people, and ourselves (Lichko, 1983, p. 22).

Paying attention to the phenomenon of 'an accentuated personality', one cannot fail to mention professional accentuations, which consist in the manifestation of typical features, that is very important for representatives of all professions. A professional accentuation is a combination of mental, psychological, and physiological personality traits. We can see it in the specifics of appearance, clothing, behavioral traits, along with the peculiarities of the human psyche and speech, existing in the form of drives or formed under the influence of the profession.

The nature of this activity, which is of a public character, often leads to a professional 'deformation' of prosecutors. Their psychological characteristics, as well as the way of communication play an important role.

The term 'deformation' means not only the designation of all kinds of changes in the shape of objects and phenomena of the external world, but also personality changes that occur due to a particular profession. Therefore, this also applies to the activities of public prosecutors.

Deformations of the individuality of a public prosecutor do not happen spontaneously, because of aging, but as a result of the activities they carry out. For example, it was found that professionally important characteristics of cognitive processes tend to be improved or stabilised, depending on the length of working, and the parameters that do not participate in professional activities deteriorate. At the same time, there is a reduction and stereotyping of ranges, of kinds of professional activities, of which the most effective behavioral reactions remain. Among personal features, the changes are reflected in the growth of self-esteem. According to received information, the degree of extra-high self-esteem is in direct proportion to the length of service, and at the same time there is also a rise of professional identity.

The legal profession of a public prosecutor promotes both positive qualities (high moral principles, endurance, calmness, discipline, open-mindedness, and the ability to communicate to people and to establish contact with them) and negative ones

(indifference to people, their lives, feelings and interests, excessive suspicion, rudeness, careerism, etc.).

Prosecutors, like representatives of other professions, suffer from professional deformations. But these professional deformations are one of the most dangerous ones, since prosecutors become overly suspicious, do not trust people, and suspect everyone. Even inaction for them symbolizes someone's evil intent. We can see the culprit in all suspects. Over the years, such an attitude towards life forms a strong pessimism and intolerance towards people among prosecutors. And from the point of view of Psychology, when a person evaluates another one, he assesses not only the qualities of the person assessed, but this assessment also testifies to the personality of the assessor, in our case, the personality of the judge. These assessments help to judge a person's experience, the level of their development as a representative of a particular group or team. This assessment shows the psychological maturity of the individual and some of their professional features. Therefore, the specificity of communication is that such an interaction serves to reveal the psychological qualities of people. This distinguishes communication from some other activities.

All things considered, one must say that speech behavior and personal characteristics of communicators represent an inseparable unity of individual, social and national-cultural peculiarities of behavior. However, we believe that the specificity of expression and combination of these features varies depending on the specific situations of communication, including speech genres. It is reasonable to turn to the methods of studying speech behavior in different genres from the point of view of Implicit Pragmalinguistics (Levinson, 1983; Matveeva, 1993; Zheltukhina, Zyubina, 2018).

Methodology

From the point of view of Implicit Pragmalinguistics the following methods are distinguished: a synchronous-personal (different genres, one author, one period), diachronic-personal (one author, one genre, different age periods), synchronous-interpersonal (one speech genre, different authors, one period).

A synchronous-personal method is used in this study when there is an analyse of the speech behavior of Gennadiy Vladimirovich Trukhanov, that is one public prosecutor. And his speeches are studied in various speech genres: the text spoken before the jury, the speech in the professional trial (2000b) and the article from the newspaper *Vecherniy Rostov* [*Evening Rostov*] (2000a).

The kinds of speech behavior are called "implicit strategies of the addresser's speech influence on the addressee" (Matveeva, 1993, p. 96-262). Implicit strategies are divided into two types: emotional oriented and connotative oriented. It is easy to understand the connection between emotional oriented strategies and the emotive function of speech, which is focused on the addresser of the text. In this case there is an expression of the addresser's subjective attitude, which is psychological by its nature. The addressers show their attitude to the uttering. So, the emotive speech function can be associated with their attitude to what is said, with their feelings, in other words, with the subjective world of the addresser. This function reflects the speaker's self-esteem, and their need to be heard and understood (Kunitsina, Kazarinova, Pogolsha, 2002, p. 61). There are different kinds of emotion-oriented strategies:

– "Participation/Nonparticipation of members of communication in a speech event"
– "Sure/Unsure speech behavior of an author"
– "The author's probabilistic evaluation of a speech event as real / unreal."

Connotative-oriented strategies reflect speech behavior of a prosecutor directed at the receiver. The title of this strategy contains a reference to another function of speech – connotative (regulatory or directive). The connotative function reflects certain needs of a person, for example, to achieve goals or to influence other people (Kunitsina,

Kazarinova, Pogolsha, 2002, p. 61), and here follows a list of connotative-oriented strategies:
– "The sender's formation of addressee's attitude to a speech event by evaluation"
– "The author's accentuating of the elements of an utterance"
– "Satisfaction / Dissatisfaction of addressee's pragmatic expectations by an addresser".

Some pragmalinguists (Levinson, 1983; Matveeva, 1993; Voutilainen et al., 2014; Boeva-Omelechko et al., 2018; Kovtunenko et al., 2018; Zheltukhina et al., 2018; Zheltukhina&Zyubina, 2018; Tameryan et al. 2019) developed the theory and methodology of the pragmalinguistic and psycholinguistic analysis in their researches. There is a study based on the results of the pragmalinguistic experiment, where the speech behavior of the public prosecutor is analysed. It is carried according to the emotional oriented strategies "Participation/nonparticipation of members of communication in a speech event" and "Sure/Unsure speech behavior of an author," and in accordance with the connotative oriented strategy "The sender's formation of addressee's attitude to a speech event by evaluation."

Results and Discussion
There is ananalysis of the public prosecutor's speech behavior with the help of a synchronous personal approach to the texts of various genres created in one period, by the author G.V. Trukhanov (2000a, 2000b), who is also a public prosecutor of the Regional Prosecutor's Office (Rostov-on-Don, Russia). In this concern there are some questions:
Does the prosecutor have different types of speech behavior in different speech genres? Is the speech behavior of this public prosecutor before a court professional, the jury and in the newspaper article on criminals the same? If it is so, why are there definite peculiarities in his speech behavior? What are they connected with?
The unit of analysis is a minor syntactic group (MSG in short). So, according to the stated implicit strategies 1,214 MSGs were studied in this paper.

I. Participation/Nonparticipation of members of communication in a speech event"
This strategy is actualised in one of the three following speech planes: the plane of personal participation, the plane of social participation, and the plane of objective participation (Matveeva, 1993, p. 98-101). Using the "personal plane," the author actualises the participation either of an addresser or an addressee in a speech event. "Social plane" shows us that both an addresser and an addressee act in communication. Finally, in the plane of objective participation the addressee's attention focuses on the objectivity of a speech event, regardless of participation/nonparticipation of the members of communication.
According to the results of the studied texts, the average speech-genre index of the plane of objective participation is the highest at 76.2 percent. It is interesting to note that the index of the plane of objective participation in the speech before a professional court (92.6 percent) is nearly equal to the same index of the newspaper article (92.5 percent). The plane of the objective participation is predominant if we compare it with other planes of this very implicit speech strategy. It can be caused by the fact that, first, the public prosecutor speaking before the court must charge the defendant on behalf of the state. It is necessary to base only on the exact factual circumstances of the committed crime. The public prosecutor must not evaluate the evidence publicly, or give any comments. The public prosecutor even does not have an appropriate procedural form for this very purpose.
From another point of view, the large plane of the objective participation, which is observed in the newspaper article is due that the general aim of the sender is

informing the readers about the situation in Rostov-on-Don Regional Court as impartially as it is possible. In both cases, the focus on the objective sides of reality arouses the readers' trust in the given facts.

The average speech genre plane of the personal participation is 16.2 %. The highest index of this plane (22.7 percent) can be seen in the speech of G.V. Trukhanov before the jurors. The author is unconsciously eager to be the leader, and influences the jurors with the power of his authority. But as for the text of the newspaper article, the public prosecutor unconsciously does not have an aim of having a personal influence on his readers. So, the plane of the personal participation goes just to 5.9 %. One can also see a rather low index of the personal participation in G.V. Trukhanov's speech in the court of professional judges – it is just 7.4 %. This fact relates to the situation when the state prosecutor gives a speech before heterogeneous audience but not different kinds of people as in a trial by the jury. But before the people of the same profession, of the same level of education, who are already specialists in the details of the case. The speeches to the professional judges are very formal, and are always prepared according to a well-known pattern. Here, the state prosecutor unconsciously tries to influence the professional trial not by the force of his authority, but by giving the information about the facts of the case.

About the actualisation of the plane of social participation, it can be correlated with the cooperative type of behavior. The division into "we" and "they" is more ancient than the division into "I" and "you." "We" is considered to be someone's own, to be close; whereas, "they" is considered to be somebody else's, to be strange. Internal doubts of a person, their hesitations while making every decision, is the process of experience and a choice of the answers to the following questions: Who is the closest? Who is a friend? Who is a stranger or even an enemy? To persuade, a public prosecutor must attract the positive attitude of their audience. That is why the highest level of the "social plane" (12 percent) is in Trukhanov's speech before the jury. The public prosecutor is trying to become as close to the jury as it is possible. From the point of view of Psychology, any jury representative is guided in their conclusions by their own reasons, mentality, self-conscience, sense of justice and duty, life experience, and responsibility (Chufarovskiy, 1995, p. 233). That is why creation a feeling of being in one community and the personal trust between a public prosecutor and a diverse group of jurors cannot be overestimated.

To a lesser degree, the plane of social participation is actualised by G.V. Trukhanov when speaking to the reader of the newspaper (1.6 percent). In addition, we do not see signs of this plane in the speech before the professional judges. In this case the speech sender does not look for the cooperation. The public prosecutor understands that his power and the judges are strictly differentiated. What is more, it often happens that the judge already has his own opinion and the prosecutor understands it. Therefore, the public prosecutor's speech is formal. So, professional trials differ from the ones by the jury, which demand the adversarial principle, requiring the public prosecutor to demonstrate high professionalism and personal responsibility.

II. "Sure/Unsure speech behavior of an author"

The strategy "Sure/Unsure speech behavior of an author" is actualised with the help of two speech planes: the first is a certain statement and the second one is an uncertain statement.

During court sessions, prosecutors have a complete autonomy in deciding, which line of conduct to choose and which decision to make (Alekseev, Yastrebov, 1998).

The main quality of all the prosecutors is the belief in their own righteousness. To influence an individual, especially if it is a group of people who differ in gender, age, manifestation of temperament, education, different levels of intelligence, etc., prosecutors should have certain personal socio-psychological characteristics. These

qualities include the following manifestations: bright abilities of the organizer, a high level of initiative, striving to achieve goals, large experience, developed communication skills and external attractiveness, high awareness and, finally, awareness of a high level of authority and personal prestige (Porubov, 2004, p. 76).

In other words, prosecutors as representatives of the Law should be confident in court and speak accordingly. The results of the conducted research confirm this point of view. The average speech-genre index of the confident statement in G.V. Trukhanov's speech is quite high at 39.5%.

But in the court speech before the jury, he actualized the highest level of certain statements (48.8%). This is not surprising, since in this type of speech it is extremely important to convince the jury that you are right. Representatives of Legal Psychology argue that you can convince or persuade a listener only if an addressee is convinced that he is right. This makes the performances passionate and emotional. If speakers are confident in themselves, they make you believe them, share emotions and sincerity, and in this case, it is easier for the prosecutor to influence the mind of the addressees, to convince them of the correctness of their views and lead to the adoption of a different decision.

As for G.V. Trukhanov's speeches in front of the professional judges, here the prosecutor actualizes cautious speech behavior (77.4%). In these examples, on a subconscious level, he is more uncategorized, and such speech behavior leads to a leveling of antagonism on the part of the professionals who are like him.

That is why in the implicit speech strategy "Sure/Unsure speech behavior of an author", the indicators of certain/uncertain speech also differ from each other depending on the addressees of the information, as, indeed, in the previous strategy.

III. "The sender's formation of addressee's attitude to a speech event by evaluation"

In any message there are two sides: rational and emotional. The rational essence runs through people's evidence, special facts, and the strength of logic. Emotions do their job with the help of listener perception, which can be caused at the very moment of sharing the definite message. And it is clear, that the way to human hearts lies not only through their minds but also through the emotional side (Porubov, 2004, p. 81).

Even in the nineteenth century it was known that the jury does not argue about what crime the defendant committed but about what kind of a person they are. That is, the emotional side of things and evaluation of the deeds play an important role in reaching a verdict.

There are three planes of the implicit speech strategy "The sender's formation of addressee's attitude to a speech event by evaluation": the plane of positive attitude, the plane of neutral attitude and the plane of negative attitude.

As it is known the main target of the prosecution speech is to form negative attitude to the committed crime, to show bad consequences with the help of the speech for the prosecution. Speaking about the average speech genre index of the plane of forming negative attitude towards a speech event one can see 38.6 % in these speeches. The biggest index of the negative attitude is in G.V. Trukhanov's speech in the professional court, which is 49.1 %. Nevertheless, this public prosecutor has the lowest plane of positive attitude (it is just 3.5 %). Probably, it is because of widespread characteristic features of the courts without a jury to convict. It will be enough to say that in Russia 18 percent of verdicts are "not guilty" in trials by jury, and only 0.02 percent in an ordinary court, that is a professional one.

G.V. Trukhanov showed the lowest neutral plane of evaluation, that is 43.5%, in the newspaper article "Vecherny Rostov", whereas the average speech-genre index is 52.7 %. It can relate to the fact that all newspaper texts, as a rule, affect and have high expressiveness. What is more, one can also observe the highest index of positive

evaluation, which is11.5 %, and a rather high negative attitude to an event – 45 %. In the whole, the absolute emotional intensity of his speech behavior in this genre goes up to 56.5%. In the article there is a burning desire of the author to be interesting, to attract his readers, so G.V. Trukhanov used to actualizing both positive and negative types of the event evaluation, even if he does it unconsciously.

According to the strategy, we can conclude that the author draws attention of the addressees to a positive, neutral, or negative assessment, which depends on his desire to form a certain attitude of the addressees to the given information.

So, we can see, an individual speech behavior is not considered to be an invariable system and it can change due to an interaction situation, but it can save its specificity. Having analyzed the public prosecutor speech from the synchronous personal point of view in the aspect of Implicit Pragmalinguistics, now it is possible answer the posed questions.

Conclusion

G.V. Trukhanov's speech behavior as a public prosecutor has definite peculiarities due to his addressee in various speech genres. There were studied different variants of his speech behavior: the text of the speech before the trial by jury, the speech in the professional trial and the newspaper article. All the texts have something in common. For example, there are almost the same planes of personal, social and objective attitude (according to the implicit speech strategy "Participation/nonparticipation of members of communication in a speech event"). Moreover, there are relatively similar indices of the planes of certain/uncertain statement (according to the implicit speech strategy "Sure/Unsure speech behavior of an author") in the speeches in the professional court and the newspaper article. Furthermore, in all three texts the negative attitude predominates. It must depend on the different author's aims, objectives and different addressees.

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Comparative effects of self-assessment, peer-assessment, and teacher assessment on EFL learners' writing performance

Hussein Meihami – Rajab Esfandiari

Abstract

Self-assessment and peer-assessment, as two alternative assessment procedures, have appealed to researchers in recent years and motivated L2 researchers to examine these two techniques. However, most of the studies have used them for summative purposes, and the formative dimension these two methods can have for learning has been neglected. This study was an attempt to find how they contributed to learning gains. To that end, sixty Iranian male and female intermediate language learners at a language institute were randomly assigned into three treatment conditions: Self-assessment and peer-assessment as experimental groups and teacher assessment as a control group. A language proficiency test was used to homogenize language learners, and a posttest was administered to measure the amount of gain language learners achieved after treatment sessions. We analyzed the test data using descriptive and inferential statistics as implemented in SPSS, a general-purpose computer program for data analysis. Results from a one-way analysis of variance showed statistically significant differences between the score means of three treatment groups. Post-hoc analyses revealed that language learners in the peer-assessment group outperformed those in the other two groups. The findings suggest that peer-assessment as a cooperative technique can be used in language classes to help students improve their writing abilities.

Key words: EFL learners, peer-assessment, self-assessment, teacher-assessment

Introduction

In educational systems, assessment is an inevitable ingredient because it may influence learning, and, when made authentic, it provides feedback and revision to improve learning. Furthermore, through meaningful engagement of students in the learning process, assessment can be motivating (Alderson, Banerjee, 2001). Assessment may also enhance instruction by helping teachers recognize students' weaknesses and strengths (Baniabdelrahman, 2010). It is also stated that assessments one can be considered as valid, fair, ethical, and efficient tools measure different attributes (Mousavi, 2012).

Although traditional tests may be impressive to measure some of the skills such as reading, they are not adequate to assess the productive skills of writing and speaking. As Huerta-Macías (1995) pointed out, "the nature of proficiency-oriented language learning asks for a variety of assessment options reflecting the numerous instructional strategies used in the classroom" (p. 8). One important characteristic of new assessment techniques is the involvement of students in the evaluation of their own learning process and product. There are three main methods of assessing the students' writing performance, namely, self-assessment, peer-assessment, and teacher assessment (Esfandiari, Myford, 2013).

Sengupta (1998) asserted that many researchers had studied peer and self-assessments in L1 and L2 writing (e.g. Mangelsdorf, 1992; Mendonea, Johnson, 1994). Consequently, the findings suggest that students used parts of their friends' comments about revising and drafting. Mangelsdorf (1992) reported that peer-

assessment is always rated negatively by Asian students and raised the query about the effects of teacher-centered instruction on peer comments.

In recent years, the process approach to writing has been used to help learners become effective communicators. On the other hand, when students are to assess their own writing, developing certain negative effective and psychological filters towards the teaching/learning and testing process will be minimized (Williams, 2003). This is to enable students to produce richer and more developed pieces of writing. How do students think about writing and learning? How do they see themselves as participants in the writing process? How do they provide themselves and their peers with efficient feedback? And how do these perceptions develop or change over the course of the semester? Still more, can students' assessment establish stronger connection between process writing and the assessment of students' ability in this area? (Williams, 2003).

Many studies have considered self-assessment, peer-assessment, and teacher-assessment in EFL students' performance on the language four skills. Among them, very few studies have considered self, peer, and teacher assessment in EFL students' writing performance in Iran. The main feature of this study that distinguishes it from other studies is that this study is a simultaneous investigation through the impact of self, peer, and teacher assessment on the writing performance of the EFL learners at Iranian English language institutes where their main purpose is teaching English systematically and fostering EFL learners and due to its basic rules learners are studying in homogenous classes. This study can be useful for instructors to make the atmosphere of the class friendlier by emphasizing the ease of language learning through cooperative learning. This study looks into whether self, peer, and teacher-assessment have any effect on the improvement of Iranian intermediate EFL learners' writing performance. Additionally, in this study, we are interested in knowing which method of assessment (self, peer, and teacher-assessment) may have a better effect on the improvement of Iranian intermediate EFL learners' writing performance. Thus, this study was an attempt to address the following research question:

What are the comparative effects of self-assessment, peer-assessment, and teacher assessment on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' writing performance?

Literature Review
Teacher assessment

Since assessment is important in the teaching and learning process, teachers assess their students' learning regularly. Most language teachers use traditional tests. According to Rotham (1995), 90 percent of instructors use teacher-made tests at least once a month. In traditional tests, EFL/ESL teachers provide instructions for the students to complete the activities; their work is evaluated by teachers. The decisions concerning the quality of students' responses are also teacher-oriented. When students respond to test items, they meet the standards of teachers. The format of the traditional tests makes students dependent on their teachers for the entire activity. Test results are for teachers as well. They may only show whether a student is a good test taker.

The teacher assessment, or traditional assessment, has some disadvantages. Some of the researchers have pointed out these disadvantages. Buck (1994), for example, enumerated some of the shortcomings of this kind of assessment. He believes this kind of assessment has no psychological or cognitive justification, neither at the level of the item performance nor at the level of the overall test meaning. He also believes these kinds of assessments make particular and often simplistic opportunities about the psychology of the items. These, and other similar criticism, motivated researchers to look for more novel ways to assess students' abilities, as we discuss in the following subsections.

Alternative assessment

Due to the shortcomings of the traditional assessment, alternative assessment emerged. Hamayan (1995) believes the alternative assessment is a kind of assessment used within the context of instruction. It can be incorporated into different tasks in the classroom. Smith (1999) pointed out that alternative assessment might take place outside the classroom and by different techniques of assessments. In a more recent definition, Alderson and Baneriee (2001) claimed that alternative assessment is less formal than the traditional assessment. They are usually formative rather than summative in function, are often low stakes in terms of consequences, and are claimed to have beneficial washback effects.

An alternative assessment has some unique features. For example, alternative formats for assessments are certainly the crucial components of performance-based assessment. Cognitive psychology studies support different aspects of alternative assessment. However, it is not applicable and reliable to produce tasks without understanding whether they can be credibly scored (Linn, et. al., 1991).

Brown and Hudson (1998) summarized some of the most commonly used types of alternative assessment as follows: Conferences, debates, demonstrations, diaries/journals, dramatizations, exhibitions, games, observations, peer-assessment, portfolios, projects, self-assessments, and story retelling. Among the cited alternative types of assessments in Brown and Hudson's study, a couple of these types of assessments, namely self-assessment and Peer-assessment, are considered in this study. The main purpose of self-assessment and peer-assessment is to make students responsible for their learning. To do so, self-assessment and peer-assessment provide contexts for obtaining new experiences. In the following paragraphs, we explain these two procedures.

Self-assessment

Over the past 20 years, self-assessment has been increasingly used in a range of education settings. According to Blanche and Merino (1989), the first reports on self-assessment were published in 1976. Since then, self-assessment has continued to expand as a distinct field of study in L2 learning and education. Self-assessment and other self-reflective activities usually require learners to grade their own performance based on clearly defined task requirements and assessment criteria that are sometimes derived from the learners' input. The types of self-assessment described in the literature are varied. They range from standardized questionnaires (e.g., Bachman, Palmer, 1989) to open-ended, informal activities, e.g., reflective diaries and portfolios.

In the field of education and second language acquisition (SLA), the construct of self-assessment is usually understood as an alternative means to assess learners' abilities. As a result, self-assessment research is primarily quantitative in nature and explores the validity and reliability of student self-ratings (e.g., Bachman, Palmer, 1989) rather than the learning process involved in self-appraisal activities. Variables affecting self-assessment accuracy are diverse, ranging from the domain of assessment to item construction and the learners' individual attributes such as personality traits, affectivity, and level of proficiency (Bachman, Palmer, 1989). These findings suggest that self-assessment procedures are too subjective to be used for summative assessment purposes, particularly in environments where the stakes are high.

However, the construct of self-assessment in the SLA literature is currently shifting away from issues strictly concerning assessment theory to embrace a broader view of self-assessment as a tool for motivating and enhancing learning. Indeed, a renewed interest in self-reflective practices is currently emerging in models and research on motivation and autonomy (e.g., Noels, Pelletier, Clement, Vallerand,

2000), as it appears that the transfer of some of the learning responsibilities from the instructor to the learner increases learner motivation. Self-assessment is a means by which such a transfer can take place, as it provides an opportunity for learners to become increasingly self-regulated. Noels, et. al. (2000) suggested that feedback, self-reflection, motivation, and autonomy are interrelated in an ongoing, dynamic fashion, a sort of work in progress for the duration of a course. They also found in a subsequent study (Noels, et. al., 2000) that in an autonomy-supportive environment, students were less likely to feel anxious in the learning process and less likely to give up L2 learning. Thus, self-assessment provides a suitable interface between feedback, self-reflection, and increased autonomous learning, enabling both learner and instructor to reflect on the learning process and to give or receive mutual feedback (Noels, et. al., 2000).

Self-assessment seems to be a tool well-suited to helping learners to develop appropriate goals and self-regulate or monitor their efforts accordingly (Warne, 2008). From this perspective, self-reflective activities should not be considered the endpoint of the process (i.e., self-reporting of past performance), as they are traditionally defined in self- assessment research, but rather an ongoing, dynamic tool for reflecting concurrently on past and possible future performance and learning behavior.

The utilization of self-appraisal exercises gives a message to students that such exercises are viewed as a critical part of learning and that is worth spending valuable time on them. How intense this message is depending enormously on how well-designed self-appraisal assignments are and how well they fit the course of which they are a part. If students interpret them as an extra or an additional activity, the significance of self-evaluation will not be imparted (Boud, 1995).

Peer-assessment

Peer assessment is a procedure through which peers assess one another in which it may or may not involve agreed-upon criteria between teachers and students (Falchikov, 1995). Topping (1998, p. 250) described peer assessment as "an arrangement in which individuals consider the amount, level, value, worth, quality, or success of the products or outcomes of learning of peers of similar status". Brown and Hudson (1998) believed that "peer-assessment is a variant of self-assessment except that in peer-assessment students' language is rated by peers" (p.13). Van Gennip, Segers, and Tillema (2009) believe "peer-assessment involves collaboration in the appraisal of learning outcomes by those involved in the learning process, i.e., students" (P. 41).

The process of peer-assessment encompasses peers' grading and feedback on the works conducted by others (Davies, 2006). Peer-assessment is usually associated with group and teamwork. Patri (2002) stated that students could understand the assessment criteria in an assessment context in which they are assessing the quality of their performances.

A few scholars have faith in the peer-assessment process as a dialogue that should be done between the students. Sadler and Good (2006) pointed out that in peer-assessments, just telling learners what is right and wrong in their piece of writing, and how it might be improved would not on its own enhance learning nor develop deep disciplinary skills. Nicol (2010) points out that feedback ought to be conceptualized as a dialogue instead of as a restricted transmission process and notes that from this viewpoint, both the quality of feedback input and of students' responses to that input are important for productive learning. He points out that if students are to learn from feedback, they must have some chances to make their own meaning from the received message. They must do something with it, analyze it, ask questions about it, discuss it with others and connect it with prior knowledge.

Brown (2005) points out that peer-assessment engages critical standards like cooperative learning. Numerous individuals experience an entire regimen of training from kindergarten up through a graduate degree and never come to appreciate the value of collaboration in learning—the benefit of a community of learners capable of teaching each other something. Lejk and Wyvill (1996) pointed out that peer-assessment contributes to student-centered learning via preparing the students to judge the nature of the work of others. Studies on the efforts of peer-assessment show that students find it more interesting than traditional methods of assessment, and it increases their motivation and improves their performance.

Brown (2004) argued that both self-assessment and peer-assessment develop students' autonomy and motivation. Cheng and Warren (2005), it is crucial for both teachers and students to understand the underlying rationale for the assessment. Peer-assessment, thus, can have critical pedagogical values since learners can participate in the evaluation process in which they can assess their peers' learning. Furthermore, Patri (2002) echoed the idea that peer-assessment and assessment involvement have critical pedagogical values for peers.

Advantages and disadvantages of applying self-assessment and peer-assessment

In these kinds of assessments, students individually assess their own and other's contributions through a priori criteria. According to Patri (2002) there is a predetermined procedure to conduct the assessment. These methods of assessments encourage student involvement and responsibility; allow students to see and reflect on their peers' assessment of their contribution; focus on the development of students' judgment skills, encourage student involvement and responsibility, and focus on the development of students' judgment skills (Gibbs, 1992).

The advantages of utilizing peer-assessment is an interesting issue in EFL studies. It is believed that peer-assessment enables students to develop abilities and skills to assess the work of other students. In other words, learners can analyze, monitor, and evaluate various issues of learning process and product of their peers. Studies in this domain show that it can work towards developing students' higher order reasoning and higher-level cognitive thought, helping to nurture student-centered learning among undergraduate learners, encouraging active and flexible learning and facilitating a deep approach to learning rather than a surface approach. Peer-assessment can act as a socializing force and increase relevant skills and interpersonal relationships between learner groups (Gibbs, 1992).

Brown and Hudson (1998) believe self-assessment and peer-assessment also have some disadvantages compared to teacher assessment. Subjectivity is a primary obstacle to overcome. Students may be too harsh on themselves or too self-flattering. Students may not have the necessary tools to make an accurate assessment. Students, especially in the case of direct assessment of performance, may not be able to discern their own errors.

Writing assessment

Assessment is defined as a way to improve writing instruction. When assessing, the assessors should take great care since all tests have consequences. The types of assessments that teachers typically undertake influence what and how writing is taught, what kind of feedback students receive about their writing, and which students get extra help from the teacher. Because assessment is evaluative, teacher assessments impact students' grades and perceptions of their writing competence (Andrade, Wang, Du, Akawi, 2008). As a result, the assessment should be taken seriously and must be based on best practices.

It is a critical concern for the teachers that their students' poor written English prevents them from obtaining their potential abilities either at institutes or in their professional lives. Although students have an understanding of their difficulty in writing, they are hindered from improving due to the gap existing between their own and their teachers' recognition of what the criteria for writing assessment are (Miller, 2003). Thus, students should know about the criteria for writing assessment, which may differ from one department to another, be explicit. Nezakatgoo (2011) pointed out that the quest for learning professional skills has made it critical to teach writing in specialist subject areas.

There has also been research into the relative merits of analytic and holistic scoring schemes (e.g., Bacha, 2001). The latter, though considered easy to apply, are generally deemed to result in less information about individual performance and to have a limited capacity to provide diagnostic feedback, while the former, though they provide more information about individual performances, can be time-consuming to use. An interesting question is whether the assessment criteria provided are used at all. In his investigation of raters' use of a holistic scoring scale, Sakyi (2000) reported that not all raters focus on the scoring guide and he identified four distinct rating scales. Some raters focus on the errors in the text, others on the essay topic and presentation of ideas and yet others simply assign a score depending on their personal reaction to the text. Where raters consciously followed the scoring guide, they tended to depend on one or two particular features to distinguish between different levels of ability.

Studies on self-assessment, peer-assessment, and teacher assessment

There have been some studies done on self, peer, and teacher assessments from different perspectives. Some studies have focused on the specific benefits of self-assessments; some of them believe peer-assessment is the best method; however, some of them believe in teacher assessment. We summarise the findings of these studies in the following paragraphs.

Esfandiari and Myford (2013) compared three types of assessors (self-assessors, peer-assessors, and teacher assessors) to answer this question that if there is any significant difference in the severity of the three groups when rating essays. They analyzed the ratings of 194 assessors who evaluated 188 essays. There was a 6-point analytic scale with 15 assessment criteria. The results of their study indicated that teacher assessors were the most severe assessors. However, self-assessors were the most lenient assessors.

Birjandi and Tamjid (2010) examined the effectiveness of journal writing on developing Iranian EFL learners' motivation. 60 intermediate students who were divided into two groups participated in this study. There were proficiency tests at the start and end of the study to assure their homogeneity. Moreover, the participants filled questionnaires regarding motivation. The results revealed that writing journals on a regular basis had a role in promoting the learners' motivation. In another study, Birjandi and Tamjid (2012) examined the role of self-, peer, and teacher assessment in increasing the writing performance of language learners. The results illustrated that the students who utilized self-assessment and peer-assessment, together with teacher assessment, had the maximum improvement of writing.

Hasani and Rouhollahi (2012) investigated the effect of self-assessment on writing skills and proficiency of Iranian EFL learners. In this regard, prior to the study, 60 participants who were at the advanced level of language proficiency were given a standard pre-test to be homogenized and some instructions on scoring compositions based on grammatical relationships, structural relationships, word choice, and mechanics. Then, ten stages of writing were explained to the experimental group intermittently. After each stage, the participants of the experimental group were supervised. They concluded that the experimental group members did much better

than those of the control group and the students could be fairly autonomous, in line with self-assessment and writing, gradually via ten stages of writing since after each stage of self-correction and self-evaluation, the assessment indicators and the related elements can be internalized which can be led to independence.

Brown (2005) found that the Japanese self-assessor in her small-scale study tended to underestimate her own writing ability while overestimating the writing abilities of her peers. Brown (2005) hypothesized that the Japanese self-assessor's tendency to be overly critical of her abilities might reflect social and/or cultural factors coming into play.

Nakamura (2002) studied peer-assessment and teacher assessment in an EFL setting, Japan. In this small-scale study, Nakamura analyzed the ratings that five student assessors and one teacher assessor assigned to the presentations of 12 students in an oral presentation course. The raters used rating scales to evaluate the students' presentations. Nakamura (2002) reported that (a) the teacher assessor was more lenient than the peer-assessors were, but the peer-assessors varied in their levels of severity and leniency; (b) peer-assessment was successful in motivating students to improve their oral skills; and (c) students as peer-assessors could be reasonably reliable raters of their peers.

Meihami and Razmjoo (2016) investigated the challenges and solutions of utilizing self- and peer-assessment in writing courses. By conducting a series of interviews and open-ended questions, Meihami and Razmjoo (2016) delved into the perspectives of 11 ELT teachers and 56 ELT students to find out their challenges and probable solutions to applying self- and peer-assessment in the writing classes. The results of their study indicated that ELT students thought of self and peer's subjective judgment, learners' lack of assessment literacy, and instructional problems as the main challenges of self- and peer-assessment in writing classes. Moreover, ELT teachers believed that the challenges were the feasibility to do these types of assessment and ELT teachers' lack of assessment literacy. The common solution posited by both ELT teachers and students was development in teachers' assessment literacy.

As it can be understood from the above-mentioned empirical studies, there is a paucity of literature on the comparative effects of self-assessment, peer-assessment, and teacher assessment on intermediate EFL learners' writing performance. By doing this study, thus, we (1) fill the literature gap in this regard, and (2) answer the question that which type of assessment (self, peer, teacher) can be facilitative to develop Iranian intermediate language learners' writing performance.

Method
Participants

Eighty intermediate male and female Iranian EFL learners were selected to participate in the study. They were studying English at an English language institute. The participants' age ranged from 18 to 20, and their mother tongue was Persian. The lead researcher talked to the head of the institute about the purpose of the research and took his permission for carrying out the study. The students taking part in this study were of two types: Those newly registered into the English language classes and those who had been promoted from lower levels.

After the administration of the Oxford quick placement test of English language and taking the results into account, 20 participants were excluded from the study because of either a different language proficiency test score or not writing their names on the papers. There remained 60 learners to take part in the study. They were divided into three groups, and each group was randomly assigned to one type of groups: group A and group B acted as experimental groups, but group C as the control

group: Group A: self-assessment; Group B: peer-assessment; and Group C: teacher-assessment.

Instruments and materials
To conduct the present study, we employed the following instruments. More explanation about these instruments is given below.
1. Oxford quick placement test of English language
2. The main book, American English File 3, at intermediate level introduced by the institute.
3. Jacob's ESL composition profile
4. Writing pre-test
5. Writing post test
6. Writing tasks

Oxford placement test of English language (OPT). In the present study, the Oxford placement test of English language was administered to homogenize the participants. Oxford placement test (OPT) is one of the most famous and standard tests for specifying ESL or EFL learners' level of language proficiency. The sample of Oxford placement test used in this study is divided into two parts: Part A: 60 items, part B: 20 items. Part A contained 25 multiple-choice pictorial items, 15 multiple choice cloze items, and 20 grammar multiple choice items. Part B contained 10 multiple choice cloze items, and 10 multiple choice vocabulary items. It took language learners 50 minutes to complete the test. The reliability of 60 items of the OPT test was estimated through a pilot study. The estimated value of Cronbach's Alpha for OPT test was .846 which was higher than the least possible value required (i.e. .70).

American English file book. American English File by Oxenden and Latham-Koeing (1997) is a four-skill course book with a communicative methodology, engaging texts, and a strong pronunciation syllabus which is designed to improve the English language of students. It was published by Oxford University Press.

Jacob's ESL composition profile. According to Farhady et al. (1994), the analytic method as one of the common scoring methods is the most valid and objective one in which the learners' writing components are scored based on some criteria. In this study, the formative analytical rating scale is an adaptation of the ESL composition profile in Jacob's et. al. (1981), which contains five basic criteria or main traits: content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. Each trait was broken down into sub-traits. The levels of students' writing tests were rated based on this scale. Each paper was rated on these components. Two qualified raters, who were trained at the institute, scored the papers, and the results were analyzed to estimate the inter-rater reliability.

Writing pre-test and posttest. The pre-test and posttest of this study were conducted through essay writing. The sample tests were taken from IELTS sample tests published by Cambridge University Press. In each test, there were two tasks. The first task was about describing two charts in 20 minutes. The second one was about writing on a topic in 250 words in 40 minutes.
To assess each individual's writing for the pre-test and post-test of the three groups, the lead researcher used criteria that were adopted from Jacob's et. al.'s (1981) scoring profile. The writing performance of the participants was scored (based on the determined criteria) by two different scorers who were experienced foreign language teachers. The consistency of the raters' evaluations was examined using correlation analysis that showed a relatively high level of inter-rater reliability for both pre and

post writing test scores. The results of the correlation coefficient between two raters turned out to be .719.

Writing tasks. The writing tasks of this study were taken from TOEFL iBT written by Macgillivray, Yancey, and Malarcher (2002). It was published by Compass Publishing in 2002. This book consists of four parts based on four skills. This is a preparation course book for TOFEL iBT. Four kinds of tasks were used during treatment. These tasks were chosen under four categories: Paraphrasing, brainstorming, making connections, and organizing information.

Procedures

In order to achieve the aim of the study, the following procedures were followed. Initially, a total number of 80 participants were selected. To homogenize the participants, an Oxford Proficiency Test (OPT) was administered. As a result, 20 participants, who had scored more than one standard deviation away from (above or below) the mean, were excluded from subsequent statistical analyses, and there remained 60 homogenous participants to take part in this study. The participants were divided into three groups. Each group was randomly assigned to one of the treatment conditions.

In the next phase, the treatment began. Each group of participants received their treatment under one of the following conditions: Group A: self-assessment; Group B: peer-assessment; and Group C: teacher-assessment. In the first session of treatment in all the groups pre-test was given. Then, the teachers informed participants of all groups about the aims of the research and explained to students how to score the essays, using Jacob's ESL Composition Profile. In group A (self-assessment), students scored their own papers. In group B (peer assessment), students scored their classmates' papers. After that, the teacher checked students' scoring in group A and B and gave feedback to students. In group C (teacher's assessment), which was considered control group in this study, the teacher scored students' papers.

The experimental period lasted for 13 weeks, of which 10 weeks were allocated to the treatment, 2 weeks to the Oxford Placement Test and the pre-test, and 1 week to the posttests. It needs to be noted, however, that not all the class time was used for the treatment in each session. Since the learners were taking their general English course, only a third of each class time every week (about 45 minutes) was allocated to the experiment. At the end of the experimental period, two post-tests were administered.

Data analysis

The dependent and independent variables of the study are the learner's writing performance and type of assessment (self-assessment, peer-assessment, and teacher assessment), respectively. To gather data on the variables under investigation, two instruments were utilized. They were the general proficiency test and writing tests. The data gathered on these variables were analyzed by following methods through SPSS software

One-Way ANOVA procedure produced a one-way analysis of variance to check the homogeneity of the three groups regarding their general proficiency and writing performance at the outset of the study. To determine the mean and standard deviation, the researchers used descriptive statistics of each group on the pre and posttests. One-way ANOVA was used to find the differences of the participants in three groups on the posttest writing test. Analysis of variance was used to test the hypothesis that the means of the three groups were equal on writing posttest. Finally,

to explore the participants' possible involvement, paired samples t-test were run on the results of pre and posttests of each group.

Results

To answer the research question, we used a one-way ANOVA procedure to test the hypothesis that the means of the three groups were equal on writing pre-test. Since Analysis of variance is sensitive to deviation from normality, the equality of the variances for the three groups was examined for the results of the posttest, too. It was assumed that each group was an independent random sample from a normal population. To test this assumption, Levene's homogeneity of variance test was run for the results of the pre-test (Table 1).

Table 1: Test of homogeneity of variances for the pre-test scores

Levene Statistic	Df	df	Sig.
2.216	2	57	.118

Thus, the important first step in the analysis of variance indicated that the variances of the three groups were equivalent for the pre-test of writing (sig =.118, ≥ .05). After confirming the normality assumption, ANOVA was run to the results of the writing posttest. The descriptive statistics for the writing posttest are presented in the Table 2:

Table 2: Descriptive statistics for the posttest scores

Groups	N	Mean	SD	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Group A (self-assessment)	20	16.05	1.82	.40	15.19	16.90	13.00	19.00
Group B (peer-assessment)	20	16.85	1.23	.27	16.27	17.42	15.00	19.00
Group C (teacher assessment)	20	15.15	1.08	.24	14.64	15.65	12.00	17.00
Total	60	16.01	1.55	.20	15.61	16.41	12.00	19.00

The results of the posttest showed that the mean of group A = 16.05, mean of group B = 16.85, and mean of group C = 15.15 differed significantly. The significance value of the F test in the ANOVA table (Table 2) was less than .05. Thus, the hypothesis that average assessment scores of the writing test (posttest) were equal across the three groups was rejected ($F_{(2, 57)} = 7.199$, $p < .05$), as can be seen in Table 3.

Table 3: ANOVA for the results of the writing test posttest

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	28.933	2	14.467	7.199	.002
Within Groups	114.550	57	2.010	-	-
Total	143.483	59	-	-	-

Figure 1: Mean plot for the results of the writing posttest

After it was revealed that the groups differed in some way, post-hoc test (Scheffe) (Table 4) disclosed more about the structure of the differences. The detailed structure of the differences was investigated through doing multiple comparisons. Post-hoc test (Scheffe) was employed for comparing the means of the three groups.

Table 4: Multiple comparisons for the results of the posttest

Dependent Variable: Posttest scores						
Scheffe						
(I) Groups	(J) Groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Group A	group B	-.80000	.44829	.212	-1.9268	.3268
	group C	.90000	.44829	.143	-.2268	2.0268
Group B	group A	.80000	.44829	.212	-.3268	1.9268
	group C	1.70000*	.44829	.002	.5732	2.8268
Group C	group A	-.90000	.44829	.143	-2.0268	.2268
	group B	-1.70000*	.44829	.002	-2.8268	-.5732

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The highest mean difference was found between group (B) and group (C) (mean difference = 1.70). On the other hand, the lowest mean difference was reported for group (B) and group (A) (mean difference = .80). As it is shown in Table 4, group (B) outperformed the other two groups in terms of their writing performance (mean $_{group\ B}$ = 16.85; SD = 1.23). In the second place, group (A) performed better than group (C) (Mean $_{group\ A}$ = 16.05; SD = 1.82). Finally, the group (C) performance was lower than the other two groups (mean $_{group\ C}$ = 15.15; SD= 1.08). Figure 4 illustrates the performance of the three groups in the posttest.
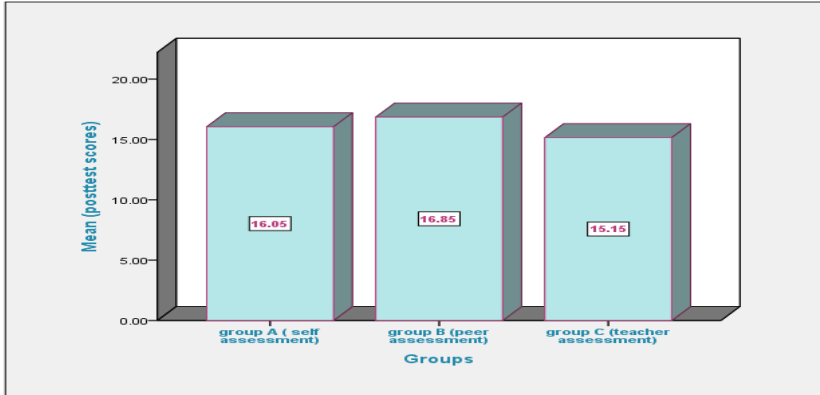
Figure 2: The three groups' performances on writing posttest

In general, *F* statistics established that there was a statistically significant difference between the three groups' means, and means plots showed the location of these differences. Participants of the experimental group B (peer-assessment) outperformed their counterparts namely group A (self-assessment) and group C (teacher-assessment).

In order to investigate students' performance within groups, three paired t-tests were also run, which showed the subjects' performance in pre-test and posttest that are shown in Table 5 and Table 6.

Table 5: Statistics for the pre and post-test scores of writing test

		Pretest group A	Posttest group A	Pretest group B	Posttest group B	Pretest group C	Posttest group C
N	Valid	20	20	20	20	20	20
Mean		14.05	16.05	14.15	16.85	14.02	15.15

The mean scores of group (A) improved from (14.05) in pre-test to (16.05) in posttest; that of the group (B) has changed from (14.15) in pre-test to (16.85) in posttest; and finally, the mean of the group (C) changed from (14.02) in pre-test to (15.15) in posttest on the writing test.

Table 6: Paired samples test for the pre and post-tests

Pair/pre-posttest		Paired Differences					T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Pretest group A –posttest group A	-2.00	.62	.14	-2.29	-1.70	-14.2	19	.00
Pair 2	Pretest group B – posttest group B	-2.70	.49	.11	-2.93	-2.46	-24.2	19	.00
Pair 3	Pretest group C – posttest group C	-1.12	.45	.10	-1.33	-.91	-11.0	19	.00

As depicted in the Table 5 and Table 6, all the three groups progressed in the posttest. Based on the results of paired t-tests, this progress was statistically significant for all

the three groups (*p*. <.05). In other words, all the three groups made a substantial progress on the writing posttest. This progress for group (B) was higher than the other groups. The lowest progress between the results of pre and posttests was observed for the third group that received instruction on teacher-assessment.

Discussion

The results of this study showed that peer-assessment outperformed the other two groups. Self-assessment gained the second position and teacher-assessment gained the lowest position among three groups. These findings are in line with those of Birjandi and Tamjid (2012) in which they examined the role of self-assessment, peer-assessment, and teacher assessment in increasing the writing performance of language learners. The results illustrated that the students who utilized self-assessment and peer-assessment together with teacher-assessment had the maximum improvement of writing. Abolfazli and Sadeghi (2013a) also examined the Iranian EFL students' attitudes toward self-, peer-, and teacher-assessment experiences. They found that students show positive attitudes toward self-, peer-, and teacher-assessment practices, with the peer-assessment group expressing significantly more positive than negative attitudes in this regard.

Abolfazli and Sadeghi (2013b) found that when self-assessment is contrasted with peer-assessment regarding their impact on students' scores, peer-assessment turned out to be more powerful. The same results were found by Chang, et. al. (2012) on portfolio-assessment in which they found that peer-assessment had the highest mean scores followed with the lowest scores by self-assessment and teacher-assessment. Sadler and Good (2006) concluded that peer assessors were stricter than self-assessors. Peer-assessment of writing has additionally been found to have a beneficial effect on the student writers' improvement (Brown, 2001; Patri, 2002).

Although the results of this study confirmed the prominent role of peer-assessment, there was an improvement in writing performance of self-assessment group, too. This finding is in line with that of Birjandi and Tamjid (2010) in which they explored the role of journal writing as a self-assessment technique in promoting Iranian EFL learners' motivation. The results revealed that writing journal on a regular base had a role in promoting the learners' motivation.

In another study, Hasani and Rouhollahi (2012) investigated the effect of self-assessment on writing skill and proficiency of Iranian EFL learners. They concluded that the experimental group did much better than the control group. With respect to self-assessment, Warne (2008) and Birjandi and Tamjid (2010) agree on the positive effect of self-assessment on the students' performance.

This study showed that peer-assessment and, to a lesser extent, self-assessment were two effective techniques in improving learners' writing performances. They encouraged students to have active participation in their own and their peers' learning. As learners knew they would not be evaluated by teachers, they could make more accurate and better pieces of writing and some psychological barriers such as tension and anxiety would hardly affect their results and this made learners more motivated and involved in the learning process. Since after each stage of correction and evaluation by self-assessment or peer-assessment, the assessment indicators and the related elements could be internalized.

Conclusion and Implications

In the present study, the efficacy of three kinds of assessment techniques (self-assessment, peer-assessment, and teacher assessment) on Iranian EFL learners' writing performance were examined. As the results showed, peer assessment gained

the best position among the other groups. This finding confirmed the key role of cooperative techniques in language teaching, specifically writing performance. The lowest position among these groups was for teacher assessment. It indicates that students are not so optimistic about the dominant role of teachers in the classroom, and they will have better improvement in cooperative atmosphere of the classroom.

The findings of this study can be useful for teachers to make the atmosphere of the class friendlier by emphasizing the ease of language learning through cooperative learning. The results of this study can also be used for situations in which students have problems due to affective factors. For instance, because of stress, they cannot talk with their teachers easily; consequently, they can work on their weaknesses by the help of their friends. This study can also be of great benefit to syllabus designers and curriculum developers as self-assessment and peer-assessment are applicable to both the design of the course books traditionally structured around these categories and to supplementary textbooks focusing on specific aspects of language skills or knowledge. If we provide opportunities for the students to assess their own and their peers' pieces of work, they will become more responsible for their own learning and meaningful learning will occur.

One of the limitations of this study was its difficulty to run at the outset. Due to the students' unfamiliarity with the concept of self-assessment and peer-assessment, most of the participants were reluctant to take part, but teacher's further clarification about self-assessment and peer-assessment and their objectives helped students to be used to and interested in it. The second limitation was the level of the students in this study. Only intermediate learners participated in this study. The third limitation of this study was that attitudes of participants were not investigated on self-assessment, peer-assessment, and teacher assessment.

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Preparing students for writing essay with reasoning elements in English in the Unified State Exam in Russia

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Abstract
The paper is devoted to the study and analysis of the examination task in the written part of the Russian Unified State Examination. It is called an essay or a written statement with reasoning elements and has been being conducted in the Russian Federation since 2005. The aim of the paper is to work out a self-study algorithm helping examinees to complete task 40 (a written statement with reasoning elements) in the Unified State Examination format successfully. The author of the article paid much attention to the study of the history, aim, structure, and statistical results of the exam in the English language in 2019. The transformation of task 40 in the written part of Unified State Examination into the task with the possibility for an exam participant to choose one of two statements is considered and the peculiarities of this task are thoroughly described. The structure of task 40, assessment criteria, subject matter, language material (syntax, morphology, vocabulary, phonetics), typical mistakes are studied and analyzed. The Demo version of an essay 2020 is presented and analyzed in the paper. The work is based on the data of the Federal Service for Supervision of Education and Science of the Russian Federation.
Key words: unified state examination, communicative linguistic competence, essay, the English language, paraphrasing

Introduction

"Final exams in secondary schools, such as schools, gymnasiums, lyceums have always been considered a significant component in the Soviet and later Russian system of secondary education. The unified requirement for school leavers was to pass exams in such subjects as the Russian Language (Essay) and Mathematics. Students of the 11th grade used to pass double control of the quality of knowledge at the end of school and while entering higher educational institutions of the country. It should be noted that for a long time, there were no unified requirements for the structure of final exams, entrance exams, the form of their conduct, and the criteria for their assessment. Thus, school leavers passed exams twice for a short period of time. The situation with double exams and the lack of unified requirements for the structure and forms of examinations was changed in 2005. Some regions of the Russian Federation started approbation of the Unified State Exam in order to identify the conformity of the results of students' mastering basic educational programs according to the Federal State Educational Standard" (Badelina, Orekhova, 2018: 41). The Unified State Exam (USE) was introduced in all parts of the Russian Federation in 2009. Over the years, the exam in foreign languages has been constantly altered and improved in accordance with its purpose. The purpose of the exam is to assess the level of students' competencies obtained within educational programs of secondary general education, using tasks of a standardized form (control measuring materials) (Verbitskaya, et al., 2019: 9). The experience of the past years shows that control measurement materials (CMM) make it possible to assess the level of competences' mastery of the Federal component of the state educational standard of basic general and secondary (complete) general education in foreign languages by graduates. In foreign languages, two levels of foreign language communicative competence of participants (basic and profile) are currently distinguished. (http://fipi.ru/sites/default/files/document/1566546374/inostrannyy_yazyk_2019.pdf).

The part "Writing" of the written part of the USE includes 2 tasks (a personal letter and a written statement with reasoning elements). Performing these tasks requires demonstration of different writing skills related to two levels of difficulty (basic and advanced) (Specification of control measurement materials for conducting the Unified State Exam in Foreign languages in 2020, 2019: 12).

According to the Federal Service for Supervision in Education and Science, in 2019 more than 83 thousand participants took part in the exam on foreign languages. Compared to the previous years, the total number of participants increased slightly (more than 4% compared to 2018). According to the developers of the exam in foreign languages M.V. Verbitskaya and K.S. Makhmuryan, the increase in the number of participants is due to several reasons: the inclusion of the Chinese language in the exam on foreign languages and the increase in the total number of graduates. At the same time, among the European languages traditional for the Unified State Examination, a high proportion of participants in the English exam remains (96.6%); the share of participants in the German language decreased (German - 1.8% in 2019 and 2% in 2018); the share of participants in the Unified State Examination in the French language increased slightly (1.2% in 2019 and 1.1% in 2018); the proportion of participants in Spanish remained the same (0.2%). The number of exam participants in the Chinese language in 2019 amounted to 0.2% of the total number of exam participants in foreign languages (Verbitskaya, Makhmuryan, 2019: 3).

In 2019, there is an increase in the average test score and an increase in the share of participants with results in the range of high scores (81-100). The average test score increased slightly in 2019 compared to 2018 and amounted to 73.3 (in 2018 - 68.8). The exam developers suppose that the increase in the proportion of students with high scores can be explained by a change in the wording of task 40 and its transformation into an alternative task, giving the exam participants the right to choose the topic of a detailed written statement with reasoning elements (Verbitskaya, Makhmuryan, 2019: 4).

The analysis of the exam statistics in the English language shows that in 2019 all parts of the exam paper were performed slightly better than in 2018. As in previous years, in 2019 productive tasks with detailed answers (writing and speaking) were worse than all others (receptive: listening and reading, lexical and grammatical). The tasks of the part "Listening" were best performed, the worst of all was the part "Writing". In 2019, the participants in the exam coped with the tasks of the "Writing" part more successfully, higher scores were obtained for a detailed written statement with reasoning elements. The transformation of task 40 into an alternative task with the possibility for the exam participant to choose the topic of a detailed written statement with reasoning elements played a positive role. At the same time, the results of the tasks of the parts "Writing" and "Speaking" (especially the "Writing") are noticeably lower than the results of the tasks of the other parts, which indicates a lag in the development of productive skills from receptive skills (Verbitskaya, Makhmuryan, 2019: 10).

Nevertheless, an increasing number of exam participants has begun to complete task 40. This task is a productive task of a high level of difficulty and requires well-developed subject skills and meta-subject skills. It is designed to differentiate participants applying for scores in the range of 81–100. Naturally, graduates with medium and low levels of foreign communicative competence cannot cope with the task or get low scores. The reason for this is often a misunderstanding of the statement. Examinees do not understand and cannot show the problematic nature of the statements proposed. Many do not fully understand the meaning of the task due to the limitations of their vocabulary. Experts note the desire to extract from the statement wording a familiar word or to arbitrarily and incorrectly interpret the meaning of an unfamiliar word and write on this basis a text that has little in common

with the proposed topic and the communicative task (Verbitskaya, Makhmuryan, 2019: 29).

In order to achieve the aim of the research, the structure of task 40 (essay), assessment criteria, typical mistakes, subject matter, language material (syntax, morphology, vocabulary, phonetics) were analyzed, systematized, and presented in the tables below.

The Demo version of task 40 for 2020 includes the following instructions and is presented on the Website of the Federal Institute for Pedagogical Measurements in the following way (http://fipi.ru/ege-i-gve-11/demoversii-specifikacii-kodifikatory) (Table 1):

Table 1: The Demo version of USE 2020, Task 40

The Demo version of USE 2020 ENGLISH LANGUAGE, grade 11. (2020 - 18 / 33)	
Choose only ONE of the two proposed statements (40.1 or 40.2), indicate its number in the ANSWER SHEET No. 2, and express your opinion on the proposed problem according to this plan.	
Comment on one of the following statements.	
40.1	University education is essential for young people.
40.2	Robots will soon replace people in all jobs.
What is your opinion? Do you agree with this statement? Write 200–250 words.	
	Use the following plan: – make an introduction (state the problem paraphrasing the given statement); – express your personal opinion and give 2–3 reasons for your opinion; – express an opposing opinion and give 1–2 reasons for this opposing opinion; – explain why you do not agree with the opposing opinion; – make a conclusion restating your position.
Check that each answer is given next to the number of the corresponding task.	

The study and analysis of the structure and the instructions of task 40 allows concluding that in order to do this task successfully, a participant should demonstrate different writing skills related to a profile level of difficulty. According to control measurement materials (CMM), the levels of foreign language communicative competence of participants are determined by the assessment criteria proposed by the exam developers (Demo version of control measuring materials of the Unified State Exam 2020 in Foreign languages (written part), 2019: 28-33). The criteria under study are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Assessment criteria for completing task 40 of high difficulty level (maximum 14 scores)

Criterion number	Criterion	Scores			
		3	**2**	**1**	**0**
K1	The solution to a communicative problem	The task is fully completed: the content reflects all aspects specified in the task fully and accurately; style of speech is chosen correctly (one violation of a neutral style is allowed)	The task is mainly completed but one or two aspects of the content indicated in the task are not fully or inaccurately reflected; style of speech is mostly correct (two to three violations of a neutral style are allowed)	The task is incomplete: one or two aspects are not reflected in the content, OR three or four aspects of the content are incompletely or inaccurately disclosed, OR one aspect is not disclosed, and one or two aspects of the content are disclosed incompletely or inaccurately; there are errors in the speech style (four violations of a neutral style are allowed)	The task is not completed: all cases not indicated in the assessment for 1, 2, and 3 scores, OR the answer does not correspond to the required volume, OR more than 30% of the answer is unproductive (i.e., it coincides textually with the published source)
K2	Text organization	The statement is logical, the means of logical communication are used correctly, the structure of	The statement is mostly logical (there are one or two logical errors), AND / OR there are one or two	There are three or four logical errors in the statement, AND / OR there are three or four errors in the use of logical communicati	There are five or more logical errors in the statement AND / OR there are five or more errors in the use of logical communicati

		the text corresponds to the proposed plan, the text is correctly divided into paragraphs	drawbacks when using logical communication, AND / OR there are one or two deviations from the plan in the structure of the statement, AND / OR there are one or two drawbacks in paragraph division	ons, AND / OR there are three or four deviations from the proposed plan, there are three or four shortcomings in dividing the text into paragraphs	ons, AND / OR the proposed answer plan is not fully observed, AND / OR there is no division of the text into paragraphs
K3	Vocabulary	The vocabulary used corresponds to a high level of task complexity, there are practically no violations in the use of vocabulary (one lexical mistake is allowed)	The vocabulary used corresponds to a high level of difficulty of the assignment, however, there are two-three lexical errors, OR the vocabulary is limited, but the vocabulary is used correctly	The vocabulary used does not fully correspond to the high level of difficulty of the task; there are four lexical errors in the text	The vocabulary used does not correspond to the high level of difficulty of the task; there are five or more lexical errors in the text
K4	Grammar	The grammatical tools used correspond to a high level of task complexity, there are practically no violations (one or two non-repeating	The grammatical tools used correspond to a high level of complexity of the task, however, there are three-four grammatical errors in the text	The grammatical tools used do not quite correspond to the high level of difficulty of the task; there are five-seven grammatical errors in the text	The grammatical tools used do not correspond to the high level of task complexity; there are eight or more grammatical errors

		grammatical errors are allowed)			
K5	Spelling and punctuation		Spelling errors are practically absent. The text is divided into sentences with the correct punctuation (<u>one spelling AND / OR one punctuation error</u> is allowed) e	There <u>are two - four spelling AND / OR punctuation errors</u> in the text	The text contains <u>five or more spelling AND / OR punctuation errors</u>

According to Table 2, there are five criteria used by experts to assess task 40:

    - communicative problem solution,
    - text organization,
    - vocabulary,
    - grammar,
    - spelling and punctuation.

The first four criteria can be assessed from 3 to 0 scores. The fifth criterion is assessed from 2 to 0 scores. The important fact that should be mentioned is when an examinee receives 0 points in the criterion "Communicative problem-solution", the answer to the task is evaluated at 0 points for all positions of assessment of the completion of this task.

These criteria for assessing task 40 were developed in accordance with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, described in detail in the monograph "Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment". Communicative linguistic competence is the key to assessing the level of proficiency in a foreign language. It consists of linguistic, sociolinguistic, and pragmatic components, each of them, in turn, includes knowledge, skills. The analysis of the criteria presented in Table 1 shows that linguistic competence is given much attention when assessing the work of the examinee. It includes knowledge of vocabulary, phonetics and grammar and the corresponding skills and abilities, as well as other characteristics of the language as a system, regardless of the sociolinguistic significance of its variants and the pragmatic function of specific implementations. In relation to individual communicative competence, this component assumes not only

the volume and quality of knowledge (for example, knowledge of the meaning-distinguishing function of sounds, the volume, and accuracy of the dictionary) but also their cognitive organization and storage method (for example, the associative network in which the speaker puts a certain lexical unit), as well as their availability (recall, retrieval from long-term memory, use). Knowledge is not always conscious and cannot always be clearly formulated (for example, this may relate to the possession of the phonetic system of the language). The cognitive organization of the dictionary, its storage and accessibility can vary among different people and even one person (for example, in conditions of multilingualism) and depend on the individual characteristics of the students, as well as on the cultural environment in which the person grew up and studied (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment, 2003: 12).

Let's consider the language material and subject matter presented in control measurement materials (CMM) (Codifier of content elements and requirements for the level of training of graduates of educational organizations for Unified State Exam in Foreign languages in 2020, 2019: 4-6), shown in Table 3 and Table 4. The CMM of the USE consist of a package of various kinds of communication skills and language skills testing tasks of different levels of complexity (The Order of the Ministry of Education and Science of Russia, 2013).

Table 3: Language material for assessing Task 40 of USE

Language material
Syntax
Communicative types of sentences: affirmative, interrogative, negative, imperative sentences - and the word order in them
Sentences with initial it. Sentences with there is/are
Compound sentences with conjunctions and, but, or. Compound sentences with conjunctions и connective words what, when, why, which, that, who, if, because, that's why, than, so, for, since, during, so that, unless
The sequence of Tenses and Reported Speech
Sentences with constructions as … as; not so … as; neither … nor; either … or
Conditional sentences of real present реального (Conditional I – If I see Jim, I'll invite him to our school party.) and unreal present (Conditional II – If I were you, I would start learning French.)
Sentences with construction I wish (I wish I had my own room.)
Sentences with construction so/such (I was so busy that I forgot to phone my parents.)
Emphatic constructions like It's him who… It's time you did smth. Constructions with verbs ending in- ing: to love/hate doing something; Stop talking
Constructions It takes me … to do something; to look/feel/be happy
Various means of communication in the text to ensure its integrity (firstly, finally, at last, in the end, however, etc.)
Morphology
Plural nouns formed by the rule and exceptions. Definite/ indefinite/ zero article
Personal, possessive, demonstrative, indefinite, relative, interrogative pronouns
Adjectives in positive, comparative and superlative degrees, formed by the rule, as well as exceptions. Adverbs in comparative and superlative degrees, as well as adverbs expressing the number (many/much, few / a few, little / a little)
Quantitative and ordinal numerals. Prepositions of place, direction, time
Most common finite verb forms in Active Voice: Present Simple, Future Simple and Past Simple, Present and Past Continuous, Present and Past Perfect. Personal Verb Forms: Present Perfect Continuous and Past Perfect Continuous. Personal

	forms of passive verbs: Present Simple Passive, Future Simple Passive, Past Simple Passive, Present Perfect Passive. Personal verb forms in Present Simple (Indefinite) to express future actions after conjunctions if, when
	Finite verb forms in Passive Voice in Past Perfect Passive and Future Perfect Passive; Present / Past Progressive (Continuous) Passive; non-personal verb forms (Infinitive, Participle I, Gerund) (passive)
	Phrasal verbs (look for, …)
	Modal verbs and their equivalents (may, can/be able to, must/have to/should; need, shall, could, might, would)
	Various grammatical means for expressing the future tense: Simple Future, to be going to, Present Continuous
Vocabulary	
	Affixes as elements of word formation. Affixes of the verbs: re-, dis-, mis-; -ize / ise. Affixes of nouns: -er / or, -ness, -ist, -ship, -ing, sion / tion, -ance / ence, -ment, -ity. Affixes of adjectives: -y, -ic, -ful, -al, -ly, -ian / an, -ing, -ous, -ible / able, -less, -ive, inter-. Adverb suffix -ly. Negative prefixes: un-, in- / im-
	Polysemy of lexical units. Synonyms. Antonyms
	Lexical co-occurrence
Phonetics	
	Adequate pronunciation and distinguishing recognition of all sounds of the English language; observance of the correct stress in words and phrases; division of sentences into semantic groups; observance of correct intonation in various types of sentences, including in relation to new language material

Table 4: Subject matter for assessing Task 40 of USE (supplement)

A	Everyday life and life, distribution of household responsibilities in the family. Shopping
B	Life in the city and the countryside. Problems of the city and the village.
C	Communication in the family and school, family traditions, interpersonal relationships with friends, and acquaintances.
D	Health and healthcare, well-being, medical services. Healthy lifestyle.
E	The role of the youth in modern society, its interests, and hobbies.
F	The leisure of the youth: visiting clubs, sports sections, and interest clubs. Correspondence.
G	Home country and country/countries of the language being studied. Their geographical location, climate, population, cities and villages, sights.
H	Traveling at home and abroad, sightseeing.
I	Nature and environmental problems.
J	Cultural and historical features of the home country and the countries of the language studied.
K	The contribution of Russia and the countries of the language being studied to the development of science and world culture.
L	The modern world of professions, the labor market.
M	Opportunities for continuing education in higher education.
N	Future plans, the problem of choosing a profession.
O	The role of foreign language skills in the modern world.
P	School education. Studied subjects, attitudes towards them. Vacations.
Q	Scientific and technological progress, its prospects, and consequences.
R	New information technologies.
S	Holidays and significant dates in different countries of the world.

When studying the content of language material, it should be noted that all of the listed elements belong to level B2, called the threshold advanced level. This level is characterized by language proficiency in:

- understanding the general content of complex texts on abstract and specific topics, including highly specialized texts;

- speaking quickly and spontaneously enough to communicate constantly with native speakers without much difficulty for either side;

- making clear, detailed reports on various topics and stating one's view on the main problem, showing the advantages and disadvantages of different opinions;

- expressing one's point of view clearly and thoroughly on a wide range of interesting issues;

- explaining one's point of view on the urgent problem, expressing all the arguments for and against;

- writing understandable detailed reports on a wide range of interesting issues;

- writing essays or reports, covering questions or arguing the point of view "for" or "against";

- writing letters, highlighting those events and impressions that are especially important (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment, 2003: 23, 28).

Thus, task 40 (written statement with reasoning elements) is aimed to assess the knowledge and skills of the threshold advanced level (B2). An examinee has to state the problem paraphrasing the given statement, express his/her personal opinion and give 2–3 reasons for his/her opinion, express an opposing opinion and give 1–2 reasons for this opposing opinion, explain why he/she does not agree with the opposing opinion and make a conclusion restating his/her position.

Methodology

The given article uses the modern methodology of scientific research including a set of theoretical and empirical research methods. For the successful completion of the study, analysis and synthesis of the ideas and the results of linguistic and methodologic research on the studied problem were used. Different resources were employed, such as methodological recommendations, dictionaries, scientific and popular articles, Internet resources. The study and analysis of scientific sources and methodological literature made it possible to summarize ideas on the characteristic features of the Unified State Exam as a whole and Task 40 of the written part, in particular. The structure of task 40 (written statement with reasoning elements), assessment criteria, control measurement materials, subject matter, language material (syntax, morphology, vocabulary, phonetics), and the typical mistakes were thoroughly studied and analyzed. The empirical methods of research such as the method of observation, interview method, and analysis of exam written papers made it possible to reveal the most common mistakes made by examinees in Task 40, the attitude of examinees to the written part before and after working with the examinees' guide.

Results and Discussions

In order to work out a self-study algorithm helping examinees to complete task 40 successfully, the typical mistakes made by exam participants in the written statement with reasoning elements in 2017 - 2018 were studied and analyzed. Two groups of students of the 11 grade took part in the study. One group of students had an extra course "Preparation for the Unified State Exam in English" and had classes at Surgut State University in 2017 – 2018. Future examinees from different schools of the town had 2- hour classes two times a week. The second group included the

students from one class and they had the same course at school having 2- hour classes two times a week during a year.

At the beginning of the course, the students were asked to do task 40 in the classroom. The time preparation was 60 minutes. The analysis of the results of the practice exams in task 40 in both groups showed that the main mistakes are made in solving the communicative problem in the introduction.

For example, some students did not understand the statement "Volunteering is essential for teenagers". The word "essential" was unfamiliar to the examinee and she arbitrarily interpreted it: "*Some people are sure that teenagers have to volunteer, while others consider taking part in volunteering is a personal choice.*", "*... teenagers should not be made do what they are not interested in. ... if you oblige someone to take part in something unpleasant for him ...*". *The examinee understands the word "essential" as a compulsory duty, equating it to the modal "have to". "Have to" expresses* compulsory obligation, while the task refers to inner need, inner necessity, the importance of adolescent participation in the volunteer movement. It should be noted that according to the Cambridge Dictionary the word "essential" is a word of level B1, below B2, however, this exam participant does not know this word (https://dictionary.cambridge.org/ru/essential). The English word "essential" has the basic meaning of "very important and necessary" (https://dictionary.cambridge.org/ru/essential). Thus, the exam participant, not understanding the word "essential", replaces the problem. Instead of discussing whether it is necessary, whether it is important for a teenager to participate in a volunteer movement, the participant writes whether the teenager should be forced to volunteer or if he should be allowed to do what he wants. The proposed statement does not allow such an interpretation. Often a misunderstanding of a statement occurs due to taking out separate words from it, or due to misunderstanding of the utterance as a whole. So, for example, trying to express her opinion on the statement "One cannot make real friends online", the exam participant interprets the phrase "real friend" not as a best / real friend (true friend), but as a real, physically existing subject, as opposed to virtual fake character on the Internet.

As it is stated in the response plan, in the introduction the examinee should rephrase the proposed statement and show its problematic nature. Unfortunately, not everyone copes with this task. Let's consider the example of the introduction to the statement "University education is essential for young": "*University education is essential for young people. Very important topic, especially nowadays. However, people have different thoughts on it*". This introduction does not rephrase the problem (only one word is added). The next sentence - "*Very important topic, especially nowadays*" - is extremely poorly worded. It is impossible to understand exactly whether the discussion point "*However, people have different thoughts on it*" refers to the fact that the statement is very important, or to the fact that University education is necessary for the youth. In addition, from a linguistic and stylistic point of view, if we consider the sentence "*Very important topic, especially nowadays*" to be completely descriptive, we will have to admit that such sentences are inappropriate in a neutral style, they are characteristic of media journalistic texts. Most likely, the author gave a direct translation from Russian, so he missed the article (necessary: a very important topic) and missed the subject and predicate (necessary: This is a very important topic, especially nowadays). In the wording of the second sentence, there is an understanding of the general meaning of the introduction and there would be no complaints about the style.

Sometimes the examinees express their opinion in the introduction. From the point of view of the criterion "Solution of communicative problem," it is possible. It is important that the opinion is expressed. However, this means that the examinees do not follow the plan. In the second paragraph, it is clearly stated: "express your

personal opinion and give 2-3 reasons for your opinion", while in the first paragraph there is nothing about this: "make an introduction (state the problem paraphrasing the given statement)". Therefore, in this case, there is a mistake in the criterion "Text organization".

Sometimes the examinees cannot correctly formulate the opposite point of view, as well as clearly argue it. Let us consider an example of a fragment of a written statement expressing an opposing opinion: "*According to other people, there are a lot of things which are more important than education. Undoubtedly, teenagers can do what they want. For example, there are so many exciting hobbies*". The opponent's opinion, although clumsy, is expressed: in addition to education, freedom of action is also important, such as a hobby. However, there is no argument that would support this view. Therefore, this aspect is incomplete.

The wording of the counterargument (explanation of why the author does not agree with the opposing opinion) is even more difficult for the examinees. Consider the following example: "*However, other people think that there are a lot of things which are more important than studies. For example, youngsters can do what they want because there are so many interesting things, like sports which can be a part of their job in the future*". The student tries to give a counterargument, formulating it like this: "*But I not fully agree with this statement, because without well education, we cannot do what we like*" The answer expresses disagreement with the opinions of others, but the argumentation for the position is not given (the opponent's opinion is slightly reformulated).

Unfortunately, there are still conclusions that do not correspond to the proposed plan and the general communicative task of the written statement with reasoning elements. These conclusions would be appropriate in a written statement in the Pros and Cons format, but they are unacceptable in the statement where an examinee should express his personal opinion: "*In conclusion, I would like to emphasize that each person can have his own opinion about education*". Such a conclusion is not acceptable. The following conclusion is not acceptable either: "*To sum up, there are clearly more advantages than disadvantages of having a good education.*" The above conclusion focuses on the advantages and disadvantages of education, which means that there is a deviation from the statement. In addition, it is not clear whose opinion is expressed in it. The absence of words indicating that this is the opinion of the student is also a typical mistake in the conclusion. Recently, examinees have been often using the phrase "*My position stays unchanged*" in conclusion without explaining this position, which is also a serious drawback.

In task 40, logical errors and incorrect use of the means of logical communication are often observed, which is most likely due to the interference of the native language. The following statements can be examples of incorrect communications and logical errors:

"*However, there are people who disagree with me. They believe that teenagers need education more than other things. Because of without education they cannot go to university, get a good job and earn a lot of money in the future. Besides, it makes them clever and many people like clever people. I cannot agree with them. Children can get a good job if they have a lot of experience*".

1. *However, there are people who disagree with me. They believe that teenagers need education more than other things. Because of without education they cannot go to university, get a good job and earn a lot of money in the future. Because of* is a wrong means of communication, the preposition *because of* is used instead of the conjunction *because*. However, in order to correct the mistake, since one cannot simply replace the preposition with a conjunction, the whole sentence must be reconstructed, the causal clause with a conjunction cannot function as an independent separate sentence.

2. *Besides, it* makes them clever and many people like clever people. *Besides, it* is a logical mistake, since it is not clear what the pronoun *it* refers to. Apparently, the author means education, but the pronoun *it* is too far from this noun, between these words there is a number of nouns which this pronoun can be related to.

3. I cannot agree with *them*. I cannot agree with *them* is a logical mistake, because it is not clear what the pronoun *them* refers to; in the previous paragraph it was only reported that there is a different opinion, so in the previous sentence there is no noun which the pronoun *them* can be related to.

4. *Children can get a good job if they have a lot of experience*. – Practically the whole sentence is illogical as children cannot get a job and cannot have a large experience.

5. *Some parents send their children to various extra courses thinking that it will make him happier.* In the adverbial participial phrase *"thinking that it will make him happier"* the pronoun *"him"* is related to the word *"children".* Thus, the appropriate pronoun, in this case, is *them.*

6. *Knowledge and imagination can be improved by books which make them valuable for teenagers. "... which make them"* is a logical mistake, because it is not clear what the pronoun *them* refers to; in the first part there are two words "*Knowledge and imagination*" it is likely related to but there is one more word "books" closer to the pronoun "them".

Along with the mistakes in solving the communicative problem, text organizing, and logic in Task 40, exam participants make a large number of grammatical, lexical, punctuation errors. Here are examples of the most typical mistakes.

Improper use of articles:

A most important thing in your job is satisfaction. The use of "a" is wrong in this case as the superlative degree of adjectives is used with a definite article "the".

Improper use of parts of the speech:

To start with, if you feel good at work, you will feel joy in life. The adjective "good" must be replaced by the adverb "well", as it the verb must be followed by an adverb "a word that gives extra information about a verb, adjective, adverb, clause, or sentence" (https://www.macmillandictionary.com/dictionary/british/adverb).

Improper use of grammatical forms:

Moreover, when people ___really stressed at work they can have health problems. The form of the Present Simple Passive is incomplete. The verb "are" is missing.

Improper use of vocabulary:

In the society there many professional chiefs and cookers. The student uses the word "chief" instead of the word "chef", and the word "cooker" must be replaced by the word "cook". The meaning of "chief" is "main or most important" (https://www.macmillandictionary.com/dictionary/british/chief_1). The word necessary in this context is "chef" meaning "someone who cooks food in a restaurant as their job" (https://www.macmillandictionary.com/dictionary/british/chef). The meaning of the word "cooker" is "a large piece of kitchen equipment that is used for cooking" (https://www.macmillandictionary.com/dictionary/british/cooker) and the appropriate word in this context is "cook" with a meaning "someone who prepares and cooks food, either as their job or for pleasure" (https://www.macmillandictionary.com/dictionary/british/cook_2).

Punctuation mistakes:

To start with   nowadays students need control because not all teenagers can force themselves to study. The parenthesis "*To start with "*must be followed by a comma.

However_there is an opposite point of view that some students can get higher education without teachers. The parenthesis "*However* "must be followed by a comma.

Last but not the least the mistakes made by examinees in Task 40 are the number of words and shortage of time preparation (Denel, 2014: 87).

The number of words should be within 200–250 words. Despite the fact that the number of exam papers with excess or loss of words has become much less, there are still some. The requirement for exam participants to keep up the given volume is not purely formal, it is directly related to the content of the written statement and the implementation of the communicative task. Lack of the required number of words is an indicator of a low level of language proficiency, limited vocabulary, and lack of language skills (Milrud, 2019: 6).

Exceeding the volume also shows the examinee's inability to think about the communicative task set before him/her, to select the material that is really important for its implementation and to clearly formulate his/her thoughts. Often the excess of work is caused by the fact that the examinee tries to insert memorized passages from the "topics" into his work, which prevents from keeping up the statement and sometimes results in a complete replacement of the problem.

The study and analysis of the typical mistakes made by students in an essay made it possible for the author to work out a self-study algorithm for writing an essay in English in the Unified State Exam in Russia (See Table 5).

Table 5: Self-study algorithm for writing an essay in English in the Unified State Exam in Russia**.**

1.	Read the instruction of the task carefully	
1.1	• number of the proposed statements	2 statements
1.2	• structure of the statement	- introduction (state the problem paraphrasing the given statement); - express your personal opinion and give 2–3 reasons for your opinion; - express an opposing opinion and give 1–2 reasons for this opposing opinion; - explain why you do not agree with the opposing opinion; - make a conclusion restating your position
1.3	• number of words	- 200–250 words
1.4	• choice of the statement	When choosing a statement for writing with reasoning elements, it is recommended to consider the following points: - length of a statement; - clarity (not duality) of the statement, - knowing sufficient amount of vocabulary on the subject, - personal experience on the topic, - sufficient argumentation.
1.5	• classification of statements	Types of statements: - a statement including facts: *Virtual Internet communication results in losing real-life social skills.*

Volunteering is essential for teenagers.
Public libraries are becoming less popular and they will soon disappear.

- a statement including opinion:
Some people think that extreme sports help to build character.
Some people think that to get a good education one should go abroad.
Some people think that learning foreign languages is a waste of time and money.

- a statement including should / shouldn't do something:
Every city and every town should have a zoo.
Fast food outlets should be closed.
One should read about historical sites before sightseeing.

- a statement including can/can't do something:
A person who is fluent in a foreign language can easily work as an interpreter.
A person who is fluent in a foreign language can easily teach it.
Computers cannot replace people.

- a statement including comparative/superlative degree of adjectives:
Space exploration was the greatest achievement of the 20th century.
Playing sports is better than watching others do it.
Distance learning is the best form of education.

-     a statement including it is (not) wrong/right to:
It is wrong to make pupils read a lot in summer.
It's not right to be strict with little children.

- a statement including time period:
Nowadays natural sciences are more important than humanities.
Science is the first thing to be financed in the modern world.

Limiting words in the statements
Limiting words make a broad topic workable. They focus the topic area further by indicating aspects you should narrowly concentrate on (http://www.unsw.edu.au/), the word "limiting" in Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners is defined: "preventing someone or something from developing or improving" (Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners, 2007: 876).
- Little children/teenagers:
It's not right to be strict with little children.
Volunteering is essential for teenagers.
- Teachers / parents:

		Some people think that young people should follow in their parents' footsteps when choosing a profession. - The greatest / more important: *Friendship is the greatest gift in life.* - Better / the best: *The best time is spent with family and friends.* - The key to…: *Digital literacy is the key to success in any occupation.* - Too / enough: - Essential, impossible, valuable: *University education is essential for young people.* *An interesting job is more valuable than a high salary.* - Every: *Every city and every town should have a zoo.* *Everybody would like to work from home.* - Replace: *Robots will soon replace people in all jobs.* - Nowadays, modern / (will) in the future: *Nowadays natural sciences are more important than humanities.* - Will … soon: *Public libraries are becoming less popular and they will soon disappear.* *Robots will soon replace people in all jobs.* - Should / should not: *Some people think that young people should follow in their parents' footsteps when choosing a profession.* - Can / cannot: *One cannot make real friends online* - (not) only: *Some people think that you can have only one true friend.* - No longer: *With the Internet we no longer need TV.* - Without: *It is easy to live without the Internet.* - If / before: *One should read about historical sites before sightseeing*
2.	Start writing the introduction.	
2.1	• Background statement	Background statement can be formulated as: - some background information; - current relevant information; - a definition; - a quotation; - a surprising / interesting fact. *It is a common fact that modern people place great emphasis on ... / attach a lot of importance (value) to ....* *Nowadays it is impossible/inconceivable to imagine ... without ...* *It is not a secret that nowadays ... is increasing in popularity / has become extremely popular.* Statement*: Some people think that learning foreign languages is a waste of time and money.*

			Background statement: *It is not a secret that nowadays studying foreign languages is increasing in popularity.* *or* Statement*: Some people think that you can have only one true friend.* Background statement: *It is a common fact that people attach a lot of value to friendship.*
2.2	•	Problem/ clash of opinions	Statement*: Some people think that learning foreign languages is a waste of time and money.* Discussion: While many people support the idea that…., there are some who remain skeptical about this. or Statement*: Some people think that you can have only one true friend.* Discussion: Although most people believe that …, some individuals, however, disagree with this.
2.3	•	The focus of the statement	Statement*: Some people think that learning <u>foreign languages</u> is a waste of time and money.* Statement*: Some people think that you can have only one <u>true friend</u>.*
2.4	•	Restrictors of the statement	Statement*: Some people think that <u>learning</u> foreign languages is a <u>waste</u> of <u>time and money</u>.* *Some people think that you <u>can</u> have <u>only one</u> true friend.*
2.5	•	Paraphrase	to <u>express</u> what someone else has <u>said</u> or <u>written</u> <u>using</u> <u>different</u> <u>words</u>, without changing the meaning (https://www.macmillandictionary.com/dictionary/british/ paraphrase_1). - Don't paraphrase word by word. - Work with ideas (What is it really saying?) - Take ideas from the question and add your own interpretation. - Synonyms (*adjectives, nouns, verbs, adverbs*) - Word forms *(adjective -> noun, verb -> noun, adjective ->adverb)* - Change structures: - *active-passive* - *comparatives (than – as…as, best – there is nothing better than…)* - *modal verbs (can – is possible, should – is a good idea to do… / is the best thing to do…, must – is necessary)* - *although – despite – however* - *conditionals (If …, ….)* - *cause-effect (… leads to / results in)* <u>An effective paraphrase:</u> - has a different grammatical structure to the original, - has a mainly different vocabulary, - retains the same meaning,

<table>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td>- keeps some phrases from the original that are in common use: conventional words/phrases (people, teenagers, children, etc.) and specialized words/phrases (low grades, school uniform, etc.).

Statement*: Some people think that learning foreign languages is a waste of time and money.*
Paraphrasing: *Although many people believe it is useless to spend money and time on studying foreign languages, some individuals disagree with this opinion.*

Statement*: Some people think that you can have only one true friend.*
Paraphrasing: *While most people support the idea that only one person can be your real friend, there are some who remain skeptical about this.*

Statement: *It is always <u>best</u> to follow in your parents' footsteps when choosing a profession.*
   1) There is an opinion that <u>the best thing to do when</u> choos<u>ing</u> a future profession is to follow in your parents' footsteps.
   2) There is a popular belief that children <u>should</u> always follow in their parents' footsteps when they choose their future profession.
   3) It is generally believed that <u>there is nothing better than</u> following in your parents' footsteps when choosing a profession.</td></tr>
<tr><td>3</td><td colspan="2">Express your personal opinion and give 2–3 reasons for your opinion</td></tr>
<tr><td>3.1</td><td>• Phrases to express a personal opinion</td><td>*In my opinion*
In my view
Personally, I think/ believe/feel that
I am sure that
I believe that
From my point of view</td></tr>
<tr><td>3.2</td><td>• Phrases to give reasons for personal opinion</td><td>- Phrases to enumerate arguments:
Firstly/ secondly/ thirdly etc.
Also/ besides/ then/ more over etc.
To begin with/ after that/ last but not least etc.
- Phrases to express arguments-perspectives:
From a scientific standpoint, … has led to significant advances (in…).
From a social viewpoint, … play an important role because…
From an educational standpoint, it is vital that …
From an economic perspective, … is obviously a step in the right (wrong) direction.
From a moral/ethical perspective, … is a wrong decision.
As far as religion is concerned, … is not a proper thing to do.
On a personal/social level … is (can be) a very positive step, too.
Politically, … is (can be) a very positive step towards building integration between countries.</td></tr>
</table>

			Psychologically, … is extremely beneficial to / for…
4.	Express an opposing opinion and give 1–2 reasons for this opposing opinion		
4.1	• Phrases to express an opposing opinion		Although there are many advantages in …, the opponents still consider …a bad idea to … However, it could be argued that the decision to… is appropriate in this situation. The opponents insist that… Despite/ In spite of Nevertheless
4.2	• Phrases to give reasons for an opposing opinion		- Phrases to enumerate arguments: *Firstly/ secondly/ thirdly etc.* *Also/ besides/ then/ more over etc.* *To begin with/ after that/ last but not least* etc. - Phrases to express arguments-perspectives: *From a scientific standpoint, … has led to significant advances (in…).* *From a social viewpoint, … play an important role because…* *From an educational standpoint, it is vital that …* *From an economic perspective, … is obviously a step in the right (wrong) direction.* *From a moral/ethical perspective, … is a wrong decision.* *As far as religion is concerned, … is not a proper thing to do.* *On a personal/social level … is (can be) a very positive step, too.* *Politically, … is (can be) a very positive step towards building integration between countries.* *Psychologically, … is extremely beneficial to / for…*
5.	Explain why you do not agree with the opposing opinion		
5.1	• Phrases to express your disagreement with an opposing opinion		*While it is true under some circumstances, in real life it is not so.* *While it seems likely that…, it is also evident that…* *Nevertheless, the arguments above do not appear well-founded to me. One should take into account that…*
5.2	• Phrases to give reasons why you disagree with an opposing opinion		See 4.2
6.	Make a conclusion restating your position.		
6.1	• Answer the question if you agree with this statement		All things considered, I would like to emphasize that + *Do you agree with the statement?* To sum up, *I am fully convinced* that + *Do you agree with the statement?* To sum up, *I firmly believe that* + *Do you agree with the statement?*
6.2	• Summarize the essay's key points		After all, *the facts* I have presented/put forward speak *for themselves.* After all, *the evidence* I have presented seems

			conclusive enough.
6. 3	•	Call for action/ advice, recommendati on/ predictions about the future	After all, *it can offer … invaluable benefits* and do them a lot of good / do them more good than harm. <u>I have no doubt about it</u> because despite some minor risks / potential flaws/drawbacks/ possible pitfalls ... *is the best solution (option) for* ...
7.	Check your essay thoroughly		

At the classes the students of both groups used the self-study algorithm while discussing Task 40, preparing the plan of writing the task, checking their own exam papers. At the end of the course, the students stated that the use of the self-study algorithm made it possible for them to understand the core of the task. They learned how to choose the statement, what types of statements can be, how to write an introduction, what an effective paraphrase is, what assessment criteria an examinee should keep in mind while completing the task etc.

Conclusion

The paper studies and analyzes the examination task in the written part of the Russian Unified State Examination in the English language. This task is called a written statement with reasoning elements or Task 40. The total score for the USE is 100 scores. The maximum score an examinee can get for this task is 14 scores. The time for task completion is 60 minutes. The aim of the exam is an objective assessment of the quality of training of students who have mastered the educational programs of secondary general education, using tasks of a standardized form (control measuring materials).

The analysis of the exam statistics in the English language shows that in 2019 all parts of the exam paper were performed slightly better than in the previous years. Yet, the results of the task of the part "Writing" are noticeably lower than the results of the tasks of other parts, which can be explained by insufficient development of productive skills from receptive skills.

In order to achieve the aim of the research: to work out the student's guide helping students to complete task 40 successfully, the author studied the Demo version of task 40, the structure of task 40 (written statement with reasoning elements), assessment criteria, language material (syntax, morphology, vocabulary, phonetics), subject matter and analyzed the typical mistakes in Task 40 made by students at practice exams.

The study and analysis of the material on the problem under consideration made it possible to work out a self-study algorithm for examinees who are going to take a USE exam in English.

Firstly, when completing Task 40, it is important to read the instruction of the task carefully, pay attention to the number of the proposed statements, preparation time, and the number of words. Due to the fact that two statements are currently being offered for choice, the examinee should not be afraid to spend several minutes thinking about his choice: length of a statement; clarity (not duality) of the statement, knowledge of sufficient amount of vocabulary on the subject, personal experience on the topic, sufficient argumentation. It is not recommended to start writing one essay, and then move on to another. As a rule, in this case, the exam participants do not have enough time to complete the task. It should be noted that the rewritten statement of the assignment itself is not included in the word number of the text. It is necessary to show examinees the techniques that will allow them to increase or decrease the volume written by them: add or cross out some adjectives or cross out individual words or sentences that do not carry information and are redundant.

Secondly, it is important to know the criteria for assessing the essay and be aware of the fact that if an examinee receives 0 scores according to the criterion "Solution of the communicative problem", the whole exam paper is assessed at 0 scores for all positions of assessment criteria. Thus, in the introduction, it is recommended to identify the kind of the statement, to single out the focus and the restriction words of the statement, to find the synonyms of the words given in the statement, think of alternative grammar structures, and paraphrase the statement. While writing the introduction, it is advisable to include a background statement, problem/ clash of opinions and use paraphrasing. An effective paraphrase has a different grammatical structure to the original, has a mainly different vocabulary, retains the same meaning, keeps some phrases from the original that are in common use: conventional words/phrases (people, teenagers, children, etc.) and specialized words/phrases (low grades, school uniform, etc.).

Thirdly, when expressing a personal opinion, the examinee should state his position clearly and support his opinion by 2-3 weighty arguments. When formulating the opposite opinion, the exam participant should understand that the arguments of the opposing opinion must differ from the arguments used to support his personal opinion. Moreover, the examinee must be able to disagree with the opposing opinion and the arguments supporting it. The counterarguments proposed by the examinees in the fourth paragraph should be logical. It is advisable to prove one's point of view not in the same words as before but to use paraphrase and synonymy.

Fourthly, making a conclusion the examinee must restate his position. It is recommended to answer the question of Task 40 if he agrees with this statement and briefly summarizes the arguments supporting his opinion.

Lastly, it is necessary to check the essay thoroughly paying attention to grammar, vocabulary, spelling, and punctuation

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An exploration of Indonesian EFL learners' unwillingness to communicate

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Abstract
This study aimed at exploring EFL students' unwillingness to communicate (UTS) of English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom at higher institution in Indonesia. A 25-item survey of 70 students of English study program at graduate program State University of Makassar Indonesia stated that most of the students were willing to participating in group discussions and they revealed that their friends listened to their ideas and suggestions. The study also reported that the majority of participants disagreed to the statements: talking to friends is just a waste of time, they don't talk in classroom presentation because they are shy, they don't like to get involved in group discussions, their friends don't listen to their ideas and suggestions in classroom discussions, they don't ask for advice from friends when they have to make decisions, they are afraid to express themselves in a group, and they find it difficult to make conversation with their mates. The students were unwillingness to express ideas to other students because they felt nervous, and they also were unwillingness to express themselves because they had some fears.
Key words: Unwillingness to communicate (UTC), EFL learners, Indonesia

Introduction

One of the main goals of learning and teaching process in the classroom setting is to enhance students' involvement and participation in the classroom discussion. Some students are enthusiastic to express their ideas and feelings in the classroom discussion while others are unwillingness to communicate. They are unwillingness to communicate because some factors, such as they are anxious and shy, they are not confident, they do not have enough vocabulary, they are not used to expressing opinions in group discussions, and many other linguistic, social, and psychological factors. Group discussion is the best way to toil students' participation in the classroom and through group discussion, communication practices in foreign language and second language classroom exist. Group discussions prepare rich information to be examined in terms of the willingness and unwillingness of students to communicate.

One of the goals of communication research is to predict communication outcomes based upon the identification of human variables that affect the communication setting or system (Burgoon, Burgoon, 1974, p. 31). Sociological and psychological variables have been valuable in communication research to identify predispositions for actual communication behaviors (Burgoon, 1976, p. 60). Burgoon therefore adds that there are a number of these variables point to the existence of a global communication construct that may conveniently be labeled unwillingness to communicate and this predisposition represents a chronic tendency to avoid and/or devalue oral communication.

Unwillingness to communicate is a predisposition representing a chronic tendency to avoid and/ or devalue oral communication (Pearson et al., 2013, p. 219). Burgoon (1976) as cited in Liu and Jackson (2008, p. 71) argued that "individuals with communication reticence exhibit the predisposition of unwillingness to communicate," which stems from a variety of causes, such as apprehension, low self-esteem, lack of communicative competence, anomie, alienation, and introversion.

Willingness and unwillingness to communicate in a foreign language (FL) or a second language (L2) classroom have become interesting issues for foreign and second language learning and teaching (Macintyre, 2007; Ningsih et al, 2018; Khany, Nejad, 2016; Liu, Jackson, 2008; Fukuta, 2017; Riasati, 2012; Peng, 2012; Peng, 2013; Barjesteh et al., 2012; Nazari, Allahyar, 2012; Macintyre et al., 2011; Zarrinabadi, Abdi, 2011; Mirsane, Khabiri, 2016; Oz, 2014; & Fu et al, 2012).

Therefore, the present study sets the research questions as follows:

RQ1: What are the factors affecting students' unwillingness to communicate in the EFL group discussion at higher institution?

RQ2: Why are the students unwilling to participate in the EFL group discussion?

Review of Literature

In contrast to willingness to communicate (WTC), the concept of unwillingness to communicate (UTC) emerged in the field of second or foreign language acquisition (Khany, Nejad, 2016, p. 3). Along history of research has established the importance of communication apprehension as a communication variable (Burgoon, 1977, p. 122). Unwillingness induces classroom silence, which is an obstacle to acquiring the target language in a classroom, and results from avoidance of communication (Harumi as cited in Fukuta, 2017, p. 2). McCroskey (1977) as cited in Kelly (1982, p. 99) reported that reticence is the most global construct, that unwillingness to communicate is essentially similar to reticence, that communication apprehension is subsumed by reticence and unwillingness to com-municate, and that shyness is basically the same as communication apprehension. According to Burgoon (1976) as cited in Pearson et al. (2011, p. 219), unwillingness to communicate is a predisposition representing a chronic tendency to avoid and/ or devalue oral communication. Burgoon in Pearson et al (2011) therefore said that unwillingness to communicate focuses on two dimensions, perceived rewards for communicating and the perceived consequences of approaching or avoiding communication encounters.

The Table 1 below shows the measurement of second language (L2) or foreign language (FL) on unwillingness to communicate (UTC) from some scholars or language practitioners.

Table 1. The measurement of L2 or FL UTC in previous studies

Researcher	Research Site & Year	Instrument	Subjects/Participants
Sri Kusuma Ningsih, Stephanie Narahara & Herri Mulyono	Indonesia, 2018	Online questionnaire was distributed to the students via school Facebook pages and Twitter.	A total of 158 students volunteered to participate, of which 122 were female, and 36 were male
Reza Khany and Ali Mansouri Nejad	Iran, 2016	A total of 20 items developed by Burgoon (1976) measured the participants' UWTC. The scale was adapted to the present study to measure L2UWTC with respect to both psychological and sociological factors.	217 undergraduate students majoring in English Language and Literature at Ilam University
Amandeep Dhir, Sufen Chen, & Marko	India, 2015	A 78-item pool was utilized for examining different UBGs among	1914 adolescent internet users.

Nieminen		adolescent internet users.	
Pavica Sheldon	USA, 2008	A 20-item unwillingness-to-communicate scale (Burgoon, 1976).	172 students
Judee K. Burgoon	USA, 1976	Self-report responses to the Personal Report of Communication Anxiety-College and the Unwillingness-to-Communicate Scale	222 students
Judee K. Burgoon and Michael Burgoon	USA, 1974	A new 26-item scale to measure a construct labeled unwillingness to communicate	283 students at West Virginia University
Judee K. Burgoon	USA, 1977	The 20-item Likert-type Unwillingnessto-Communicate Scale	152 students
Theodore A. Avtgis	USA, 1999	Participants completed the Burgoon (1976) Unwillingness to Communicate Scale and the Ritchie and Fitzpatrick (1990) Revised Family Communication Patterns Instrument	200 working adults (105 males and 95 females)
Joo Young Jang and Yong-Chan Kim	South Korea, 2012	A questionnaire	425 elementary school students
Nathan Miczo	USA, 2004	A survey including the following scales: Unwillingness to Communicate, Humor Orientation, Coping Humor, revised UCLA Loneliness, and Perceived Stress.	202 undergraduate students enrolled in communication courses at a Midwestern university
Judy C. Pearson , Jeffrey T. Child , Becky L. DeGreeff , Julie L. Semlak & Ann Burnett	USA, 2011	Twenty 7-point Likert-type items developed by Burgoon (1976)	655 participants were used for this research, 378 from a midsized upper Midwestern university and 277 from a large Midwestern university
Lynne Kelly	USA, 1982	A 74-item questionnaire consisting of the items from scales designed to assess shyness, communication	458 students at Pennsylvania State University.

		apprehension, reticence, and un-willingness to communicate.	
Louis Leung	Hongkong, 2007	A questionnaire	532 college students
Miranda Lai-yee Ma & Louis Leung	Hongkong, 2006	A-20 item Unwillingness-to-communicate scale (Burgoon, 1976).	591 internet users
Junya Fukuta	Japan, 2017	A 7-point selfrating scale of the questionnaire (including speaking, reading, writing, listening, grammar, and vocabulary) ranging from 0 (introductory) to 6 (advanced).	Thirty-three first year students (male: n = 7, female: n = 26) majoring in arts or design in a Japanese university participated in this study
Meihua Liu & Jane Jackson	China, 2008	A 70-item survey of Unwillingness to Communication Scale (UCS) developed by Burgoon (1976), and the Language Class Risk-Taking (LCR) and Language Class Sociability (LCS) scales designed by Ely (1986) to rate unwillingness to communicate. They also completed the FLCAS developed by Horwitz et al. (1986).	547 participants (430 male and 117 female) who were first year non-English majors at Tsinghua University

Method

Participants

The unwillingness to communicate (UTS) scale was completed by 70 graduate students (male = 19 or 27.14% and female = 51 or 72.86%) major in English education study program State University of Makassar, Indonesia. The participants were in the first semester enrolled in Educational Psychology course and Entrepreneurship course in 2019/2020 academic year. The participants' age ranging from 22 – 40, there were 52 or 74.29% of 22 – 25 years old, 12 or 17.14% of 26 – 30 years old, and 6 or 8.56% of 31 – 40 years old.

Instrument & Procedure

The independent measure was questionnaire which aims to explore unwillingness to communicate, measured by the 25-item Likert-type Unwillingness to Communicate Scale adapted from Burgoon (1976). The questionnaire was written in English and the undergraduate English language students were asked to rate their perception on UTC in EFL classroom. In this present research, the students were asked to rate their perceptions with response to the questionnaires on a 3-point Likert scale on which 1 =

agree, 2 = uncertain, and 3 = disagree. The students completed the survey in approximately 10 minutes at the beginning of a lecture.
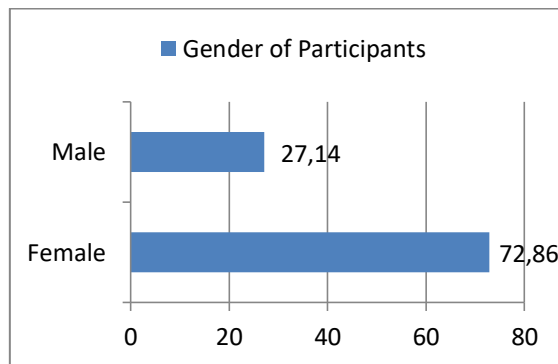
Result and Discussion

Figure 1. Gender of Participants

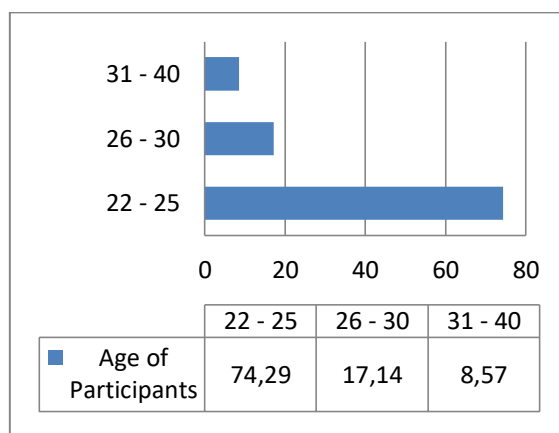|	22 - 25	26 - 30	31 - 40
Age of Participants	74,29	17,14	8,57

Figure 2. Age of Participants

Descriptive Statistics
To reveal the general tendency of students' unwillingness to communicate required the determination of the mean, standard deviation, maximum, minimum, skewness, and kurtosis of the Unwillingness to Communicate Scale (UCS). Descriptive statistics (min, max, mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis for EFL students' reluctance to communicate scale are shown in Table 2. As seen in Table 2, participants' responses ranged in three points on the scale. As seen in Table 2, participants' responses ranged from three points on the scale. The results of the study reveal that the participants achieved a mean of 2.4714 and SD = .65323 for student's perception number 1 (I'm afraid to speak up in classroom discussions). The participants achieved a mean of 2.6143 and SD = .57213 for student's perception number 2 (I don't talk in classroom presentation because I'm shy). The students achieved a mean of 1.8143 and SD = .66579 for student's perception number 3 (I talk

a lot because I am not shy). The students achieved a mean of 2.5714 and SD = .64989 for student's perception number 4 (I don't like to get involved in group discussions). The students achieved a mean of 1.9714 and SD = .74155 for students' perception number 5 (In group discussions, I prefer to listen rather than talk). The means and SD for students' perception number 6 to number 25 are clearly presented on Table 2. The normal distribution can be observed for all scales in this current study as illustrated by skewness and kurtosis value as presented in Table 3. The item's skewness and kurtosis values are mostly in the range -1 and +1. Univariate normality is considered to be supported according to the $\pm$ 2 threshold for the slope and kurtosis suggested by Kunnan (1998) in Peng (2013).

Table 2. Distributions for EFL Unwillingness to Communicate (N = 70)

Item	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
1	1.00	3.00	2.4714	.65323	-.855	-.321
2	1.00	3.00	2.6143	.57213	-1.183	.463
3	1.00	3.00	1.8143	.66579	.227	-.727
4	1.00	3.00	2.5714	.64989	-1.251	.415
5	1.00	3.00	1.9714	.74155	.046	-1.150
6	1.00	3.00	2.0857	.82958	-.163	-1.531
7	1.00	3.00	2.1571	.79191	-.291	-1.341
8	1.00	3.00	2.4429	.69440	-.859	-.462
9	1.00	3.00	1.3857	.57213	1.183	.463
10	1.00	3.00	1.9143	.67551	.104	-.755
11	1.00	3.00	2.4571	.67428	-.862	-.382
12	1.00	3.00	1.6143	.76694	.793	-.840
13	1.00	3.00	1.4714	.60724	.912	-.133
14	1.00	3.00	1.6714	.75607	.634	-.969
15	1.00	3.00	2.2286	.68464	-.326	-.826
16	1.00	3.00	2.5714	.52672	-.600	-.985
17	1.00	3.00	2.5000	.65386	-.961	-.162
18	1.00	3.00	1.6571	.56172	.102	-.699
19	1.00	3.00	2.4571	.60638	-.634	-.508
20	1.00	3.00	1.3714	.54298	1.095	.208
21	1.00	3.00	1.5429	.60638	.634	-.508
22	1.00	3.00	2.3571	.72303	-.665	-.803
23	1.00	3.00	2.7429	.60638	-2.224	3.582
24	1.00	3.00	2.3571	.68176	-.591	-.702
25	1.00	3.00	2.1714	.72174	-.271	-1.021

Cronbach's Alpha .588

Table 3: Percentages of Students' Perception on Unwillingness to Communicate

Item	Students' Perception	Agree (%)	Uncertain (%)	Disagree (%)
1	I'm afraid to speak up in classroom discussions.	8.6	35.7	55.7
2	I don't talk in classroom discussion because I'm shy.	4.3	30.0	65.7
3	I talk a lot because I am not shy.	32.9	52.9	14.3
4	I don't like to get involved in group discussions.	8.6	25.7	65.7
5	In group discussions, I prefer to listen rather than talk.	28.6	45.7	25.7
6	I feel nervous when I have to express ideas to others.	30.0	31.4	38.6
7	I have some fears about expressing myself in a group discussion.	24.3	35.7	40.0
8	I am afraid to express myself in a group discussion.	11.4	32.9	55.7
9	I like group discussions.	65.7	30.0	4.3
10	During a group discussion, I prefer to talk rather than listen.	27.1	54.3	18.6
11	I find it difficult to make conversation with my mates.	10.0	34.3	55.7
12	I am not afraid to talk in a classroom discussion.	55.7	27.1	17.1
13	I find it easy to make conversation with mates.	58.6	35.7	5.7
14	I don't feel nervous when I have to express ideas to others.	50.0	32.9	17.1
15	I don't think my friends are honest in their communication with me.	14.3	48.6	37.1
16	My friends don't listen to my ideas and suggestions in classroom discussions.	1.4	40.0	58.6
17	I don't ask for advice from friends when I have to make decisions.	8.6	32.9	58.6
18	I believe my friends understand my feelings.	38.6	57.1	4.3
19	My friends don't enjoy discussing my interests and activities with me.	5.7	42.9	51.4
20	My friends listen to my ideas and suggestions.	65.7	31.4	2.9
21	My friends seek my opinions and advice.	51.4	42.9	5.7
22	My friends are friendly to maintain communication because they want something out of me.	14.3	35.7	50.0
23	Talking to friends is just a waste of time.	8.6	8.6	82.9

24	My friends just pretend to be listening when I talk.	11.4	41.1	47.1
25	If I got into some kind of trouble, I couldn't talk to anyone about it.	18.6	45.7	35.7

Frequency of Responses to FL/L2 UTC Scale

The research question was raised by examining the factors influencing the reluctance of EFL students to communicate and the most frequent response of students' reluctance to communicate in the classrooms in higher education in Indonesia is shown in Table 3. This table shows the proportion of participants who endorsed the three options on the Likert scale (agree, uncertain, and disagree). As shown in Table 3, the majority of participants expressed their responses "disagree' on the statement *Talking to friends is just a waste of time* (Item 23, 82.9%). Followed responses "disagree" on the statement *I don't talk in classroom presentation because I'm shy* (Item 2, 65.7%) and response "disagree" on the statement *I don't like to get involved in group discussions* (Item 4, 65.7%).

The detail percentages of students' perception on factors affecting students' unwillingness to communicate (UTC) in EFL classroom are illustrated in Table 3. The highest response for item 1 (I'm afraid to speak up in classroom discussions) was disagree with 55.7%. The highest response for item 2 (I don't talk in classroom presentation because I'm shy) was disagree with 65.7%. The highest response for item 3 (I talk a lot because I am not shy) was uncertain with 52.9%. The highest response for item 4 (I don't like to get involved in group discussions) was disagree with 65.7%. The highest response for item 5 (In group discussions, I prefer to listen rather than talk) was uncertain with 45.7%. The highest response for item 6 (I feel nervous when I have to express ideas to others) was disagree with 38.6%. The highest response for item 7 (I have some fears about expressing myself in a group) was disagree with 40.0%. The highest response for item 8 (I am afraid to express myself in a group) was disagree with 55.7%. The highest response for item 9 (I like group discussions) was agree with 65.7%. The highest response for item 10 (I like group discussions) was uncertain with 54.3%. The highest response for item 11 (I find it difficult to make conversation with my mates) was disagree with 55.7%. The highest response for item 12 (I am not afraid to talk in a classroom discussion) was agree with 55.7%. The highest response for item 13 (I find it easy to make conversation with mates) was agree with 58.6%. The highest response for item 14 (I don't feel nervous when I have express ideas to others) was agree with 50.0%. The highest response for item 15 (I don't think my friends are honest in their communication with me) was uncertain with 48.6%. The highest response for item 16 (My friends don't listen to my ideas and suggestions in classroom discussions) was disagree with 58.6%. The highest response for item 17 (I don't ask for advice from friends when I have to make decisions) was disagree with 58.6%. The highest response for item 18 (I believe my friends understand my feelings) was uncertain with 57.1%. The highest response for item 19 (My friends don't enjoy discussing my interests and activities with me) was disagree with 51.4%. The highest response for item 20 (My friends listen to my ideas and suggestions) was agree with 65.7%. The highest response for item 21(My friends seek my opinions and advice) was disagree with 51.4%. The highest response for item 22 (My friends are friendly only because they want something out of me) was disagree with 50.0%. The highest response for item 23 (Talking to friends is just a waste of time) was disagree with 82.9%. The highest response for item 24 (My friends just pretend to be listening when I talk) was disagree with 47.1%. The highest response for item 25 (If I got into some kind of trouble, I couldn't talk to anyone about it) was uncertain with 45.7%.
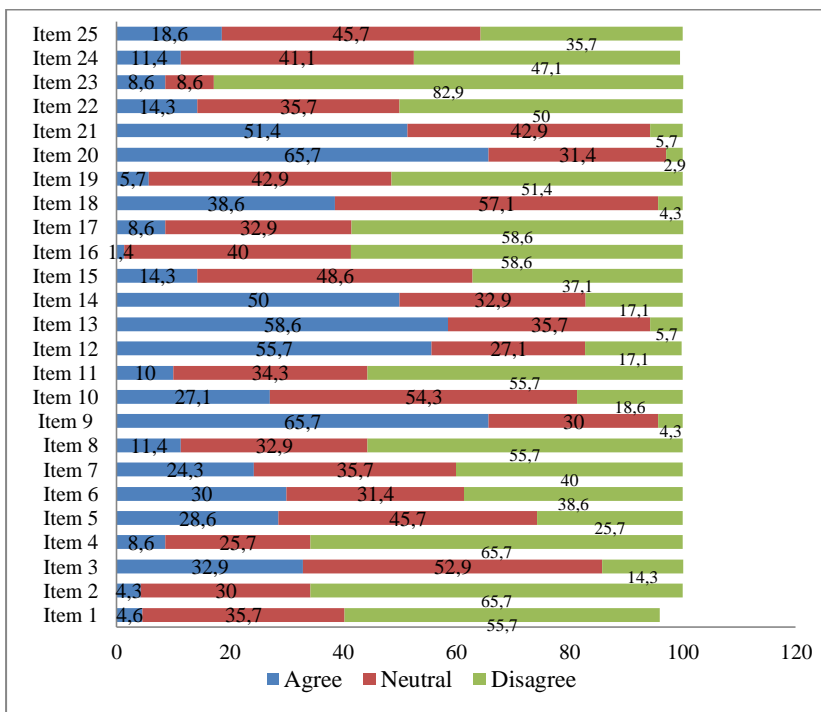
Figure 3. Proportion of Students' responses on factors affecting students' UTC

The proportion of students' responses on factors affecting students' unwillingness to communicate (UTC) in EFL classroom is displayed in Figure 3. The highest response for item 1 (I'm afraid to speak up in classroom discussions) was disagree with 55.7%. This implies that the students are not afraid to speak up in the classroom discussion. The highest response for item 2 (I don't talk in classroom presentation because I'm shy) was disagree with 65.7%. This means that the students disagree to the statement. Probably, the students are enthusiastic to talk in the classroom presentation because they are not shy.

The highest response for item 3 (I talk a lot because I am not shy) was uncertain with 52.9%. The highest response for item 4 (I don't like to get involved in group discussions) was disagree with 65.7%. This means that the students like to be involved and participated in the group discussion. The highest response for item 5 (In group discussions, I prefer to listen rather than talk) was uncertain with 45.7%. The highest response for item 6 (I feel nervous when I have to express ideas to others) was disagree with 38.6%. This illustrates that the students do not feel nervous when expressing their ideas to others in EFL classroom. The highest response for item 7 (I have some fears about expressing myself in a group discussion) was disagree with 40.0%. This means that the students do not have some fears about expressing themselves in a group discussion in EFL classroom. The highest response for item 8 (I am afraid to express myself in a group) was disagree with 55.7%. This statement reveals that the students are not afraid to express themselves in a group. The highest response for item 9 (I like group discussions) was agree with 65.7%. The highest response for item 10 (During a group discussion, I prefer to talk rather than listen) was uncertain with 54.3%. The highest response for item 11 (I find it difficult to make

conversation with my mates) was disagree with 55.7%. This illustrates that the students find it easy to make conversation with their mates.

The highest response for item 12 (I am not afraid to talk in a classroom discussion) was agree with 55.7%. The highest response for item 13 (I find it easy to make conversation with mates) was agree with 58.6%. The highest response for item 14 (I don't feel nervous when I have to express ideas to others) was agree with 50.0%. The highest response for item 15 (I don't think my friends are honest in their communication with me) was uncertain with 48.6%. The highest response for item 16 (My friends don't listen to my ideas and suggestions in classroom discussions) was disagree with 58.6%. The highest response for item 17 (I don't ask for advice from friends when I have to make decisions) was disagree with 58.6%. The highest response for item 18 (I believe my friends understand my feelings) was uncertain with 57.1%. The highest response for item 19 (My friends don't enjoy discussing my interests and activities with me) was disagree with 51.4%. The highest response for item 20 (My friends listen to my ideas and suggestions) was agree with 65.7%. The highest response for item 21(My friends seek my opinions and advice) was disagree with 51.4%. The highest response for item 22 (My friends are friendly only because they want something out of me) was disagree with 50.0%. The highest response for item 23 (Talking to friends is just a waste of time) was disagree with 82.9%. The highest response for item 24 (My friends just pretend to be listening when I talk) was disagree with 47.1%. The highest response for item 25 (If I got into some kind of trouble, I couldn't talk to anyone about it) was uncertain with 45.7%.

Conclusion

Several conclusions about the students' unwillingness to communicate (UTC) in the Indonesian EFL classroom at higher institution is clearly presented as follows.

First, the data analysis showed that most of the students were willing to participate in EFL group discussions. The students were not afraid to talk in a classroom discussion, they found it easy to make conversation with their mates in EFL classroom, and they disagreed that talking to friends was just a waste of time. This means that maintaining communication to other friends in EFL classroom can give beneficial contribution to enhance students' willingness to communicate. However, the students were unwillingness to express ideas to other students because they felt nervous, and they also were unwillingness to express themselves because they had some fears.

Acknowledgement

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Name   :
Sex   :
Age   :
Program :
Semester :
Course   :

Questionnaire
(Adapted from Burgoon, 1976)

Below is a series of statements concerning your perception on Unwillingness to Communicate. There are no right or wrong answers. Please write the number which corresponds to your answer into the space provided at the end of each sentence.

1   = agree
2   = uncertain
3   = disagree

Please put the number corresponding to your answers in the blank before the statement.

……….. I'm afraid to speak up in classroom discussions.
……….. I don't talk in classroom presentation because I'm shy.
……….. I talk a lot because I am not shy.
……….. I don't like to get involved in group discussions.
……….. In group discussions, I prefer to listen rather than talk.
……….. I feel nervous when I have to express ideas to others.
……….. I have some fears about expressing myself in a group discussion.
……….. I am afraid to express myself in a group.
……….. I like group discussions.
……….. During a group discussion, I prefer to talk rather than listen.
……….. I find it difficult to make conversation with my mates.
……….. I am not afraid to talk in a classroom discussion.
……….. I find it easy to make conversation with mates.
……….. I don't feel nervous when I have express ideas to others.
……….. I don't think my friends are honest in their communication with me.
……….. My friends don't listen to my ideas and suggestions in classroom discussions.
……….. I don't ask for advice from friends when I have to make decisions.
……….. I believe my friends understand my feelings.
……….. My friends don't enjoy discussing my interests and activities with me.
……….. My friends listen to my ideas and suggestions.
……….. My friends seek my opinions and advice.
……….. My friends are friendly to maintain communication only because they want something out of me.
……….. Talking to friends is just a waste of time.
……….. My friends just pretend to be listening when I talk.
……….. If I got into some kind of trouble, I couldn't talk to anyone about it.

Psychological factors of successful foreign language acquisition

Evgeniya O. Shishova

Abstract
The article is dedicated to the study of the internal determination of the effectiveness of teaching non-native languages and to the identification of psychological factors in a person's success in the process of foreign language learning. As psychological determinants of foreign language acquisition, the following are pointed out: language ability, cognitive and emotional factors, motivation, and the subject's personal qualities in a learning activity. The results of an empirical investigation broadening the concept of the structure of language ability are provided. Foreign-language abilities are seen as a complex structure, including the quality of mental processes (auditory comprehension, aural and eye memory, verbal and cognitive activity, imitating abilities) and students' personal qualities (communicative and emotional). Abilities as specific qualities of cognitive processes that directly contribute to the acquisition of materials considerably determine the activity success. Psychological difficulties in the process of foreign language teaching, which are determined by motivational, emotional, cognitive, and personal factors, are defined in the article.
Key words: internal determination, psychological determiners, cogitative perception, language acquisition, communication, prognostic ability

1. Introduction

The increase in the efficiency of teaching has been one of the central subjects of the comprehensive study of modern psychological-pedagogical science over the last decade. One of the most significant questions in pedagogical psychology concerns the definition of the psychological peculiarities of the learner appearing as the subject of the learning activity. Without question, from that point of view, the study of the subject's abilities, determining his or her success in the learning activity, is of great importance.

The success of second language acquisition is determined by several factors: broadly-pedagogical, methodological, broadly-psychological, individual psychological factors. Broadly-pedagogical and methodological factors can be considered as external determinants of the learning activity; broadly-psychological and individual psychological factors create an internal determination of the learning activity.

The effectiveness of the learning activity is considered in the overall context of the determination and refraction of the external through the internal (Rubinstein, 2000), and the internal determination which is a consequence of the functioning of a complex of factors which can be presented in a certain structure is studied.

It is known that one of the major factors ensuring successful foreign language acquisition among school children and students is their foreign-language ability. Along these lines, Kabardov (1985) understands foreign-language abilities to mean individual psychological and psychophysiological features that define a high speed and a high level of language acquisition in corresponding conditions.

The problem of foreign-language abilities is one of the most difficult and still underinvestigated problems, in spite of being thoroughly studied in psychology (Artzishevskaya and Kabardov, 1996; Zimnyaya, 2001; Belyaev, 2005; Dörnyei, 2006; Robinson, 2001; Spolsky, 1995; Nazarenko, 1996; Tyletz, 2009; Shishova and Solobutina, 2013). Determing foreign language ability can be approached from three perspectives:

1) from the perspective of detecting abilities for various aspects of language, for speech abilities, and for receptive and productive speech processes;

2) from the perspective of determining the features of speech processes: perception, memory, cognition which constitute a kernel of the structure of abilities relating to a language material acquisition;

3) from the perspective of determining the influence of individual psychological, characterological and personal features of the person – will, emotions, temperament type, extraversion-introversion type – on the success of foreign language acquisition and skills.

The question of the factors leading to the successful acquisition of foreign language is solved in different ways, depending on the author's mindset, on a theoretical platform, on a concrete methodological system within which foreign language abilities are studied. The researchers studying the motivational and emotional sphere of a person suggest the overwhelming importance of forming a positive motivation for foreign language learning. Researchers studying psychological approaches to foreign language teaching suggest the importance of cognitive and speech processes in speech activity. Others claim that processes of memorizing and storing information serve as a basis in the process of foreign language acquisition.

Views on individual differences in second language acquisition
Connecting foreign-language abilities with the peculiarities of mental processes, psychologists, above all, have studied verbal memory (Robinson, 2003; Zimnyaya, 2001), verbal thinking (Robinson, 2001; Zimnyaya, 2001), and auditory comprehension (Nazarenko, 1996).

Thus, in the research of Zimnaya, Vedenyapina, and Tolkacheva (2000), it was revealed that the peak at the initial grade of foreign language teaching initially falls at the memory. Nevertheless, according to Alybina's (1977) research, the connection between the structure and different types of memory and foreign-language abilities is rather controversial. Besides, mechanical and logical memory data are also of special interest.

It is known that these types of memory differ in ways of memorizing: mechanical memorizing is carried out by simple repetition, most commonly multiple times; logical memorizing presupposes the use of special methods of comprehending the material. It was discovered that students of two groups (capable and less capable learners) do not differ in characteristics of mechanical memorizing, but with a statistically reliable probability differ in logical memory indexes. At a later stage, however, mechanical memory indexes among capable learners became higher, while among less capable learners, they remained the same. Alybina (1977) explains this fact by pointing out that older students who are good at language do not use purely mechanical methods of memorizing new words but draw on language associations of similarity, contrast, or semantic similarity that are peculiar to logical memorizing (Alybina, 1977). Therefore, mechanical memory can be enriched with a system of memorizing methods with a growing level of material comprehension. Those can be called the highest forms of mechanical memory, which cannot be singly acquired by less capable learners.

According to Kabardov's (2013) research, mechanical memory develops among a specific group of students in the process of foreign language learning. Therefore, it is the essential mechanism of this activity and can enter the structure of foreign-language abilities as an individual aspect; however, it is obvious that it is not the key component in the structure under consideration and can be complemented with other components, for example, with logical memory.

Investigation of the features of verbal thinking, carried out by Zimnyaya (1985) and by Reshetnikova (1981), showed great differences between capable and less capable

learners; these distinctions were observed in mental flexibility, in-depth and efficiency of thinking, and in logical reasoning. It must be stressed that the cognitive component of foreign-language abilities, as well as logical memory, are the leading and irretrievable ones. (Reshetnikova, 1981; Zimnyaya, 1985).

Investigations of auditory comprehension were conducted by Zimnyaya (2001) and Nazarenko (1996), viewing it as a component of foreign-language abilities. Perception is a mental process underlying any cognition. Perception precedes teaching information processing and retention. As the results of Nazarenko's (1996) research showed, the level of auditory comprehension among capable students is much higher than among less capable learners or average capable students. On the basis of these results, the author concluded that auditory comprehension, as well as cognition, is the leading and irretrievable component of the structure of foreign-language abilities.

The cognitive processes described above form a cognitive component of foreign-language abilities. Cognition, auditory comprehension, and memory constitute a complex that represents a kernel of foreign-language abilities. In the process of language acquisition, cognition contributes to its semantic organization, memory, that is, to its fixation. Accordingly, at the level of the speech activity on which language material is activated and carried to the conclusive acquisition, cognition provides generation of thoughts, their repertoire, depth and change, and memory, that is, the actualization of a linguistic form adequate to these thoughts. In the speech, the activity provides listening comprehension and self-control in the process of foreign language speaking.

When carrying out a methodic experiment Zimnyaya (2001) suggested assessing the learning ability of participants, first of all on the basis of their verbal memory characteristics, on the learner's ability to distribute his or her attention between a linguistic form and content, and on the ease of transfer of acquired language units and intellectual actions into changed conditions. Zimnyaya (2001) considers that these mental qualities appearing in complex interrelations condition the level of foreign language acquisition abilities.

It is important to note the impossibility of cognition to exist in isolation from emotions. Thus, Vilyunas (2004) noted that emotions accomplish certain functions; evaluation and motivation are the most generals of these, in that they emphasize the purposes in a cognitive image and motivate to a suitable action depending on the cognitive content of a mental image. The study of the interrelations among emotional and cognitive phenomena goes back to the works of Vygotsky, Leontyev, Rubenstein's.

Vygotsky (2000) strongly advised against limited research only into operational components of thinking. He believed that the separation of thinking from affect, once and for all, blocks the way, leading to the explanation of the causes of thinking itself, as the deterministic analysis of thinking necessarily involves exposing the motives of thought, needs, and interests, motivations and tendencies that guide the movement of thought in one direction or another.

In the works of Leontyev (1975), thinking is viewed as an activity that has its affective regulation, directly expressing its bias. A deeper reason for the partiality of activity is the occurrence of "personal meanings" in its structure. A connection is established between the concepts of "emotion" and "personal meaning". The function of emotions is to bring the subject to their actual source. They indicate the personal meaning of events happening in the subject's life. However, there exists no complete similarity between these concepts, but a complex relationship, conditioned by the development of the human motivational sphere.

Rubinstein's thesis (2000) states that thinking, as a real mental process, is a unity of intellectual and emotional elements, while emotion is a unity of emotional and intellectual elements.

A semantic theory of thinking (Tikhomirov, 2002) emerged within the framework of the system-activity approach. Based on this theory, research is conducted in the field of emotional regulation of mental activity. In particular, the studies focus on the emotional regulation of thinking activity under conditions of different motivations - external and internal. The findings demonstrate that there exist different types of emotional regulations, characterized by a different place and role of emotions in the system regulating mental activity. The role of emotional processes in regulating an activity increases with the transition from the activity determined by the external motivation to the activity with internal motivation.

Thus, the two main functions attributed to emotions are informational and motivational functions. Two principal ways of their influence on thinking are: emotions can change the information on which mental processes are based. They can influence the methods and ways of processing information. In the last 20 years, the hypothesis that emotions fulfill the information function has been developing in two main directions: the information theory of emotions (Ortoni, 1988, Damasio, 1994) and the theory of emotional readiness for action (Schwartz, 1997).

The influence of emotions on an activity obeys the well-known rule of Yerkes-Dodson (1908), postulating the optimal level of stress for each particular type of work. The decrease in emotional tones, as a result of the subjects' reduced interest in the matter or their complete awareness of it, leads to drowsiness, loss of vigilance, the omission of significant signals, and slow reactions. On the other hand, an excessively high level of emotional tension disorganizes activity, complicates it, increases response to extraneous, insignificant signals, leads to primitive actions such as a blind search by trial and error method.

Above all, emotions condition a dynamic aspect of cognitive functions, the tone, and tempo of activity, its "mood" towards this or that level of activity. For this reason, an emotional component of the cognitive process is included in the structure of the successful foreign language acquisition (MacIntyre, 2002). However, an emotional component can play both a constructive and a destructive role in the cognitive process, expressing the person's emotional and evaluative attitude to the process of language acquisition and to the acquired information (Vilyunas (2004), Rubenstein (2000), etc.). Hebbu experimentally demonstrated the dependence of a person's activity success on his emotional excitement (Nemov, 1999). Thus, both too weak and too strong emotional excitement is undesirable for achieving the highest results in the process of foreign language acquisition. There is an optimal level of emotional excitement for each person that provides the maximum efficiency. Foreign language learners' emotional state influences their attention, perception, memory, and cognitive processes, which are the core of foreign-language abilities in different ways.

Emotionally colored information provides motivation and better acquisition of material; on the other hand, a condition of hyper excitement, despondence, and lack of interest disorganize the activity and weaken the work of all cognitive processes.

As Isard rightly notes (1993), the emotional system rarely functions independently of other systems. Certain emotions or sets of emotions almost always manifest themselves in interactions with the perceptual, cognitive, and motor systems. Consequently, the person's effective functioning depends on how balanced and integrated the activities of various systems are.

Apart from mental and emotional processes, the success structure also includes the personal qualities of the individual. The works of such researchers as Artzishevskaya and Kabardov (1996), Asmolov (2002), Nazarenko (1996), Dörnyei (2006), Robinson (2001), etc. point out the necessity of studying abilities in a broad personal context.

Foreign languages teaching is directly connected with verbal and cognitive activity and the mechanisms of speech. Zhinkin's (1998) research showed that the speech activity is based not only on the functioning of elementary physiological mechanisms

of the "stimulus-response" type but presupposes the participation of special mechanisms providing the semantic composition of a speech act.

A number of general-functional and specific mechanisms related to the three phases of the speech activity are emphasized in the works of Zimnyaya (2001): motivational-initiating orientational-investigative and executive. In relation to the first phase of the speech activity, a mechanism of motivation, which is initial, is observed. Two other phases coincide with such mechanisms as advanced reflection, comprehension, short term and permanent memory, and also specific speech mechanisms among which Zimnyaya (2001) considers the mechanisms of logic sense, the mechanisms of the internal arrangement of a statement (a complex of selection, comparison, compilation, combination, structuring etc. operations). A mechanism of probable prognosis (advanced reflections), which belongs to a group of analytico-synthetic mechanisms, is responsible for an individual's verbal field, advance, prognosis, accuracy, and speed of speech actions and for the ability to evaluate the linguistic probability of a word's or statement's appearance. It supports the growth of the ability to perceive speech in advance.

According to Regush (2003), the success of different types of human activity is connected with a demonstration of prognostic abilities or possibly even demands them. As evidence of that, the researcher refers to a separation of prognostics into an independent science and the existence of physiological prerequisites that act as analogs of prognostic ability development. Prognostic ability appears at different levels of cognitive activity: at a sensory-perceptive level, at the level of conceptualization, and at the verbal and cogitative level (Lomov, Surkov, 1980).

Speech prognosis became a special object of study in a series of studies conducted by Granik and Bondarenko. The results of these investigations revealed that anticipation (prognostic ability) is included in the cognitive processes of different levels where, due to reconstruction of movements, actions, and thoughts or their temporary advance is preceded.

It should be kept in mind that the motivation for foreign language study is one of the core aspects of a foreign language teaching methodology (Dörnyei, 2001, 2006; MacIntyre, 2002). For many years, researchers have been speaking about the learning activity and its success, implying above all the leading role of an individual's intellectual level. Doubtless, the value of this aspect should not be underestimated. Thus, having tested a group of students–teachers to be on a general IQ scale and having compared the testing data with the level of learning achievements data, it was discovered that there is no significant connection between IQ and learning achievements, neither in special subjects, nor in the general education discipline block. (Rean, 2002). Another essential regularity became apparent: after all it turned out that "capable" and "incapable" students differ from each other, not in I.Q., but rather in the strength quality and type of motivation for learning activity. Internal motivation is typical for capable students (Yakunin and Meshkov,1980,1995): they need to master a profession at a high level; they target on receiving lasting professional knowledge and practical skills. As for less capable students, their motives are generally external, situational: it is important to avoid condemnation and punishment for poor study and not to forfeit grants for such students. The results of the investigation allow claiming that a high positive motivation can compensate for a lack of special abilities or poor knowledge and skills. However, this compensation does not work in reverse. In other words, no matter how capable and erudite a student is, he would not achieve learning success without a desire to study.

Learner strategies in second language acquisition
The concepts "types of teaching" and "types of acquisition" (strategy, style) certainly have shared roots; they are the stable psychophysiological complexes of symptoms providing a specific way of information processing (verbal and logical, grammatical,

formal, abstract, on the one hand, figurative-effective, semantic, concrete, on the other). "Type of teaching" is an external factor representing a system of influence, "type of acquisition" is an internal one, providing information processing (reaction).

The investigations of Kabardova (1996) showed that the individually stable characteristics of learners that define foreign language acquisition as successful or non-successful appear, at least, in three dimensions:

a) in communication behavior during the learning process;

b) in the main characteristics of cognitive processes (qualitative-quantitative correlation of activity results, speed parameters of the flow of verbal and thought processes, the volume of perception and types of memory);

c) in the natural prerequisites of ability bioelectric indicators of nervous system properties, the acoustic and visual analyzers, and interhemispheric brain asymmetry characteristics).

Two main types of foreign language acquisition were emphasized (Kabardov, 2013) on the basis of the obtained data -: "communicative and speech" and "cognitive and linguistic". The mixed third type combines the elements of both types of foreign language acquisition.

The communicative type is characterized by the following features:

• the communicative activity (under observation);

• the general success in learning by an intensive method (according to the teacher's estimates);

• an attention orientation to the speech activity (speech) (on pupils' self-evaluation);

• a relative balance of voluntary and involuntary memorization, a higher efficiency of auditory comprehension, more detailed material reproduction;

• the ability to recognize a visual object at a short-term presentation;

• a high nonverbal score (on Wechsler's scale);

• lability in the second-signal system, higher speed parameters of cognitive and speech activity, the speed of perception of a verbal instruction presented aurally;

• a relatively high volume of language and speech production (speech fluency), an existence of poor answers, stereotypes, repetitions, failed word phrases, etc.;

• an unsuccessful solution of tasks aimed at detection of language regularities;

• activity is generally characterized by involuntariness, impetuosity, and contracted actions (brevity of approximate actions, lesser self-control).

For the non-communicative (linguistic) type, the following is typical:

• a monotony of communicative actions (passivity in foreign language communication, length speech actions, difficulties with aural speech perception) (under a teacher's observation);

• a relatively successful foreign language acquisition in comparison to foreign-language speech skills and abilities (according to a teacher's estimates);

• a focus of attention on the language system (language) (on pupils' self-evaluation);

• a prevalence of a voluntary type of memory, a higher visual memory for graphics and expression of simply verbalized images (a double reinforcement) (experimental data);

• the ability for verbal description (analysis) of a standard's distinctive features distinguishing it from other similar images at a longer exposition (10 sec.) with an occasional inability to identify it;

• a higher level of verbal intelligence, a comparatively high degree of verbal logical activity style expressiveness;

• an inertness in the second-signal system, a slow verbal instruction perception, and aural processing;

• a comparatively small volume of language and speech production in the presence of better performance of certain linguistic tasks (in the absence of stereotypic answers, failed word phrases, repetitions), high quality of resolving linguistic tasks in language

analysis, a comparatively high speed on the solution of analytical solutions and on obtaining sought-for answers.

Conclusion

From our point of view, success in foreign language acquisition represents a system of interconnected components that has a certain developmental thrust and undergoes certain changes. Motivational, cognitive, emotional, and personal components are possible to be included among the key components of a successful acquisition.

Thus, foreign language learning is determined by a system of motives for language acquisition and use based on a conscious need for foreign language acquisition. Motivation as the systemic component integrates cognitive (cognitive motives), emotional (the emotional attitude to a learned language), and personal (personal orientation) characteristics of foreign language learners' motivational sphere.

The cognitive component in the success system unites attention, perception, cognition, and memory and substantially defines the level of foreign language acquisition success. The effective foreign language acquisition process is provided primarily with cognitive process features and such cognitive activity qualities as depth, flexibility, conclusiveness, perspective, analyticity, sensibleness development level. The positive dynamic in foreign language acquisition is provided through the development of semantic (visual and acoustic) perceptions and through a verbal-subject, auditory and visual memory. Their unity is considered to be a psychological mechanism whereby all types of speech activity are carried out.

The emotional component of foreign language acquisition is revealed through an individual's emotional and evaluative attitude toward the foreign language learning process and an emotional experience of this process.

The personal component is presented by a foreign language learner's personal features, included in the process of teaching. They are: self-evaluation, level of aspiration, personal orientation, success/failure experience, extra-introversion aspect, level of anxiety (language and speech), confidence – lack of confidence aspect, installation type, and others. The level of a foreign language acquisition success depends on a system of a subject's personal operation.

Taking into consideration that success in foreign language acquisition represents a system of interconnected components, interruptions in the interrelations of various components of the success structure lead to psychological difficulties in the process of foreign language acquisition caused by motivational, cognitive, emotional, personal factors which reduce foreign language learning efficiency and lead to difficulties in foreign-language communication.

In summary, the process of teaching a foreign language demands the consideration of a whole complex of factors that are reflected in the success ratio, in opportunities of mutual compensation and stimulation of various components while maintaining the demanded success level. It means, first, that foreign language acquisition success depends on the cumulative impact of psychological factors, and secondly, that the study of success has to be carried out in the totality of its interconnected and interdependent characteristics.

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On the salience of becoming a creative foreign language teacher

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Abstract
The paper discusses the aspects of creativity found to be essential for a foreign language teacher. The elements of professionally anchored creativity, having been juxtaposed with the segments of a language lesson, are meant to serve as a form of illustration that the final effect of any foreign language course depends on a creativity-based organization. Thus, an attempt to contrast and subsequently analyze script-labeled teacher approaches to foreign language education is made, and different creativity-inducing forms of foreign language lesson organization are presented in the paper.
Key words: foreign languages, creativity, creativity features, creativity types

Introduction

The general notion of a foreign language (FL) lesson assumes that it is learners who are given appropriate instructions on different forms of grammar rule-dependent linguistic behavior that is subsequently related to some context-bound out-of-language situations. Such an approach actually means that /1/an FL teacher has to decide on the scope and content of any lesson delivered to students, and/2/ the pupils taking part in such a lesson have to be given clear instructions that should at least partly cover their assumptions as to what a given FL lesson is for. The two issues should not only be paired but should also be organized in a way that ought to help FL learners recognize short (but also long) term targets each of them hopes to meet. It has to be clearly indicated at the beginning of any FL course that what primarily matters for the teachers is not the completion of a course-book, nor the realization of course-curriculum didactic implications, but the fulfillment of the expectations of any FL course participants. In other words, it is the learning-driven form of teacher-student interaction (cf. Webster, Beveridge, Reed, 2002) that appears to be the foremost suitable one in the situation specified here.

The model offered by Webster et al. (ibid) assumes educational partnership of both the teacher and the students in the way that the students are not only the executors but also the creative indicators of the whole process of FL education; not only do they know where they want to arrive at, but also why they need to get involved in the educational process neatly organized by their teacher.

Current forms of FL education

What is currently possible to observe in many language classrooms is the recognition of the language the students are to work with as a foreign one. Following this form of educational acceptance of teacher-student behavior, a number of activities stressing the recognition of the subject matter of a lesson (i.e. the language) as a foreign one is being introduced. One of them has been labeled as stress on FL correctness. Such an approach actually means that when organizing a school-based FL course, what it has to be primarily based upon is putting language correctness before language fluency and producer-led forms of teaching before user-led ones. But also such an approach actually means eliminating most (if not all) of the typically observed (and applied) communicative techniques from an FL lesson. It is believed an FL course participant has to learn many of the language contents before they can be

allowed to participate in all the naturally emerging forms of linguistic interaction freely.

This form of education results in the application of frontal teacher-led lessons where what appears to be of primary importance is the mistake-free conduct of FL learners. Despite the fact that making mistakes has been allowed by theoreticians claiming the introduction of the method particulars (on condition they do not obstruct the correctness of the message) many teachers are still able to intervene when a mistake has been discovered. What is more, the exercises stressing language correctness appear to be far more popular among teachers than the ones where fluency is at stake. On the other hand, this form of lesson conduct, when accepted by learners, pushes them into the position of teacher-dependent reproducers of the language, which, in turn, means they gradually start believing that /1/ they have to learn a lot to meet their teacher's requirements and /2/ the language they have started to learn is difficult, full of unexpected traps and hardly used phrases or expressions. Because of the fact they have started recognizing language learning as a form of production where possible mistakes matter a lot, many of them have been able to develop Krashen-advocated monitoring of over-user attitudes and thus prefer not to say anything they are not sure of rather than make a mistake and experience their teacher's criticism. It is easy to guess that this form of FL learning makes them fully teacher-dependent and pushes them away from the moment when they come to understand why they learn in the language they do. It is also easy to expect that the syndrome of language anxiety may develop in many of them as well.

This producer-led form of language deliverance results in the appearance of the creation of a mistaken idea of what an FL is for in the minds of many FL course participants. First of all, it results in the appearance of a clear definition of the usefulness of the language (and thus of the short-term and – hazily observed – long-term goals it is to be learned for); it is namely learned/1/ to please the teacher, /2/ to earn a positive grade and /3/ to gain some safe and breath-giving position in the classroom (as the teacher cannot ask one learner all the time). As one can see, there is no place for communication on the list, mostly because communication is recognized as a far-located activity after one has learned to use the language in a mistake-free way. There is also no mention of communication particulars; this is mostly because communication has never become an important asset in the whole process of FL education; quite the contrary, the course particulars have placed communication (as a natural element of interaction) as an obvious and obligatory element of the FL course after all the activities proposed by the teacher have been completed in a highly satisfactory way. In this way, there appeared an unsaid promise that placed learners' possibilities to take part in FL communication as the final outcome of their highly-involved participation in an FL course. The question of whether such a situation (taking into account the conditions in which it was delivered to the learners) is practically possible has been left unanswered.

The notion of creativity in FL education – issues and outcomes

Numerous cognitive approaches in research, interpretation, and development of creativity have survived over the years. These theories try to explain various aspects of thinking and the processes influencing creative activities as they respect the influence of a cognitive style on creative thinking (Muglova et al. 2017). Feuerstein (1990) observes that the aspects that have to be taken into account during the design of a lesson (FL lessons included) have to comprise - apart from content, modality, or efficiency – such aspects as an abstraction (required to conceive of any mental activity), or a number of clearly defined cognitive operations, so as to have any mental act effectively performed by its participants. Any of the two final (i.e. specified above) mental act components appears to perform particular functions in the

process of FL deliverance to students. The second of them, i.e. cognitive operations are to provide a link between the target and the mother tongue mental lexicons on the one hand and the external world on the other; whereas the abstraction component should help a learner focus upon the processes and constructions necessary to produce a description of the out-of-language situation in the way following its verbal/phonetic picture required by the target language. In this way, both components (apart from many others not specified here) push foreign language education towards a situation where active and creative (observed both on the side of a learner and a teacher) behavior is a must and where any other form of FL acquisition will prove largely ineffective and psychologically tiring. It is in this way that the notion of creativity in education has to be observed and analyzed; it has to be systematically introduced into various FL education activities.

Creativity is recognized as one of the basic pillars of human existence; its essential, cognitively defined component that shapes the scope of human personality. Being creative means, as Reed (2015) calls it, non-stereotypical thinking, original propositions, not conforming to standards, outlining new frameworks, and new areas of human functioning. Rosenberg (2015) believes that it is not possible to have a homogeneous and straightforward definition of creativity, mainly because of its multiform nature; it can manifest itself either in the form of unique thinking, unusual, hardly expected portions of imagination, or in the form of non-standard solutions to a particular problem: as an original and innovative way out from a particular situation, or as a suddenly appearing mental opportunity to behave in a completely new and unique way. Being creative requires specific conditions: a sense of freedom, of consent for impeccable travel in the unfettered space of human thought. Being creative means being yourself apart from yourself, in the company of unrestrained thoughts that swirl freely in contact with each other and create unparalleled, artificially configured configurations; creating a number of innovative, unexpected ways of interconnection, resulting in a series of crazy - at first sight - ideas that later grow into logical and meaningful conditions, becoming over time important segments of the functioning rituals of some groups of society. Thus, being a creative member of a local community (classroom community included) means functioning in an open society, capable of accepting and discussing a number of emerging, demanding solutions.

Because the sense of creativity is expressed in many different ways, its precise definition is not (so far) possible. However, according to Maley (2015), in any case, encountering creativity (i.e. that which is perceived as creative), it is possible to recognize, experience, and define the scope of creative action. Given the description of the functioning of the phenomenon of creativity provided by Wallas (2014), as an attempt to define the scope of its functioning both within the whole human community and in the mind of each of its members, it should be noted that the whole process of shaping of that which is to be labeled as creative, as well as its subsequent emergence, approach, product, etc., begins with the search for as much information as possible carried out in any (more or less explicit) way and closely related to the particular case one wants to solve. The human mind is immersed as if in the information gathered, allowing their unconscious flow, haphazard mutual contact, until (not very sure, because this moment may never come) the moment of appearance of concrete, acting as a sudden injection of illumination, thought that makes one strongly and convincingly believe that the right and best solution to the problem has been found. The final phase of the process consists of verifying and practically checking the proposed solution and – as a rule, after several analyzes related to various possible opinions on the subject, which one intends to present - its public presentation. In this way, opportunities, tightly hidden in the mind of one person, can

become an evident part of the culture of a given society, its basis for the functioning and organization of life.

The core of the function of creativity is the idea of creating something in another, innovative, and unheard-of way. This positioning of the notion of creativity and the fact that the human (mammal) entity is naturally predisposed to being creative – as demonstrated by Kőhler (1976) in his famous chimpanzee experiment – means that attempts to measure, emphasize, and promote this feature, as well as the question of how natural human creativity can be transformed into an action promoting the functioning of the human community have long been sought for; such an approach has become one of the essential forms of human research not only because creativity has allowed for the creation of a system that evidently promotes a simpler and more organized life, but also that with its help it was (and still is) possible to effectively have such a better life organized. In his book Koestler (1989) observes that the function of creativity lies in the act of bisociation, i.e. confronting at least two apparently independent matrices and seeing the effects of such confrontation. Furthermore, the author considers it possible to carry out strictly planned empirical forms of this type of activity, believing that it will facilitate the appearance of illumination in a series of inventive activities or the discovery of a number of new ways of functioning specific parts of human activity. This approach, however, also means accepting activities aimed at learning/ discovering the forms of creative thinking; from this perspective, creativity is not only a natural human tendency but can be shaped, visualized, emphasized, trained, and used to achieve specific (earlier-planned) actions.

It is precisely in this moment that one should ask an important question about the forms and the ways that can be used in school learning so that the school becomes a forerunner of creative, well-meaning, and independent people, people not looking for salvation or counseling in others, but those certain of their capacity to cope within their lives. It seems that one of these platforms of educational activity, which is specifically designed to shape such beliefs among people, is linguistic activity (Lewandowska 2017). Apart from the fact that the globalization of human life has been brought up to unprecedented proportions, the fact that such recent inventions as television, personal computers, cell phones, and many other products of human creativity that clearly facilitate and stigmatize everyday human functioning are based on language performance, is never to be left unnoticed. This is mostly why one should consider not only whether the school is ready for this task, but also how to do it.

The situation in foreign language teaching presented in the first part of this paper, stressing large technical divisions and inconsistencies of glottodidactic activities (both within course organizers and teachers themselves, which mostly results in the appearance of passive students), means that many participants of language courses are not able to see quite a number of important and educationally valid elements that fall within the scope of language learning. Closing oneself within the traditional and partly fossilized structures of the IRF (Intonation – Response – Feedback) syndrome, where students are not actually given a chance to really understand what a foreign language is, cannot, in the long run, lead to real dissemination of knowledge of a foreign language. Becoming proficient in a foreign language is definitely not to be connected with the fast, continuous transmission of information naturally expected of the teacher and its repeated re-play by pupils (whose internal, mental contact with the context is either unspecified or weak). Similar to the situation observed in the case of mother tongue learning, students must be given a possibility to have recreated internal conditions that let them reappear genuine interest in specific context-referring phrases and terms used by users of a given language. In other words, the students must be given a chance to participate in a situation that they consider as their own. Following Feuerstein's (1990) theory of

mediation, children will genuinely participate in task-solving situations (i.e. ask a series of task-solving questions), only with those who they themselves have recognized as competent and capable of resolving the doubts that they have undergone during the (not fully successful) analysis of the situations in which they participate. In other words, the three basic issues of the theory of mediation must be met, and the solution of each of them must be primarily considered relevant by the student and not by the teacher. Answering a specific question must thus be assessed as cognitively important; it has to result in the appearance of concrete, cognitively justified mental connections, and, finally, its communication by the teacher ought to be assessed by the learner as technically involving. Only in this way will a student "open up to knowledge", i.e. recognize and internalize specific parts of the message, then test it and, in the case of positive test results, use it in practice. Internalized knowledge is the knowledge that a student can use when they consider it is important for them to support themselves with it. This means that knowledge stored artificially, in a loose connection to the external and/or internal context, is in many cases intentional knowledge, stored only in order to achieve a specific external goal; and that, very often, this knowledge, after obtaining the indicated target by the learner, is the knowledge that is voluntarily and purposefully destined for oblivion.

Such kind of targeted knowledge is very often the school knowledge, stored in order to positively pass a diagnostic or any other type of test (e.g. the matriculation exam). In many cases, students force themselves (or are forced by their teachers) to store it without seeing any other benefits other than those mentioned above. Only when they begin to participate in a series of replicating situations in which they will perceive specific individual and long-term benefits one can talk about the appearance of personally marked self-directed actions, such as those that will result in a number of other long-term benefits to the students, apart from these they do consider as obvious (e.g. a passed test).

Language-related issues have been analyzed many times and by different authors (Harmer, 2001; Harmer, 2003, Dakowska, 2005; Entlova et al., 2017; Scrivener, 2005, and others). In each case, the proposed forms of linguistic education assumed the appearance of three basic elements: the introduction (input), the self-made explanation of the known material segment (intake), and the implemented training (output). In this way, Harmer (2003) believes that it is necessary to introduce a closely related glottodidactic triad, acronymized as ESA by the author, and defined there as methodologically important; it entails the student's interest in the topic (E – engage) - organizing the process of analyzing and synthesizing specific thematic information (S – study) - carrying out the linguistic activation process within the unit cognitive (A – activate). According to the author's assumptions, such activities can be freely altered and exchanged so that learners have the widest spectrum of topic-specific information (that should come closest to their cognitive response system), that will enable them to initiate and implement both the entire implementation system and the active use of specific knowledge segments of both declarative and procedural type. Gondova (2012), in turn, while carefully analyzing both the order and the effectiveness of the appearance of particular lesson-included segments, indicates the five stages she recognizes as obligatorily present in the foreign language lesson: /1/ exposing the student to specific structures of the second language; /2/ making the student observe the functioning of the discussed structures; /3/ creating a situation in which learner is able to understand context-dependent language structure/form; /4/ organize language training of given structure/form under the strict supervision of the teacher; and, finally, /5/ the learner's departure to 'wider waters', i.e. placing them in an environment of more authentic use of the target language´s structures/forms.

In both cases, it is apparent that the student is expected to work on a particular learning FL structure or form, but simultaneously, it is the teacher who is

made responsible for all that the learner will do during such organized language classes. However, none of the authors presented above take seriously the matter of the student's internal attitude to language activities, i.e. a whole range of effective shades that make the student more or less motivated to work on the language; students are simply expected to attend classes, study the language, honestly and meticulously practice the use of specific language structures/phrases, whether or not they are interested in this type of behavior.

This type of procedure does not take into account the fact that it is the student who is ultimately to become the beneficiary of the entire language course. As the use of something must be closely related to understanding the meaning of the thing, the student should first understand the appropriateness of using a given language structure to describe a particular situational context; what seems important here – is that the desire for that understanding should come from the student. One cannot assume in advance that students will always admit to a teacher; the students will recognize their power and competence, but they will always stick to their own will and externally (not internally) growing conviction that the description of a particular out-of-language reality should only be made with the knowledge of the linguistic structure or form they have just come across. When students do not acquire such an inner conviction, it could be assumed that they will prefer the application of those terms that are closer to them (what, in many cases, will result in the appearance of a negative transfer). A situation like this may even occur when the student was honestly training the use of particular structures or phrases of the language to describe the situation related to a given out-of-language episode, i.e. the reality created by the topic of the lesson.

The explanations for the appearance of this type of situation may be found in many of the above-mentioned moments of educational contact with a language learner; it seems, however, that the most likely explanation for the situation described above is the mere fact of misunderstanding the authentic need to use a concrete description of reality by the student. While remembering that the use of language is always associated with a specific situational context, the participant of the communication contact must want to use a specific language structure or phrase to describe the particular reality in which the participant is currently taking part (see also Birova et al.). The level of internalization of a given (selected by the communication participant) structure/phrase must be so deep that they know that in a given situation, the correct description of a given out-of-language reality does take place. So if despite intense training, concrete expressions did not affect the phase of internalization (and therefore were not permanently attached to deep memory in a way that could be used in any significant situation), they would most likely not be used by the student even if the external context would allow for such an option.

In this context, a number of features commonly observed in the school and extra-curricular education system need to be considered, first and foremost, those characteristics that positively describe the language lesson. One of the basic features of foreign language learning seems to be the correct application of issues of language course-related creativity, as well as – closely connected with it – the notion of the attractiveness of which the selected course-book topic problem is being presented as.

As it has already been noticed, creativity is an important part of the cognitive process, allowing students not only to closely associate with a specific, re-worked subject but also to experiment and/or test known issues. In this light, creative activities used during classes mean quite a distinct change of classroom voices; in addition to allowing the learner to accept/reject a number of issues related to the teacher (such as the topical contents of their work, for example), the more active (and critical) position of the learner during the course, the forms used to fix the material and the use of the provided knowledge, the learner also has the right to decide on

matters related to the speed, quality, and quantity of the material being processed. Based on the basic issues arising from the theory of mediation, the learner decides whether the classes are to be more or less intensive, whether the duration of any activities included in the classes is to be strictly defined, or whether the topic fixing exercises proposed by the teacher should be given a more (or less) regular, i.e. routine-following, form. Finally, the decision whether the teacher's suggested ways of working on the language are those with which the learners can make important progress during their work on the language is also to belong to the learner. An approach like this indicates a clear desire to create an autonomous attitude in the learners, so as to place them in a situation in which it is the learner themselves who is to take on the obligation to work on the language, and the commitment that they will promise to do so, mainly because they want to. These activities form the basis of the classical concept of motivation and therefore promote the situation in which, apart from the learner's consent to work in order to realize their dreams, in effect, there are also a number of affective factors which constitute a specific "fuel" for the learner's long-term commitment to continue various forms of specified educational activity. Any poorly motivated (or not motivated at all) learner, who is constantly reminded what to do to make their teacher relatively happy, is motivated only by specific actions that mostly do not involve learning a foreign language for themselves because such a feeling has been effectively replaced by the concept of learning a foreign language in order to satisfy the teacher (and often - to save their own skin). This form of learning the language is certainly used to accumulate specific knowledge, only to let it disappear after satisfying a particular purpose. Therefore, the proposed change should foster liberation in the learner of greater responsibility for their future, to create in them a sense of lifelong language education and the permanence of the indestructibility of learning. It is to be remembered that well-planned creative activities certainly offer learners such opportunities.

From a technical point of view, any language lesson, and one which ultimately aims to regain learner autonomy, should simultaneously meet two assumptions; in addition to settling its high creative potential, it should also have a high degree of thematic attractiveness. In other words, it should contain – at the same time – two factors: fun and creativity. The fun factor defines the level of attractiveness of a particular language lesson; the creativity one describes the potential of creativity emerged mainly due to the lesson-connected subject matter during class activities. Both factors simultaneously depend on each other, although their objectives during the lesson are different. The fun factor is the factor influencing mainly the external affective situation of the learner, and its task is to create a cover of attractiveness around all the activities that are being carried out in the classroom. The creativity factor, in turn, is a totally-educative factor, promoting the learner's self-reliance (or being recognized by the learner as such) in gaining knowledge in the lesson-defined area. In this way, both factors overlap, and the lack (or insufficient quantity) of one of them strongly hinders the functioning of the second factor.

The fun factor refers to the learner's affective sphere; it is, therefore, a factor that is entirely responsible for the learner's internal motivation for work and a willingness to engage personally in all activities related to the resolution of specific out-of-language created problems by means of known (internalized) foreign structures/expressions, despite existing awareness of the potential loss of a learner's face. The well-formed attractiveness of a language lesson that encourages learners to try their own linguistic activity and search in their deep memory for the appropriate expressions necessary to become effective as far as the description of a particular reality is concerned should constitute significant facilitation in terms of its always-performing linguistic functions. It is to be assumed that it is from this perspective i.e. the perspective of the objectively estimated level of topic attractiveness that Krashen's

key hypothesis discussing the position and role of the affective filter in the acquisition of the target language is to be observed. Here too, one can notice close congruence with the basic postulates of Feuerstein's theory of mediation, especially with the view that one of the basic options on which the whole system of voluntary learning is based is the option of the language learner´s acceptance of the techniques and cognitive methods proposed to the learner by the teacher. The attractiveness of language classes, appropriately shaped and introduced in the contents of the lesson, becomes important for the learner as they begin to understand both the meaning of the particular lesson-included task, as well as the overall meaning of the pro-educational long-term activity proposed by the teacher. This approach will apply not only to children but also to younger students (although there is certainly a lot of room for the deliverance of effective pro-educational activities found in it), and to every participant of language classes regardless of age.

The issue of attractive language learning organization seems to be quite closely related to the issue of creativity. Creativity, as such, generally involves individual human activity, which means that at the moment when they have been personally appointed to carry out a particular activity, it becomes a task-related point of reference for them – that is, the activity that is to be thought out, analyzed, programmed – and finally performed. In order to avoid learner's individual exposure, i.e. a situation that is a significant stressor for many people, it is important to introduce attractive ways of organizing the resolution of tasks; this is where group task activities, task-based teaching, and/or various forms of contact with the target language, based on (mostly solved with other participants in a given group) quizzes, tests or other forms of group-based learning activities aimed primarily at creating a common answer to the task, based on a logical constructional basis (e.g. a project targeted to design a supermarket flyer, information on air connections, possible railway travels to some other city or country, etc.) should be introduced. In addition to meaningful language immersion activities learners, while remaining under the education-potent influence of creativity factor, must perform a number of other activities, such as the required language for the – specified above – folder or flyer, the semantic validity of the terms used, the search for relevant phrases and linguistic structures and such like. In this way, the learners themselves decide to fit into the rhythm and requirements of the task that is to be performed in order to finally show others the effects of their activity and get their opinions on what they have accomplished.

In his essay on the principles and rules of school-based creativity Maley (2015) explicitly remarks that one of the basic tasks of a language lesson is to provide learners with the feeling that their efforts will be appropriately appreciated by the other participants of the course, e.g. by publishing the final effects of their class activity on the class website, or in the wall newspaper. This kind of behavior not only makes it very clear to the students that the end goals of a particular task have been met, but also – being socially attractive – suggests that they participated in an exchange of views on the subject that – as it seems – is currently most relevant to them.

Tomlinson (2014), while pointing to the fact that the vast majority of books intended for foreign language learning are unfortunately not appropriately inclined towards creative activities (in this way being, in principle, adapted to strictly diagnostic activities introduced during a language lesson), observes that most of them can be changed to foster creative activity in the classroom. In this way, according to the main postulate found in this article, teachers promoting the creative functioning of their learners are the people who remember that this type of activity must remain an open-based one so as to encourage the learners to take risks and express their own opinions (each of which having the same didactic relevance in the moment of its

production); in this way, a creative task must promote authentic communication, based on the desire to present a learner's own original opinions on a particular topic; additionally, it must also be able to help learners personally discover the meaning of statements and descriptions of a particular reality.

Conclusion

It is clearly indicated by many authors promoting foreign language learning based on creative activities and – in this way – clearly shaping the contours of the picture belonging to the autonomous learner that the beginning of the sequence that creates the foreign language creative class still remains in the hands of a language teacher. It is mainly up to them whether a learner, initially unaware of the obvious and clearly seen differences between the lessons devoted to FL learning and the ones spent on the education of other subjects, can later understand that language learning does not depend on their persistence in senseless cramming of the structures and phrases in question, but on the concrete, authentic use of the known terms, even at the price of numerous errors in their use. This is – as it seems – the only way to let the learner become infallible in numerous activities that aim to describe a particular reality in words. The authors make an attempt to help language teachers adjust the vast majority of the currently functioning course-books into ones that can stimulate the creative activities of their users, promoting their self-directed, cognitive, and affective activities.

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Interviewing students about the significance of punctuation marks among modern youth

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Abstract
In the modern linguistic literature, without taking into account new qualitative changes in contemporary syntactic theory, the theory of text science and speech activity, the view of the consideration of punctuation as a separate section of syntax still prevails. If the linguistic environment changes and the language has the ability to adapt to changes in real life, changes that are observed in a particular speech practice must first be seen as a new but standard, communicative, and pragmatic phenomenon (pauses, deviations). After all, speech and language are interrelated phenomena. Both are two other units of the system. From this point of view, changes made in the syntactic structure of speech should be recognized as consequences of non-verbal communication in non-oral (written) communication.
Despite the recognition of the importance of many definitions and studies presented for punctuation, the generally recognized values of textbooks, the emergence of various additional clarifications, and changes relating to punctuation indicate the need to take into account the qualitative changes occurring in the practice of punctuation marks and punctuation-graphic means. In particular, the results of the survey among students clarify this opinion.
Key words: punctuation, punctuation marks, punctuation norm, paragraphemic, emoticons

Introduction

One of the spiritual achievements of mankind is writing. The miracle of writing is that it is not limited to time or distance. On the one hand, it has a historically developed system; on the other hand, it has the ability to transform in accordance with modern requirements. For many years, the problem of punctuation, which is the main means of written language, along with writing in the language, graphics, spelling, is obviously a source of debate for scientists for many years. Punctuation of different languages is characterized by their internationality because of their graphical system without taking into account alphabetical features.

That is why they (punctuation marks) have been identical in terms of graphic marking, meaning, and function in the overwhelming majority of languages. However, we cannot conclude that there are no problems concerning punctuation marks. Is it possible to equate punctuation with punctuation marks? What is the relationship between the concepts of paragraphemic, grammatology, meta-graphics, syngraphics, subragraphics, topographics? Can emoticons, symbolizing the emotions of the speaker, expressing punctuation marks, serve as punctuation marks? Such questions indicate that the meta-language of this branch has not been formed yet.

The interaction of oral and written languages influences the development of punctuation. However, punctuation marks are formed in accordance with the requirements of written communication and systematized. Due to the fact that the punctuation marks form the additional system of symbolic signs of language, on the one hand, they are regulated and systematized as language develops, on the other form, their own ways of their regulation. The propensity of the punctuation system does not arise only from the requirements of written communication but also because

of the functional and stylistic features in the texts of each stage. Punctuation marks, as text-forming means, depending on the communicative strategy of the text and the purpose of the writer. Therefore, the function of punctuation marks in a variety of texts is various. It is regulated and systematized as the language develops (Yeskermessova, Yermekova, Zhubaeva, Maukanuly, Kenzhekanova, 2017. 265-284).

The space of writing is so expanded that it can be seen in opposition to fundamental concepts such as writing and culture, writing - civilization, writing – society, writing and thinking, writing and language, writing, and communication. After all, the SW has come out with the emergence of the state when there is a need for storage and preservation of information, rather than marking emotionally and expressive human emotions. Therefore, today the cultural, social, and economic development of the nation depends on the stability and improvement of writing" (Kuderinova, 2006: 3).

Three criteria are indicated as a fundamental principle for the correct punctuation marks of a sentence:

1) logical (semantic);
2) structural-syntactic (formal-grammatical);
3) intonational.

These three are closely interconnected. In some cases, it may be necessary to apply three of these three principles to put a punctuation mark on a sentence. In other words, the punctuation marks must be viewed in terms of the three criteria and must be kept in unity.

Scientist T. Yermekova says: "It is true that one of the three principles listed in the establishment of a certain punctuation mark, can play a dominant role. But there is a need for these three dimensions in order to integrate small-lingual units into a complex category called sentence". (Yermekova, 2011: 214-218).

By agreeing with this view, we would like to draw your attention to the following:

- First of all, all sentences in our language are built to convey information based on a certain meaning. This is *its meaningful, semantic aspect* because a random set of language units may not always be a sentence.

- secondly, the sentence is characterized by a certain grammatical structure. For example, whether there is a single term in a sentence, whether the subject and predicate are made from a noun word, or whether it contains a predicate of different forms – all these are *formal grammatical character*. For example, the question mark should be placed in interrogative sentences, the homogenous parts of a sentence should be separated by commas, and separate words should be pronounced in isolation from other members of sentence. Each simple sentence that is part of a compound sentence is separated by commas from other sentence members, separating the comma and dashes before the conjugate word combination – all these are related to the syntactic structure of the sentence.

- thirdly, any *sentence* is characterized by *a fixed intonation*. According to the speaker's communicative purpose, it can occur with the intonation of a message, request, or prescription. For example, if you put a comma between the components of a complex sentence, which of the following three dimensions can be excluded?

For example: *According to Askar, it is right that workers are going to be dismissed, because they are in a very serious condition (S.M.).*

There are three dimensions: two commas in sentences and a full stop at the end of the sentence. Although the grammatical position plays a dominant role in putting a comma between comic stripes and complex sentences, there are also meaning and intonation. Try to read without any intentional pause:

As can be seen, the sentences differ both in meaning and in terms of the corresponding grammatical structure and intonation. **Therefore, punctuation cannot**

be considered an auxiliary graphic sign used only in writing, unrelated to the expression of the semantic sentence.

Still, punctuation can only be based on meaning. Therefore, the syntax of a sentence may be explicitly exposed by the fact that a certain punctuation mark that is to be placed on it is not observed and can be interpreted in the same sense. For example, quotation marks are based on that position – on the meaning of the phrase in the sentence. Because words that are taken in quotes do not differ from other words in terms of personality, they will depend only on the meaning given to a particular word. Punctuation marks such as ellipses, parentheses, and exclamation marks are also based on this principle. In this principle, priority is given to the author's preference, which of his words and sentences in the text imposes an expressive and emotional meaning.

For example, quotation marks do not depend on pause, intonation, or structural features of speech. Therefore, it is recognized by scientists that it is not a true punctuation mark. The meaning and function of quotation marks are different, which in one case mean that the word or sentence taken in quotation marks belongs to a particular person, and in another case, the word, the phrase in the quotation mark are not used in the literal sense of the word, or it can be used as the conditional name of another object. The words or phrases or the whole sentence, the idea of the author or the speaker, the irony are often expressed by this criterion.

For example: *If you want to memorize the great words of great people, read wise thoughts from "100 works" (S.Kezheakhmetuly).*

Or let's consider ellipses:

"Yes, my dear ... my dear ... When my ancestor came to Argynbay's shanyrak ..." Aman came and took him to the grass (G. Mustafin).

At first glance, there is an intonational pause, but nevertheless, there is a big semantic significance of ellipses. Therefore, the role of intonation and emotions in the production of punctuation plays both semantic and structural principles.

Punctuation (punctuation marks in oral speech) – a formal sign that limits the sentence inside the text. Full stops (punctuation in oral speech) within the text may not fully correspond to the finished idea of the formulated sentence from the semantic side. The latter includes the same sentence, which during speech is often arranged sequentially and connected with each other. Speech uses the speech model (model) of the sentence, but the range of the sentence is not limited to it. In some cases, the pronunciation of a sentence can express the whole idea. Sentences perform the functions of a model, form, and coordinate them so that they can fully encompass the idea (Ensebayeva, 2005: 40).

One of the most urgent issues is the need to consider non-verbal semiotic systems that are involved in the organization of text as an information unit and its adoption (along with verbal) as an independent branch of the linguistic system of education.

The selection of the name of this sphere of education is a complex and unsolved issue. The most common and permanent term is *punctuation (lat. punctum – point),* which is interpreted differently in linguistics. It is because of two different features of this term.

In the "Linguistic Encyclopedic Dictionary" punctuation is explained as follows:

1) system of non-alphabetic graphic signs (punctuation marks), which forms the main means of written language together with graphics and spelling; the main task of punctuation is the membership and graphic organization of written (printed) text;

2) historically established rules for a particular language, codifying the rules of punctuation of the written text;

3) section of linguistics, studying the patterns of punctuation system and the rules of application of punctuation marks (Linguistic encyclopedic dictionary, 1990 144).

Since punctuation is a multidisciplinary, comprehensive science, it is possible to allocate the following basic concepts: used in general linguistics: *paragraphemic, grammartology, metagraphemic.*

In the linguistic literature, there are several ways of grouping the concept of paragraphemic. On the one hand, paragraphemic is regarded as a branch of science standing at the junction of semiotics and linguistics. The object of study of this discipline recognizes the text as a whole, consisting of a synthesis of "verbal and non-verbal features", as well as a rational display of these features and the nature of relationships and interactions in the transmission of information. In the 50's, J. Geble singled out grammatology as an independent science, studying the writing of any type. Paragraphemic, which includes everything that goes along with the letter, has a special place among the chapters of the grammatology. If we distinguish the difference between paralinguistics and para-language, then paragraphemic elements can be considered as a "para-language of press" (Plotnikov, 1992: 39).

Special non-verbal elements are used in the preparation of the written text, which are called paragraphic or paragraphemical. The main objective of the paragraphic is to simulate expressive text, the content of which contains reliable, rational information and communicative information. Thus it is divided into copyrights ("copyrights") and *editorial* paragraphic elements. *In metagraphemics, an additional and auxiliary semiotic system is considered, in which non-verbal designations and means involved in the semantic and information organization of the text (along with verbal) are included as an integral part of the paragraphic.*

The metagraphic sign system is divided into the following:
• singraphemics;
• Subgraphemics;
• topographemics.

A narrow function of punctuation is considered in singraphemics. "Second-order units" are characterized in *subgraphemics:* empty line, italics, discharge, font conversion and etc. Syntagmatic features of texts are given in topographics (Dzyakovich, 1998: 141- 145).

In the present research the following concepts are used as the basic terminological basis for the description of the subject matter.

Punctuation (in broad sense) - 1) the sphere of graphical linguistics studying the system of the schematic character of the language; 2) The graphical system of writing including one of the components (including graphics and subgraphics) with drawing tools for writing graphic text.

Punctuation (in the narrow sense) - 1) a set of punctuation marks, forming the center of the punctuation system (nuclear marks); 2) the order of regulation of punctuation recording standards; 3) the area of linguodidactics.

Paragraphemic — 1) section of paralinguistics, studying non-verbal (non-linguistic) means, made in written (typed) text for the transmission of semantic information; 2) the totality of all non-verbal means involved in the field of written communications.

Metagraphics – 1) signs participating in informational and semantic organization (along with verbal) of the paragraphic text. The graphic linguistics is the science of writing, the object of its research is writing, written text, writing, drawing, written language (Shubina N.L. Punctuation of the modern Russian language. Moscow EC "Academy", 2006, pp. 27-28).

Recognition of the concept of *punctuation* as a universal term allows it to be used as a basic linguistic term comparable to the object being investigated: 1) the chapter exploring the regularities of the supplementary and auxiliary semiotic system incorporating non-verbal signs and means; 2) a set of non-verbal (segraphic and subgraphic) marks and (topographic) instruments that participate in the text organization as a coherent semiotic system (including verbal means).

Paragraphemic (paragraphemic / subparagraphic) are all non-verbal tools used in the written (printed) text for the transmission and presentation of information in the text.

Metagraphemic (metagraphemic signs) are non-verbal (singraphemic and subgraphemic) marks and (topographical) instruments emotionally derived from the text as a whole semiotic system (including verbal means). Their consumption is regulated by the entire semiotic system, and the system of discipline, which is fixed by graphic and textual norms.

There are the following differences in the system of meta-graphic signs and tools:

Singraphemic (nuclear) basic punctuation marks

- subgraphemic ("units of the second row": (intermediate, space-space), italics, (vacuum – discharge), letter conversion, etc.)

- topographic (design of the text, the simplest means of syntagmatical text).

In the development of the norm (including punctuation), there are several stages of its "perfection":

The first stage relates to the latent period, where new norms are emerging from the previous regulatory system. At this stage, the contradiction between the current rule and the practice of application is not clearly reflected. In the field of punctuation, this codification norm and author's punctuation will be known after a long period of time. All presented variants cannot be considered as a new norm. In some cases, it is a coincidence, for example, the punctuation used by the textbook or by the editor's individual viewpoint can not be regarded as a norm.

The second stage is the transition to the new norm. The period of action is called *unplanned punctuation*. Unplanned punctuation entails deviation due to situational norm. The situational norms are the result of the formation of textual norms.

In accordance with changes in the communicative situation, the change in the text structure strategy also affects the choice of means for achieving specific communicative tasks. The use of punctuation marks in texts is largely due to the author's judgment, taking into account the existing text and graphic norms. For example, the use of the dash as an indicator of actual integration in the texts of fiction has long been regarded as individual-author's use for a long period, and now it has become a norm.

The social recognition of the new norm and its codification belongs to the third stage. The main indicator of the "viability" of the norm is its correspondence between the current stylistic state and the new need for communication.

Currently, there is no single system of normative evaluation, which often complicates the codification process. As a basis, it is possible to accept **the system of normative criteria** proposed by S.I. Vinogradov:

1) the correspondence of linguistic fact to the system of literary language and the process of its development (the criterion of consistency);

2) stable formation of special features in the establishment of a certain value, functions, pragmatic properties (criteria of proof);

3) one-dimensionality of the units of literary texts, including the spoken language of people, its mass repetition (one-sided criterion);

4) positive assessment of the language fact, its social approval (criterion of axiological assessment);

5) unconditional standardization of the context in the use of a linguistic unit (normative enclosure criterion);

6) high cultural status of the "user" (Vinogradov, V.V. Problems in Russian stylistics In: 1981. 320 p.).

One of the important concepts reflecting the peculiarities of punctuation norms is *deviation from the norm.* According to researchers, the concept of deviation is related to the language system, language asymmetry, and the concept of "being extra". The deviation from the norms, on the one hand, is "the existence of instability in the implementation of the language system, as the utterance is not stable" and, on the other hand, "it may be due to the asymmetry of the linguistic sign of writing errors in speech" (Shiryaev E.N. Structure of the spoken narrative // Russian language. Text as a whole and text components. Vinogradov readings XI. - M: Nauka, 1982.-P.106-125).

This shows that the concept of punctuation norm has a dynamic feature, which combines the subject's worldview to the normal expression of stability and expression, which does not remain outside the development of society.

The subsequent studies have shown two basic functions of punctuation: 1. separator, 2. division. Sh. Auyelbaev has identified three types of punctuation in terms of having separating character:

1) separating punctuation marks at the end of the sentence (full stop, question mark, exclamation marks, ellipses, and combined use of them);

2) punctuation marks that separate homogeneous parts of sentence and clauses of the compound sentence (comma, dash, colon, semicolon);

3) separating punctuation marks used in elliptical structures (dash, dash with a comma)

She subdivides the dividing punctuation marks into two types:

1) the punctuation mark used due to distinctive parts of the sentence;

2) the punctuation mark used due to homogeneous parts of the sentence (Auelbayev, 1977: 17).

Recent studies do not limit the function of punctuation marks:

1) restrict one syntactic structure from another;

2) highlight the syntactic structure within the text (marking the boundaries of the sentence);

3) integration of several syntactic structures into one single mega-structure (Amirova T.A. Functional interrelation of written and sound language. In.: Science, 1985).

Accordingly, the hierarchy of the general function of the punctuation marks is expressed as follows: division or isolation - separation - merging.

We divide punctuation marks into the following categories according to the place of use and functions:

1) separating punctuation marks at the end of a sentence: full stop, question mark, exclamation marks; ellipses;

2) separating punctuation marks in the middle of a sentence: comma, semicolon, dash, colon;

3) dual-used punctuation marks in the middle of the sentence: parentheses, two dashes, and comma; quotation mark;

4) dividing punctuation marks in the text: parentheses, quotation marks;

5) punctuation mark at the beginning of the text/sentence: ellipses;

6) highlighted punctuation marks: a colon in a sentence, parentheses in a sentence, and a text (Linguistic Encyclopedic Dictionary M-L, 1990).

Generally, three types are indicated in the system of punctuation: punctuation marks of a sentence, utterance, and discourse/text.

From this point of view, the so-called individual (the position at the end of the sentence) and separating (the position within the sentence) features can be regarded as punctuation marks belonging to the sentence.

Separating punctuation marks belonging to the sentence includes a full stop, quotation, and exclamation marks.

Punctuation marks at the end of the sentence can also be used to form different types of the sentence that represent communicative goals. In the linguistic science, it is explained that the boundaries and the nature of the sentences are so diverse that the composition of sentences is so varied (Schwarzkopf Modern Russian punctuation: the system and its functioning, 1988a: 189)

A full stop is a multifunctional and conventional mark that represents the completed part of the semantic and intonational aspect of a particular opinion. It is important to note that the full stop cannot always be put in connection with the end of thought as it is used in modern literature because a sentence may not be enough to convey a particular idea. The speaker can convey a certain opinion in several sentences, which can be expressed in one sentence depending on his or her psychological state, manner of expression, or situation.

For example: *The white snow is like a sea surface in the windy day. It's wavy. Bumpy.// The white snow like a sea surface in the windy day is wavy, bumpy.*

Secondly, this punctuation mark is not placed only after the declarative sentence. The full stop is also placed after the imperative sentence, which is expressed without any distinctive emotion. For example:

The young scientist came to the academician to consult. He told him about his plans to get married.

The Academician replied to his student:

My dear, set two goals before getting married. You should swear to yourself that you will never ward off this woman while you are alive. This is your first goal.

The second goal is that if you die one day, then think that your wife will not become unhappy. Do not confine your wife to a home. Teach her, get a high diploma and find work for her. If she has an inclination for science, let her get a degree of candidate of science. In short, develop your wife's talent with your talent.

And then, if you are able to implement these two goals, then just marry your girlfriend. If you really love your future partner and friend of your soul, do so. This is your love's law, young friend (A. Nurshaikhov).

The first three sentences of the text are the declarative sentences, and the rest are all imperative one.

One more lingual fact that proves the expansion of the functional character of the full stop that has been recognized as a punctuation mark at the end of a sentence in former studies is parcel sentences. Parcel structures are a network of language units that are linked to a network of shared communicative information but separated by a full stop. For example: *If you are able to cope with obstacles, then you are a real man. **Citizen. Most importantly you are a human being.***

*You're not looking for me, I'm looking for you. If it is so and if it is going to be so, then this is eternal happiness. It is passion. **To the truth. To the reality. To beauty.** (Zh. Abdykhalyk).*

Despite the fact that the highlighted language units are separated by a full stop, it is not a sentence that has a separate "communicative" information, and not a sentence "expressing a clearer idea", but rather a subordinate component that gives additional information and an emotional shade to the main idea in the previous sentence, that is a structural component that represents a piece of single information only in unity with this basic sentence. It is possible that this part can be separated by commas in the sentence. But the problem is put on the storyteller's way of delivering his thought to the listener. *If you are able to cope with obstacles, then you are a real man, citizen, and most importantly you are a human being.*

You're not looking for me, I'm looking for you. If it is so and if it is going to be so, then this is eternal happiness. It is passion to the truth, reality, beauty.

About the difference between a full stop and a comma in such units, scientists who specially studied the phenomenon of parceling in the Kazakh language say: "The difference between **a full stop and a comma in the sentences** is because of the duration of the pause. The pause, which corresponds to the full stop, weakens the connection between sentences but rather increases its independence and isolation. More often, there is a mutual exchange of factors in simple sentences separated by commas than sentences separated by a full stop. In this case, simple sentences, which can be logically connected to one another, can be called a complex contextual unit. Logical connections, such as those that are separated by commas, can also have a semantic connection either in the form of an intersection or possession without grammatical structures. It has been established that compound sentences separated by a comma are closely interconnected. When the sentences are separated by a full stop, the logical and tense connection is not due to syntax but due to semantics. Each phrase conveys and delivers a particular thought. The full stop that separates them indicates the intonation of the sentences uttered with a long pause" (Sairambaev, Akyzhanova, 2001). It should be noted that the full stop combines not only the punctuation function at the end of the sentence but also the functional quality that ensures the integrity of the selected opinion in the sentence (it will be correct to call it as a phrase) with the main sentence before it.

The exclamation and question marks can be attributed to the punctuation marks, which have new functional qualities. In subsequent works, eleven positions of use of the exclamation marks are displayed:

1. after the sentence in the meaning of the imperative, order, address;
2. after the sentences that express your surprise;
3. after the sentences that express positive emotions;
4. after the sentences expressing annoyance, resentment, or anger;
5. after the sentences that express wishes;
6. after the sentences that express regret;
7. after the sentences that express curse;
8. after the sentences that express gratitude;
9. after the sentences or word that consist of interjection, made in a special voice;
10. after the sentences that express praise and gratitude;
11. after the sentences that express the dignity of a person (Kazakh Language. Encyclopedia, 1988: 256-257).

To this, we can add that the exclamation marks are placed in all sentences, which express the speech emotion. It should be taken into consideration that not only imperative sentences in which the communicative purpose is expressed by the expression of the command but also declarative and interrogative sentences that express the emotion of the speaker can be regarded as an exclamatory sentence.

The distinctive features of the sentence include features that can participate in the creation of complex sentences, especially complex sentences containing independent and subordinate clauses, as well as homogenous parts of the sentence and adverbials, in particular features that show distinctions of equal grammatical components.

The formal function of dividing predicate units into the components of a complex sentence is performed by a comma. The comma is clearly marked to this function as a regular rule. The use of a comma as an indication of the inherent structure of the sentence remains one of the common issues in teaching practice. If the rules specified in the current directory are clearly used, then the boundary part of the predicate must be marked with the help of a comma in subordinate clauses. However, in modern editions, it is possible to define conscious deviations from these rules.

At the end of the twentieth and the beginning of the twenty-first century, information technologies are rapidly developing; new ways of storing, searching, and

distributing information, as well as a new cultural and linguistic environment, is being formed. Due to the increase in modern means of communication, a new, rapidly developing linguistic reality is emerging. The emergence of the Internet should be regarded as one of the main manifestations of these processes. "At present, the Internet is a new information medium of modern culture, where new communication styles, new approaches are created, where all traditional communication tools work in one or more forms, such as forum, blog, chat, ICQ, e-mail and etc."(Vishnyakova, 2007: 22).

The Internet currently works not only as an information medium (information storage and distribution) but also as a communicative medium. In this regard, many researchers point to the new virtual environment of human life with different interests, reasons, goals, needs, attitudes, as well as objects of psychological and social activity that are directly linked to the new space. As a result, a new virtual information society is formed.

Computer communication is a communication activity related to processes such as the exchange of information through computers and communication between people.

Computer communication is a type of mass communication. According to Oxford Advanced Learner's dictionary "it is media such as newspapers, tv-radio, and radio" (OALD, 1995: 720). In other words, mass communication is a means of communication with the participation of many people, carried out through newspapers, TV, and radio.

According to T.Zh. Balzhirova, the Internet can be considered a "continuation of the human environment, which can meet social needs through social communications" (Balzhirov, 2003: 13).

Internet is a special kind of electronic message. Its meaning is derived from network-specific functions, namely:
- global communication channel providing worldwide multimedia exchange (communication and spatial function);
- public information repositories, world library, archive, news agency (communication and time function);
- additional tool for socialization and self-realization of the individual and social group in connection with the common club of leisure partners with business and interested partners (Sokolov, 2002: 8).

At present, the Internet has been recognized as a global social and communication computer network to meet individual and group communication needs through the use of telecommunication technologies. There are oral and written forms of Internet communication. Our object is focused on written communication, so we will refer to the following types of communications:
1. Chat-communication;
2. Forum-communication;

It is known that communication on the Internet was initially carried out only in written form. But it was not able to show the emotions of the communicants. Noticing this, well-known American computer expert Scott Elliott Fahlman suggested using a character set for comics. For example, if you turn this symbol :-) to the right and round it up, then you will see the image of a smiling person (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Formation of a smiley that expresses a cheerful emotion

For example, recently on Facebook or comments written under the lyrics of the song of Dimash Kudaibergen "Akkuym":

Zarina Ismailova: Congratulations, Dimash! Very beautiful song and video-clip! Cried a lot (crying smiley)
Stepanida Savvinova Class (Image of Thumbs)
Kva Zar: The best in the whole universe! (image of planet and star)
Gulaim Akhmetova: Dimash, prosperity for your work, thanks a lot for job you are doing. Make always your country happy! He is a wonderful guy, let us see you only on top, keep you away from the evil eye! (smiley of thumb and prays)
Valentina Poplavskaya: The most unusual words of enthusiasm about Dimash have not yet been invented !!! He is so unique on Earth planet!!!! God bless him !!! Give him strength !!!
As you can see, in the chat, readers often use different emoticons, along with linguistic text overlapping with punctuation marks in order to express their thought authentically.
It shows a big role of the punctuation marks and emoticons in the Internet communication.

Two groups of students were interviewed to determine the significance of punctuation marks among modern youth.
Group 1. Students of the specialty "Philology" participated. 48 students (12 students from each course (1-4 courses)) took part in the survey.
Group 2. It was conducted among students studying in other specialties.
Students who participated in the survey include different specialities:
specialty of biology - 10,
specialty of Computer science - 10,
specialty of music - 10,
specialty of physical education- 10.
Both groups were asked the same questions. The difference is in the text presented for putting down a punctuation mark. Philologists were offered by complex text with difficult punctuation, whereas students of other specialties were offered a small text with easy punctuation.
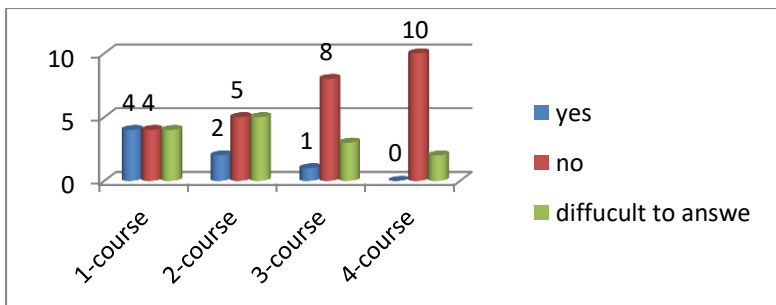The results of the philologists are shown in this diagram:
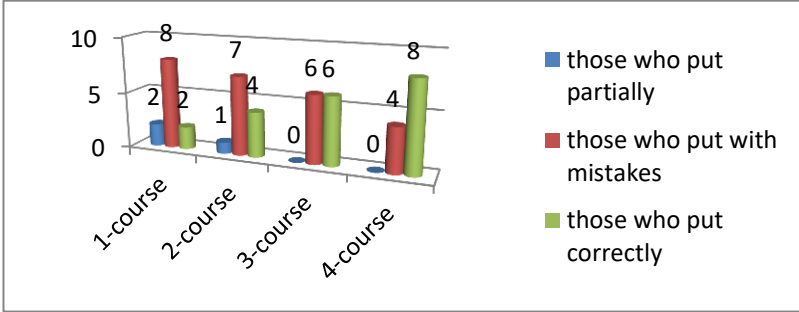
1. How often do you use punctuation marks?
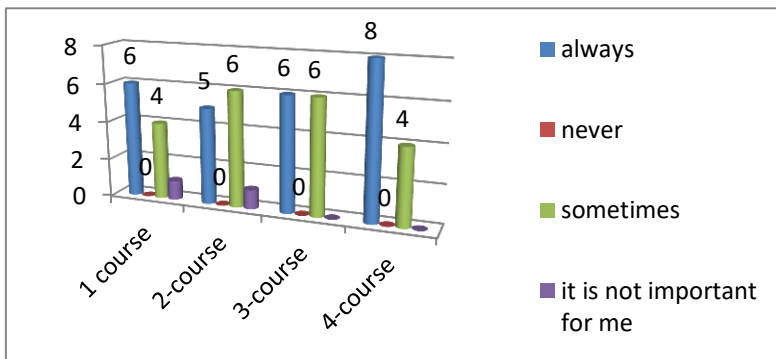
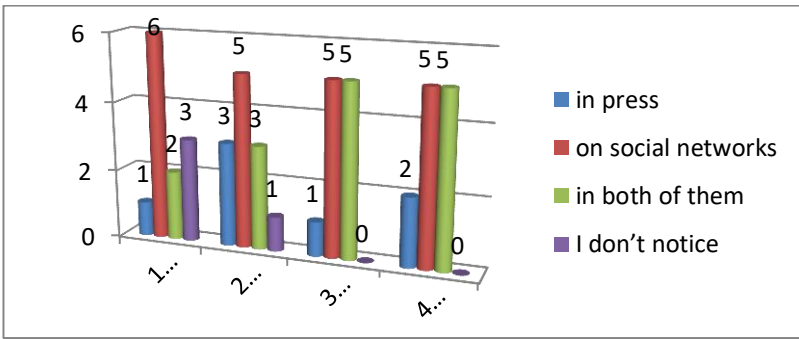2.Is it difficult to read text without punctuation marks?
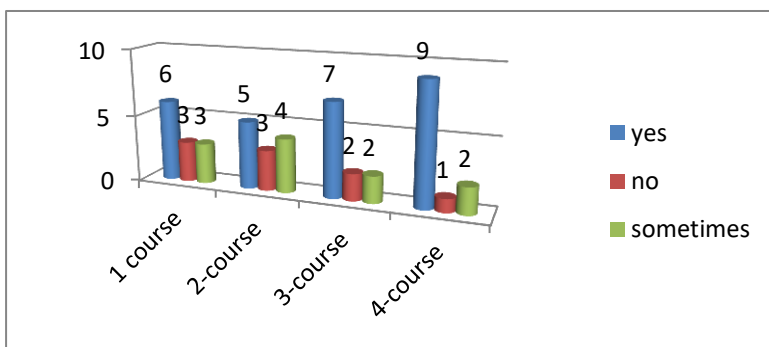
3. Is there any extra (which can not be used at all) punctuation? If there is, then specify.
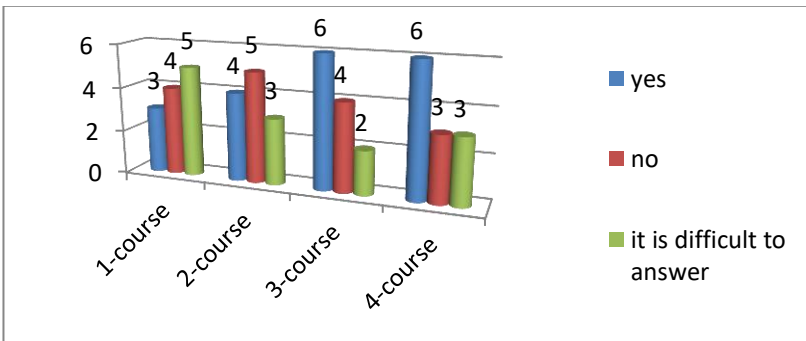
4. Put punctuation marks of the text

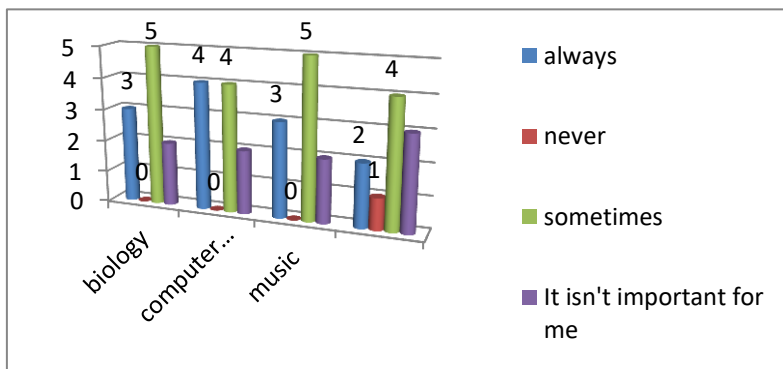5. Where do you often notice the misuse of punctuation marks?

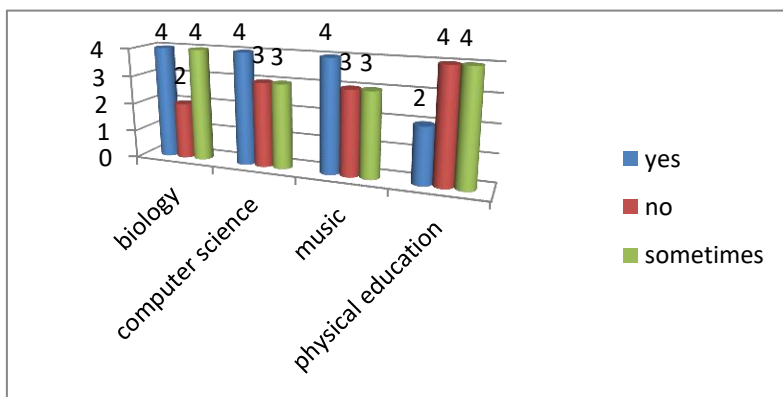6. Can emoticons be attributed to punctuation marks?

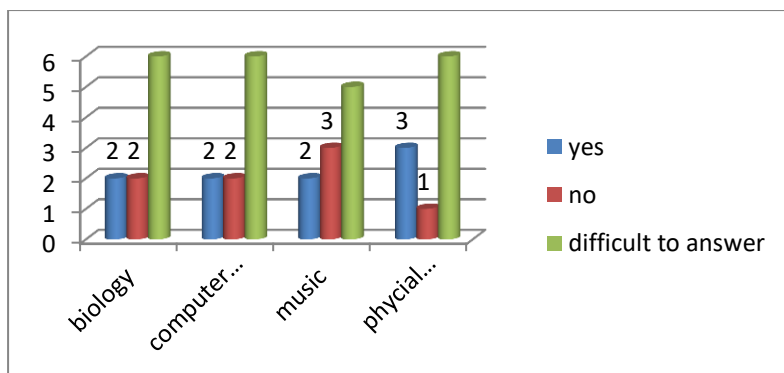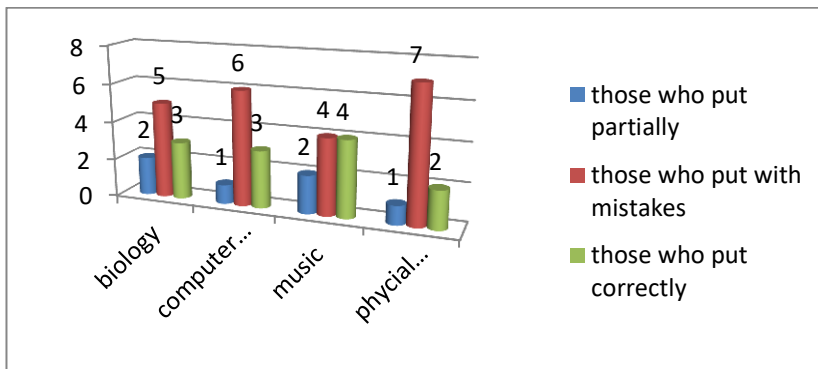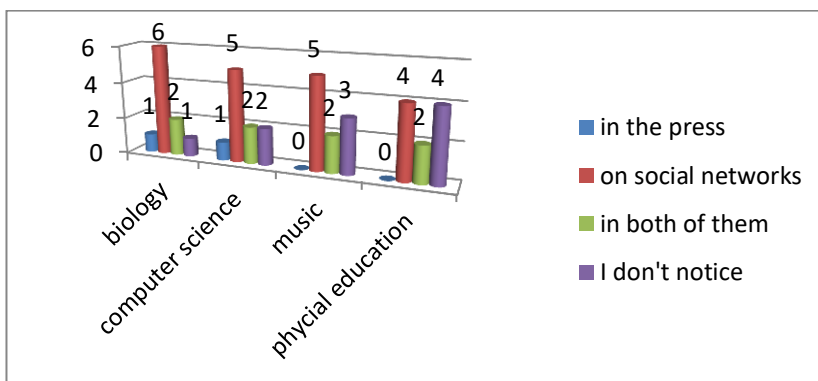The results of a survey conducted among students of other specialties

1.How often do you use punctuation marks?

2. Is it difficult to read text without punctuation marks?

3. Is there any extra (which can not be used at all) punctuation? If there is, then specify.

4. Put punctuation marks of the text

5. Where do you often notice the misuse of punctuation marks?

6. Can emoticons be attributed to punctuation marks?
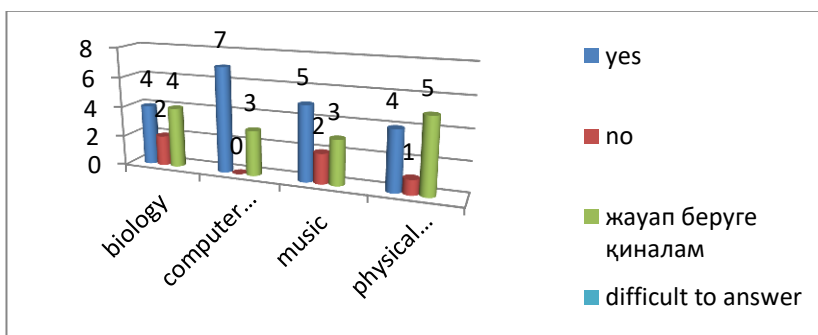
Conclusion

1) Many students, regardless of their specialty, use punctuation marks and understand that without them, it is impossible to carry out written communication.

2) Most students indicate that text reading without punctuation is a challenge, and students of physical education showed that reading texts without punctuation is not

difficult. And the students of 3-4 courses of the faculty of Philology may have difficulty in understanding of the text that does not have a punctuation mark; this is due to the conscious knowledge of the correct perception of the text punctuation

3) The overwhelming majority of respondents indicate that there are no extra (absolutely inappropriate) punctuation marks. But ellipses and quotation marks have been shown as punctuation marks that can be never used by some respondents.
4) When placing punctuation marks in the text, all respondents did not make mistakes in punctuation marks indicated at the end of the sentence. Among students of other specialties there are students who are limited to putting punctuation marks at the end of the sentence. Students of 1-2 courses of the faculty of Philology made a mistake in complex sentences and in direct speech, students of other specialties made a mistake of punctuation marks in separate words and in the word generalization.
5.The majority of respondents indicate incorrect use of punctuation marks in social networks, 20 percent-in press, 30 percent- in both (in press and social networks). But among the first-year students of philology and students of other specialties, there were those who did not notice the mistake at all.
6. It was difficult to compile a question of whether or not to attribute emoticons to punctuation marks. Out of all 98 respondents, 39 had said that they should be labeled as punctuation marks, and 21 of them said that they cannot be attributed at all, and 28 students find it difficult to answer this question.

In conclusion we can claim that there are problems with the use of punctuation marks among young people. Only 32 of 98 respondents correctly put down punctuation marks, 47 of them made mistakes, 10 percent-put down punctuation marks only at the end of the sentence, al of these indicate the need to pay attention to the training of punctuation marks in higher education. Written language transmits social experience from generation to generation. Therefore, it has style-forming and norm-forming functions. In connection with the development of society, the meaning of the sign is complicated, and the content is achieved both in quantity and quality. Changes and innovations in the language related to the development of the society affect the punctuation of the text to some extent. It does not only affect the scope and functionality of punctuation, but also their quantity and quality, and shows that the text plays an important role in semantic and communicative-pragmatic organization. Thus, punctuation marks, on the one hand, are constant, based on the normalized norms in the language, on the other hand, according to the author's intention, they are a set of graphic symbols outside the alphabet with the possibility of making appropriate adjustments in connection with the development of society, changes in the syntactic structure of the language.

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Roma perspectives on their language problems in the context of language ideologies

Milan Samko

Abstract
This paper is part of research focusing on society-wide language problems of the Roma community in the context of language ideologies of the Roma in the Slovak Republic. The purpose of the paper is to identify current language problems from the perspective of the Roma community and to open space for discussion in the process of managing their language problems. The research question is as follows: *What do the Roma people consider a language problem in terms of the scale and reach of the Romani language network, and what solutions do they propose.* To obtain empirical material, we used a qualitative methodology tool, specifically a semi-structured interview conducted in the Romani language. At the same time, the paper further clarifies the language problems of the Roma community and contributes to a wider understanding of the Roma strategies in addressing these problems. The aim is to present and characterize language problems from the Roma perspective, to propose measures addressing the problems, and to contribute to their solution.
Key words: Romani language, language problem, language ideology, Romani language perspectives

The Language Management Theory as a theoretical approach to language and communication as well as language problems have been developed since the 1970s (Neustupny, 1968; 1970; Neustupny, Nekvapil, 2003; Nekvapil 2001; Nekvapil, Sherman 2009; 2013; 2015). One of the main missions of language management and language planning theory as a form of organized language management is the research of language problems, their characteristics and management, and the actual solutions to these problems. Research on language problems in the context of the Romani language ideologies[1] is based on the hypothesis that *the effectiveness of language*

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[1] In the 2011 population and housing census in the Slovak Republic, 105,738 inhabitants officially declared their Roma nationality (Stat. Office., Tab. 115). 122,518 inhabitants officially declared the Romani language as their native language (Stat. Office., Tab. 156). This means that 19,780 more inhabitants declared the Romani as their native language compared to the inhabitants who declared to be of Roma nationality. However, unofficial estimates of the number of Roma in Slovakia are significantly higher, for example, based on sociographic mapping and a qualified estimate, the 2013 Atlas of Roma Communities states that there are 402,840 Roma living in Slovakia (Mušinka et al. 2014). The publication mentions "four types of housing of the Roma population in terms of spatial relation to the majority: dispersed (Roma inhabitants living inside a municipality dispersed among the majority), concentrated inside a municipality (Roma inhabitants living inside a municipality but concentrated in some part or parts thereof), concentrated on the outskirts of a municipality (Roma inhabitants living concentrated in the peripheral part of a municipality) and concentrated outside a municipality (Roma inhabitants living in a settlement remote from a municipality or separated from a municipality by some kind of barrier)" (Mušinka et al. 2014, p. 6). There is a total of 803 settlements in towns and villages in Slovakia, including 324 settlements on the outskirts of municipalities, 246 settlements inside municipalities and 233 segregated settlements. 187,305 Roma people live dispersed among the

problem tackling could be increased by mapping the real needs of language users and by identifying strategies to address them within the frame of simple management. We assume that research on language problems in the context of the Roma language ideologies will contribute to a deeper understanding of language problems from the Roma perspective and consequently to proposals leading to their solutions. Research in this area forms and saturates the database of Romani language problems, mapping the real language problems from the Roma perspective and identifying strategies for addressing them in accordance with the management intended to solve the language problems of the Roma community. It is also intended to map the language ideologies as a source of language problems leading to their solution. The recency of the examination of language problems and language ideologies related to the Romani language is mainly determined by the number of language problems that are not addressed at all, as well as by the overall situation, status, and position of the Romani language in Slovakia. Despite the fact that the Roma live in different countries, the research on their language problems in foreign and Slovak linguistics is rather rare (Hubschmannovy, 1979; 2000; Hubschmannova, Neustupny, 1996; 2004; Neustupny, 1993; Kyuchukov, 1994; 1995; 2014) and domestic authors (Racova 2010; 2015; 2017; Racova, Samko 2017; Samko 2010; 2017). In addition to the standard language variety, the language management theory, in its broader focus, also deals with problems in the context of bilingualism, which give rise to the language problems of the Roma, in our case, in the context of Roma-Slovak bilingualism. While there are international organizations such as the GLS (Gypsy Lore Society) and the NAIRS (Network of Academic Institutions in Romani Studies) operating abroad, a specialized institution is still missing that would use a standardized research tool to assess and address language problems of the Roma in the context of bilingualism. A wide range of Roma problems is still unknown, also in relation to their bilingualism. Verbal manifestations affecting Roma children in both languages, mothers' language directed at Roma children, direct and indirect language input when acquiring the second language (SLA - Second Language Acquisition) by Roma children, which does not only affect preschool-aged children. Of course, not only language input plays an important role in language acquisition (Clark, 2009), but also the language ideologies of the Roma mothers and the approach and attitudes of Roma mothers, families, and Roma communities towards languages. The language situation in Roma segregated communities also varies and requires different ways of survey: "Multilingual situations differ in so many ways that each researcher has to decide for himself/herself how to best systematize or organize many obvious differences" (Fishman, 2004, p. 114). The idiolect as a single-speaker language, individual language competence in Romani and Slovak, can show the context of L1 and L2 acquisition and processes that may not be more visible when analyzing a larger language corpus. "An analysis of the development of two linguistic competencies in one person may help us to understand to what extent the depth logic of development is determined by the specific grammatical system or the specific way of processing the human language", [...] (Meisel, 2004, p. 260). In the area of second language acquisition in international

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majority population, 95,020 in settlements on the outskirts of municipalities, 73,920 in segregated settlements and 46,496 in settlements inside municipalities (Mušinka et al. 2014).

linguistics, there has been a lot of research in the L1 and L2 language pairs of different languages. There is no standardized tool for assessing bilingualism and second language acquisition in the language pairs of L1 - Romani and L2 - different languages, specifically where L1 is the Romani language, and L2 is the Slovak language. The key issues in the area of Romani-Slovak bilingualism especially include linguistic aspects of bilingualism such as linguistic contact intensity, linguistic borrowing, interference, code-switching, lexical diversity, socio-linguistic aspects of bilingualism (who speaks, who with, when and in what language, the length of exposition, beginning of L2 exposition, diglossia), psycholinguistic aspects of bilingualism (cognitive aspects of bilingualism, differentiation of languages in Roma children) with output for education. Indirect and, at the same time, direct linguistic input in the second language also occurs to a minimum extent in the Roma communities. At present, we recognize this phenomenon and can describe it partially, but we do not know anything more about the key issues. The assessment of the narrative abilities of bilingual children is one of the complex ways of assessing the level of communication ability and can significantly contribute to the assessment of school maturity and readiness of Roma children for education in the Slovak language. One of the signs of Roma settlements and poverty is the link with social exclusion, including its spatial expression, where part of the Roma living in segregated communities is considered to be the most vulnerable to poverty and social exclusion (Rusnakova, Rochovska, 2016). "Pupil's ethnicity has no place in formal education." (Rusnakova, 2013, p. 227). The author supports her statement by several kinds of research, which were carried out in a Slovak elementary school. Rusnakova (2013) further states that the school applies a "civic" approach to Roma pupils, and their ethnicity (and everything connected with it, including language) is of little or no interest to the teacher.

Methods

The research question is as follows: W*hat do the Roma people consider a language problem in terms of the scale and reach of the Romani language network, and what solutions do they propose.* At the same time, the paper further clarifies the language problems of the Roma community in the respective context and contributes to a wider understanding of the Roma strategies for addressing these problems. The aim is to present and characterize language problems from the Roma perspective, to propose measures addressing the problems and, at the same time, to indicate the direction and perspectives of the Romani language[2].

To obtain empirical material, we used a qualitative methodology tool, specifically a semi-structured interview. Individual interviews between the researcher and the respondents were conducted in the Romani language in order to achieve maximum freedom and openness of the respondents in the interview and sufficient interaction

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[2] In this paper, we present some of the research findings. Further findings from this and broader research of the author of language problems from the perspective of the Roma and the language ideologies of the Roma will be published in other author's papers.

between the respondents and the researcher needed to gain a deep understanding of the topics of the interview scenario. The semi-structured interview scenario was constructed according to the main topics of interviews with the respondent in order to obtain information to meet the objective of qualitative research. The researcher was allowed to choose from a range of topics and additional questions that he/she could adapt to the topics, their order, and the content of the interview during individual interviews.

We implemented the semi-structured interviews in the home or familiar environment of the respondents. We recorded anonymous interviews, transcribed them in the Romani language, using a pseudonym for each respondent. Together we got a corpus, recordings of 4 hours, and 32 minutes. The main topics of the interview formed the skeleton according to which we coded the answers given by the respondents. We paraphrased the answers, translated them into the Slovak language in order to use as many quotations as possible. Subsequently, we synthetically processed the answers of respondents according to the main topics. For each quotation, paraphrase, we stated the respondent's pseudonym.

5 respondents (N=5) were selected as the research set according to the criterion of deliberate selection of typical features in qualitative research with emphasis on university education[3] and working with the Romani language in practice. With respect to the size of the research set, we were guided by saturation, so we ended the expansion of the selection when the information from other respondents began to repeat itself. The respondents were, therefore, selected to obtain the greatest possible variability in their opinions. Furthermore, I based this research on my own personal, participatory observation of the linguistic behavior of the Roma, which I, as a member of the Roma-speaking community, carry out almost continuously.

Results

Based on the findings, we can formulate the society-wide language problems of the Roma in the context of language ideologies and the measures addressing these problems:

1. The Romani language is not an official language in any country, and as such, it is not protected nor promoted as a state language in any country. This fact puts Romani at a disadvantage compared to other languages that are both official and non-minority. This leads to language problems, the solutions of which are difficult to find.

2. The respondents consider non-compliance of the practice with the language rights of the Roma people speaking the Romani language as a problem, which arises from the Act on the Use of Languages of National Minorities in the Slovak Republic. Emphasizing the rights and obligations arising from

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[3] About the methods of empirical research on language problems and the types of language problems, see (Lanstyak, 2010; 2012).

the Act on the Use of Languages of National Minorities by public institutions is a fundamental measure of solving the language problems of the Roma in the context of their language rights. The establishment of an institution for languages of national minorities, having responsibility for their protection and development, especially in terms of language policy, language rights, and language management, will contribute to the solution of problems arising from non-compliance with the practice with the language rights of Roma people.

3. Roma has many language problems that are not addressed at all. However, many of these problems are unknown. Research on the language problems and language ideologies of the Roma and, consequently, the database of language problems will contribute to their identification and characterization. The formation, structure, and saturation of the database in the context of research on language problems and language ideologies of the Roma will contribute to the solution of these problems.

4. In the communication environment of the Roma, the Romani language is functionally dominant and, at the same time, it is used in the generation and language contact circle in various communication situations. Respondents consider restrictions with regard to the extent of the Romani language network, its social impact, and space as a problem. The solution is to use the Romani language in a wider contact circle in an available language network, speaking Romani.

5. Respondents consider the absence of scientific, research, academic, and professional institutions of the Roma language as a problem. They expect such institutions to fulfill the strategic objectives of the Romani language and to stabilize the scientific and general development of the Romani language in the Slovak Republic. The solution involves the establishment and formation of institutions that will deal with the Romani language at various levels.

6. Lack of experts and scientific personnel platform in the area of the Romani language. Possibilities of studying the Romani language at universities. The solution is also a doctoral study of the Romani language.

7. Support for science and research in the Romani language determines the current situation and problem in the absence of findings from long-term research urgently needed for practice. An effective financial mechanism with stable support would mean a greater contribution to the practice of Romani language research as the language of a national minority.

8. Respondents also consider the lack of professional language advice to the general public and personnel working with Roma in practice to be a problem. It is envisaged that a language advice center for national minority languages as an agenda of the institution for national minority languages

can be an effective part of its profile in order to ensure and provide professional language advice.

9. At present, language schools in the Slovak Republic do not provide Romani language courses, including the general state exam in the Romani language. The state exam in the Romani language legally authorizes, for example, the establishment of trade in the field of foreign languages and culture - the Romani language, establishment of a language school, and other possibilities that would contribute to the saturation of Romani language into practice.

10. The respondents consider the formation and building of the Roma national education system and its current absence to be an urgent problem. Education in the Romani language as a native language in the context of freedom of choice for the Roma is an essential attribute of the implementation of Roma language rights in practice.

11. The absence of teachers of the Romani language in schools and the subsequent implementation of the Romani language in school practice. The solution to the problem is the study for teachers of the Romani language and their acceptance into practice.

12. Teaching assistants in schools who do not speak the Romani language eliminate the aim and purpose of teaching assistants in practice. The solution to the problem is the strict introduction of the criterion of knowledge of Romani by the teaching assistant.

13. In their fields of study, pedagogical universities do not adequately prepare future teachers for working with children with native languages other than the tuition language. One possible solution is to introduce the languages and cultures of national minorities into the descriptions of study fields.

14. A traditional school is not sufficiently prepared to educate pupils with native languages other than the tuition language. This problem also refers to pupils for whom Slovak is a foreign language.

In this context, we include some answers from respondents:

(1) *We learned Slovak together with Romani. We were not living in a place with the Roma community, where we would only hear Romani. We were living within a non-Roma community. We also heard Slovak, non-Roma friends used to visit us every day; we went to kindergarten with non-Roma children, we had non-Roma friends. We used to go out, it was very normal for us to speak two languages. I don't remember having problems with it, with the Slovak or Romani. Everything was easy with two languages.*

(2) *I'm not an expert on the Romani language, but I speak Romani so that there are as few Slovak words as possible. It is not good when we take a lot from the non-Roma, words from Slovak. I look for ancient words. When I can't*

find the correct Roma word, I remember what my grandmother used to say and how my grandfather would say it, and then I realize how they used to know the old words, and we have forgotten them already.

(3) *There are people who deal with the Romani language, who fight for the Roma identity, and who promote "romipen" [the Roma culture] and our nationality and traditions. No nationality can exist without its own language. If nationality is missing its own language, we lose it, or it is somehow distorted, bad, then we cannot say that it is a proud nationality.*

(4) *Standardization allows us to demand as one of the largest nationalities in Slovakia that we want our laws when it comes to language. We can say that we want to speak in our language even when going to an office or an official place, when writing books, when working in the media, when having poets, when wanting to develop a culture in our own language. All this should be a reality. I read a lot of Roma books written by our writers, poets, and I don't look at the language well, but I can say that they are doing a good job, and even if there is a lot of faults in the language, their work is appreciated. So, it needs to be cleaned up a little, put it aside a little bit, clean the language and give it a standardized form. Without mentioning much in their dialect, they say it's my dialect, and I do everything in my dialect, but then only a small group that lives in that region understands, and others do not understand so it is necessary that as many Roma as possible understand what we write about ourselves and what we leave behind.*

(5) *In some villages that have the tables, but we don't have such expert people, everyone is an expert. A non-Roma will say that something needs to be done for the Roma and then they find any Roma, they don't care if that person is an expert or not, it is enough if he/she says that he can do it. This is our big problem as the non-Roma people think that appointing a person of Roma nationality is enough. It must be a linguist, a person who goes to the field to understand this language. I believe that a lot of money from the state was allocated to this job, but it was all wasted. Because no one is doing their own job, no one has asked us, no one has asked the people who did it what the name of this village was, I haven't heard anything about it.*

(6) *Anything that can be done in Romani is good, they should think about us and that we're here. This is one big signal that we are told by non-Roma that we are here. The quality of the translations is another question, there are frequent mistakes. Translation must be done so that one understands it and not just the one who translated it because he could read the text in Slovak. Even simple people who can read must be able to understand what they are reading.*

(7) *Roma are not used to read in Romani. We do not have many publications; we have not done such a great job in this area. Our culture is degraded only*

to dance and music. It is normal and a standard that we can all sing, dance and everything, but that's just not enough. It's very little. Now look at how non-Roma take us among themselves, they just say what a good and nice culture. Culture is not just dance and music. Culture is also written papers, poetry, films, dress code, that is all our culture. Culture is life and we also need reason in life. This is also what people don't understand, they can't read in Romani and have great difficulties in doing so. And we can't let them say that we don't know, we have to learn, we can't leave it halfway. What has been done since the standardization started? What has been done in the field, in my opinion, nothing. Nothing was done, everything was left as before. We did well, we dressed like gentlemen, we went to Bratislava and we were told that we have standardization in Slovakia. But what next? After that nobody did anything. I don't know what I would read, I don't get to books in Romani, only books by Roma people who write in Slovak. That's nice if I want to publish something for non-Roma so that they understand our life and get to know us. This was nicely done by Banga when he began translating into Romani. That's a nice way how it can be done. But it is not done because it's difficult. We only want to do fast projects, we want money fast, we want to get money fast, we want to live fast, but this is not a process which, if done today, shows results tomorrow.

Discussion

The language problems of the Roma affect language ideologies and have an impact on solving language problems. When solving the language problems of the Roma, the understanding of the language ideologies of the Roma is essential in the process of their solution, and the solution itself. The language situation of Roma in the area of their self-reflection on languages presupposes parallel connections between knowledge and use of Slovak and Romani languages. Acceptance, preferences, the orientation of speakers within the frame of the Roma-Slovak bilingualism, knowledge, and use of Romani and Slovak languages are variables determining the knowledge and use of Slovak language by respondents. The summary of information that we perceive as basic variables includes a subjective assessment of the level of knowledge and use of both languages; knowledge and use of the Slovak and Romani languages by relatives, friends, classmates; use of the Slovak and Romani languages according to communication situations, especially at home, outside the home and at school; the extent and frequency of use of each language; the frequency of communication situations in the Slovak and Romani languages; the perception of the communication barrier in the Slovak language; willingness and development tendency of communication of Roma pupils in the Slovak and Romani languages. Such a summary of language ideologies on the above-mentioned aspects reflects their approach and attitude towards languages and thus to the Slovak language as the state and educational language, but also as the second language. In the language communication environment in which the respondents are located, the Romani language is functionally dominant and used in a wide generation and language contact circle. The use of the Romani language according to communication situations, such as the extent of the Romani language network, space restrictions, use in frequent

social areas according to the social impact of respondents, indicate that they tend to most often use the Romani language at home, outside of home and partially also at school. In respect of the Romani-Slovak bilingualism, we can mention the subjective assessment of the extent and frequency of language use and the use of languages at home and conclude that they speak more Romani than Slovak, personally prefer Romani, and only speak Romani at home, rarely in Slovak. The frequency of communication situations and contacts is frequent among children, both at and outside the school, on a daily basis. In respect of children, it would be very interesting to perform a separate survey focused on the Roma ethnolect of the Slovak language and the contact of dialects, as well as linguistic borrowing, code-switching, interference, language mixing, and more research. Their language ideologies and behavior in Roma communities do not indicate any change in the attitude towards Slovak, but in any case, long-term observation in Roma families focusing on the language problems and language ideologies of Roma in the context of Roma-Slovak bilingualism remains a task for further research. Based on the knowledge of language problems in the context of bilingualism from the perspective of the Roma and their language ideologies, we can get to know the process and context in the process of acquiring the Slovak language by Roma pupils, which could contribute to the development of Slovak didactics for the respective group of Roma pupils and the system of language education of bilingual Roma pupils.

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Scrutinizing EFL learners' online reading strategy use across proficiency levels

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Abstract
This study aimed at investigating the difference in online reading strategy use between EFL students with high and low English proficiency level and knowing the relationship between online strategy use and reading comprehension. Ninety-six university students were involved in this research, and they were distributed into two groups; high and low proficiency levels based on English proficiency test scores. SORS was administered to collect the data after completing three reading sessions. Analyses of the data, using the Chi-square test to see the differences and the Spearman test, to check the relationship between strategy use and reading achievement. The results showed that the reading strategy that was most frequently used by the EFL learners was a problem-solving strategy, and the least frequently used one was a socio-affective strategy. Additionally, there was no significant difference in the online reading strategy use between students in high and low proficiency levels. Therefore, there was a negative relationship between strategy use and reading achievement. The more strategies they used, the lower score they got.
Key words: EFL students, online reading strategy, reading strategy use, proficiency level

Introduction

Recently, there has been increasing interest in reading comprehension research. In 2018, it was informed by OECD PISA that students' means of reading comprehension achievement is the lowest score compared with mathematics and science. It displays that reading should be more emphasized for students. For this reason, many studies have investigated and bolstered the concept that strategic approaches are an essential function of the reading comprehension process (Joh, Plankans, 2017; Cai, Kunan, 2019; Reyes, Bishop, 2019; Arya, 2020; Teng, 2020). In addition, the effective use of reading strategies has been recognized as a crucial means to enhance reading comprehension (Zhang, Seepho, 2013; Fitrisia, 2015; Ahmadian, Passand, 2017; Yen et al., 2017; Habok, Magyar, 2019; Fathi, Afzall, 2020). Previously, Block and Israel (2004) highlighted that strategic approaches during reading refer to the way readers visualize the text in their mind, the textual cues they attend to, how they make sense of the text content, and how they compensate when understanding is incomplete. This view argues that a reader should know what suitable strategies to help them comprehend the texts.

Research on reading strategy has been mostly restricted to limited comparisons of proficiency levels. Many studies of reading strategies used by L2 readers have found evidence of a reasonably robust relationship between reading proficiency and strategy use, with higher proficient readers employing strategies more than less proficient readers do. Lin and Yu (2015), Ghavamnia (2019), and Jian (2019) found that high proficient students inclined to use more varied strategies than students with low proficiency levels. However, this study reveals that there is no significant difference in students' reading achievement between high and low groups.

Research conducted by Ashton (2016), Wang (2016), Kung (2019), and also confirms that high proficient readers tend to use more strategies rather than their counterparts. In contrast with Lin and Yu's findings, he discovers that students' reading achievement between both groups is significant. Nevertheless, the result of

this research seems to be biased as students with high English proficiency levels outperform the low proficient students.

Much literature has denoted that researchers incorporate the importance of reading strategies to students for improving their reading achievement. Recently, Salmeron, Llorens (2018) and Rogiers et al. (2020) categorize the reading strategies into three strategies: overt cognitive, covert cognitive, and covert metacognitive strategies. The overt cognitive strategies contain the activities of summarizing, schematizing, and highlighting the text. The covert cognitive strategies consist of many strategies (i.e., rereading, paraphrasing, and studying titles and pictures). The covert metacognitive strategies let the students monitor their understanding of the text and intentional approach. Based on students' self-report of strategies they used while reading texts, it describes that the most frequently used strategy is an overt cognitive strategy, and the least frequently used is covert metacognitive strategy.

Other studies use different terms to classify reading strategy use. Unlike strategies proposed by Salmeron, Llorens (2018) and Rogiers, et al. (2020), dissimilar explorations label the strategies into three types: global, problem-solving, and support strategies (Taki, 2015; Barrot, 2016; Park 2017; Shang, 2017; Bang; 2020). Global reading strategies let readers plan, regulate, and evaluate their reading, such as setting a reading purpose, enabling prior knowledge, and verifying whether the content related to the purpose. Improving students' understanding and minimize difficulties are classified as problem-solving strategies. Examples of such strategies include adjusting the speed of reading, paying close. When readers do not achieve the comprehension by using problem-solving strategies, there is another strategy that will aid them to understand the text more, namely, support strategy. In this strategy, readers can take notes, paraphrase text information, and use a dictionary.

As explained above, the preponderance of prior studies focuses only on students' skills while understanding the text and neglecting interaction and affective control, such as; asking questions and playing music to manage students' emotions (Huang, Yang, 2015; Lien, 2016; Okkinga et al., 2018; Shih, Huang, 2018; Miyamoto et al., 2019). Oxford and Nyikos (1989) formerly suggested that listening to music was an effective way to release tensions during the reading process. Although these strategies are categorized somewhat differently by each scholar, they are all designed to help students to be actively engaged in reading.

Presently, the research on reading strategy is more explored in examining the strategies utilized by EFL learners in comprehending online text. Furthermore, reading on the web has gotten one of the generally utilized wellsprings of information for students, particularly those in the academic settings. In line with Oxford's finding, Huang (2014) researched analyzing reading strategies used by Taiwanese university students in reading paper-based text and digital-based text. He involved students' socio-affective strategy as one of the categories. The result of this finding shows that five out of eight students liked the music and discussion board in the online socio-affective module because these functions lowered their level of anxiety and increased the quality of collaboration and interaction in real-time. Nevertheless, in his study, he did not consider moderate variables that might also contribute to the result of the study**.**

Informed by the inconclusive findings on online reading strategies, the present study aims to investigate the perceived use of online reading strategies utilized by EFL learners across proficiency, to explore the difference in EFL students' online reading strategy use between high and low proficiency students, and to discern the relationship between strategy use and reading achievement.

Methods

        This study employed a survey research design. This design is classified as quantitative, which is aimed at finding out the reading strategy use occupied by EFL students and knowing the degree of relationship between strategy use and reading achievement. There were ninety-six students, male and female, from a university in Indonesia. Out of the total number, fifty-one students were of high proficiency level, and forty-four students were of low proficiency level.

        In the instructional sessions, these students were divided into some groups based on the scores of the reading proficiency test. Each group consisted of 3 to 4 students. Thus, there are five groups in each level. To widen the gap between the high and low proficiency groups, the research principle was followed by selecting the students based on their TOEFL scores. There were 129 participants, and thirty-three students got omitted, whose score in the middle. Therefore, participants in this study were divided into more proficient and less proficient groups. Their scores ranged from 470 to 403 and from 380 to 347, respectively.

        A mobile application, Whatsapp, was used to facilitate the students in the discussion of the texts. Three online reading texts were chosen from passages in English proficiency test (TOEFL). Each text consists of 3 paragraphs. It took 50 minutes for the students to read the texts and discuss them with members of the group. Then they had to work collaboratively to answer four comprehension questions. After submitting the answers to the questions, they had to do a 10-question quiz individually at the end of each session.

        A questionnaire for Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) was distributed to the students to see their reading strategy use. The questionnaire was adapted from SORS proposed by Taki (2015). SORS is based on a reading strategy overview formed for local speakers of English, namely the Metacognitive-Awareness-of-Reading-Strategies Inventory (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002. Equally, the SORS is a five-point Likert scale survey utilized to diagnose online reading strategies. Initially, there are thirty-eight items in SORS, which fall into three categories of strategies: global, problem-solving, and support. However, in this study, six items on socio-affective strategy were added; consequently, there are 44 items altogether.

        Data were collected in four meetings. In the first meeting, the students were asked to do a TOEFL test. The score of the test was used to categorize the students into two proficiency level as it was noted earlier. This session was conducted online using Webex Meeting (an online meeting application).

        In the second, third, and fourth meetings, Reading Sessions 1, 2, and 3 were held separately. In each session, the students were asked to read a passage adopted from an English proficiency test. While reading the text, a live group discussion on Whatsapp was used to discuss the text collaboratively. At the end of each meeting, the students were asked to do an online test from quizizz.com. There were ten questions to be answered individually in each quiz. Each session for reading online academic text lasted for 50 minutes while the quiz completion took 20 minutes. The average scores from meeting two to meeting four, that the students obtained from the quizzes, were considered as the students' reading comprehension achievement.

        To scrutinize the most frequently used strategy, the data were analyzed descriptively. Then, the chi-square test was used to investigate whether there is any significant difference in the reading strategy use between students of high and low proficiency levels. Finally, the relationship between students' strategy use and their reading achievement was analyzed by using the Spearman correlation. The data were analyzed using SPSS version 20.

Results
The Most and Least Frequently Used Online Reading Strategies
The means (M) and standard deviation (SD) from the computation of the students' scores are shown in Table 1. These scores were interpreted using the following range (Mokhtary, Sheorey 2002): 0-2.49 (low), 2.50-3.49 (moderate) and 3.50-5.00 (high).

Table 1: The overall mean and SD for online reading strategy use

Group Level	Global		Problem-solving		Support		Socio-affective	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
High proficiency	3.37	0.54	3.59	0.69	3.18	0.71	2.92	0.66
Low proficiency	3.45	0.57	3.53	0.70	3.22	0.63	3.21	0.78
Average	3.41	0.56	3.56	0.69	3.20	0.67	3.06	0.73

As Table 1 displays, the problem-solving strategy is the most frequently used, as shown in the average score (3.56). Additionally, the strategy that is the least frequently used is socio-affective (3.06). It is interesting to note that for all of the categories, both levels demonstrate slightly similar numbers. The students are categorized as high-strategy users in terms of problem-solving strategies and moderate-strategy users in terms of global, support, and socio-affective strategies.

The Difference in Online Reading Strategy Use of Students across Proficiency Levels
To investigate the difference in reading strategy use between students of high and low proficiency levels, the scores of the two groups were compared by using the chi-square test. The result of the comparison for each strategy is presented in Table 2.

Table 2: The difference in online reading strategy use between groups

Categories	Value	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Global Strategies	37.438	.314
Problem-solving Strategies	25.028	.404
Support Strategies	26.323	.824
Socio-affective Strategies	13.506	.410

Table 2 shows that Asymptotic Significance (2-sided) of global strategy (.314), problem-solving strategy (.404), support strategy (.824), and socio-affective strategy (.410) are higher than the significance level (.05). Thus, there is no significant difference in EFL students' online reading strategy use across high and low proficiency levels.

The Relationship between Strategy Use and Reading Achievement
To investigate the relationship between strategy use and students' reading achievement, the Spearman correlation was used. The correlation coefficients for four reading strategy use are shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Summary of the relationship between strategy use and reading achievement

Categories	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
Global strategy	-.064	.536
Problem-solving strategy	-.023	.824
Support strategy	-.147	.152
Socio-affective strategy	-.205	.045

As shown in Table 3, three of the correlation coefficients of the four strategies do not show significance, on the other hand, a relationship is revealed by the only one strategy, namely, socio-affective strategy. The Sig. (2-tailed) is .045, which is smaller than .05 (Significance Level).

Discussion

The first research question in this study is investigating the most frequent strategy that was used by the participants. The result of the analysis shows that the online reading strategy most frequently used by the students was problem-solving. This strategy covers rereading the text, adjusting reading rate, and visualizing information. The students tended to use them while reading online. This is not in line with some previous studies (Huang et al., 2009; Barrot, 2016; Reyes, Bishop, 2019), which showed that support strategy was the most frequently used strategy. Ahmadian and Pasand (2017) disclosed that problem-solving strategies were also found as the most frequently used reading strategies applied by their subjects of the study.

On the other hand, support strategy is known as the strategy, which is the least frequently used. Unlike the results of the previous research, this study uncovers that socio-affective strategy is the slightest strategy used by the EFL students. This is in line with the theory stating that the majority of the reading strategies can be classified as cognitive, compensatory and memory-related strategies (Oxford, Nyikos, 1989).

The result of the analysis in this study exposes that students with low proficiency levels tend to use online reading strategies more often than high proficient students. The result of this study differs from the studies on students' proficiency levels. Different from some previous studies (Huang et al., 2009; Lin, Yu, 2015; Wang, 2016), in this present study, it is discovered that low proficient students are indicated as higher strategy users than students with high proficiency level. It might be because of the socio-affective strategy applied in this research. It is supported by Taheri et al. (2020). They argue that students with low-level proficiency tend to utilize social strategies more frequently than other strategies. It can be seen that low proficient students tend to be active in the discussion group compared with high proficient students. By involving this strategy, it lets students with low proficiency levels discuss their understandings of the text. They can also teach one another which appropriate strategies used to comprehend the text.

However, the difference of frequently-used strategy between them is not significant, as reported in Table 3. It shows that low proficient students get mean scores of each strategy higher than 3.50. As stated by Mokhtary and Sheorey (2002), 3.50 or greater can be considered as high, and a mean score of 2.50-3.40 is interpreted as a medium. In this data result, high group students appear to be medium-strategy users in terms of reading strategy use (i.e., support and socio-affective strategy). It can be interpreted that low proficient students are indicated as higher strategy users than students with high proficiency level.

Another result of the difference in EFL learners' strategy use is also satisfying to be discussed. Based on four categories, statistical analyses reveal no significant difference in students; reading strategies between both groups. This result might be

due to two main reasons: a) the simple structure of the online text chosen for the study, and b) the fact that learners (presumably) cope with the difficulties inherent to the online text (Juan, Madrid, 2009). As explained earlier that there was an additional strategy that became as classification, namely socio-affective strategy, this strategy also did not seem to have a significant difference.

During the process of reading comprehension, the students were allowed to communicate with their group members. High group students were more individual when reading online than their counterparts. They did not use a live chat very much during the reading session. On the other hand, the low proficient students often used this feature to help them understand the text better. They frequently did sharing, asking, and confirming their understanding. It might be caused by their confidence, which is not as high as the students with high proficiency level.

The last research question is to explore the relationship between strategy use and students' reading achievement. From four categories of strategy use, there is only one strategy that has a significant relationship between the use of reading strategy and reading achievement. Nevertheless, there was no data that supported the strong relationship between them. The correlation coefficients in this study ranged from -.064 to -.205. It shows a negative relationship between strategy use and reading achievement. It is interpreted that the more strategy the students use, the lower achievement they would get. Additionally, it confirms that the socio-affective strategy helps the students to comprehend an online text. It is supported by Huang (2014), he examines that the students, in online reading, felt that they could ask questions more freely and in ways that could not be achieved as certainly as in the paper-based module.

Huang et al. 's (2009), Zhang and Seepho's (2013), Lien (2016), and Brevik (2019) studies found a significant and positive correlation between strategy use and reading achievement. In their studies, they involved more than a hundred students as the research subjects. They also divided the subjects into some levels of proficiency; however, the participants in both studies were undergraduate students who were considered as advanced learners of English. It is different from this study, which involved students varying from beginners to those at the intermediate level of English, and this study involved less than a hundred students. It might be the reason why there is no strong correlation between strategy use and reading achievement.

Conclusion

This study revealed that the reading strategies used more frequently was the problem-solving strategy, whereas the socio-affective strategy was the least commonly used. Furthermore, statistical analysis revealed that no strategy has a significant difference in students. Another finding also shows that based on four categories; global, problem-solving, support, and socio-affective strategies, only one of those strategies disclosed a significant relationship between strategy use and reading achievement. Overall, it can be concluded that patterns for the use of EFL reading achievement and strategy are not directly related. When analyzing the relationship between the use of strategy and reading test results, it can be assumed that the students did not consciously apply the reading process-related strategies.

For future research, it is suggested to give the students more time in reading sessions to see if they would use more or fewer strategies to read online texts. Another limitation is related to the categorization of strategies. Since this study relied solely on the outcome of SORS, further research is needed to take more in-depth findings empirically into account. By using the method to gather data such as a semi-structured interview or think-aloud protocols, it can be granted by tapping into the reasons why learners use and avoid other specific online reading strategies. Furthermore, practices

on a specific strategy use to increase students ' understanding of the strategy is recommended for further studies.

Acknowledgements

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Appendix 1: Survey of Online Reading Strategies (SORS)

The purpose of this survey is to collect information about the various strategies you use when you read academic materials online. After reading each statement, click in the box which applies to you. Note that there are no right or wrong responses to any of the items on this survey. Please, save the changes when you close the file at the end.

Strategies Never or almost never   Only occasionally   Sometimes   Usually
            Always or almost always

Global Strategy
I have a purpose in mind when I read online
I critically evaluate the online text before choosing to use the information I read online
I scan the online text to get a basic idea of whether it will serve my purposes before choosing to read it.
I think about what I already know to help me understand what I read online.
I first scroll through the online text to see what it is about before reading it.
I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading online.
I analyze whether the content fits my reading purpose.
When I read online, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases.
I review the online text first by noting its characteristics like length and organization.
I check to see if my guesses about the online text are right or wrong.
I understand the value of a hyperlink before clicking it.
I read pages on the internet for academic purposes.
When reading online, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore.
I check my understanding when I come across new information.
I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the online text.
I use typographical features like bold face and italics to identify key information.
I use tables, figures, pictures in the online text to increase my understanding
I read pages on the internet for fun.

Problem-solving strategy
When online text become difficult, I reread it to increase my understanding.
I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading online.
I try to picture or visualize information to help remember when I read online.
I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.
I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading online.
When online text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I am reading.
I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading online.
I try to guess what the content of the online text is about when I read.
I can distinguish between fact and opinion in online texts.

Support strategy
I use reference materials (e.g., an online dictionary) to help me understand what I read online.
I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the online text.
I take notes while reading online to help me understand what I read.
I print out a hard copy of the online text the underline or circle information to help me remember it.
When online text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.
I go back and forth in the online text to find relationships among ideas in it.
When there are hyperlinks (links to other sites) in the text, I click on them to see what they are.
I annotate the online text by highlighting certain parts or leaving comments in the text to identify key information.
When reading online, I look for sites that cover both sides of an issue.
I paraphrase to better understand what I read online.
I adjust the settings like the text size, the margins of the pages, or the color for better concentration.
When reading online, I think about information in both English and my mother tongue.

When reading online, I translate from English into my mother tongue.

Socio-affective strategy
I play a music while reading online.
I verbalize my thought in the group discussion when I read online.
I understand the topic before I verbalize my thought when I am reading.
I participate in live chat with other language learners (my group members) to solve my problem.

*Adapted from TAKI, S. 2015. Metacognitive online reading strategy use: Readers' perceptions in L1 and L2. In: Journal of Research in Reading, vol. 39, n. 4, pp. 409-427. ISSN: 1467-9817

Appendix 2: The Scores of Students' Reading Comprehension Achievement and their Online Reading Strategy Use

No	Proficiency Levels	Scores of Reading Achievement	Scores of Online Reading Strategy Use	No	Proficiency Levels	Scores of Reading Achievement	Scores of Online Reading Strategy Use
1	High	82	151	49	High	40	138
2	High	86	155	50	High	50	140
3	High	51	174	51	High	37	158
4	High	73	101	52	Low	73	159
5	High	93	143	53	Low	72	156
6	High	93	158	54	Low	49	193
7	High	62	99	55	Low	44	124
8	High	69	112	56	Low	43	109
9	High	73	152	57	Low	63	115
10	High	77	157	58	Low	55	155
11	High	87	153	59	Low	42	114
12	High	79	134	60	Low	32	132
13	High	79	125	61	Low	70	146
14	High	65	137	62	Low	38	172
15	High	78	147	63	Low	45	177
16	High	74	89	64	Low	80	161
17	High	92	156	65	Low	62	137
18	High	93	157	66	Low	32	173
19	High	85	132	67	Low	62	151
20	High	76	152	68	Low	78	131
21	High	59	101	69	Low	51	138
22	High	97	127	70	Low	70	162
23	High	82	163	71	Low	62	152
24	High	82	146	72	Low	53	132
25	High	61	166	73	Low	39	139
26	High	84	104	74	Low	86	125
27	High	62	140	75	Low	53	96
28	High	95	150	76	Low	56	133
29	High	94	165	77	Low	36	143
30	High	88	155	78	Low	32	178
31	High	93	184	79	Low	37	139
32	High	93	148	80	Low	67	154
33	High	62	165	81	Low	41	157
34	High	69	170	82	Low	79	158
35	High	57	150	83	Low	62	143
36	High	73	149	84	Low	37	150
37	High	47	165	85	Low	73	157
38	High	43	130	86	Low	47	155
39	High	43	130	87	Low	40	182
40	High	47	167	88	Low	33	195
41	High	73	173	89	Low	30	109
42	High	60	140	90	Low	47	149
43	High	33	176	91	Low	70	179
44	High	37	135	92	Low	33	128
45	High	33	186	93	Low	40	147
46	High	47	160	94	Low	33	155
47	High	43	120	95	Low	13	166
48	High	47	172	96	Low	27	198

Formation of the foreign language training system in the context of its conceptuality

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Abstract
Currently, foreign language skills become relevant not only from the point of view of professional necessity but also to obtain the ability to successfully integrate into any multicultural environment in general and the international professional community in particular. In this regard, the article presents the following: A conceptual model of training a foreign language in the university education; The formulation of the main objectives of teaching a foreign language on the conceptual basis; Aspect disclosure of the conceptualization of training a foreign language; Feature description of information and communication support of training a foreign language in a university; emphasis on the opportunity of developing skills in the use of vocabulary in foreign language communication; justification for the use of the conceptual approach to the formation of foreign language activities.
Key words: foreign language, lexical structure, conceptual education, information and communication technologies, university, students, lecturer

Introduction
1.1. Actualization of the Problem of the Foreign Language Training in the Context of its Conceptuality
Currently, the world is undergoing complex and controversial changes, which also concern the development of foreign contacts in almost all spheres of activity. And in the context of globalization of world processes, the knowledge of foreign languages is the most important condition for success for an expanding circle of professionals. Meanwhile, the difference between "knowledge of the language" and "proficiency in the language" becomes more apparent; i.e. the competitiveness of a specialist is not determined by the knowledge of many foreign words and grammar rules, but by practical communication skills (Iskhakov et al., 2019). Hence, the success of an individual is predetermined by his ability to organize productive communication with people (Masalimova et al., 2019). And from the point of view of a foreign language, this means the ability of an adequate understanding of the interlocutor and finding a "common language". In this regard, not teaching objectives, but developmental and educational ones came to the fore. Moreover, each university teacher has the task not only to help students to learn vocabulary, grammar and syntax, but also to introduce them to the culture of another nation, to form an understanding of foreign traditions and customs; to help in comprehending another worldview, etc. However, as the analysis of psychological and pedagogical literature has shown, in the context of the problem under study there are certain contradictions, for example, such as: the contradiction between the need to master the vocabulary of a foreign language to use it in real communication and the lack of a conceptual approach to such mastery; the contradiction between the cognitive potential of conceptual learning of a foreign language and its insufficient presence in the process of learning the vocabulary of a foreign language. Thus, there is a need to develop elements of a foreign language teaching methodology, taking into account the construction of a foreign language training system in the context of its conceptuality, which, in particular, is also determined by the fact that there are known difficulties regarding the attitude of

students to the learning process itself (Kvon et al., 2019). For example, this problem is reflected in the reluctance of some young people to learn a foreign language. To solve this problem, in particular, for the formation of motivation to learn a foreign language in various educational institutions, various educational models of teaching are used with the use of cultural and intercultural competences (Gapontsev et al., 2019). This problem also arises when assessing the level of motivation of students to master a foreign language, the level of preparedness for this process. That is why it is so important to conceptually approach teaching a foreign language as a whole and find the right balance between the language and the culture itself. It is also important to take into account the difference in language perception of students, as well as the focus of the whole group on the learning process, in particular, on achieving goals in the implementation of foreign language communication. However, the solution of this problem cannot be considered sufficient, given the problem of high-quality language professional training of students in all its versatility, especially taking into account the modern requirements for the formation of the personality of a specialist (Moskalenko et al., 2019). And these requirements imply, for example, not just fluency of young people in a foreign language, but also the development of a whole range of their competences, among which we would always consider cognitive, informational, communicative, cultural, and regulatory to be relevant, which implies creating a language environment for students foreign language speech communication.

1.2. The Main Aspects of the Conceptualization of Foreign Language Teaching

Undoubtedly, the main aspects of the conceptualization of teaching a foreign language are in one way or another connected with the mastering of knowledge about a foreign language and its structure; with the formation of verbal and cogitative activity; with the enrichment of vocabulary and grammatical structure of students' speech; with the formation of such necessary for cognitive activity skills, as the ability to identify, analyze, compare, classify language facts; to evaluate them in terms of standard; to carry out information retrieval, to extract and convert the necessary information, etc. And the achievement of all these goals by students often depends on the quality of both group and independent work. In this regard, the university forms on the conceptual basis a certain structure for teaching a foreign language, which necessarily includes (these aspects are discussed in detail later) foreign language teaching, the expansion of active vocabulary, the use of information and communication technologies, the formation of foreign language activities. These aspects are a multidimensional model of teaching foreign languages, which is built on the basis of the conceptual nature of teaching, which involves mastering students' understanding of the organization of a foreign language system; self-organization skills in the expansion of vocabulary in a foreign language; understanding of vocabulary with regard to its professional orientation; the ability to structure the lexical and grammatical material in foreign language communication; the ability to correctly use speech patterns in foreign language speech; goal-setting students to improve the quality of their foreign language activities. In addition, this educational model is based on a concept that integrates, in addition to cognitive competencies, the development of students' communicative abilities in a foreign language; intercultural competencies that promote adequate behavior in the cultural environment of a foreign language; competence of self-organization of self-study of a foreign language. This educational model on the conceptual basis of training a foreign language implies the creation of maximum conditions for organizing communication in a foreign language, supplemented by cultural aspects in order to create prerequisites for better interaction in a multicultural environment. All this is directed, in fact, to the development of students' natural behavior and mutual understanding in intercultural relations.

Speaking about the main aspects of the conceptualization of teaching a foreign language, we also mean that the cognitive development of students should be directly

connected with the development of their emotional sphere, corresponding to a pragmatic perspective. Hence, the developed conceptual framework for teaching a foreign language creates a special educational space associated with a foreign language and taking into account its cultural context and the needs of students. At the same time, a holistic approach to structuring courses (modules) at each stage of education allows integrating all sorts of educational approaches and methodological techniques, resulting in social and cultural pedagogical tactics that stimulate student learning, thus solving various problems in new cultural and organizational conditions. Hence, this pedagogical tactic, which ensures the implementation of educational models, basically always supports the development of various educational scenarios in a foreign language, where the following components are combined: Teaching methodology, its methods, and techniques (for example, working together on a project in the language, business games modeling of thematic situations in the language, etc.); Information and communication technologies (for example, multimedia, social services and Internet services, computer tutorials, authentic video films, etc.); Educational formats (e.g., interactive lecture and seminar, distance learning, bilateral training, small/large groups, etc.). Thus, all this provides a general format for teaching a foreign language, taking into account the conceptual nature of this process in the conditions of the university, which is decided by teachers and methodologists throughout the entire period of students' education. And now various educational programs in a foreign language are being developed and implemented, connected not only with the development of language competencies among students, but also taking into account their future specialty, which is conditioned by the selection and systematization of educational material. In this regard, one of the conceptual foundations for the formation of the foreign language training system at a higher education institution is the creation of conditions for students' development of foreign language speech, for example, the organization of the natural language environment, when a foreign language is learned not only in class but also in the process of constant verbal communication with native speakers. All this, naturally, enriches and activates the stock of common foreign vocabulary, motivating students to organize communication in a foreign language.

1.3. Conceptual Approach to the Formation of Foreign Language Activities

When considering a conceptual approach to the formation of foreign language activities in the course of the study, the most productive methodological techniques for learning a foreign language were selected. So, gaming technologies are very relevant today, which can be used in high school at any level of education with the appropriate adaptation for the level of preparedness of each student. This may be, for example, a role-playing game of everyday content (aimed at forming speech etiquette), worldly content (related to the culture of behavior), an imitation business game (focused on developing the ability to organize communication in a foreign language), etc. In this regard, the conceptualization of the formation of foreign language activities is here to provide an opportunity to organize communication in a foreign language within a certain thematic storyline, where students are supposed to develop all types of speech activity. For example, it may be a certain interview of a student with an imaginary foreigner, during which the interlocutors exchange questions and answers. Or it can be organized in the form of a dialogue in a foreign language between the teacher and students (for example, during the formulation of the stated topic in the lesson). First, students formulate questions using interrogative words (for example, What ...? When ...? Where ...? Is it ...? How is it? ..., etc.), then the teacher writes these questions on the blackboard and asks other students try to answer them, arguing their assumptions. At the same time, the work can be varied. So, in the first column, questions that require a simple answer are written; the second

column contains questions requiring a detailed answer; in the third column, there will be questions that the students themselves cannot yet answer but would like to find answers to them. Then students listen to the proposed text for study and try to find confirmation of their assumptions about the stated topic. After this form of work, students begin to understand the main aspects of the topic being studied in this lesson. And this includes such a conceptual moment as the unfolding of the critical thinking process of students, when they analyze things and events with the formulation of reasonable conclusions with the aim of correctly applying them to various situations and problems. The use of critical thinking technology in foreign language classes contributes to the formation of students' communicative competence, providing comfortable conditions for their foreign language activities, stimulating their motivation to the practical use of a foreign language in everyday life. However, for more productive work of students, it is important that the language material contributes to the development of critical thinking of students; i.e. any remark of the teacher should activate the mental activity of students; so that no student remains indifferent to what is happening in the classroom.

Take, for example, such a technique as "brainstorming", which is aimed at developing a creative type of thinking, when the topic chosen by the teacher suggests various solutions to the problem considered in it. The most productive "brainstorming" is carried out in a group of students with no more than 5-7 people. And the main difficulty here is the organization of students' communication only in a foreign language. Therefore, before the "brainstorming", the necessary vocabulary, speech patterns and semantic tone of speech are worked out on the proposed topic. So, first, under the guidance of a teacher, a bank of ideas and various aspects of the problem are created. At the same time, any proposals are accepted (all this is fixed on the board). Then there is a collective discussion of the choice of the main idea and a proposal for it. At this stage, the teacher helps students to combine all the proposals in a single unit. Then a search is done for a selection of the most promising solutions. Thus, this technique can become a leading technique both at the stage of invoking reflection to one's own foreign language activity and as an important tactical stage of the occupation as a whole.

1.4. Status of a problem

In the lingua-methodical literature, ideas for the conceptualization of learning a foreign language have been developed. In this regard, the problems of teaching a foreign language from the point of view of the conceptuality of this process are found, in particular, in the works of E.V. Bondarevskaya (2000), M. Byram & A. Feng (2004), O.M. Vinnikova (2016). Important studies that actualize the problem of the vocational orientation of learning a foreign language were the works of L.V. Golikova (2005), O.Yu. Iskandarova (2000), I.G. Kondrateva & A.A. Valeev (2015). The development of aspects of the content and scope of language modality is discussed in the works of L.B. Boldyreva (1987), R Kern & J.M. Schultz (2005), P.V. Sysoev (2006). Considering the psychological mechanisms for mastering foreign grammar, we used the ideas of Z.B. Devitskaya (2008), R.C. Gardner (1983), B.L. Liver (2000). In this connection, the works of N.V. Elukhina (2002), R.R. Khusainova & A.A. Valeev (2018), E. Reid (2015) associated with the problem of teaching methods in training a foreign language were of great interest for us. Of great importance to us were also works related to the aspects of learning foreign languages of such authors as A.V. Babayants (2005), A.D. Ishkov (2004), V.S. Tsetlin (2000). This study was also based on such authors in the field of learning foreign languages as V.V. Grachev (2007), S.A. Iskrin (2004), Y. Zhang (2017). Of particular importance for this study were works on the development of the cognitive potential of students of such scientists as V.P. Ivanova (2013), A.N. Khuziakhmetov & A.A. Valeev (2017), S.V. Kuzmina & N.V. Vlasihina (2013). The use of modern approaches in teaching a

foreign language is discussed in the works of I.N. Kaloshina (2000), M.V. Nazarova & A.A. Valeev (2017), E.G. Sabirova at al. (2018). In this study, special attention was also paid to the aspect of increasing motivation to learn a foreign language in the works of such authors as O.G. Alulina (2005), I.L. Belykh (2004), E.A. Stepanova (2003).

1.5. Hypothesis

Based on the problems of this study, the hypothesis can be considered the assumption that teaching a foreign language in higher education will be more effective if:
- Students are aware of the conceptual principles of the organization of a foreign language system;
- There is the development of a conscious orientation of students to improve the quality of foreign language activities;
- At the stage of presenting new lexical units and speech patterns, attention is paid to the conceptualization of vocabulary with the aim of its awareness and understanding, taking into account professional orientation;
- A complex of exercises is created and introduced into the educational process in order to increase the level of students' communicative competence based on a conceptual approach to the formation of foreign language activities.

2. Research Methodology
2.1. The Tasks of the Research

In this study, the following tasks were set: 1) To explore the main aspects of the conceptualization of teaching a foreign language; 2) To identify the possibilities of information and communication support of teaching a foreign language in a university; 3) To consider the potential of a conceptual approach to teaching foreign language speech; 4) To consider opportunities to improve the development of skills to use vocabulary in foreign language communication; 5) To analyze the features and benefits of taking into account the conceptual approach to the formation of foreign language activities.

2.2. Theoretical and Empirical Methods

To test the hypothesis, various methods were used to complement each other: A theoretical analysis of psychological, pedagogical and methodological literature; Summarizing the experience of teaching English; Analysis of programs and textbooks on lexicology and speech practice; Questioning and interviewing; Students' self-assessment of the level of development of vocabulary skills in foreign language communication; Written and oral survey, testing of students; Pedagogical experiment; Analysis of research results.

2.3 The trial Infrastructure and Stages of the Research

The basis of the study was The Institute of International Relations и The Institute of Psychology and Education of Kazan (Volga region) Federal University. The study was conducted in three stages:
At the first stage (2014-2015) - The state of the problem in the scientific literature and teaching practice was investigated; The initial research positions have been developed; Empirical material was collected; The nature of students' attitudes to problems associated with the study of a foreign language was analyzed; The opportunities for productive learning of a foreign language in terms of the conceptual nature of this process were identified; The conceptual possibilities of teaching foreign language speech in the process of students' learning a foreign language are considered.

At the second stage (2016-2017) - A study was conducted on best practices in teaching foreign languages and methods of teaching them; A working hypothesis of the study was formulated; A technique for developing skills in the use of vocabulary in foreign language communication in the process of learning a foreign language was developed; The survey was conducted by testing students and teachers according to the method of expert assessments, managing the analysis and verification of student work, quantitative and qualitative analysis of pedagogical phenomena using the methods of mathematical statistics.

At the third stage (2018-2019) - An experimental verification was carried out of the possibilities of taking into account the main aspects of conceptuality when teaching a foreign language; The effectiveness of the implementation of the proposed conceptual approaches in teaching a foreign language was studied; The results of this research were recorded; Final wording of the provisions on formation of the foreign language training system in the context of its conceptuality has been implemented.

2.4. Possibilities of Information and Communication Support of Teaching a Foreign Language in a University

We believe that formation of the foreign language training system in the context of its conceptuality necessarily implies the creation of an information and communication environment conducive to solving a number of foreign language teaching tasks: firstly, to construct a language that is close to reality and exerts an intellectual and emotional impact on students necessary information of a linguistic nature; secondly, to provide students with wide access to reference, educational, methodological, and culture-intensive foreign language information (reference books, dictionaries, interactive excursions, etc.); thirdly, to form the ability to find and use the most relevant information related to the language; fourthly, to effectively organize the independent work of students in the self-improvement of a foreign language outside the audience. Hence, it is possible to structure a conceptual model of an adaptive information and communication system for teaching a foreign language at a higher educational institution, taking into account all its possibilities. The main thing is that this system should be organically linked with the system of access to learning content (for example, in the conditions of an audience or when students work independently). For example, the information exchange of a student with the system in the case of work in the classroom is also carried out using individual tablet computers with a wireless connection (they are issued in class). As for the information exchange of students with the system in the case of distance learning, it is carried out using university information networks and the Internet, which presupposes the availability of a digitized educational-methodical database on specific language topics (meaning relevant video and audio materials). The same applies to the learning management system, which provides for the registration, identification and authorization of students, as well as tests students according to specified criteria and analyzes their results. This system uses a data model in which all the initial data of the student with his grades, points scored, degree of mastering of the material, etc. are recorded. It is also important to note that the system provides for the support of teachers in the event of emergency situations when working with the learning environment, as well as providing them with substantive training for working with information and communication technologies.

Information and communication support of the process of teaching a foreign language involves the formation of intercultural competence in students, in addition to cognitive competencies, and the development of their communicative abilities, which would contribute to an adequate behavior in a cultural environment where they speak another language. In this regard, on the basis of electronic content (e-books, interactive games, various external electronic resources, etc.), an educational model is implemented in a virtual environment related to the development of skills for

independent learning of a foreign language, taking into account self-regulation of education. For example, students through self-assessment tests have constant feedback regarding their own results, the ability to accelerate and improve the quality of the learning process according to their learning goals. Moreover, web-based methods simplify the development of various tools to support formative assessment, including horizontal (with students) and vertical (with the teacher) dialogue, debate, and teamwork. All this contributes to the development of students' susceptibility to the language; mastering language skills (reading, speaking, listening, writing); activation of oral interaction in the target language; enhancing cognitive potential in studying the difficulties of a foreign language, etc.

Of particular note in the methodological plan is the use in teaching a foreign language, for example, Internet technologies that create an active language environment, where text messages are exchanged in the target language, which is very useful in teaching writing skills. So, Wiki features allow you to edit someone else's information directly from your browser. In this case, the point is that the Wiki replaces textbooks by using available content, which could facilitate communication among teachers and students. The possibilities of using Internet technologies in the study of a foreign language today allow the following to be done: to create and place websites and personal presentations online; participate in international Internet conferences, seminars and other network projects; exchange presentations between students from different countries; communicate with residents of English-speaking countries via e-mail, etc.

As for the possibilities of information and communication support of the process of teaching a foreign language in the conditions of a higher education institution, their effectiveness can be seen in organizing students' independent work, for example, in linguistics based on an electronic workshop, which is a comprehensive system that allows them to quickly address various tasks when performing tasks information sources (linguistic terms dictionary, interactive table, textbook article, etc.). The choice of help here depends on the student, on his ability to assess the language problem in front of him and to choose the supporting resource necessary for its solution, which, in turn, develops his regulatory and information competence. The main thing is that the mechanisms for managing the student from task to task, as well as support and control mechanisms are involved in the mode of independent work with a computer.

2.5 Conceptual Possibilities of Training Foreign Language Speech

The purpose of teaching a foreign language is to master students' forms of oral and written communication, as well as expanding foreign language vocabulary in terms of semantics, synonyms, adequacy and relevance of its use (this includes active work on vocabulary, constant expansion of lexical material, definition of its semantics; further - primary consolidation of lexical units in speech patterns and the development of skills to use vocabulary in various forms of foreign language communication). Considering the conceptual approach to teaching foreign language speech, we note that today there is a widespread transition from the educational paradigm of knowledge and skills to the competence paradigm, which implies competence-oriented training, in particular, of a foreign language, which is reflected in the modernization of Russian education. On this basis, language education implies that a university graduate should have the following achievements: to know the basic phonetic, lexical, grammatical, word-formation phenomena; patterns of functioning of the foreign language under study and its functional varieties. A university graduate must also possess the ethical and moral standards of behavior adopted in a foreign culture society; be ready to use speech patterns in social situations; be able to translate in compliance with the rules of lexical equivalence with the observance of grammatical, syntactic and stylistic norms. In this regard, the result of learning a

foreign language should be the mastery of the student's foreign language communicative competence. This is an important cognitive component, which is based on the individual's need to learn the language as a means of forming and expressing thoughts, and hence his understanding of the conceptual skills of using a foreign language. And here the central role both in the process of cognition and in speech activity in mastering the linguistic features of the language belongs to the student himself. And since the key concept in speech is the concept of the meaning of words, then at the stage of presenting new lexical units to students, it is important to pay attention to the conceptualization of the vocabulary with a view to its deep awareness and understanding by them in the organization of foreign language communication.

In this regard, we have developed a block of exercises with a conceptual approach to training a foreign language in order to expand students' knowledge about the use of speech samples of English in the framework of the topics studied. To do this, when working with speech samples, we included them in the second and subsequent sessions on a similar topic in order to update the previously studied vocabulary, to expand and consolidate the material. The system of exercises offered by us consists of the following stages. At the first stage, mental workout is carried out, involving students in the subject of the lesson, for example, by using the brainstorming technique, when students by leading questions and answers to them based on speech patterns try to formulate a conceptual idea of the topic given. At the second stage, students are to distinguish relevant speech patterns related to topics that would conceptually combine the input vocabulary, its semantics and polysemy in the proposed language situation. At the third stage, students are invited to fill in the gaps with speech patterns in sentences that represent complete thematic phrases. At the fourth stage, students answer questions using new lexical expressions, compose their own texts on the situation with the studied speech patterns, or prepare a short monologue.

Thus, within the framework of the conceptual approach to teaching foreign language speech, the priority is to form a student as a linguistic person who has the ability to create and perceive texts that differ in their structural and linguistic complexity, depth and accuracy of reflection of reality, as well as a specific target orientation. And to enrich the methodology as a basis, one should refer to the following positions:
- High-quality speech is a phenomenon that permeates the daily lives of people, their language, thinking and activity;
- Training foreign language speech is the development of students' understanding of complex and often unstructured phrases (for example, idioms, parallelism, inversion, paraphrase, etc.);
- Speech as such carries certain values which are reflected in the culture, consistent with this language system (this includes a dictionary as an inventory of ready-made units and grammar as a mechanism for combining them).

Thus, the understanding of the conceptualization of foreign language speech pushes the standard framework for understanding linguistic reality, allows for cognitive level to penetrate into another culture and language. Hence, the mastery of competent foreign language speech will always be relevant to the professional of any level.

3. Results
3.1. Development of Skills to Use Vocabulary in Foreign Language Communication

In the process of developing the skills of using vocabulary in foreign language communication, special attention is paid to semantics (the science of the meaning of words), where each element carries a certain functional load: the word contains a sound and graphic form; the concept reflects certain characteristics of a class of words; the idea carries in itself the personal views of communicators of

communication on the topic under discussion. Thus, pronouncing the phrase, we transmit a message consisting of a certain lexical material, which is determined by our own world outlook. For example, the phrase "A sprawling linden grows in our yard" at the same time carries the message that the item is in the named place; it is understood that this tree belongs to a particular type of plant; one can see the association of its size. And here the teacher's task is to clearly define the concept, so that it sets the situational framework for the application of each element (we imagine a certain yard in which a large tree called a linden tree is located); i.e. this definition of the concept is outlined in detail by certain characteristics in the form of specific words. And here, when developing skills to use vocabulary, it becomes important for students to learn various ways of expressing communication in a communicative direction, such as: A method of subject-predicative relations (the subject and his active action: "I am writing you a letter"; The subject and his state: "I miss our home"; The subject and his qualitative characteristic: "You think of me, but ignore me"); The method of expressing speech by a grammatical construction (combination of a cardinal number with a noun; use of a personal pronoun in the genitive case with a preposition; use of indefinite pronouns in interrogative and narrative sentences); The way of expressing a logical construct (for example, the noun in the instrumental case in the passive structure); The way of expressing a predicate (for example, an adjective in the form of a comparative or superlative degree; The way of expressing motion verbs in idiomatic constructions (for example, come to an agreement, go bankrupt); The method of expressing logical-semantic relations in a sentence (object constructions: Complex Object, The Objective Participial Construction, the Subjective Participial Construction; consistent and inconsistent definitions on the extended lexical and grammatical material: transmitted by adjective, gerund, infinitive, participle, participle, pronoun, noun, noun with a preposition and a definitive subordinate clause).

Hence, the most important task of a teacher is to form a clear understanding of each foreign language concept on the basis of clarification and explanation. In this regard, different methods are used to develop the skills of using vocabulary in foreign language communication, among which the most common is the description and explanation of vocabulary when introducing it into a speech construction in accordance with a given communicative task. However, just a descriptive method can cause a student boredom, so it is advisable to supplement it with a method such as *exemplification* (giving examples), i.e. selection of a specific lexical unit to a specific communicative situation. The next common method is *contrasting* when a general concept (for example, the verb "to make") requires an exact lexical unit for communication (for example, variants of the verbs "to create", "to produce", "to manufacture"). At the same time, in order to achieve the best results in the development of vocabulary skills, it is advisable to combine several methods in the work, taking into account the efficiency and strength of learning skills.

3.2. The Procedure and Results of the Experiment
In organizing the experiment on the stated hypothesis of this study, we proceeded from the fact that formation of the foreign language training system in the context of its conceptuality should take into account the development of the following skills in university students: Mastering knowledge of a foreign language and the organization of its system; Mastering the skills of understanding vocabulary with regard to its professional orientation; The formation of the student's goal-setting to improve the quality of his foreign language activities; The ability to structure lexical and grammatical material in foreign language communication; The ability to correctly use speech patterns in foreign language speech; The formation of self-organization competency with the intensification of speech and mental activity; The development

of intercultural competencies that promote adequate behavior in the foreign cultural environment. In this regard, we focused on the use of various tests that process such basic groups of exercises as: overview test; grammar test; a test on the stock of words, on the contextual application of relevant vocabulary; test for the ability to work with texts; audio testing, etc. Work on the criteria for the effectiveness of learning a foreign language in the context of its conceptuality was carried out in the 2018-2019 academic year: initially - in September 2018, secondly - in May 2019 in one experimental and one control group. The control group consisted of 18 students of The Institute of Psychology and Education of Kazan (Volga region) Federal University, who study a foreign language without taking into account the conceptual approach to this process; The experimental group included 15 students of The Institute of International Relations of this university, studying a foreign language taking into account the conceptual approach to this process. Diagnostic results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: The development of students' skills in learning a foreign language in the context of its conceptuality
("Plus" means an increase in indicators in% for the period September 2018 - May 2019)

Criteria for the effectiveness of learning a foreign language in the context of its conceptuality	Control group (learning a foreign language without taking into account the conceptual approach to this process)	Experimental group (learning a foreign language, taking into account the conceptual approach to this process)
Mastering knowledge of a foreign language and the organization of its system	+ 9 %	+ 52 %
Mastering the skills of understanding vocabulary with regard to its professional orientation	+ 6 %	+ 65 %
The formation of the student's goal-setting to improve the quality of his foreign language activities	+ 8 %	+ 56%
The ability to structure lexical and grammatical material in foreign language communication	+ 5 %	+ 44 %
The ability to correctly use speech patterns in foreign language speech	+ 2 %	+ 48 %
The formation of self-organization competency with the intensification of speech and mental activity	+ 1 %	+ 46 %
The development of intercultural competencies that promote adequate behavior in the foreign cultural environment	+ 4 %	+ 47 %

Compared with the results of the control group, a steady growth in all factors can be observed in the experimental group. Thus, according to the results of diagnostics of the totality of questions and tasks presented to students with the aim of a comprehensive quantitative assessment of the quality of readiness for learning a foreign language, we observe that the dynamics of increasing the language level of students who participated in the experiment exceed the similar dynamics of the control group. This may indicate the effectiveness of the work we did in the course of experimental work to increase students' ability to master a foreign language, taking into account the conceptual approach to this process. The dynamics of indicators of students mastering knowledge of a foreign language and the organization of its system also testifies to the formation of their self-organization competence in enhancing speech and mental activity on the basis of their mastery of understanding vocabulary, taking into account its professional orientation. At the same time, the number of students with a narrow range of correct use of speech samples in foreign language speech has decreased.

Thus, the conceptual approach to teaching a foreign language showed that the development of students' ability to structure vocabulary and grammar material in foreign language communication based on self-organization skills in expanding a vocabulary in a foreign language helps them develop the ability to correctly use speech patterns in a foreign language, taking into account conceptual understanding of vocabulary in the context of its professional orientation, which allows them to further develop an understanding of the organization of a foreign language system, and hence - to enhance the student's conscious focus on improving the quality of their activities through the development of foreign language communicative competences. All of the above suggests that the study confirmed basic hypothesis and allowed to increase the level of motivation for further study of a foreign language. However, this does not settle all the questions related to the development of students' skills in using a foreign language in the context of its conceptuality in order to ensure high-quality foreign language communication. Further research is required by the implementation of the following aspects of this process in various forms: Activation of the possibilities of self-education in the framework of virtual learning of a foreign language; Expanding the range of extracurricular work of students in order to form their readiness to put their knowledge into practice, etc.

Discussions

So, our analysis of the features of teaching a foreign language showed that the construction of the system of this process in the context of its conceptuality acquires the status of the most important educational aspect in the university, which involves solving problems such as:

− Initial monitoring of students' language training in order to increase independent work on the language;

− Analysis of the content of electronic educational resources (textbooks, study guides, teaching aids, etc.) in order to correct and clarify the lexical base for organizing the practice of foreign language speech;

− The introduction of new means of teaching a foreign language, determining their methodological effectiveness in accordance with the task of developing a linguistic personality, taking into account the formation of communicative competencies;

− Expansion of the complex of didactic forms of conducting classes to ensure a rich classroom work of students in the language;

− Development of a virtual environment of foreign language communication in order to solve the problem of developing intercultural competence among students;

– Development of tools for current and final control of foreign language acquisition by students at each stage of their education at the university.

And here, in connection with the solution of these problems, it is very important (due to the frequent absence of an active language environment) direct interaction during the educational process. In this case we are talking about the process of linguistic activity carried out as part of the constant speaking in a foreign language. This conceptual approach to teaching a foreign language directly or indirectly involves the development of the functions of the language, which captures such areas as linguistics, semiotics, sociology, cultural studies, ethics, etc. This teaching model is conceptually based on a direct information-rich dialogue between the teacher and the student (or students), which provides a clear prerequisite for an active stimulating learning process, leading to improved results in mastering a foreign language.

The productive dialogue itself (conversation in a foreign language) is formed in the lesson with the help of open and correct questions and answers, so when creating a dialog space, students actively acquire knowledge, especially when learning languages. And in this context, structural elements such as the syntactic element, the stylistic element, the communicative element and the cultural element are conceptually used. In the course of the study, it was found that all these elements, mutually concise, are reflected in the common pragmatic element, which provides motivation for foreign language communication, thus moving students to a deeper study of a foreign language. This gives reason to believe that the construction of a foreign language learning system in the context of its conceptuality can be considered as the result of a quality education in the field of language teaching.

Conclusion

So, the considered aspects of teaching a foreign language in the context of its conceptuality relied primarily on the assertion that at present the foreign language is becoming the most important means of communication and cooperation in the process of a real communicative situation. And one of the conditions for successful foreign language communication is the formation of a high level of language skills. However, despite the many theoretical and practical studies being carried out, there remains the problem of the need for the widespread use of the virtual environment and digital content to improve the teaching of a foreign language, which implies, ultimately, the creation of favorable conditions for organizing productive social communication in any area of an individual's life. At the same time, there is a need for cultural awareness of the modern young man, which creates an urgent need to contribute to him in his intercultural and linguistic development. This also lies in the conceptual context of teaching a foreign language, when university teachers must create conditions for the development of intercultural communication competencies among students in order to form their willingness to interact in a multicultural environment. Hence, language teaching and approaches to the study of a different language and culture should move from a descriptive nature to multilateral direct actions, which mean interaction and communication in a foreign language, which should lead, in our opinion, to the transformation of students' self-awareness and their openness to the world. And for this, educational content in the context of its conceptualism involves the creation of prerequisites for the empathic relations of all subjects of the educational process; for students to understand their own culture and language in conjunction with the values of another cultural environment, thereby increasing the degree of integration into the overall international educational infrastructure. Hence, the relevance of updating the methodology and content of teaching foreign languages is obvious with a focus on the real interests and needs of the modern student.

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The impact of collaborative instruction of language learning strategies on language learning beliefs and learner autonomy

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Abstract
Research on the relationship among language learning strategy, language learning beliefs and autonomy abounds in the literature. However, few studies have explored the possibility of promoting learners' autonomy and changing their beliefs through instructing language learning strategies in a collaborative manner. In addition, most of the earlier investigations have been carried out through purely cognitive or sociocultural perspectives employing solely quantitative or qualitative methods. Using a socio-cognitive framework, the present study aimed at first, identifying the relationships among language learning beliefs, language learning strategies, and learner autonomy; and second, investigating the role of collaboration in using language learning strategies that would eventually lead to autonomy and change of beliefs. To collect data, a mixed-method design was applied. An autonomy questionnaire, Horwitz's BALLI (Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory, 1987) and Oxford's SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning, 1990) were given to177 EFL learners at the University of Mazandaran in Iran. To supplement the quantitative data with qualitative data, negotiated interviews and the learners' self-reflection notes were used. The analysis was done using paired sample T-tests, SEM and also content analysis. The findings revealed that language learning beliefs affected the learners' autonomy through the mediation of language learning strategies. However, the instruction of the strategies did not have any effects on the learners' autonomy but it helped in changing their language learning beliefs. The qualitative analysis also led to identifying some categories, subcategories and their relationships to and effects on each other.
Key words: Autonomy, language learning strategies, language learning beliefs, cooperation

Introduction

Autonomy as a desirable goal in education helps individuals to get prepared for the rapidly changing world. According to Ahmadi (2013) citing Holec (1981), autonomy is not an inborn capacity but that needs to be acquired. Allwright (1990) defined autonomy as "a constantly changing but at any time optimal state of equilibrium between maximal self-development and human interdependence" (Little, 1995:178). Based on these definitions, it seems that learners can be guided to exercise autonomy through the interaction between internally individual and externally social aspects.

There have been a number of studies on different variables that affect learners' autonomy including, language learning strategies (Griffiths, 2008; Kormos, Csizer, 2014; Mlstar, 2001; Oxford, 2003; Yang, 2003). Results of such studies indicate that good language learners employ a wide range of strategies and have more control over using them, while less proficient learners indicate less control and order in applying them

While strategy is regarded as an important aspect in learners' autonomy, some studies cast doubt about the centrality of strategy and proposed some other concepts including learners' beliefs (Al Ghazali, 2011; Borg, Al-Busaid, 2012; Mohammadi, Alavi, 2016;

Momenzadeh, Alibabaee, 2016; SIM, 2007; Szőcs, 2017; White, 2008; Wenden, 2001).

More specifically, in second language acquisition (SLA), beliefs have been regarded as the cornerstone of learning; since researches have shown that successful learners have insightful beliefs about the learning process, and their own abilities (Breen, 2011, Kia Heirati, 2014; white, 2008). These same learners were also reported to have more effective use of language learning strategies (Abedini, Rahimi, Zare, 2011).

Furthermore Horwitz (1988, 1999), Peacock (1999), Gabillon (2005) and Chang and Shen (2010) argued that beliefs are indicators of and influential in using strategies. Moreover Yang (1998), Dornyie (2005), SIM, (2007) stated that beliefs can also be influenced by strategy use.

Therefore considering autonomy as the idealistic goal of education, language learning strategies that provide the tools to achieve this goal, and language learning beliefs as the key to every action and behavior as well, it seems that more studies are required to show the relationship among and also probable changes in these variables as a result of appropriate intervention. Unlike previous studies, the intervention provided for the learners was not a one-way, teacher-structured one; rather, the learners were encouraged to engage in a collaborative dialogue sharing their experiences of language learning and strategy use which helped them in their language learning process.

As Oxford (2003) contends, autonomy should be investigated from different combined perspectives, as many as possible. Furthermore Dörnyei (2007), Mackey and Gass (2005) maintain that a mixed method can complement the weaknesses of a single method with the strength of another method and it also can reach into a wider audience. To this end, considering the limitations of purely quantitative and qualitative methods, a mixed method design was used in the present research to indicate first, the relationship among the learners' autonomy, beliefs and language learning strategy use more clearly and second, to explore whether collaboration in using the effective language learning strategies would result in the learners' autonomy and changed language beliefs. (Masalimova et. al. 2019)

Literature review
In today's' world, human being is "a producer in the society rather than a product" (Ahmadi, 2013: 28), and in some cases it can lead to serious counterproductive tendencies related to education. As Hašková and Manduľáková stress, the society we live in currently is indisputably technology-based and in the context of such a society, one would logically expect science and technology education to be obligatory at schools and students to be interested in continuing their career education in various technical branches, but the contrary is true. Therefore, learners should be assisted to understand the social needs, to gain the ability to reflect on their learning, and transfer their learning experiences to the outside world (Hašková, Manduľáková, 2018: 66). Consequently, they can evolve in their educational, individual and social life rather than being the blindfolded followers. Thus, as Kumaravadivelu (2006) aptly describes, this type of autonomy can be called "libratory autonomy". There is not yet a single definition in the literature regarding autonomy, since different authors have described it from rather different perspectives, but all of them have a point in common, i.e. taking responsibility for learning.

Generally, autonomy has been defined from two extreme theoretical frameworks: cognitive and socio-cultural. Cognitive psychology considers learning and also autonomy as individual mental processes concerned with information processing, i.e. integrating information with old information that is stored in long-term memory to form a kind of network of mental knowledge. (Martin et. al. 2020, Mahrik et al. 2020)

Holec (1981) as the most cited author defined autonomy as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" implying that learners should take full responsibility in their own learning and their success depends on them not on others (Little, 2007:15). Benson (2006:22) also described autonomy as "the situation in which the learner is totally responsible for all of the decisions concerned with his learning and the implementation of those decisions". The cognitive approach applying quantitative methods of data collection offers a psychological picture of learners' autonomy by emphasizing what they need to be able to do to be autonomous through planning, monitoring, and self-assessment but does not describe ways through which autonomy could be achieved.

However some others take a sociocultural paradigm that believe human development is achieved not just based on individual cognition but as a result of social relations. Sociocultural theory applying qualitative data collection methods claims that "higher psychological functions are internalized from social interactions" (Little, 2007: 22). This theory believes that intermental processes are necessary to achieve intramental development. As Vygotsky claimed, social interactions provide some structures for learners to move from other regulation to self-regulation by having more volition over the process of learning. So, the intermental processes gradually change into intramental development and language is used as a tool to shape these processes.

However, Little (2001: 32) regards language learning as an interplay between social and cognitive processes and remarks that "in stressing the importance of the social-interactive dimension..., it is important not to underplay the importance of the individual-cognitive dimension". Oxford (2003: 90) also proposed that in order to investigate autonomy, different views and approaches should be combined and "no single perspective should be considered antithetical to any other". Thus, considering the limitations of both approaches and implying that independence is always restricted and influenced by dependence; it seems that socio-cognitive approach that takes on an interplay role in this continuum may represent the complex nature of language learning and autonomy.

Language classroom is a complex system in which events are not linear but there are a lot of factors that are related to each other. Among these factors learning beliefs and strategies are effective.

Oxford (1990) defined language learning strategies as "specific actions taken by language learners to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations" (p.8) and for her learning strategies are signs of autonomy (2008, cited in Ahmadi, 2013).

Oxford (1990), Wenden (1991) and Yang (1998, 2003) showed that learning strategies can be used in fostering learners' autonomy. Wenden (1991: 15) in her definition of autonomous learners referred to the importance of learning strategies by stating "...expert or intelligent learners have learned how to learn, they have acquired the learning strategies...". Yang (1998) considered strategy instruction as a part of autonomy training to guide learners to assess their performance, set their own goals, plan, monitor and evaluate their success. MIstar (2001: 99) maintained that "if the pursuit of learner autonomy requires that we focus explicitly on the strategic

capability of language learning and language use, the reverse should also be the case, focus on the strategies should lead us to learner autonomy".

Although language learning strategies, especially the metacognitive strategies play a central role in learner autonomy, the variety of the strategies used seems to be restricted by learners' beliefs (Chang, Shen, 2010; Gabillon, 2005). Belief as a complex construct is defined differently in the literature. This difference can be ascribed to the ideologies that different authors have. From the view of cognitive theories beliefs are considered as part of metacognitve knowledge (Flavell, 1987) and are defined as relatively static and stable phenomena pointing to the relationship among beliefs and other psychological constructs. On the other hand, Sociocultural theory recognizes beliefs as social, context-dependent, dynamic, changeable and flexible phenomena. In spite of cognitive and sociocultural theories, socio-cognitive framework takes an interplay role and according to Larsen-Freeman and Long, (1991) "it begins with the biological predispositions of the human mind for language and learning in consort with external reality" (Bernat, 2008: 10). According to this theory learners co construct their beliefs through their social experiences with others and with the tools in social contexts. Also their cognition processes work at the same time and in parallel to their social experiences.

In Iran, Abedini, Rahimi and Zare-ee's (2011) findings revealed that Iranian EFL learners with more positive beliefs used more strategies and were more proficient in English. In another study in Iran, KhaffafiAzar and Saeidi (2013) studied the relationship between EFL learners' language learning beliefs and their strategy use applying Horwitz's (1987) BALLI and Oxford's (1990) SILL. They indicated that the learners with more positive and reasonable beliefs concerning language learning applied more language learning strategies.

In addition, Yang (1998) claimed that beliefs can also be influenced by strategy use and the relationship between these two factors can be bidirectional. In the same vein, Dornyie (2005) suggested that a direct intervention strategy may work in altering or fostering beliefs. SIM's study (2007),too, indicated that learners' beliefs in his study were affected positively by the teachers' use of an "integrated, structured, and explicit focus on active learning and goal setting"(p.128) that in turn resulted in raising autonomous behaviors which were evident in the learners' beliefs.

Thus, as Barcelos (2006), Szőcs (2017), and Wenden (2001) remarked in order to understand what good language learning includes and subsequently foster autonomy first we need to identify students' beliefs and knowledge about their learning , next offer activities that let them examine these beliefs and their influences on their learning process.

Purpose of the study
Generally, as can be implied from the literature, autonomy, beliefs and strategies are interrelated constructs and any attempt in one of them may foster or hinder the other two. Baring this in mind, the current study, exploring the relationship among these variables intends to shed further light on the issue and through the use of an intervention attempts to investigate the role of collaboration in promoting autonomy and the changes, if any, in the learners' language learning beliefs. In addition, considering the shortcomings of both cognitive and sociocultural theories that apply either quantitative or qualitative methods of data collection, it seems that a pluralistic framework (socio cognitive) that takes advantages of the both approaches and allows the triangulation and integration of data can provide the answer to the complex nature of language learning in general and also autonomy and beliefs in particular.

In an attempt to yield clear insight into the issue, this study seeks answers for the following questions:

1. Is there any relationship among autonomy, language learning strategy and language learning beliefs?
2. Does collaborative learning strategy instruction affect learners' autonomy?
3. Does collaborative learning strategy instruction affect learners' beliefs?

There are three hypotheses according to the questions:

1. Language learning strategies are the mediators of the effects of language learning beliefs on autonomy
2. Instructing language learning strategies leads to the development of autonomy.
3. Instructing language learning strategies leads to the development of beliefs.

Methodology
Participants
The participants were drawn from the original population of an antecedent study carried out by the same authors that included 177 BA students majoring in English literature and English teaching at the University of Mazandaran, Iran. The original subjects filled out BALLI, SILL and an autonomy questionnaire in order to find out the characteristics of autonomous learners and distinguish the autonomous and less autonomous participants. The learners who scored 1.5 standard deviation higher than the mean, were selected as the autonomous learners and the students who scored 1.5 lower than the mean were chosen as the less autonomous learners. This was done on the basis of the rubric provided by the developer of the questionnaire. Finally 11 less autonomous students including 6 males and 5 females were selected according to their availability as the participants of the current study to investigate the possible effects of the treatment on the learners' language learning beliefs and strategies. The average age of the learners was 21.0675 (SD=2.36781, Range=18–30years).

Instrumentation
Horwitz's (1987) beliefs about language learning inventory (BALLI) and Oxford's (1990) the strategy inventory for language learning (SILL) were administered to the learners. Moreover, an autonomy questionnaire that was a combination of some items of Chan, Spratt and Humphreys (2002) and Zhang and Li (2004) autonomy questionnaires was designed and piloted with a group of learners sharing the same characteristics with the target group. The cronbach alpha was calculated and the result showed a valid and reliable reliability index (r=0.78). Since after examining the categories of BALLI through cronbach alpha it was shown that the reliabilities of individual categories of BALLI were not acceptable, it was decided to emit some items. The overall reliability of BALLI after the revision was 0.89. The analyses were based on the revised reliabilities attained through cronbach alpha.

The reliability of SILL was calculated through cronbach alpha and the results showed a satisfactory reliability index (r=91>70). Moreover, for the qualitative analysis of the data, negotiations or negotiated interviews, and self-reflection notes were used. As Dornyei (2007) mentioned interview is the most applied instrument in qualitative studies since it is regarded as a famous communication method that happens routinely in our social life. Furthermore Cook (1992) contends that in negotiation, learners discover their ideas for themselves. Self-reflected notes were also used to triangulate the data from several sources.

Data Collection Procedure
Initially, the three BALLI and SILL, and autonomy questionnaires were administered to 177 BA students including 55 males and 122 females majoring in English literature and English teaching at the University of Mazandaran. Then, based on the result of the

autonomy questionnaire, the participants were separated in to autonomous and less autonomous learners. Next, through convenient sampling, 11 participants for the second phase of the study were drawn from the pool of less autonomous learners and were engaged in collaborative learning strategy instruction. Then five of the strategies that were more frequently used by autonomous learners were selected and extracted from the SILL questionnaire and were used as the target of the treatment. The items included two cognitive (items 14, 17) and three metacognitive strategies (items 33, 34, 37). Overall, five full sessions of 2 hours were spent on engaging learners in a collaborative dialogue over finding the best ways of implementing these strategies in their learning process. The final session was dedicated to students' oral reflection session during which they talked about their experiences of using the strategies and the effects that they had on promoting their learning. Since it was assumed that some of the learners' lack of proficiency in English may hinder their speaking, all the sessions were held in Persian, although the students were allowed to speak English whenever they were willing. During the treatment, the strategies were negotiated and discussed by the group without any direct instruction by the teacher, although she was a negotiator too. The students shared their ideas, suggestions, personal feelings, and reflections about the strategies during the treatment. This research did not aim to instruct the strategies directly by the teacher, but it was assumed that encouraging learners to express and discuss their opinions openly through negotiation, listening to their friends' ideas and experiences would make them aware of their differences, weak and strong points, and also raise their knowledge of the varied options and strategies they can take in learning English. At the end of every session, the students were asked to do some assignments using the proposed strategies and write their reflections for the next meeting. At the end of the five treatment sessions, all three questionnaires were administered to theses learners again as the posttest.

Data Analysis
To analyze the data regarding the first hypothesis, structural equation modeling (SEM) through Amos (version 20.0) was used. According to Dornyei (2007) SEM is applied to interpret the relationship among several variables within a single framework. He also mentions that SEM can show the directional relationship between variables including cause and effect relationships according to correlational data, so it is preferred over factor analysis. Dornyei also mentioned AMOS as one of the most popular statistical softwares to test SEM. In order to investigate the second and third hypotheses, the data were analyzed through paired sample T-tests. According to Dornyei (2007) paired sample T-tests are used when comparing two sets of scores that are obtained from the same group or when the same subjects are evaluated more than once.
In order to analyze the qualitative part of the study, qualitative content analysis was used through transcribing the data, pre-coding reflections and coding. As Dornyei (2007: 246) remarks content analysis is "a second level intereptive analysis of the underlying deeper meaning of the data" that he called it"latent level analysis".

Results
The results of the Quantitative Part of the Study
The Relationships among Autonomy, Language Learning Strategy, and Language Learning Beliefs
Table 1 shows the fit indices of the conceptual model of the structural relationships among autonomy, language learning strategy, and language learning beliefs. In an acceptable model, the GFI should be more than 0.90, the CFI greater than 0.93 (Byrn, 1994), the RMSEA is less than.08 (Brown, Cudeck1993) and ideally less than.05 (Steiger, 1990).
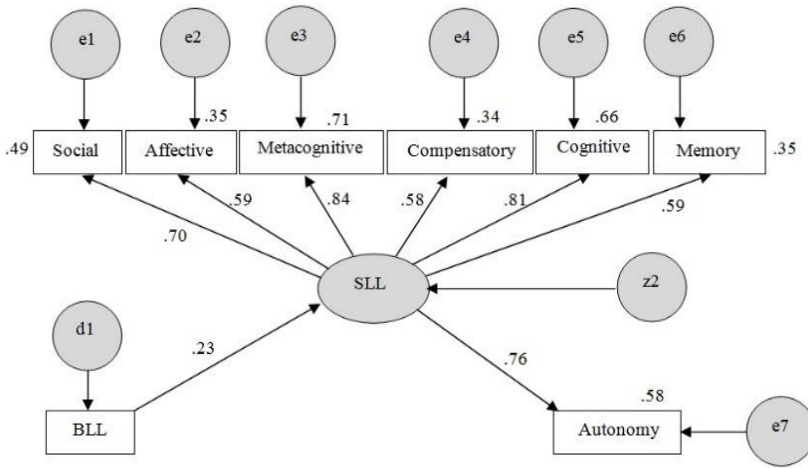
Figure 1: Squared Multiple Correlation and Standardized Direct Coefficients for the Mediation Model of the Relationships among Model Variables
Note: Strategies of Language Learning (SLL), beliefs about language learning (BLL)

Results revealed that squared multiple correlation for autonomy was 0.58, showing that 58 percent of variance in autonomy was identified by BLL and SLL. It means that 58 percent of the reason of individual differences in autonomy was established by language learning beliefs and strategies. In addition, it was presented that BLL has a standardized direct effect on SLL (0.23, p=0.001) and SLL had a standardized direct effect on autonomy (0.76, p=0.001). Moreover these standardized direct effects were significant (p<0.05).In addition, BLL had a standardized indirect effect on autonomy (0.29, p=0.001) through the mediation of SLL.

Therefore, the hypothesis that language learning strategies were the mediators of the effects of language learning beliefs on autonomy was confirmed since the fit indices of the conceptual model of the structural relationships among variables were satisfactory and also the standardized direct and indirect coefficients were significant (p=0.001<0.05).

Since the value of significance for T– test was less than 0.05 (0.004), the difference between the pretest and the posttest was significant. In order to assure that the difference between the pretest and the posttest in language learning beliefs after the instruction was significant regarding the few number of the participants, a nonparametric test was used, applying Related Samples Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test. Since the value of the significance was lower than 0.05 (0.008), the difference between the pretest and posttest in language learning beliefs after the instruction was confirmed. So the instruction of language learning strategies had an effect on language learning beliefs and the hypothesis was confirmed.

The Result of the Qualitative Part of the Study
As Mackay and Gass (2005) remarked "qualitative research is often process-oriented and open ended with categories that emerge" (p.163). After transcribing, analyzing, pre-coding and coding the data, 17 initial codes were obtained. Next, second level coding was applied in order to understand "more abstract commonalities" (Dornyei 2007, p.252) and discover probable patterns that may emerge from the individual data.

Finally, 17 initial codes were recorded and categorized under three broader labels, language learning, environmental and personal factors that are in some parts similar to Benson and Lor's (1998) study.

These second leveled codes were subsumed under the general category of beliefs, as all the learners unanimously confirmed that all their actions and behaviors refer back to their beliefs. However, all these codes seem to be related to each other. Figure 2 shows the relationship between language learning beliefs and learners' conceptions of teaching.

Figure 2: Relationship between Language Learning Beliefs and Learners' Conceptions of Teaching Strategies.
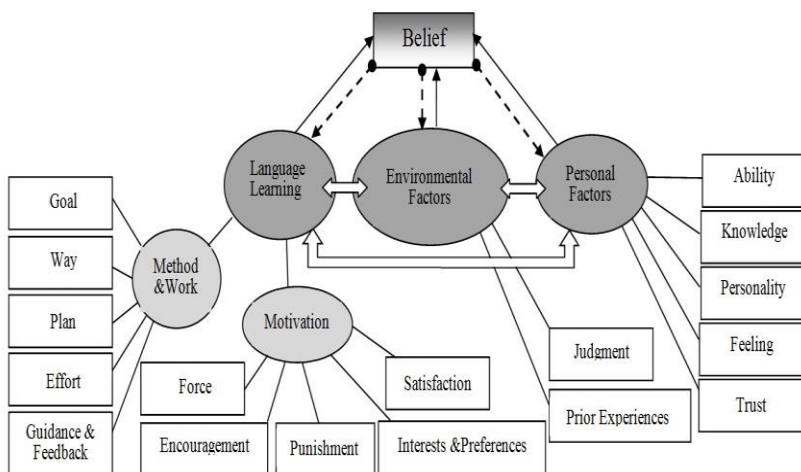
Note:

The effect of language learning beliefs on the factors involved in language learning

The effect of teaching strategies on the learners' beliefs about language learning
through negotiation of learners' conceptions

The interrelationships among the categories

Discussion
Discussion of the Quantitative Results
The relationships among Autonomy, Language Learning Strategy, and Language Learning Beliefs
As mentioned earlier, autonomy is not in born and can be acquired, (Holec, 1981, Little, 2007). In order to help the acquisition of learner autonomy different points should be considered in which strategy and beliefs are important aspects. In the literature, beliefs are regarded as the key, guiding and shaping individuals' behaviors and thoughts, influencing the way they internalize the world (Szőcs, 2017). The model in Figure 1 shows that beliefs about language learning had a direct effect on language learning strategies. Earlier studies also confirmed this finding. Abraham and Van (1987, cited in Chang, Shen, 2010), Wenden(1986), Yang (1998, 1999) reported that

the learners' beliefs about language learning seem to have directed them in choosing learning strategies and provided the rational for their strategy choice and use. Gahungu (2007) also showed a significant relationship between strategy use and self-efficacy beliefs. In Iran, Abedini, Rahimi and Zare-ee (2011) presented that EFL learners with more positive beliefs use more strategies. Khaffafi Azar and Saeidi (2013) also concluded that understanding learners' language beliefs are essential in order to understand language learning strategies they apply and also plan and implement appropriate language instruction.

As it seems beliefs are the factors that direct learners toward employing effective strategies. So as Wenden (1986) remarked in order to understand what includes good language learning, first we need to identify students' beliefs and knowledge about their learning in order to offer activities that let them examine these beliefs and their influences on their learning process.

In addition, the model of this study presented in Figure 1 revealed that the learners' strategies influenced their autonomy that is in line with the earlier investigations. Oxford (1990), Wenden (1991) and Winne (1995, cited in Griffiths, 2008) considered language learning strategies as the means to control and regulate learning, i.e. implement autonomy in learning. Some studies including Ceylan (2015, cited in Mohammadi, Alavi, 2016), Oxford (1990), Wenden (1991), and Yang (1998, 2003) indicated that in order to develop learners' autonomy, learning strategies can be employed. So strategy instruction to direct learners to goal setting, monitoring and evaluating the process, and also assessing their success can be considered as a part of autonomy training. In addition, through reading about and discussing the strategies of successful language learners, students get an initial understanding of the concepts of learning strategies (Wenden, 1986). Also teachers should help learners increase the repertories of their strategies and not replace them. Moreover they are required to guide learners to consciously choose the best strategies that fit their styles, tasks, or contexts and involve them in choosing the materials and evaluating processes and outcomes. Through these activities learners may acquire strategies especially metacognitive strategies to take control of their learning and consequently move toward autonomy.

Further the current model shown in figure 1 displayed that language learning beliefs had an indirect effect on autonomy through the mediation of the effects of language learning strategies. It is generally accepted that beliefs affect actions and the ways to approach language learning. According to Ajze''s theory (SIM, 2007) of reasoned action, beliefs are considered as the roots in individuals' action and thought. It seems in order to raise autonomy, first learners' beliefs as the leading factors in every action should be noticed that has been confirmed by earlier studies. White (1995) suggested that to improve autonomy learners should develop their conceptions and understanding of language learning, their role in this process and also create appropriate strategies. Cotterall (1995) reported the influence of learners' beliefs about language learning on variability in using the tactics to control autonomy. Abraham and Vann (Griffiths, 2008) presented a model in which learners' conceptions and beliefs influence how they approach language learning, which subsequently have direct impacts on successful language learning. The present study confirms earlier findings and is in line with Abraham and Vann's (Griffiths, 2008) investigation. It can be implied from the findings that before taking any interventions to provide activities and techniques to direct learners toward autonomy, learners need to experience different and even conflicting beliefs in order to raise their awareness of other viewpoints and options.

Collaborative Learning Strategy Instruction
Regarding the second question, the literature points to the importance of learning strategies to develop autonomy (Azimi, Baradaran, 2013; Cotterall, 2000; Kormos,

Csizer, 2014; Oxford, 2003). However it was also indicated that teaching language learning strategies explicitly does not ensure a successful learning experience. Learners should be metacognitively aware of what they are doing and also connect these strategies with their goals for learning (Van, Abraham, 1990, Wenden, 1998, cited in Davis, Elder, 2004). Therefore, the present study tried to apply negotiated interviews to raise the learners' awareness of their problems, different options and choices they can take. However, the results of the paired sample T-test indicated that the instruction of language learning strategies through negotiations did not have any effects on the learners' autonomy. The probable reason may be related to the limited period of the instruction that was provided during five sessions.

Regarding the third question, beliefs can be explained as "mental constructions of experience" (Sigel, 1985: 351), which are both cognitive and social, the constructs that result from experiences. The literature also points to the changes that may happen to beliefs as a result of new experiences (Dornyie, 2005; SIM, 2007; Tanaka and Ellis, 2003). Yang (1998, 1999) proposed cyclical relationships between learners' beliefs and strategy use, i.e. he mentioned that beliefs lead to applying a set of specific strategies, therefore, the use of strategies may also result in belief formation or change.

Human being is not the mere receiver of knowledge but in facing new conceptions and experiences, he refers back to his previous existing experiences and knowledge and accordingly constructs or reconstructs his knowledge. Through collaborations and interactions, individuals will be able to understand new, even conflicting and challenging aspects of life, and consequently revise their knowledge. In general language learning and in particular beliefs about language learning are parts of this individual knowledge that can be reshaped confronting new experiences. Language learning strategies are one type of these experiences. To meet these goals, teachers need to raise students' awareness of different techniques and strategies they can employ in language learning through having discussions, negotiations, keeping diaries, journals and portfolios. Thus, one of the key preconditions to increase efficiency and quality of education (or education activities at schools) is mainly the teacher's professional skills and their development (Gadušová, Hašková, Predanocyová, 2019: 23; Hašková, Gadušová, 2017: 279, Usak, Masalimova, 2019). Moreover, involving learners in making decisions regarding their language learning including setting goals, choosing materials, evaluation and reflection can foster their understanding of different approaches they can take. Also teachers should provide enough space for learners to try new learning strategies and reflect on them, express their agreement, disagreement and their reasons for them. As Ewald (2004) in Griffith (2008: 126) stated, "instead of changing learners, we need to help them to see themselves" and through interactions guide them to develop their awareness of different behavior and conceptions that affect their language learning.

Discussion of the Qualitative Results

The importance of learners' perspective can be captured from Marton and Ramsden (1988), and Benson & Lor, (1998:7) that "learning should be seen as a qualitative change in a person's way of seeing, experiencing, understanding, conceptualizing something in the real world" rather than as simply a quantitative change in the learners' knowledge. Moreover, Tanaka and Ellis (2003) pointed to the dynamic dimension of learners' beliefs, proposing that "qualitative approaches are needed to gain a deeper understanding into how learner beliefs emerge and how they might interact with the language learning process" (p.69)

According to Benson and Lor (1998) listening to learners is the best way to approach their perceptions and readiness for autonomy. The learners' reflections guided us to generalize their ideas as learners' beliefs. White (2008) described

language learning beliefs as the beliefs learners have about themselves, about language and language learning, and about the context in which they act as a language learner and user. Similarly, as shown in Figure 2, the learners' ideas are subsumed under the notion of beliefs and categorized as beliefs about language learning, beliefs about environmental factors and beliefs about personal factors. All the categories seem to be related to each other and overlap to some extent.

The category of beliefs about language learning means the learners' perceptions of how to learn a language the best way that are independent of but also related to their beliefs about environmental and personal factors. Regarding this category, it seems that the learners are aware of their problems, but cannot turn this awareness into practice. They related their problems to some outside factors that they believed were not under their control; (A: I cannot plan because something unexpected happens. I know that plan does not work for me). It seems that they are not able to adapt themselves to contextual factors and control them that are the necessary conditions to exercise autonomy (Benson, Lor, 1998). White's (1999; 2003 cited in Griffith, 2008) longitudinal study reported that good language learners are not those who have a set of beliefs, but are ones who able to adapt their beliefs and expectations to different possibilities and opportunities available in the context successfully.

In addition, the learners seemed unwilling to accept responsibility for their own learning as they ascribed their reasons for their avoidance of the strategies to some unexpected matters and others' judgment (A: Maybe the thing that I am going to say is not attractive for the others and is not appropriate), while taking charge of one's learning is an important aspect of learner autonomy. Moreover, as Griffiths (2008) explained strategies are selected by individual learners and cannot be dictated to them, so their involvement and willingness is important in instructing strategies. Further their fear of others' judgment influences their motivation and willingness to collaborate and interact with others that is critical to raise autonomy.

Additionally, the learners disclosed some external motivation, particularly instrumental motivation such as marks in their speaking (AA: If there is a mark I engage in speaking.). This external and instrumental motivation can be related to environmental and situational factors since in the context of Iran, English has no place in daily affairs, but it is just used in educational contexts. Additionally, from a global point of view, another instrumental motive for students could be obtaining better opportunities because of their mastery over English. As Stranovská et al. (2016: 2142) assert "currently the need to speak foreign languages across the world has created a significant need for efficient methodologies, high quality resources and well-educated and qualified, interdisciplinary educated foreign language teachers for the development of foreign language competence. This overhaul is connected to the need for good communication skills in foreign languages as today, it is not enough to be able to read or write in a foreign language, but to be able to communicate authentically in a foreign language speaking world. Acknowledging these needs, foreign language teaching methodology has shifted its focus from grammar and traditional receptive teaching to communicative and community-based approaches with a wider focus on the interdisciplinary aspects of foreign language education." Also Kormos and Csizer (2014: 291) in their study reported that "motivational factors exert their effect on autonomous learning behavior through the mediation of self regulation strategies". Since the learners believe in external motivation such as marks or force, they do not employ the strategies such as planning and goal setting that are required to exercise autonomy. So the learners' conceptions regarding language learning show that they are not ready, willing and able to accept responsibility and exercise autonomy for their learning.

The category of beliefs about environmental influences shows the learners' ideas about the relationship between "self and others in a specific social context"

(Benson, Lor, 1998: 28). Since the learners have negative feelings regarding others' judgment, they are not willing to collaborate and interact with others that are prerequisites to develop autonomy; (AA: If I start the conversation, the others may not like it and get disappointed, they may laugh at your question).

Regarding prior experiences about planning and note taking, the participants pointed to their unsuccessful experiences (L: One time I tried note taking but it didn't work. For my university entrance exam the counselor specified the time for me to study, for one month I tried it, but I couldn't continue). As Wenden (1986) stated, learners' beliefs provide the rationale for their strategy use, these negative feelings, evaluations and beliefs may lead them in taking inappropriate strategies and techniques. Furthermore, these beliefs can decrease their confidence and motivation that according to Littlewood (1996:427) in turn, affect learners' willingness. As Littlewood (1996) mentioned autonomy is related to "learners' ability and willingness to make choices independently", so this level of decreased motivation influences learners' autonomy.

Moreover, Benson and Lor (1998: 2) stated, "the resources that learners draw out in making sense of autonomy are conditioned by the context in which they learn". Al Ghazali (2011: 6) also explained that "the mediated characteristics of beliefs explain that they are influenced by situation, task and people one interact with". So it seems that learners' beliefs about environmental factors influence their conceptions of language learning and also personal factors.

Regarding learners' beliefs about personal factors that display the learners' evaluation about their roles and proficiency in the process of language learning, the participants' expressions showed that they evaluated themselves negatively. If learners do not believe in their abilities, they do not put in enough effort since they believe it will be useless; (B: I'm not the sort of person to set goals. If I set a goal and cannot achieve it, I get nervous). As Benson and Lor (1998) remarked positive self-evaluations foster motivation, negative self- evaluation can also decrease learners' motivation and consequently it may hinder autonomy.

Some of the learners pointed to their lack of knowledge as the probable reason for their unwillingness to start conversation; (AA: We don't speak about the topic maybe because we don't have enough knowledge about it). As Little (1994) remarked that "If learners are to establish a personal agenda for learning, the content of their learning must be relevant to their perceived needs and interests and thus accessible to them" (p. 439), teachers should provide activities that learners have knowledge about in order to encourage them to speak.

In addition, some of the learners mentioned that they do not trust themselves; (J: I don't trust my notes; again I refer to the book). This distrust to one's abilities and knowledge may act as a barrier toward their autonomy, since they never believe in themselves and are always dependent on others. Concerned with this point, Watkins (1996); Benson & Lor, (1998: 8) proposed that "...for students to want to adopt a deep-level approach to learning requires confidence in their own academic ability".

As mentioned earlier, autonomy includes learners' control over the process of learning (Benson, 2006). Learners' personal factors are one aspect of this process that needs to go under the control of learners.

Finally, unlike the findings in which peer scaffolding to each other during a collaborative presentation task benefited learners, this study demonstrated that collaborative work did not create that much of learning conditions.

Generally, all of these categories and subcategories appear to be related to and influential on each other. So teachers should expose learners to different conceptions of language learning that other learners have through negotiations,

discussions and tasks. They also should help learners adapt themselves to the appropriate contextual opportunities and take control of their own learning. Referring to Riley (1996, cited in White, 2008) that beliefs will directly affect learners' use of strategies and also their attitude and motivation and Benson and Lor (1998) that motivation can indicate autonomy, it can be concluded that investigating learners' perceptions is critical and necessary to study language learning strategies and autonomy.

Conclusions and implications
In her definition of autonomy Sinclair (2000) in Kojima (2006) remarked that it has both individual and social aspects. Moreover, Oxford (2003: 90) stated that in order to explore autonomy different perspectives and frameworks should be combined and "no single perspective should be considered antithetical to any other".

So using socio-cognitive theory, the current study tried to show the relationship among the three constructs and also the effect of strategy instruction on learners' autonomy and language learning beliefs. This paradigm has more tendencies toward sociocultural theory and claims "higher psychological functions are internalized from social interaction" (Little, 2007: 22). So social interactions offer some structures and constructs that gradually become internalized as cognitive capacity (Little, 2007). The current study showed that language learning beliefs had an indirect effect on autonomy through the mediation of language learning strategies. Earlier studies also confirm this finding. Wenden (1986) used the term of metacognitive knowledge to define beliefs and later (2001) she stated that metacognitive knowledge is a prerequisite for using the self regulatory processes leading to autonomy. Learners evaluate self and others and tasks in hand and apply self-regulatory systems through their metacognitive knowledge in order to choose the strategies that they think fit the task (Alanen, 2003; Bernat, 2008). In addition learners need to be aware of the strategies they employ in order to take more control over their learning to develop autonomy. In the pre tests the learners' conceptions about autonomy, language learning strategies and beliefs were evaluated as psychological cognitive concepts. Through the posttests the learners' understanding of language learning beliefs and autonomy as cognitive constructs was investigated as the result of the treatment. This treatment was carried out through interactions in negotiated interviews and based on the sociocultural framework. So the result of the pre and post- tests explains the learners' conceptions of autonomy and language learning beliefs through both cognitive and sociocultural theories.

During the treatment the learners negotiated their conceptions of language learning and the proposed strategies through interactions. As a result of these interactions, they faced new and even conflicting alternatives and their awareness of new options and concepts increased. Consequently, they abandoned, expanded, revised or reconstructed their conceptions of language learning. The findings of the post- tests about language learning beliefs showed that because of the learners' interactions that led to their intermental development, the learners improved their psychological intramental and cognitive understanding of language learning.

However, Benson (2001) as cited in Mohammadi & Alavi, (2016: 42) states that "autonomy is a multidimensional capacity that will take different forms for different individuals and even for the same individual in different contexts or at different times". Further Smith (2003), in Ertürka, (2016: 654) remarks that "autonomy is a multifaceted concept, susceptible to a variety of interpretations" (p.255). So people are different from each other and we cannot dictate a series of ideas to them since they have their specific preferences and willingness. Moreover, it should be mentioned that teachers and other stakeholders can adopt or use any model and form of autonomy only after they have evaluated its relevance to every specific context (Ertürka, 2016). In addition, the goal of autonomy is to help learners to

practice autonomy and get control even in different degrees. However, this goal cannot be met by force and dictation. Learners need to be guided to explore and construct their own conceptions of autonomy. Further, these conceptions and beliefs are context and culture bound, so teachers should be aware of and alert to these constraints. Generally, Teachers are required to help learners to raise their "conscious awareness of the learning process – i.e. conscious reflection and decision-making" Sinclair, (2000), in Borg & Al-Busaidi,(2012:5).

Finally, it should be mentioned that due to the lack of the learners' participation, a control group was not included in the study and therefore, the results should be interpreted cautiously. Further although the overall reliability for BALLI was acceptable, the reliabilities for individual categories were not satisfactory. So some items of BALLI were omitted to achieve reliable results. Further investigations are required to study the reliability and internal consistency of BALLI items in EFL contexts, especially in Iran. Generally, in order to get a broader and deeper picture of learners' autonomy, language learning strategies and beliefs more longitudinal and detailed investigations along with more instruments to collect data are required to show both the psychological and interactional nature of these variables.

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