

Volume 2

FLer

Focus

on Language Education and Research

*International Journal
of NATE Russia*



February, 2021



“Focus on Language Education and Research”

Official Journal of NATE-Russia



Editor-in-chief

Svetlana G. Ter-Minasova - PhD, Professor, Faculty of Modern Languages and Area Studies, Lomonosov Moscow State University (Moscow, Russia).

Deputy editor-in-chief

Viktoria V. Levchenko - PhD, Professor, Modern Languages and Professional Communication Department, Samara University (Samara, Russia).

Co-editor

Irina N. Rozina - PhD, Professor Department of Information Technologies, Institute of Management, Business and Law (Rostov-on-Don, Russia).

Editorial board

Ludmila A. Kozhevnikova - PhD, Associate Professor, Modern Languages and Professional Communication Department, Samara University (Samara, Russia).

Svetlana V. Sannikova - PhD, Associate Professor, Department of Foreign Languages South-Ural State Humanitarian Pedagogical University (Chelyabinsk, Russia).

Aida S. Rodomanchenko - PhD, Associate Professor, Foreign Languages Department, National Research University Higher School of Economics (Moscow, Russia).

Evgeniy A. Kolyadin - PhD, Regional Public Professional Organization ‘Yamalia English Language Teachers’ Association’ (Gubkinsky, Russia).

Tatyana S. Makarova - PhD, Associate Professor, Department of Anglistics Studies and Cross-Cultural Communication, Moscow State Pedagogical University (Moscow, Russia).

Anastasiya G. Khodakova - PhD, Associate Professor, Department of English Philology, Tula State Lev Tolstoy Pedagogical University (Tula, Russia).

Elena S. Nadtocheva - PhD, Associate Professor, Institute of Foreign Languages, Ural State Pedagogical University (Yekaterinburg, Russia).

Olga A. Mironova - PhD, Associate Professor, Theory and Practice of Modern Languages and Linguodidactics Department, Minin University (Nizhny Novgorod, Russia).

Larisa G. Kuzmina - PhD, Associate Professor, Department of English for International Relations Faculty, Voronezh State University (Voronezh, Russia).

Elena V. Kirillina - PhD, Associate Professor, Department of Foreign languages for Technical and Natural sciences, M. K. Ammosov North-Eastern Federal University (Yakutsk, Russia).

Svetlana A. Reztsova - PhD, Associate Professor, Department of Linguistics and Cross-Cultural Communication, State University of Humanities and Social Studies (Kolomna, Russia).

Tatyana D. Margaryan - PhD, Associate Professor, Linguistics Department at Bauman Moscow State Technical University (Moscow, Russia).

Natalia H. Frolova - PhD, Associate Professor, School of Applied Linguistics and Foreign Languages, National Research University Higher School of Economics - Nizhny Novgorod (Nizhny Novgorod, Russia).

Svetlana A. Suchkova - PhD, Development of Academic Competences Unit, National Research University Higher School of Economics (Moscow, Russia).

Marina I. Solnyshkina - PhD, Professor, Department of German Philology, Kazan University (Kazan, Russia).

Elena V. Agrikova - PhD, Associate Professor, Modern Languages and Professional Communication Department, Samara University (Samara, Russia).

Marina A. Voronina - PhD, Associate Professor, Modern Languages and Professional Communication Department, Samara University (Samara, Russia).

Ekaterina S. Lapshova - PhD, Associate Professor, Modern Languages and Professional Communication Department, Samara University (Samara, Russia).

Nataliya V. Ilycheva - PhD, Associate Professor, Modern Languages and Professional Communication Department, Samara University (Samara, Russia).

Carolyn Westbrook - Associate Lecturer (Southampton University, Britain).

Karen Ottewell - PhD, Director of Academic Development & Training for International Students, Language Centre, University of Cambridge (Cambridge, UK).

Mayada Tawfik Zaki - PhD (First class honours), Cairo University / MATEFL (American University in Cairo).

Debra Josephson Abrams - Doctor of Arts (DA) in English and Education, Seoul National University of Science and Technology, Institute for Language Education and Research (Seoul, Republic of Korea).

Jeff Kuhn - PhD, Ohio University, Athens (Ohio, US).

Rebat Kumar Dhakal - PhD, Kathmandu University School of Education (Kathmandu, Nepal).

Soumen Mukherjee - PhD, Vit University, Vellore, School Of Social Sciences & Languages, Vellore, Tamil Nadu (India).

Zarina Markova - PhD, Department of Germanic and Romance Studies (Blagoevgrad, Bulgaria).

Christopher Hastings - PhD, Southwest Tennessee Community College, (Memphis, TN, USA).

Halis Gözpinar - PhD, Giresun University (Turkey).

Lamya Ramadan - PhD, AlYamamah University INTERLINK, Riyadh (Saudi Arabia).

Victoria Tuzlukova - Dr, Sultan Qaboos University, Language Centre (Muscat, Oman).

Yanti Sri Rezeki - PhD, Universitas Tanjungpura, English Education Department, Pontianak, West Kalimantan (Indonesia).

Toni Hull - Associate Director (MS TESOL), English Language Programs, funded by the U.S. Department of State, administered by Georgetown University (Washington, D.C., USA.).

Rusty Gaspard - MA, Louisiana State University at Alexandria, Alexandria (Louisiana, USA.).

Rob Danin - PhD, University of Colorado at Colorado Springs, College of Education, Curriculum and Instruction, Manitou Springs (Colorado, USA).

Liu Bing - PhD, College of Foreign Languages, Tai Yuan University of Technology, Tai Yuan (China).

Gloria Ulloa - PhD, Language Center, Universidad Pedagogica Nacional (Bogota, Colombia).



“Focus on Language Education and Research”

Official Journal of NATE-Russia



CONTENTS

I. Korytina. TEACHING MODELS IN THE CONTEXT OF OVERCOMING THE LANGUAGE BARRIER _____	5
K. Smyshlyak. PRE-LISTENING AND AND PRE-READING STAGES’ ACTIVITIES FROM THE SPEAKING SKILLS DEVELOPMENT PROSPECTIVE	10
T. Margaryan, L. Ivanova, N. Nikolaeva, T. Borodina. SHAPING SKILLS OF REASONING IN ESP COURSE AT TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY _____	14
N. Igolkina. LEARNERS TYPOLOGY: LANGUAGE ACQUIRERS VS LANGUAGE LEARNERS _____	23
K. Westbrook, C. Westbrook. A HOLISTIC APPROACH TO EMI: WHERE IS THE LANGUAGE TEACHER? _____	29

TEACHING MODELS IN THE CONTEXT OF OVERCOMING THE LANGUAGE BARRIER

IRINA KORYTINA¹

ABSTRACT

This study compares the models of passive, active and interactive teaching a foreign language and focuses on the educational task to overcome the language barrier by learners. Furthermore, it gives practical advice for educators to help students tackle communication problems through “Novelty of the Object principle”, “Ball Gaming”, a priority list and others. It emphasizes the three main aims of “Ball Gaming” such as the effect of unexpectedness provided by sparkling, musical and colorful balls, eradicating students’ phobias and blocks and preventing students from cheating as while catching and returning the object to the teacher or another student, it is impossible to be distracted. Moreover, the conducted research proves the specific aims of the passive, active and interactive teaching models and reveals the proportion of the most effective time consuming for them in the classroom environment. It also provides strategies for teachers contributing to encouraging shy and dyslexic students to communicate freely and avoid stress. The study also reveals the spheres of application of the above- mentioned models in the educational process when teaching the English language. More than that, the study points out the role of health care in the educational progress and, firstly, gives recommendations for dynamic interactive activities. Secondly, it emphasizes the role of hygiene providing washable visual tactile materials used in “Ball Gaming”. Finally, this research proves that interactive teaching is the most efficient model of education to help learners overcome the language barrier as the educator arranges the process using dialogues, polilogues and group work among the learners using dynamic pupil-centered activities. Following a logical combination of the above-mentioned models the educator could gain excellent results to explain, activate, practice, systematize and test the learning material and contribute to eradicating the language barrier by the learners.

KEYWORDS: teaching models, overcoming the language barrier, “Ball Gaming”, Object Novelty, priority list, eradicating phobias, communicative skills, “Snowball Game”, health care.

INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, there is an acknowledged definition of the teaching model that “can be defined as the depiction of teaching and learning environment including the behavior of teachers and students while the lesson is presented through that model. Models of teaching enable the students to engage in robust cognitive and social task and teach the students how to use them productively” [7].

When considering the character of relations between the educator and learner within the educational process, there are three common models of teaching systemized by G.O. Astvatsaturov. They are the models of passive, active and interactive teaching. Each model applies different approaches to educational tasks and contributes to overcoming the language barrier differently.

The language barrier is defined by Merriam-Webster Dictionary as “a difficulty for people communicating that speak different languages and do not have a common tongue for communicating”. The language barrier can exist as a consequence of a psychological factor, like shyness, a lack of sufficient knowledge and skills or articulation and hearing disabilities. It can also be a semantic barrier of communication.

Let us discuss the reciprocity of the model applied at the lesson, the task and methods to facilitate overcoming the language barrier by English language learners.

The model of passive teaching has a restrict possibility to cope with the language barrier as the connection between the teacher and class where the learners perceive information dormant is dominated by the educator. The application of this model is acceptable in terms of an academic lecture supplying the

¹ Self –Employed Teacher, MSC (Ed), korytina.73@mail.ru
The Head Teacher of “Lingua Centre Pro”, Sayanogorsk, Russia

students with new material to learn. The aim is to provide maximum information in a limited period of time. However, in school education this type is ineffective as the children passively perceiving information can neither eradicate their language barrier nor create Critical thinking. As a result, “the sphere of using it in the educational process could be restricted by explaining a new material to learners. The teacher should be more inventive to introduce different teaching techniques to keep the students interested in the learning process” [4: 55]. In order to produce educational effectiveness, it is appropriate to use tables, posters, gestures, objects and intriguing vocabulary.

The active teaching model means an individual approach to every pupil varying the tasks. When applying this model, the educator can facilitate students’ better speech skills. However, he should be conscientious about taking into account the students’ basic abilities and personal features. For instance, dyslexic, shy pupils or the ones that are afraid of making mistakes cannot be challenged to answer teacher’s questions first letting more communicative and willing to speak students start. At the first stage, the students that find it difficult to communicate could be the last to answer the educator’s questions. Insensibly, they will be the first to do it but it takes time. The teacher should have the responsibility to accomplish the main task: every student should be asked equal number of times in class. It is advisable to work out a priority list in advance before the lesson starts and bear in mind that shy students asked last at the lesson should be challenged to answer earlier next time.

When deploying the active model of teaching gaming is very efficient. Practicing speech work indirectly through a ball game is highly recommended. For instance, using tens of balls in teaching practice as the effect through “Object Novelty” not only provokes speech but also supports the interest in the learning process. It should be acknowledged that we should follow the rule of hygiene, so the educator uses washable balls made of plastic and rubber of different colors, shapes, transforming, sparkling, musical and others. Furthermore, the ball provides the effect of unexpectedness, like coming across a foreigner in the street. More than that, it makes the learner forget about phobias and blocks. Finally, a ball game prevents students from cheating as while catching and returning the object it is impossible to be distracted.

The assignments can vary from “Name the synonyms/ antonyms”, “Answer the questions”, “Disagree with an opinion” or “Interpreting sentences” in these spheres when the educator throws a ball to a pupil expecting the depending on the task answer with the returned ball. It goes without saying that students’ attention could be captured by the educator when he uses the Novelty of the Object principle.

The Interactive teaching model is defined as “a means of instructing whereby the teachers actively involve the students in their learning process by way of regular teacher–student interaction, student–student interaction, use of audio-visuals and hands- on demonstrations. The students are constantly encouraged to be active participants” [7].

As a result, we gain a large variety of possibilities to help students cope with the language barrier. It is reasonable to play the “Catch and Say” game accomplishing the task of disposing of communication problems in Teacher–Pupil–Pupil cooperative work.

Interactive teaching is the most efficient model of education to help learners overcome the language barrier as the educator arranges the process using dialogues, polilogues and group work among the learners in a way they are actively involved in the learning process through teacher-student and student-student interaction.

METHOD

Participants

The study focuses on the application of the three teaching models to teach English demonstrative pronouns was demonstrated in five groups each comprising ten pupils aged nine-ten. The study was conducted at the private language school “Lingua Centre Pro” (by Koryina Irina).

Materials

This research paper refers to applying the passive, active and interactive teaching models in the classroom environment. As far as we know, the model of passive teaching can be applied in terms of providing a lecture or while explaining new grammar materials to learners. The teaching method applied

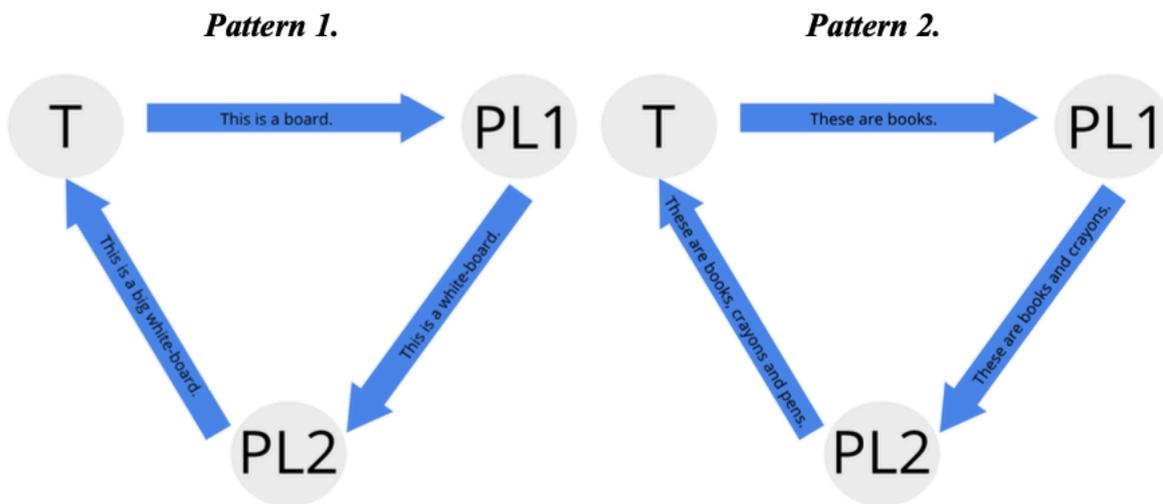
while using this model was Teacher- Centered as the pupils passively comprehended the information delivered by the educator. Speaking about the active and interactive teaching models, the Student- Centered method was performed in the structure of the lesson. The application of the teaching models needed visual resources designed by the teacher. To fulfil the educational task the educator also used resource “English for Children” by Prof. Elena Merculova. Not forgetting about the importance of the main task to eradicate the language barrier, tactile resources such as balls were used. Moreover, two tables and a video-presentation were demonstrated in class.

Procedures

At the beginning of the lesson the application of a passive model was successfully done as the teacher used both verbal and non-verbal support by giving a presentation about the usage of the English demonstrative pronouns this, that, these, those followed by the table presenting two trains with “Passenger Words” and highlighting the differences in the structure of the sentences. (see Appendix A1)

The application of an active teaching model was inevitable as practicing phonetics (the interdental sounds [θ], [ð] and the vowel length of [I:], [I]) had to be accentuated. Furthermore, the active pattern provokes analytical thinking and the teacher’s question to fill in the blanks using Table 2 (see Appendix A2) encouraged students to analyze the grammatical structure further deploying the transfer method. It should be pointed out that the next lesson stage called “Ball Gaming” contributed both to eradicating the language barrier and practicing the newly- learned rules. Throwing a ball to a student, the teacher asked him to transform a sentence in a singular form into a plural form sentence. (i. e. T: This is a pot - PL: These are pots). To avoid pupils’ distraction and to make them forget about phobias, shyness and possible unnecessary interference the teacher employed the interactive teaching method thus stimulated the learners to further speaking enhancement. A further “Snowball Game” when students pass the ball to each other adding a word was an efficient task (Fig 1.)

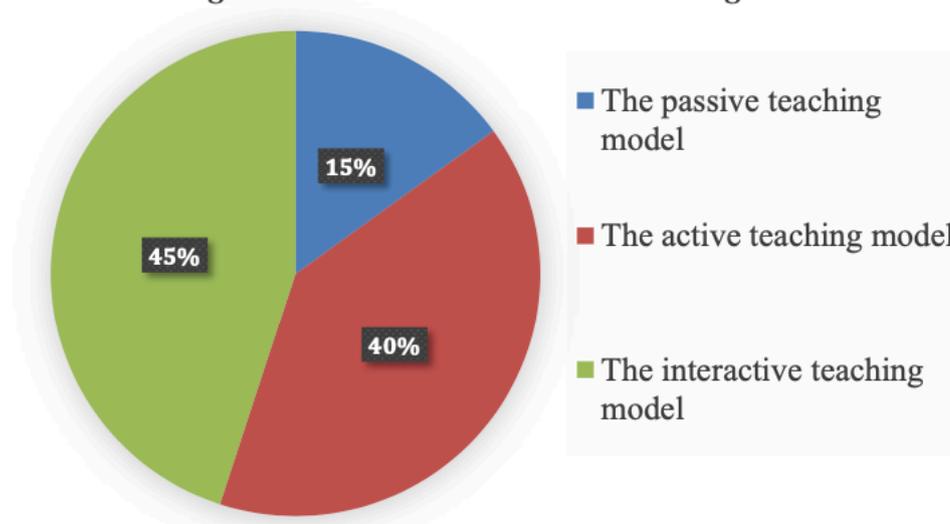
Fig.1. “Snowball Game”



To follow the Object Novelty principle different balls were used to capture students’ attention from setting the task to the end of the stage of the lesson. It should be acknowledged that the health care issue is of significant importance in the classroom environment. The balls used by the educator should be washable. More than that, the students were advised to change their position from sitting to standing up, to wit they should stand when performing the interactive exercise.

Special attention was paid to time consumed by the applied teaching models in the order they followed (considering 100% - 60 minutes). (Fig.2.)

Fig.2. Pie Chart to show time consuming.



RESULTS

The teaching resources were selected from practices that have been applied by the ESL educator for over twenty years and have been proved to be efficient both for overcoming the language barrier and providing new materials. The 15%-40%-45% proportions of time spent applying the above-mentioned teaching models and the logically used combination of them proved a 98% effectiveness of the study as only one pupil was distracted, and the teacher made effort to attract his attention to the provided grammar material.

DISCUSSION

Having taken into the consideration the results of the study, the data show that the ESL educator should apply the passive, active and interactive teaching models in the educational process. It is hard and insufficient for qualified educational process when only one educational model is used. It should be a logical combination of the above- mentioned models. That means that for explaining the new language material the teacher utilizes the passive model, for systematization and testing the gained knowledge it is more appropriate to use the active teaching model, and for activating, practicing skills and providing a motivation for further learning the most efficacious model is the interactive one. Although all three methods are used in language class, in terms of overcoming the language barrier by learners, the active and interactive teaching models of teaching are effectively used whereas the passive teaching model is an essential aspect of introducing new learning material to students.

REFERENCES

- Astvatsaturov G.O. Research Laboratory of Applied Sociology. Pedagogy Journal №6 (2012). Retrieved from: https://si-sv.com/publ/1/modeli_passivnogo_aktivnogo_i_interaktivnogo/14-1-0-507
- Merriam-Webster Dictionary. (1964). Retrieved from: <https://www.merriam-webster.com>
- Merculova E.M. English for Children Video. Titul. Obninsk. (2005).
- Norbert Michel, John Cater, Otmar Valera. Active Versus Passive Teaching Styles: An Empirical Study of Student Learning Outcomes Small Business Institute National Proceedings, Vol. 33. (2009). S. 55-56. Retrieved from: <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/hrdq.20025>
- Philip Preville. Active Learning: The Perfect Pedagogy for a Digital Classroom. <https://tophat.com/blog/active-learning-digital-world/>
- Park Woolf. Research Gate. Building Intelligent Interactive Tutors, Student-Centered Strategies for Revolutionizing E-Learning (2008). URL:https://www.researchgate.net/publication/232322117_Building_Intelligent_Interactive_Tutors_Student-Centered_Strategies_for_Revolutionizing_E-Learning
- Sidorov S.V. Research Educator. (2011). Retrieved from: <https://si-sv.com/load/1/15-1-0-65>

APPENDIX A:

Fig.A1

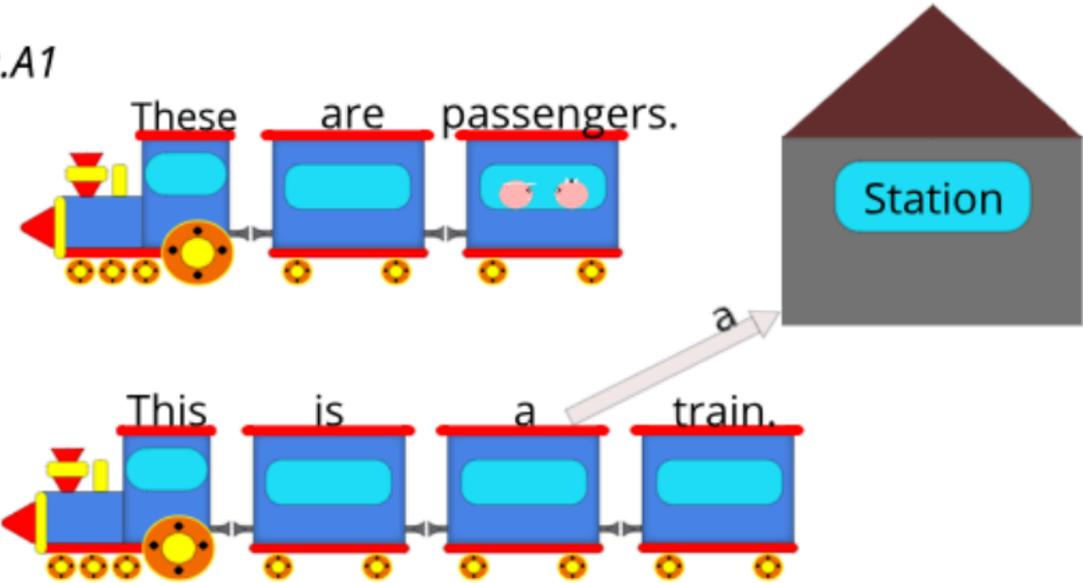
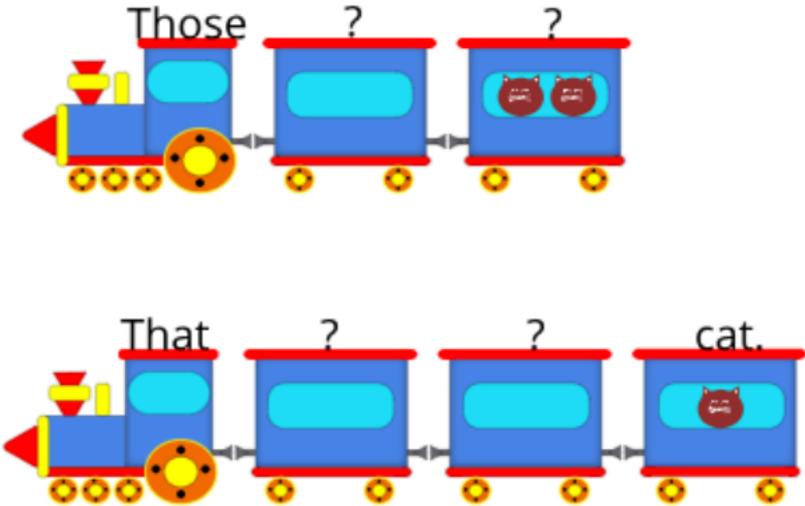


Fig.A2



**PRE-LISTENING AND AND PRE-READING STAGES' ACTIVITIES FROM THE
SPEAKING SKILLS DEVELOPMENT PROSPECTIVE**
(based on Skyeng lesson development practice)

KSENIA SMYSHLYAK¹

ABSTRACT

The article focuses on the possibility of usage of Pre-listening and Pre-reading stages not only for traditional purposes of perception facilitation, but for development of students' speaking skills. There have been presented typical exercises which fulfil the traditional aims of these stages together with the new aims. The topicality of the research lies in the attempt to shift the traditional aims of the Pre-reading and Pre-listening stages to those which are aimed at student's speaking for fluency skills. The authors claim that this practice might help design more student-centered lessons and balance the teacher and the student talking time during the lesson. All the practices described in the article are currently used during development of ESL/EFL lessons in Skyeng school which is one of the market leaders in the sphere of online English teaching. There have been justified the reasons why these practices are seen as preferred and important in the process of lesson development. The following research methods have been used: critical analysis of scientific sources and data; experimental studying (through the educational Vimbox platform in Skyeng); direct observation method. The outcomes of the research may be applied both in an online and traditional offline classroom environment to design student-centered ESL/EFL lessons.

KEYWORDS: pre-listening, pre-reading, speaking skills, ESL/EFL lesson, predicting, lesson aims.

Pre-listening and Pre-reading are the stages traditionally used in an ESL/EFL lesson that are aimed at helping the students develop their receptive skills. They are the first stage of the sequence of PRE -, WHILE - and POST - (reading/listening) activities that generally help learners be better listeners and readers in a foreign language.

The traditional view on the Pre-listening and Pre-reading aims includes the following aims:

- to pre-teach and activate the vocabulary;
- to clarify the blocking vocabulary from the further listening or reading tasks;
- to engage the student into the topic through meaningful interaction;
- to encourage predictions of the context and content of the proceeding text, etc.

However, we suppose that in student-centered online classes, especially when designing the lessons for Spoken English courses (as opposed to General English courses) Pre-listening and Pre-reading stages can potentially be used for developing not only receptive, but productive skills as well (speaking skills in particular).

When we develop an online lesson on Spoken English, it is supposed to be a completed topic-based unit within the whole course. In this case our main aim is to provide the student with enough speaking practice during the lesson. Including at least 1 content unit (a text, an interview or a video) into the lesson is essential as it provides the student with:

- 1) the target vocabulary patterns or functional language patterns we want them to study and make use of;
- 2) the ideas and the communicative situation they need to respond or react to (instead of simply being asked a set of general questions on the topic).

Since the main activity for the student to do with this content unit is to either read or listen to it, we were looking for the ways to organise activities which would recoup time spent on reading or listening with a student's speaking activities. What we suggest is to shift the aims of the pre-listening and pre-reading tasks to provide the student with the necessity to speak (mostly for developing fluency).

Here are some practical activities which will refocus the pre-listening/pre-reading stage to function as fluency speech triggers (as well as fulfil the main traditional functions listed above).

¹ Skyeng school, (Russia), ksenia.smy@skyeng.ru

1. Predicting the content from the title/subtitle of the text.

The instruction in this case may be as follows:

Teacher's instructions:

- *Read the title and the subtitle of the text.*
- *What do you think the article will be about? What made you think so?*
- *What are your ideas on the topic?*

In this case the student will have to speculate and speak about his interpretation of the title and what the text may be about. You may ask some additional questions to encourage MORE speaking like: *Why do you think the author will state this? What keywords make you think so?*

2. Predicting the content from the pictures.

The pictures may illustrate the ideas of the text and be placed before it. Also the pictures might be shots from the video or represent the heroes from the listening or reading activity that follows.

Example 1.

The first example is taken from the lesson about DNA testing to identify the ancestry roots. Before watching the DNA experiment, we present 4 pictures of the heroes of the experiment and encourage the student to guess and speculate on the possible outcomes of the experiment. The heroes are captured with different emotions and feelings on their faces.

Teacher's instructions: In the experiment below 67 people from all over the world were asked to take a DNA test. In the end, they learned that they had much more in common with other nationalities than they had thought before. Let's predict the outcomes.

- *Who do you think these people are?*
- *How do they feel? (choose the adjective to describe their feelings)*
- *Why do you think they feel this way? What do you think they might have known after having got the results of their DNA tests?*

Example 2.

The next example is taken from the lesson about charity organisations and how volunteering may make a person happy. Before listening to 2 speakers who will present their charity organisations we organise the pre-listening discussion stage and encourage the student to predict from the pictures. There are 2 pictures illustrating people from 2 charity organisations: an adult and a child and an adult taking a lunch in the canteen for the homeless.

Teacher's instructions:

Look at the pictures and say:

- *What these charity organisations might be dealing with?*
- *Why do you think so?*
- *Would you like to volunteer at the same organisation? Why (not)?*

3. Speculating on the ideas from the listening/reading task in advance.

Design such a task in a simple way. You may list the ideas or statements in a form of:

3.1 A "TICK" list (*Examples 1 and 2*). The student reads and chooses the ideas they like or the ideas they apply and have to explain why. To encourage speaking at this stage, don't let the student do the task silently, but ask for explanations:

Example 1.

The lesson is devoted to the topic of gastro tourism. Before listening to the interview with a gastro tourist whose hobby is to taste strange dishes around the world, the student has to choose the dishes they would like to try. Ask not only to tick, but to explain their choice as well as to explain the options they haven't chosen.

Teacher's instructions:

Which of these traditional dishes you would like to try? Why (not)?

- *potatoes with mud sauce*
- *snake meat*
- *fried scorpions*
- *bugs sandwich*

Now let's listen to a traveller who has made tasting strange dishes a hobby.

Example 2.

The lesson is about emotional intelligence. The student has to choose the skills they believe will be necessary for successful employment in future. To provide more speaking practice, encourage them not only to choose but to explain their opinion or illustrate it with some examples.

Teacher's instructions.

Tick those employment skills which you believe will be the most important in the near future.

Soon people will need to develop the following skills:

- *Flexibility*
- *Creativity*
- *Processing data*
- *Making decisions*
- *Managing stress*
- *Emotional intelligence*

Listen to a reporter and compare your answers.

3.2 “AGREE/DISAGREE” statements (*Example 3*). We include different statements from the following listening or reading task together with some distractors (the statements which are not mentioned in the task) and ask the student to express their opinion on them.

Example 3.

The lesson is on the topic of body positivity and most of the activities are built on the video about the experiment on people's attitude to changing their bodies. The pre-listening discussion contains the statements on body positivity in general and the ideas that the student will hear when watching the video.

Teacher's instructions:

Agree or disagree with the statements and comment on them.

- *Almost all adults want to change something about their appearance. Agree/Disagree*
- *Adults may want to change their appearance because they were made fun of for their imperfections in childhood. Agree/Disagree*
- *Children are more positive about their looks, and they rarely want to change themselves. Agree/Disagree*
- *Most children would dream about gaining some superpowers for their bodies. Agree/Disagree*

Agree/Disagree

On our interactive platform we give the student interactive instruments to choose if they agree or disagree - they may select the necessary option.

3.3 “TRUE/FALSE for me” (*Example 4*). Make up a list of ideas from the listening/reading text which would be student-personalised. You may also include the vocabulary from the text into this task to pre-teach or activate background knowledge or passive vocabulary.

Example 4.

Before watching the video about some popular online marketing manipulations, the student has to speak on their online shopping habits: they choose what is true and what is false for them and explain why. The highlighted collocations are taken from the following listening task to facilitate understanding and activate the passive vocabulary or clarify the blocking vocabulary.

Teacher's instructions:

Decide which of these statements are true for you and explain why.

- *I'm completely **addicted to** shopping online. Yes/No*
- *I've bought useful things, but I've also been buying useless things. Yes/No*
- *I've been buying too many things online. Yes/No*
- *These days everything has become so cheap that I feel like I'm **getting a bargain** even if I'm ordering things I don't need. Yes/No*
- *I may **get into debt** because of all the small bits of shopping I've done. Yes/No*

3.4 “Quizzes” (*Example 5*) Make up a quiz on the topic you will read about or listen to to check the student's general knowledge or make them guess the answers and explain why they think so. This type of

activity is very popular among Skyeng students as it doesn't only make them speak but stimulates their creative thinking processes.

Example 5.

Before watching the BBC video about sustainable farming in the Arctic city the student has to do the typeform quiz on what they know about life in the Arctic city. The quiz is done in a humorous way and the most important task is not only to choose a true/false option but to explain why they think so.

Teacher's instructions:

Guess the answers to these questions and explain why this might be true or false.

- *What are the average winter and summer temperatures in the town?*
- *What are cats banned in the town?*
- *What is it required to carry a rifle every time you leave the settlement?*
- *Why do you think the Svalbard archipelago has turned into a rubbish dump?*
- *Is it possible to grow vegetables in such harsh conditions?*

Using such activities doesn't only stimulate your student's interest in the topic under discussion through personalised tasks but does encourage them to speak, thus developing their speaking for fluency skills. They are effectively used now during online Skyeng lessons on General English and Spoken English courses. The feedback from the students and measuring the balance of teacher talking time and student talking time have proved their effectiveness on developing the speaking for fluency skills of the students. But what we want to highlight is that these practices can be used for offline lessons in the same way as we are currently using them for online English lessons.

To summarize our Skyeng practices for both online and offline ESL/EFL lessons we recommend:

1. Using pre-listening and pre-reading with the focus on developing students' speaking skills (when designing spoken or general English lessons).
2. Formulating the pre-listening and pre-reading tasks in such a way as to encourage the student to speak (predicting the content from the titles and the pictures, guessing, commenting on the ideas from the proceeding listening/reading tasks based on the student's general knowledge, experiences and preferences).

REFERENCES

- Harmer, J. (2008). *The Practice of English Language Teaching* (4th ed.). Harlow: Pearson Longman.
- Scrivener, J. (2010). *Learning Teaching. The Essential Guide to English Language Teaching*. Oxford: Macmillan.
- Sprat, M., Pulverness, A., & Williams, M. (2005). *The TKT Teaching Knowledge Test Course*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Underwood, M. (1989). *Teaching Listening*. Harlow: Pearson Longman.
- Woodward, T. (2001). *Planning Lessons and Courses: Designing Sequences of Work for the Language Classroom* (Cambridge Handbooks for Language Teachers). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. doi:10.1017/CBO9780511732973

SHAPING SKILLS OF REASONING IN ESP COURSE AT TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

TATIANA MARGARYAN¹,
LIUDMILA IVANOVA²,
NATALIYA NIKOLAEVA³,
TATIANA BORODINA⁴

ABSTRACT

At present, the university graduates have to acquire not only profound knowledge but unique skills and competencies to be successful in the labour market. One of the main competencies of modern engineers is their proficiency to reason, to debate or to argue reasonably. The Russian tertiary education standards consider argumentation skills as a key competence for university graduates. These skills are critical for making decisions and students can develop their argumentation skills in their English classes at a technical university. The paper reviews and analyzes the issues of teaching reasoning in the ESP course. The authors share their ideas on the ESP design course applying IT tools and indicate the ways to pursue further research. To improve communicative competence in the specialist area, the authors suggest shaping the skills of argumentation through the ESP course acquisition. Teaching strategies, regarding stages of skills development, are identified. Theoretical background and literature review give grounds for designing effective assignments to promote fruitful communication and make our graduates more competitive in the workforce.

KEYWORDS: argumentation, critical thinking, ESP, professional communication, skills of reasoning

© 2018 Published by Future Academy www.FutureAcademy.org.UK

INTRODUCTION

The process of teaching foreign languages (FLT) is undergoing a serious transformation due to the progress in the global professional communication facilitated by the rapid growth of the Internet and new technologies. Therefore, the issues of enhancing FLT are a demand of the day at a technical university. Unfortunately, the existing teaching aids very often are not sufficient enough to shape the core engineer competencies required by the latest tertiary education standards. This contradiction can be resolved by a new ESP course design utilising new educational technologies and IT tools in the classroom. Such an ESP course would contribute to forming professional skills and basic competencies essential for integration of the future expert into the international engineering community and gaining knowledge in the specialist area and also would develop the students' interest in their future occupation.

University graduates should master their non-technical skills (NTS) in their specialist areas. Such skills, as for example, the competency to communicate effectively and reasonably in foreign languages, to use information technologies and others (NTS-5, NTS-3, NTS-10 Federal State Educational Standard of higher education for the specialist areas 09.03.04 Software Engineering (bachelor's level), 24.03.01 Rocket facilities and Cosmonautics (bachelor's level), 28.03.02 Nanoengineering (bachelor's level) are significant. The state educational standards and requirements are the basis for the humanitarian education of future engineers. These standards should be considered in syllabus and course design at a technical university. We believe that the competency to communicate effectively and reasonably can be developed in the course of language acquisition as well. Thus, the designed ESP course has to meet learners' immediate needs for

¹ Bauman Moscow State Technical University, the 2nd Baumanskaya Str. 5, Moscow, Russia, isi_53@mail.ru

² Bauman Moscow State Technical University, the 2nd Baumanskaya Str. 5, Moscow, Russia, t.margaryan@bmstu.ru

³ Bauman Moscow State Technical University, the 2nd Baumanskaya Str. 5, Moscow, Russia, natalynic@yandex.ru

⁴ Bauman Moscow State Technical University, the 2nd Baumanskaya Str. 5, Moscow, Russia, t-borodina@yandex.ru

communication in academic or workplace settings and educational standards. This course can also assist university graduates to become more competitive in the global labour market.

PROBLEM STATEMENT

In order to meet the student needs and the educational standards, we have to create the ESP course and e-learning environment that provide students with new teaching materials to practise their skills. Communicative competence is one of the main competencies of future engineers. It includes discursive, linguistic, sociolinguistic, sociocultural, educational competence components. The skill of proper professional communication depends on the quality of the constituents. Having studied the theoretical and conceptual issues relating to the communicative competence defined by Miloradov (1999), Parkinson (2011), Pedemonte and Balacheff (2016), we can conclude that the best way to form skills and abilities of professional communication and interaction in a foreign language is a model suggested by Mirolyubov (2004). According to it, we have to develop the following abilities:

- to operate the encyclopaedic and background information (to confirm or refute some thesis);
- to use linguistic means (linguistic competence);
- to reason and persuade.

Today, the skills to persuade a partner, to provide convincing arguments and objections, and to be comprehensive are a must for engineering students (Shklyar & Viktorovich, 2017; Karpov, 2016). To encourage our students to be comprehensive and persuasive we must teach them to express their opinion, to support it with arguments, to provide logical conclusions and inferences. Now many universities offer tests evaluating the argumentation skills, e.g. GMAT (Graduate Management Admission Test), the entrance examinations for GRE (Graduate Record Examinations) in the USA, Canada, and New Zealand. So, shaping the skills of reasoning and argumentation is imperative in the ESP course at a technical university.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

There is a number of research papers devoted to the issues of teaching reasoning (Almazova, Eremin, & Rubtsova, 2016; Cavlazoglu & Stuessy, 2018; Erduran, 2018; Karpov, 2015; Khalyapina, Popova, & Kogan, 2017; Pedemonte & Balacheff, 2016; Popova & Vdovina, 2016; Rybka, 2012; Sinnott-Armstrong & Fogelin, 2015; Zemlinskaya & Fersman, 2017) but there is lack of investigations on the development of argumentation skills in engineering students. Besides, most authors provide only a theoretical background on the issue, whereas no practical solutions are suggested. We reviewed and analyzed various teaching materials, primarily course books and manuals (Bgashev & Dolmatovskaya, 2002; Gnienko, 2010; Orlovskaya, Samsonova, & Skubrieva, 2015; Polyakova, Sinyavskaya, Tynkova, & Ulanovskaya, 2007). We tried to identify the range of assignments intended to develop skills of reasoning during language acquisition. Unfortunately, neither of the reviewed course books contains exercises or tasks for shaping these skills. The existing teaching materials for engineering students do not provide students with practice-oriented examples of argumentation and reasoning. Thus, it is essential to design the multimedia ESP course with an appropriate new content for the argumentation skills development involving the necessary IT tools.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The main purpose is to share our experience in designing the ESP course for engineering students which is focused on the new standards and e-learning environment. Our goal is to shape skills of reasoning and argumentation through language acquisition and to contribute to professional communication competence development. IT tools are integrated to create new content.

RESEARCH METHODS

To design the ESP course focused on skills of reasoning and argumentation shaping, we have:

- to review the literature on this issue and to study the theoretical background;

- to identify the criteria for texts selection intended to develop skills of reasoning and argumentation;
- to describe texts structures and their specific features;
- to compose the list of argumentation skills;
- to study the structure of argumentation;
- to design assignments and exercises by means of IT tools;
- to develop evaluation criteria for skills assessment.

FINDINGS

Required skills

Our experience and the obtained experimental data demonstrate poor reasoning skills of engineering students. According to our survey and interrogation, only 14 percent of undergraduates are able to produce utterances containing arguments. Students sometimes substitute a very vague commentary for substantial arguments. Very often they are not able to present information, express their opinion, and support the ideas clearly, concisely, and logically so that the listeners can follow the line of reasoning. In other words, our students lack the skills of reasoning and argumentation.

Skills are a part of the syllabus content; therefore, it is significant to develop competencies and skills required. If we compare intellectual skills of our graduates with the skills of other professionals, we can admit that they are almost equal. They are good at their field and comprehend the world on the whole but their skills of communication are not good enough and they should be improved. Besides, we have to shape skills vital for the 21st century professionals such as critical thinking, quantitative reasoning, creativity, information literacy, collaboration, communication skills (Burkhardt et al., 2003).

These skills are also referred to the category of intellectual skills and they cannot be evolved automatically. We have to develop them gradually step by step according to the generally accepted psychological cognitive model: purpose – motivation – object – pattern – operation – result – reflection – correction. Some authors (Ibraim & Justi, 2016; V. Ivlev, Y. Ivlev, & Ivleva, 2017) limit the list of skills only to the skills of logical thinking, reasoning and objections which are considered to be sufficient enough to take part in the discussion. Such skills constitute an operational base for a person to be involved in a discussion on any issue. The ESP course is an opportunity to master these skills. But the list of skills for engineering students should be extended as the range of issues they have to analyze and discuss is really wide. Actually, Miloradov (1999) has extended this list with the skills of argumentation. We share his ideas and suggest the list of skills to be developed at a technical university through the ESP course acquisition:

- skills to support reasons to own utterance;
- skills to appeal to the opponent's arguments;
- the ability to summarize and make conclusions;
- skills to respect the opposite point of view;
- skills to bring evidence clearly and concisely
- skills to keep to the issue discussed;
- skills to compare or to contrast own judgment with the opposite point of view;
- the ability to listen to the partner, to hear and to comprehend what is discussed.

Therefore, it is significant to select appropriate texts in the ESP course design. Text selection should be made according to the criteria of critical intention, authenticity, consistency, coherence. Texts should include examples of reasoning and argumentation and IT tools should also be integrated into the ESP course. The ESP educators consider electronic resources containing authentic engineering information to be beneficial for creating a e-learning environment (Sergienko, 2009; Ivanova, 2010).

Text selection

Let's consider text styles used for teaching argumentation and reasoning.

The *publicistic style* is intended to affect a person to persuade of the statement validity or provoke the response not only by the utterance argumentation logics but also by its emotional intensity. It is close to the

scientific prose due to its factual consequentiality, the utterance intensity and strict separation into logical pieces (paragraphs). The main distinctive feature of publicistic style is the conciseness of narration, which in turn comprises both logical argumentation and emotional impact.

The *scientific prose style*. The purpose is to prove some hypothesis, create new concepts, disclose the laws of existence, and investigate relations between different phenomena. The language means used in this style, therefore, tend to be impersonal.

The main feature of this style is logical sequence of statements with indication on their relationship. Thus, the distinctive feature of scientific style is what is called “sentence – patterns”. Such patterns can be of three types: postulatory, argumentative and formulative. A hypothesis, scientific proposal or prediction should be based on the well-known facts that have already been systematized and defined. The reference to these facts only precedes the author's ideas which can also be presented in the form of formulas, theory, principle, argument, research results, etc. A sentence pattern containing a definition of scientific statement, i.e. a sentence that summarizes arguments, is usually a final sentence. The characteristic feature of the style is quotations and references that serve as indirect support the idea. The need to quote and reinforce arguments seriously affects the utterance syntactic structure.

To identify and to analyze arguments in the text and to produce utterances containing arguments, students first should be aware of the argument structure. Some theoretical grounds would facilitate discourse appreciation. And the assignments could be designed then in accordance with the argumentation structure and the stages of argumentation evolution. Learning argumentation and arguing still raises theoretical and methodological issues. Argumentation requires specific intellectual and social skills. It, as a necessary skill, facilitates students' intellectual development.

Argument structure

Students should be aware of the argumentative speech structure as a basic component of the verbal communication culture of future engineer. Regarding the NTS-3, the ability to express opinions and to provide at least two arguments supported by information and knowledge, life or reading experience should become essential in shaping communicative skills.

The key approach in teaching an argumentative statement/utterance is the argumentation theory. In the science of logics an argument is often called a premise, i.e. a statement intended to support a thesis. In the theory of argumentation there is a broad notion of arguments. Argumentation provides evidence, explanations, and examples to justify some idea. Sinnott-Armstrong and Fogelin (2015, p.3) define an argument as “a connected series of sentences, statements, or propositions (called “premises”) that are intended to give a reason of some kind for a sentence, statement, or proposition (called the “conclusion”)”. The arguments objectivity is determined by the logical rules and ability to use the appropriate arguments for the issue discussed.

Argumentation in problematic discourse was studied by Erduran, Ozdem and Park (2015), Ibraim and Justi (2016), Ivin (2015), Ivlev and Lepskaya (2017), Muller Mirza and Perret-Clermont (2009), Pedemonte and Balacheff (2016) and others. There are three reasoning techniques viz. logical arguments (employing all kinds of facts – statistics, data obtained through experiments, science-based laws, etc.), illustrative arguments (the exact examples and those taken from literature) and references to authority (in many cases - citation). The key task of an argument is to convince. However, not everything that convinces us is an argument. Warning, advice, expression of opinion or even description are not considered to be arguments. Explanation is not an argument too, because explanation is often an extended story about the issue itself. Thus, teaching argumentation involves three stages: 1) teaching thesis (thesis formulation), 2) teaching convincing arguments, and 3) teaching conclusion. Therefore, exercises are to be of three types.

Teaching argumentation includes the ability to convince the opponents by means of the critical assessment of statements, hypotheses, assumptions, and opinions. Thus, the aim is to teach an evidence-based (argumentative) statement. Muller Mirza and Perret-Clermont (2009) argue the necessity to improve the students' ability to argue during the entire course of studies, but now it is reasonable to optimize the process of skills development by means of ICT (Information and Communication Technologies). Updating the training content by using new educational technologies and introducing information technologies in the

training practice significantly optimizes the formation of foreign language communicative competence of technical University students (Ivanova, 2010).

Logically flawless and reliable arguments reveal the essence of the topic. Common errors made in reasoning, as a rule, are tautology (or a circular motion). Usually students fail to justify the validity of certain insights and concepts. The validity criterion or logical fidelity is the main feature of deductive reasoning. An inductive argument cannot be logically correct and is potentially vulnerable. If the students have no idea on the issue and possess no skills of abstract thinking, it is better to use the induction method: to present a typical, specific, well-known phenomenon and make a conclusion based on general patterns. In the deductive method, on the contrary, they pass from the general laws to details and can estimate specific processes, phenomena, and events. The argumentation encourages the students to conceive the issue and invites to a dialogue or discussion.

Argument teaching approach

The technique of teaching argumentation and reasoning includes teaching:

1. Thesis statement (the sender expects the addressee to accept the thesis and arguments);
2. Arguments presentation.

When we discuss something we have to follow the logics in a coherent statement to make our opponent understand us. It is important to structure the statements logically. We can do it in the following way: first, we have to design a three step teaching model: thesis – arguments – conclusion; second, state the subject of a short message (what do you want to say?); third, determine what you want to achieve (to put new problems, to refute or defend a point of view, to convince the audience, etc.); fourth, to think over the main thesis, to select examples.

The skills of logical thinking can be developed by exercises with strict management (the exercises of the first level are primarily individual by nature). This group of exercises is based on the information taken from a text/video/audio material. Students are given a topical statement (thesis). They need to investigate the information to find the data required and to choose the arguments to support it. Exercises of the second level with partial control imply well-developed mental abilities (individual concepts supported by argumentative judgments) (Gurova & Nikolaeva, 2010).

The ESP multimedia course integrated into some e-learning environment (LMS Moodle 3.0) should be of interdisciplinary character, as the assignments with high integrative capacity require students to use information from various subjects and apply their intellectual skills. The ESP educators should take into account the students specialist area to shape communication skills in general but with the emphasis on the development the ability of reasoning (Margaryan & Alyavdina, 2018), e.g.

Assignment 1. *Acquire relevant information from the Internet to support the issue:* Why was the external fuel tank orange during the Shuttle program? Make attempts to give your reasons.

Thesis: This technology is considered to be an engineering challenge.

Argument 1 (vehicle cargo capacity is ...) = actual figures

Argument 2 (the cost to deliver one pound of payload into orbit is ...) = actual figures

Argument 3 (to increase the vehicle cargo capacity it was decided to ...) = actual figures

Conclusion.

As students very often do not know much in their field of engineering, they have to refer to the English-language Internet sources to find factual information and explain why such an engineering decision was made during the Shuttle program implementation (professional competence), and present a monological reasoned statement. It is very helpful to ask students some leading question. To teach students to ask interesting, manageable questions in order to specify the situation or phenomena is also one of the goals in teaching reasoning. “Choosing an interesting and manageable question may manifest first as an exercise in sense-making and then in either self-persuasion or as part of a dialogue” (Passmore & Svoboda, 2011, p. 8).

Evaluation criteria for reasoning/argumentation skills assessment

The argumentation features to be assessed were suggested by Rybka (2012). We have adapted them for students of a technical university and designed the evaluation form to assess the skills.

Table 01. Features of arguments used

#	Feature	Description
1	Structure of the argument	The thesis is supported by one argument.
		The thesis is supported by more than one argument.
2	Argument specificity	The arguments are brief and concise.
3	Consistency between the thesis and arguments	The thesis remains the same throughout the proof. There is no substitution of one thesis by another one.
4	Presenting arguments in one of the argumentation techniques	Argumentation is presented with an example. One or more examples are provided to generalize.
		Reasoning is on the analogy. There is a transition from one case to another.
		The argument is presented with the reference to the authority. There is a link to the information sources.
		Reasoning is based on objective examples; conclusions based only on personal experience are excluded.
5	Argument emotiveness	No emotional exaggeration of the problem.
6	Argument reliability	The arguments are true (valid). There are no invented and false facts in reasoning.

Table 02. Evaluation Rubric for argumentation/ reasoning skills

Evaluation criteria	U	P	F	G	E
Structure of reasoning/ argumentation	There is too little language for evaluation of argumentation/ reasoning skills.	There is no use of reasons to support the speaker's position.	A single reason is used for one statement.	More than one reason is used for one statement.	A variety of reasons provide sufficient grounds to accept the argument.
Specificity of reasoning/ argumentation	-	Reasoning/argumentation is not developed.	Reasoning is ambiguous and not specific.	Reasoning is brief and clear.	Reasoning completely matches the context.
Consistency between the thesis and arguments	-	There are contradictions and inconsistencies between the thesis and arguments.	Arguments do not support a statement or a statement is modified.	One or two lapses in deductive connections or development of reasons may be unbalanced.	Arguments are appropriate, extensive, and well logically organized / arranged.
Exemplified argumentation	-	No example is provided.	The only example is not specifically linked to the main point.	The example is appropriate; it provides specifics and details in support of a claim.	Argumentation is supported by more than one meaningful example.
Argumentation by analogy	-	Argumentation is presented without making	Arguments by analogy are not convincing.	The two things being compared are similar in some respects, making the argument	The analogy between two things is striking, meaning that it is much stronger and more convincing than the

		use of analogies.		stronger.	usual kind of comparison.
Argumentation from authority	-	Arguments lack the reference to the authority.	An argument from authority may not always be used clearly or appropriately	An argument from authority is used although there may be some under-/over-use.	The argument is presented with the reference to the authority. There is a link to the information sources.
Objective reasoning	-	Reasoning is influenced by personal characteristics, feelings or opinions of the subject.	Reasoning is partially based on the individual experience.	Reasoning is mainly objective although there may be an overemphasis placed on some subjective factors while others are diminished.	Reasoning expresses a reality without subjectively modifying it.
Emotiveness	-	Emotional negative sense outweighs rational argument	Reasoning is based on heavy exaggerations.	The use of emotive terms in arguments is sometimes but not always manipulative.	An emotional appeal is used effectively making the target audience more open to the arguments.
Reliability	-	Arguments are not fair or fabricated.	Arguments are presented in list-like manner and/or there may be little explanation of connection between some of the evidence and corresponding ideas.	Speakers follow up ideas with references to researched evidence. Reliability of arguments is noted and facts ties to ideas/reasons are explained to audience. Transitions between ideas and support may be jumpy, but argument is well rounded, thorough, and reliable.	All ideas are backed up with specific, researched evidence. Evidence presents both facts and researched opinions and reliability/relevance of the research is clear. There are no invented and false facts in reasoning.

(Note: U=unsatisfactory; P=poor; F=fair; G=good; E=excellent.)

CONCLUSION

Federal State Educational Standards stipulate the development of non-technical skills to be a part of future engineers training. Non-technical skills include skills of reasoning and argumentation which could be cultivated during the whole period of education. Primarily, it is humanitarian subjects that can explicitly foster these skills. They can also be shaped effectively through foreign language acquisition in the ESP course. The shaped skills of reasoning and argumentation can stimulate intellectual evolution of students and contributes to their professional career. The ESP course can provide the appropriate learning content and teaching materials with the examples of the professional argumentative discourse. The authors suggest designing a new ESP course by means of IT tools enriching the content with teaching materials which should contain theoretical background, examples of argumentation and reasoning, exercises, and assignments. This ESP course is considered to be an integrated part of an e-learning environment.

REFERENCES

- Almazova, N. I., Eremin, Y. U. V., & Rubtsova, A. V. (2016). Productive lingvodidactic technology as an innovative approach to the problem of foreign language training efficiency in high school. *Russian Linguistic Bulletin*, 3(7), 50–54. doi:10.18454/RULB.7.38
- Bgashev, V., & Dolmatovskaya, E. (2002). *English for Mechanical Engineering*. Moscow: Astrel.
- Burkhardt, G., Monsour, M., Valdez, G., Gunn, C., Dawson, M., & Lemke, Ch., ...Martin, C. (Eds.) (2003). *enGauge 21st Century Skills: Literacy in the Digital Age*. Naperville: NCREL. Los Angeles: Metiri Group.
- Cavlazoglu, B., & Stuessy, C. (2018). Examining science teachers' argumentation in a teacher workshop on earthquake engineering. *Journal of Science Education and Technology*, 4, 348–361. doi:10.1007/s10956-018-9728-2
- Erduran, S., Ozdem, Y., & Park, J-Y. (2015). Research trends on argumentation in science education: A journal content analysis from 1998–2014. *International Journal of STEM Education* 2 (5), 1–12. doi:10.1186/s40594-015-0020-1
- Erduran, S. (2018). Toulmin's argument pattern as a "horizon of possibilities" in the study of argumentation in science education. *Cultural Studies of Science Education (CSSE)*, 2, 1–9. doi:10.1007/s11422-017-9847-8
- Gninenko, A. (2010). *The Automobile As We See It: The English Language Course Book*. Moscow: AST.
- Gurova, G., & Nikolaeva, N. (2010). *Teaching Speaking and Reading in the Field of Welding. Handbook*. Moscow: Bauman Moscow State Technical University.
- Ibraim, S., & Justi, R. (2016). Teachers' knowledge in argumentation: contributions from an explicit teaching in an initial teacher education programme. *International Journal of Science Education*, 38(12), 1996–2025. doi: 10.1080/09500693.2016.1221546
- Ivanova, L. I. (2010). Electronic network engineering foreign language discourse and its linguodidactic capabilities. *Izvestiya SFedU. Engineering Sciences*, 10, 72–76. Rostov-on-Don, Russia: South Federal University. <http://izv-tn.tti.sfedu.ru/wp-content/uploads/2010/10/14.pdf>
- Ivin, A. A. (2015). *Basics of the theory of argumentation* (2nd ed.). Moscow—Berlin, Russia—Germany: Direct Media.
- Ivlev, V., Ivlev, Y., & Ivleva, M. (2017). Logical-argumentative basics of educational culture. *Proceedings of 4th International Conference on Education, Language, Art and Intercultural Communication (ICELAIC)*, 142, 173–177. doi:10.2991/icelaic-17.2017.38
- Ivlev, V., & Lepskaya, N. (2017). Modalities and logic. *Proceedings of the 2nd International Conference on Contemporary Education, Social Sciences and Humanities (ICCESSH)*, 124, 79–86. doi:10.2991/iccessh-17.2017.18
- Karpov, A. (2015). Formation of the modern concept of research education: From new age to a knowledge society. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 214, 439–447. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.11.718
- Karpov, A. (2016). The knowledge worker in the genesis of the socio-economic concept of the knowledge society. *Voprosy Filosofii*, 8, 57–68.
- Khalyapina, L. P., Popova, N. V., & Kogan, M. S. (2017). Professionally-oriented content and language integrated learning (CLIL) course in higher education perspective. *Proceedings of the 10th International Conference of Education, Research and Innovation (ICERI)*, 1103–1112. doi:10.21125/iceri.2017.0370
- Margaryan, T., & Alyavdina, N. (2018). New trends in teaching English at a Russian technical university. In E. Smirnova & R. Clark (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Engineering Education in a Global Context* (pp. 274–284). Hershey: IGI Global. doi: 10.4018/978-1-5225-3395-5.ch024
- Miloradov, S. A. (1999). *Teaching argumentative communication in a foreign language: The method of mainstreaming the capabilities of the individual and the team, teaching English at an advanced stage* [Doctoral dissertation]. <http://www.dissercat.com/content/obuchenie-diskussionnomu-obshcheniyu-nanostrannom-yazyke-metod-aktivizatsii-vozmozhnostei>

- Miroyubov, A. A. (2004). Communicative competence as a basis for the formation of a general educational standard in foreign languages. *Standards and Monitoring in Education*, 2, 17–18.
- Muller Mirza, N., & Perret-Clermont, A. N. (2009). *Argumentation and education: Theoretical foundations and practices*. New York: Springer.
- Orlovskaya, I., Samsonova, L., & Skubrieva, A. (2015). *The English Language Course Book for Engineering Universities*. Moscow: Bauman Moscow State Technical University.
- Parkinson, J. (2011). The discussion section as argument: The language used to prove knowledge claims. *English for Specific Purposes*, 30 (3), 164–175. <https://www.learntechlib.org/p/74862/>
- Passmore, C. M., & Svoboda, J. (2011). Exploring opportunities for argumentation in modelling classrooms. *International Journal of Science Education*, 12, 1535-1554. doi:10.1080/09500693.2011.577842
- Pedemonte, B., & Balacheff, N. (2016). Establishing links between conceptions, argumentation and proof through the $\text{ck}\phi$ -enriched Toulmin model. *The Journal of Mathematical Behavior* 41, 104–122. [doi: 10.1016/j.jmathb.2015.10.008](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmathb.2015.10.008)
- Polyakova, T. Y., Sinyavskaya, E. V., Tynkova, O. I., & Ulanovskaya, E. S. (2007). *English for Engineers* (7th ed.). Moscow: Higher school.
- Popova, N. V., & Vdovina, E. K. (2016). Motivational ICT potential aiming at satisfying of the goals in FLT in a technical university. In A.L. Nazarenko (Ed.), *ICT in Linguistics, Linguodidactics and Intercultural Communication*, 7 (pp. 426–436). Moscow: University Book.
- Rybka, E. V. (2012). The role of argumentation in the children's intellectual development. *E-journal: Psychological Science and Education*, 1. http://psyjournals.ru/files/50183/psyedu_ru_2012_1_Ribka.pdf
- Sergienko, P. I. (2009). *Lingvo-cognitive peculiarities of the electronic hypertext* [Doctoral dissertation]. <http://www.dissereat.com/content/lingvokognitivnye-osobennosti-elektronnogo-giperteksta>
- Shklyar, T. L., & Viktorovich, V. S (2017). Creating a competitive workplace in the modern world. *Turkish Online Journal of Design Art and Communication*, 7, 1196–1207. doi:10.7456/1070ase/146
- Sinnott-Armstrong, W., & Fogelin, R. (2015). *Understanding arguments: An introduction to informal logic* (9th ed.). Stamford, CT: Cengage Learning.
- Zemlinskaya, T. Ye., & Fersman, N. G. (2017). Modern learning technologies: Empirical analyses (on the example of teaching foreign languages and intercultural communication). *Proceedings of the 29th IBIMA Conference: Education Excellence and Innovation Management through Vision 2020: From Regional Development Sustainability to Global Economic Growth*, 4087–4094.

LEARNERS TYPOLOGY: LANGUAGE ACQUIRERS VS LANGUAGE LEARNERS

NATALIA IGOLKINA

ABSTRACT

Krashen's Monitor Model has been arousing considerable debates for many years and learning-acquisition distinction described by the author has become the subject of criticism from both researchers and teachers. But the controversy which is revealed in the Monitor Model and in the follow up literature is not resolved yet. Moreover, scholars and language teachers provide ample justification to foster this hot discussion. We have carried out literature study, introspective and retrospective analysis to examine our own experience as a teacher and as a language learner, and have studied cases described by many other language teachers in a number of teachers' forums from 15 professional network groups. It is shown that individual learner differences are the key factor which should be taken into consideration when describing the process of second or foreign language mastering. Language learning and language acquisition should not be opposed to each other as they present different means of developing language skills used by different learners. As a result, some learners demonstrate process of language learning characterised by careful grammar rule studying and benefit from error correction, while others develop language skill through subconscious acquisition. Thus, we state that learners fall into two types: language learners and language acquirers whose individual differences predetermine the way learners study the language. The type of a learner defines the peculiarity of language skill development.

KEYWORDS: Krashen's Monitor Model, language learning, language acquisition, individual learner differences, second language acquisition, referential children, expressive children

INTRODUCTION

Krashen's famous Monitor Model has been fuelling extensive debates and controversy with subsequent revisions among researchers in the field of Second language acquisition (SLA) since its first publication in 1977. One of Krashen's most referred work is "Principles and practice in second language acquisition" published in 1982 where he describes his Monitor Model. It comprises five hypotheses, which are input, acquisition-learning, monitor, natural order and affective filter hypotheses (Krashen, 1981, 1982). On the one hand, Krashen's Model encouraged the transition in language teaching from grammar-translation and audiolingual methods to communicative teaching, which is now considered to be the most widely used and approved method (Lighrbow, Spada, 2006: 38). On the other hand, his speculations have provoked considerable criticism of the Model itself as well as of each hypothesis separately.

According to Krashen there is a rigid distinction between *language acquisition*, which is a subconscious process similar to the acquisition of the first language by a child, and *language learning*, which is a conscious process through learning rules, contributing from error correction. The author states that progress in mastering a language depends on acquisition but not on learning. This distinction is also referred to when describing Monitor hypothesis: "Monitor hypothesis posits that ... acquisition "initiates" our utterances ... and is responsible for our fluency. Learning has only one function, and that is as a Monitor, or Editor. Learning comes into play only to make changes in the form of our utterance, after it has been "produced" by the acquired system" (Krashen, 1982: 15). But a great number of researchers criticise Krashen for his overgeneralisation of the statements in the description of his Model and for the overclaims that he has made (Liu, 2015; Moreen and Soneni, 2015; White, 1987; Zafar, 2009). Gregg pays attention to the inconsistency in the use of terms and contradictions and states that "each of five hypotheses is marked by serious flaws: undefined or ill-defined terms, unmotivated constructs, lack of empirical content and thus of falsifiability, lack of explanatory power (Gregg, 1984, p.94). Lack of evidence is one more source for Krashen's model critique (Gregg, 1984; McLaughlin, 1987). McLaughlin writes "...Krashen does not provide 'evidence' in any real sense of the term, but simply argue that certain phenomena can be viewed from the perspective of his theory". Brown supposes that Krashen's theory of SLA is oversimplified, his claims are overstated and disagrees with his objection to explicit grammar instruction (Brown, 2000).

Liu points out that Krashen's input hypothesis has been over-emphasised and his claim that "... all other factors thought to encourage or cause second-language acquisition work only when they contribute to comprehensible input and/or a low affective filter" (Krashen, 1985, p.5) is considered to be exceedingly strong (Liu, 2015). Liu's literature study shows that there are internal learner's factors as well as external ones which contribute to acquisition.

Within SLA research internal learner's factors are described as individual learner differences, and there is enormous literature on this issue. Individual differences (ID), which are personality, aptitude, motivation, learning styles and learning strategies, are considered to be predictors of success in SLA (Dörnyei and Skehan, 2003; Sawyer and Ranta, 2001, Dörnyei 2006). Predictive power of ID factors can be a helpful source of ideas for teachers' interventions, that is why the detection of those learner's traits which influence learning process may become a useful tool in teaching practice.

The fact that Krashen's model has been attracting attention of researchers for almost 40 years means that in spite of controversy his approach is a fruitful source of debates and discussions which causes new insights and explanations of language acquisition and fosters invention of new teaching approaches. Different scholars provide various ideas and supply grounds and evidences to support their own points of view using Krashen's claims in spite of the existing controversy. But it is not clear what fuels such hot debates among teachers and scholars and how the diversity of justification can be explained. We put forward a working hypothesis to account for existing controversy in criticism of Krashen's Model and long-lasting interest to his ideas which states that the starting point in the description of SLA processes must be a learner whose individual differences define the characteristics of these processes.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The main source of data in this research was published literature describing the studies on learner differences which are considered to be affecting the process of mastering a foreign language. Careful analysis and comparison of the works provided data which allowed us to make a preliminary assumption about relationship between learners' individual differences and the way they master the language, namely, through language learning or language acquisition. Aiming to evaluate this assumption I used an introspective method (Minn, 1986). The subject of the introspection was my own experience of both as a teacher and as a language learner. As a result, I developed a hypothesis to be proved or rejected in the subsequent research. In order to get further support for the assumed hypothesis or its denial I studied cases presented by teachers in 15 foreign language teachers' professional groups in the social network ВКонтакте. The absolute majority of participants in these groups is Russian-speaking teachers of English. Consequently, they share their experiences not only as teachers but also as language learners. Approximately 300 posts and comments describing language teachers' beliefs and cases concerning language mastering were critically reviewed.

RESULTS

Literature study has revealed the fact that individuals significantly differ in the way they act while acquiring second language (Kounin and Krashen, 1978; Krashen, 1978; Krashen, 1982; Stafford and Covitt, 1978; Leaver et al 2005). In the description of his Monitor model Krashen accounts for this variation by suggestion that there may be three types of performers depending on the degree of Monitor use: Monitor Over-users, Monitor Under-users, the optimal Monitor user. According to Krashen *Monitor Over-users* are performers "... who are constantly checking their output with their conscious knowledge of the second language... they are so concerned with correctness that they cannot speak with real fluency" (Krashen, 1982: 20). Further he writes that the reason for over-use is either being a victim of grammar-only type of instruction or a learner's personality. If the reason for Monitor Over-use is learner's personality, learners "simply do not trust acquired competence and only feel secure when they refer to their Monitor "just to be sure" (Krashen, 1982: 20). *Monitor under-users* are performers "... who have not learned, or if they have learned, prefer not to use their conscious knowledge, even when conditions allow it. Underusers are typically uninfluenced by error correction, they can self-correct only by using a "feel" for correctness (e.g. "it sounds

right"), and rely completely on the acquired system" (Krashen, 1982: 20). *Optimal Monitor users* can use their learned competence as a supplement to their acquired competence.

In SLA theory there is one more direction of studies which favours for the existence of different types of language learners. That is the study of so-called "good language learners" which was initiated by Rubin (1975). According to Rubin and other scholars who continued research in this direction (Griffiths et al., 2008) effective learners have a certain group of strategies which they flexibly and productively use to master the language. The main basis for differentiation in these research is learner's effectiveness.

Many researchers in the field of SLA draw parallels between second (foreign) language acquisition and first language (L1) acquisition. In some works on L1 acquisition it is stated that a great deal of variation exists in children's early speech production (Lieven, Pine, Barnes, 1992; Lieven, Pine, 1990; Nelson 1973; Nelson 1981; Dobrova, Piven', 2014). The existence of stylistic variation between children in the early stages of language acquisition has been most frequently studied using Nelson's (1973) referential-expressive distinction. As this distinction states, referential children use language mainly to label objects and expressive children use language mainly to talk about their own feelings and needs and those of other people and use language as a means to interact with other people, producing more social formulas and pronouns. Further studies revealed other characteristics in the speed of L1 development, some peculiarities of phonetics and a number of tendencies which each of the group demonstrate to represent this distinction.

My own experience as a language teacher, as a language learner and as a researcher shows that the same teaching techniques applied to different learners do not guarantee the same results. Our study of language acquisition by identical tweens has displayed the difference in the performance as well as in language strategy used by siblings in spite of the fact that they were exposed to the same language and teaching environment (Igolkina, 2008; Igolkina, 2014). The research with the use of eye-tracking methods has proved that learners' differences affect the way they process information during language learning (Igolkina, Belykh, 2016).

Our study and the analysis of teachers' posts and comments in professional network groups have demonstrated the fact that almost all discussions on such issues as error correction/treatment, teaching grammar and teaching reading rules are marked by considerable controversy on various aspects of language teaching. The majority of viewpoints fall into two extremes (see Table). The beliefs and attitudes in group 1 correspond to Krashen's language acquisition, which is defined as subconscious process similar to the acquisition of the first language by a child without studying rules and profound grammar correction. Beliefs and attitudes in group 2 refer to Krashen's language learning, which is described as conscious process including learning rules and contributing from error correction.

Table. Teachers' beliefs and attitudes to error correction/treatment, teaching grammar and teaching reading rules

	Group 1 (language acquisition)	Group 2 (language learning)
Error correction/treatment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – teachers should be highly tolerant to errors and mistakes; – only meaningful errors should be corrected; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – almost all errors and mistakes should be corrected otherwise they can get fossilised; – being exposed to errors and mistakes may cause them in learner's speech production
Teaching Grammar	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – grammar rules shouldn't be explained explicitly, as they can be acquired implicitly; – drilling activities should be avoided; – L1 should be avoided. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – grammar rules should be explained to learners explicitly; – drilling activities are helpful; – translation and L1 can be used in teaching and learning.
Teaching Reading	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – there is no need to teach phonetic symbols as learners can 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Teaching phonetic symbols and reading rules helps learners with reading;

	listen to the pronunciation; – whole-word reading approach is preferred to teaching reading rules.	
--	---	--

Any described case may provoke debates on the most appropriate and productive teaching interventions and in majority of situations it is evident that teachers perceive the case differently and consequently support different points of views. The proofs and arguments provided by teachers demonstrate that some of them are inclined to consider the process of mastering the language as learning in Krashen's term whereas others describe it as acquisition. The former usually advocate for systematic grammar and vocabulary drilling and deductive approaches to teaching, complain on learners' mistakes and search for remedies to cope with them in speech production. The latter insist on more spontaneous speaking practice and are much more tolerant to mistakes, apply inductive approaches in teaching. They argue their ideas describing different cases from their teaching practice or exemplifying their own experience as language learners.

DISCUSSION

Our study has revealed a considerable controversy and contradiction in the attitude to the learning-acquisition distinction in Krashen's Monitor Model among both researchers and language teachers. Both sides argue their position and provide a substantial number of cases which prove the validity of their points of view. We argue that these cases and positions are not contradictory but supplement each other if we admit the fact that learners have individual differences which make them study and master a language completely differently. These combinations of learner's differences comprise a learner's type which triggers certain combinations of language learning strategies to perform a task and, consequently, causes learners to learn or to acquire a language.

Thus, we can state that learners fall into two types, namely, *language learners* who preferably learn a language, and *language acquirers*, who rather acquire a language. Moreover, in developing various language skills the same learner can demonstrate different types. As our study of cases in literature and teachers' discussions shows learners can perform as acquirers studying pronunciation but studying grammar work as a learner. In this case, the learners favour a lot from their flexibility to gain better results.

CONCLUSION

The distinction between *language learning* and *language acquisition* presented by Krashen in his Monitor Model has provoked a lot of discussion among researchers and caused considerable shift in teaching methods. The controversy in Krashen's works and follow up critique can be resolved if a learner with all possessed differences is considered to be a starting point of speculations. It is a learner's type which defines the way a learner masters a language – through learning or acquisition. Further research can show which characteristics exactly predetermine learner's approach to studying the language and in what way language learning and language acquisition are interrelated.

REFERENCES

1. Brown, H. D. (2000). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. (4th ed.). White Plains: Addison Wesley Longman.
2. Dobrova, G. R., & Piven', A. V. (2014) Referencial'nye i ekspressivnye deti: o eshche odnoj vozmozhnosti diagnostirovaniya «Tipologicheskikh» razlichij. *Filologicheskij klass, No. 1* (35), 96–100.
3. Dörnyei, Z., & Skehan, P. (2003). Individual differences in second language learning. In C. J. Doughty & M. H. Long (Eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition*, 589-630. Oxford: Blackwell.
4. Dörnyei, Z. (2006). Individual Differences in Second Language Acquisition. *AILA Review, 19*, 42–68. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

5. Gregg, K.R. (1984). Krashen's Monitor and Occam's Razor. *Applied Linguistics Journal*, 5(2), 79–100. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/5.2.79>
6. Griffiths, C. (Ed.). (2008). *Lessons from Good Language Learners*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
7. Igolkina, N.I. (2008). Kombinacii poznavatel'nyh strategij, ispol'zuemyh pri usvoenii inostrannogo yazyka kak proyavlenie personal'nogo poznavatel'nogo stilya. Tret'ya mezhdunarodnaya konferenciya po kognitivnoj nauke: Tezisy dokladov: V 2 t. Moskva, 20–25 iyunya 2008 g., Moscow: Hudozhestvenno izdatel'skij centr, T.1, 274–275.
8. Igolkina, N.I., & Belykh, T.V. (2016). *Relationship between eye movement patterns during vocabulary learning and vocabulary recall. Sed'maya mezhdunarodnaya konferenciya po kognitivnoj nauke Tezisy dokladov*. Eds.: YU. I. Aleksandrov, K. V. Anohin. 2016, 43–44.
9. Igolkina, N.I. (2014). *Kombinacii poznavatel'nyh strategij pri usvoenii inostrannyh yazykov*. Saratov: Izd-vo Sarat. Un-ta.
10. Kounin, T., & Krashen, S. (1978). Approaching native speaker competence from two different directions. In C. Blatchford, & J. Schachter (Eds.), *On TESOL '78: EFL Policies, Programs, Practices* (pp. 205–212). Washington: TESOL.
11. Krashen, S. (1978). Individual variation in the use of the Monitor. In W. Ritchie (Ed.), *Principles of Second Language Learning* (pp. 175–183). New York: Academic Press.
12. Krashen, S. (1985). *The Input Hypothesis: Issues and Implications*. Harlow: Longman.
13. Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
14. Krashen, S.D. (1981). *Second Language. Acquisition and Second Language. Learning*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
15. Leaver, B.L., Ehrman, M.E., & Shekhtman, B. (2005). *Achieving Success in Second Language Acquisition*. Cambridge: CUP.
16. Lieven, E., & Pine, J.M. (1990). Review of Elizabeth Bates, Inge Bretherton & Lynn Snyder, *From first words to grammar: individual differences and dissociable mechanisms*. Cambridge: CUP, 1988. Pp. xii + 326. *Journal of Child Language* 17(2), 495–501. DOI: 10.1017/S0305000900013908.
17. Lieven, E., Pine, J.M., & Barnes, H. D. (1992). Individual differences in early vocabulary development: Redefining the referential-expressive distinction. *Journal of Child Language* 19(2), 287–310. DOI: 10.1017/S0305000900011429
18. Lightbow, P.M., & Spada, N. (2006). *How languages are learned* (3rd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
19. Liu, D. (2015). A Critical Review of Krashen's Input Hypothesis: Three Major Arguments. *Journal of Education and Human Development*, 4(4), 1–135. DOI: 10.15640/jehd.v4n4a16
20. McLaughlin, B. (1987). *Theories of second-language learning*. London: Edward Arnold.
21. Minn, S. J. (1986). Introspective methods: the social construction of mental processes. *Lenguas Modernas*, 13, 115–127.
22. Moreen, M., & Soneni, M. (2015). The Acquisition – Learning Distinction: A Critique of Krashen's Monitor Model. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies (JETERAPS)* 6(2), 198–200.
23. Nelson, K. (1973). Structure and strategy in learning to talk. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development*, 38(1/2), 1–135.
24. Nelson, K. (1981). Individual differences in language development: implications for development and language. *Developmental Psychology*, 17(2), 170–187.
25. Rubin, J. (1975). What the "Good Language Learner" Can Teach Us. *TESOL Quarterly*, 9(1), 41–51.
26. Sawyer M. & L. Ranta. (2001). Aptitude, individual differences, and instructional design. In P. Robinson (ed.). *Cognition and instructed second language learning* (pp. 319–353). New York: CUP.
27. Stafford, C., & Covitt, G. (1978). Monitor use in adult second language production. *ITL: Review of Applied Linguistics*, 39(1), 39–40, 103–125.

28. White, L. (1987). Against comprehensible input: The Input Hypothesis and the development of L2 competence. *Applied Linguistics*, 8, 95–110.
29. Zafar, M. (2009). Monitoring the 'Monitor': A Critique of Krashen's Five Hypotheses. *The Dhaka University Journal of Linguistics*, 2(4), 139–146.

A HOLISTIC APPROACH TO EMI: WHERE IS THE LANGUAGE TEACHER?

KEVIN WESTBROOK¹
CAROLYN WESTBROOK²

Universities in the English-speaking world have been successfully recruiting foreign students for their courses for many years. As far back as 1977, there were 29,000 international students studying in the UK (Office for National Statistics, 2016). While this has undoubtedly been partially attributable to the fact that the university systems in the countries concerned generally enjoy a good reputation, it would never have been as successful without the fact that the courses are delivered in the world's second language: English (Ethnologue, 2018). It was only a matter of time before the rest of the world wanted to join in. Limiting your customer base to potential students who are sufficiently fluent in your native language is very restricting, so delivering courses in English makes sense.

Thus, this kind of English Medium Instruction (EMI) was born. It initially took hold in Europe, with EMI programmes increasing by 1,000 % at HEIs between 2001 and 2014 (Wächter and Maiworm, 2014). However, it is now expanding in large parts of the rest of the world. The form of EMI described in this article is mainly seen as an element of an internationalisation programme, usually at tertiary level, and the definition used for this article is as follows:

*The use of the English language to teach academic subjects
(other than English itself) in countries or jurisdictions
where the first language of the majority of the population is not English.*

(Macaro, 2018)

Whatever the form of EMI under consideration, thoughts are usually focussed on the course and its delivery. The purpose of this article is to place the course into its context, highlight the importance of the non-course-related aspects of offering EMI courses, and to show how the language teacher can make an important contribution throughout the process.

It is important to understand that any EMI course offered at tertiary level exists both within a context and within a process. The intention is to attract students to your university, presumably to complete a course of study. A properly developed internationalisation programme will also promote opportunities for academic exchanges for both staff and students and enable academics to be involved in international co-operations. It is therefore vital that the environment at the university is conducive to promoting their well-being. This was emphasised by Westbrook in a presentation at the IATEFL conference in Liverpool (2019). Some readers may find it helpful to picture the classic iceberg analogy, with the visible tip representing the course, and the submerged 80% being all the other things necessary to make it a successful programme. A more useful analogy for others might be that of a journey. The reasons for this will be discussed below.

¹ **Kevin Westbrook** is a Director of Training at Pete Sharma Associates Ltd, a company providing training and consultancy in a range of areas concerning language teaching and learning, including internationalisation in the tertiary sector and the application of technology in language teaching. He is a Fellow of the Higher Education Academy in the UK and hosts a podcast on continuous professional development for language teachers that can be found at <https://www.spreaker.com/show/delivering-development> or via www.psa.eu.com/blog. He can be contacted at kevin.westbrook@psa.eu.com.

² **Carolyn Westbrook** is a Test Development Researcher at the British Council in the UK. Formerly an Associate Professor in EFL, she has over 25 years' experience teaching and assessing General English, Business English, ESP and EAP in the corporate environment as well as secondary and tertiary education in Spain, Austria, Germany and the UK. A Senior Fellow of the Higher Education Academy in the UK, she is a teacher trainer and materials writer who has delivered teacher training seminars in the UK, Europe and further afield.

To understand the range of areas to be considered when planning an internationalisation programme, it is important to place oneself in the position of the visitor, whether student or academic. The choice of institution and course/department will almost certainly take place at a distance. This may involve contact via the university's web site, e-mails, telephone, marketing literature, etc. and with both academic and administrative staff. This constitutes the “Choices” stage in **Ошибка! Источник ссылки не найден.** below. Once a person has decided on a particular course/institution and they have arrived, there are cultural aspects that need to be considered, which in turn imply a need for a support network. This can affect almost any part of the university, from the staff in the student accommodation department to the finance department and academics. This is the “Culture” stage in **Ошибка! Источник ссылки не найден.** The course itself comes next and students and academics alike are then confronted with academic issues. The “Academic” stage in **Ошибка! Источник ссылки не найден.** encompasses themes of an academic nature that need to be dealt with.



Fig. 1.
© Showeet.com

Having reviewed some of the areas that need considering if an EMI course is intended to form part of an internationalisation programme, it is necessary to consider these three, non-course, headings in more detail. The choice of institution and of course/department is of the utmost importance. As will be seen later in this article, cultural issues are also of great importance. Institutional culture and any insights into the chosen course will probably only be possible to understand at a distance. However, research in the UK, such as (Christie, Munro and Fisher, 2004), has consistently shown that factors unrelated to what happens on the course itself are most significant in students' decisions to withdraw early from courses. This is clearly unwanted, and efforts should be made to ensure that choices are well-informed. In the research above, it was clear that there are multiple reasons for dropping out. However, two-thirds of students cited poor choice of course, with half of students blaming the institutional environment. This shows how the quality and scope of information available to potential students and visiting academics is decisive in keeping retention levels as high as possible.

Culture is the next stage of the journey. Once the decision is made, the individual arrives in the country and institution selected. Culture shock is a fact of life and will affect almost everybody to some degree. This is not the place for a detailed description of the factors around culture shock, but its effects can be reduced by the existence of support and socialising possibilities. On the other hand, they will be made worse if problems that occur are more difficult to deal with than they need to be. The implications of this are that all areas of the university need to be prepared to deal with people who do not speak the local language. A particular example is IT support. It can almost be guaranteed that everybody at the university will at some point have a problem with the IT system. At that point, they will need to be able to contact somebody who can help them. That can only happen in English. But it is not simply a question of ensuring that language skills are adequate. Culture affects all aspects of who we are, our attitudes and even how much personal space we need to feel comfortable. A lack of sensitivity, on both sides, to the existence of these difficulties can cause misunderstanding and conflict, possibly increasing the effect of culture shock to the point that a student drops out. Geert Hofstede has made a lifelong study of these differences and classified many countries on a six-dimensional system (Hofstede, no date). One example is the “uncertainty avoidance”

dimension. Countries with a high score on this dimension are not tolerant of uncertainty and ambiguity, and this can be reflected in the existence of, and adherence to, large numbers of rules to regulate all aspects of life. Countries with a low score are happy to “make it up as they go along” and do not want more rules than absolutely necessary. Russia has a very high score on this dimension while the UK and China have low scores.

Finally, in this consideration of the context of EMI, it is necessary to look at the academic environment. The effect of this will come into play generally after the start of a course. There are a multitude of potential pitfalls involved in this area, but a few examples are explored now. The first of these is prior knowledge. Any curriculum is designed by making assumptions about what the students already know. Lecturers also make assumptions when dealing with students about their existing knowledge. In a “normal” university course environment, the knowledge from the students’ school career will be known and taken into account. However, school systems in different countries differ in terms of scope and depth. Something that is known in great depth from the Russian school system may be unknown or only covered at a superficial level in the French system. This demands a greater degree of flexibility in the course design and delivery than would otherwise be necessary.

The grading system to be used in an EMI course is also much more problematic than in a conventional course. There are norms and expectations related to academic writing in every country. There is a difference between the expectations in Australia and the UK, for example, two English-speaking countries. The ways in which Chinese, British and Russian students are expected to write will be completely different in terms of style and structure. When an academic comes to grade a piece of writing on an EMI course, which writing style and what criteria will be used and how will they be communicated to the students? Is a visiting academic expected to apply their own criteria or those of the country they are visiting? Or a completely separate set of criteria? On first consideration, this may seem overly pedantic, but particularly in an academic environment, written texts are judged quite severely against accepted expectations. It would be perfectly easy for a text that would be acceptable in China to be failed in the UK, simply due to the rules governing style and structure. This aspect needs to have been considered, communicated to all concerned, and those involved in grading student work trained accordingly.

Given the last point, the attentive reader may be wondering about the second part of the title of this article. Where is the language teacher in this scenario? The focus has been moved from EMI as a teaching concept to the larger context of internationalisation within which EMI sits. This does not, however, reduce the importance of the language professional. In fact, it opens up a much larger range of activities where these people can be of significant importance.

The EMI element is still important. Content lecturers still need to be effective in an EMI environment. Language teachers have much to offer in the way of support to provide content specialists with a range of techniques and approaches that will enable them to provide supportive teaching and mechanisms to monitor understanding. Their intercultural communication competence is also important, and many language professionals are also well-qualified to train their content colleagues in this area as well.

The non-teaching areas mentioned above are still areas that language professionals can have an active role in improving. It is clear that the initial choices made by students and visiting academics will be made at a distance. Much of the information collected will be via the institutional web site or downloaded information. They may find it necessary to gain further information by e-mail or telephone. The language professionals can play an important role in making sure that written communications are clear and that they include the kind of information the target audience would need and expect to find. Contact points within the university will need to receive training in dealing with enquiries by e-mail and telephone. This will involve not only language training but also intercultural communication awareness training.

The impact of cultural differences on individuals can be extremely significant. Making those individuals aware of the differences they will find is one way to make the initial stages of studying at a foreign university less stressful. Ensuring that local staff are also aware of these differences is equally as important to prevent misunderstandings. Language professionals can be involved in training that improves the quality of communication, ensuring that staff are aware of how intonation, directness and modality can change the message being transmitted, for example. Textual information can also be checked to ensure the necessary information is provided in an appropriate manner.

Within a fairly short period after beginning a course, those involved will be confronted with the academic environment which they are involved in. Academics will discover that assumptions they can make about local students may no longer apply. Students will discover that the relationship they expect to have with their lecturers has changed. Much like many of the factors discussed above, good information can go a long way to smoothing this transition and making it as painless as possible. However, one fundamental area does not allow itself to be solved quite that easily.

Academic systems are very culture-specific, and it would be quite unlikely to find an academic course that did not involve any testing or assessment. It could be said that testing and assessment are the most important aspects of any course. Without fair and reliable assessment, the quality of the course itself is almost irrelevant, as there is no way of accurately judging the knowledge or abilities of the students. But what criteria should be applied? For local academics, it will obviously be convenient to assess work in the way they have always done. If that is the chosen approach, how will visiting academics be trained to work in the same way? The students from outside the country will also need to understand the difference between what they are used to and what they now have to take into consideration when they produce work for assessment. An alternative is to produce “neutral” criteria for the specific EMI context. This is not without its own complexity though, as this would imply training all parties in a system that is not natural to any of them. Academics would need thorough training, while students would need clear information as well as training in the academic norms necessary for success. On the other hand, for work produced in English, it may be advantageous to all concerned to gain experience in a style, particularly of writing, that would be useful to a future academic career or for being published in academic journals.

Of course, given that this is a necessary process, in the context of the title of this paper it is very positive, as the language community is well-placed to advise and train on those aspects of the process that relate to language and culture. They should also be involved in the provision of information in the same way as has already been discussed.

It is clear that the provision of EMI at the tertiary level involves considerably more than simply translating an existing course. On the assumption that the institution is interested in recruiting students from around the world to participate in their EMI offering, and also taking advantage of the other benefits of a successful EMI programme, a holistic approach must be followed in order to ensure that the time and money invested in developing and running such a programme is not wasted as students drop out early and visiting academics lose interest. While this may initially appear to relegate the language community to a lower importance in the process, this is not necessarily the case. Much of the holistic approach to EMI relates to communication of some kind. Language clearly lies within the core competencies of a language teacher, but many in the field will also have knowledge about intercultural communication and differences in academic systems. The approach also widens the client base for language teaching, involving a wide range of administrative departments such as admissions, IT support, finance and accommodation. In addition, there is a profusion of written material that needs to be provided with sufficient content in appropriate language.

EMI has been described “as a ‘galloping’ phenomenon now considered ‘pandemic’ in proportion” (Chapple, 2015:1). While an increasing amount of evidence casts doubt on some of the claims for its benefits, it is likely to continue to grow as long as universities are motivated to compete for students and its staff wish to be involved in the international academic world. Some language professionals are already fully equipped to contribute to the process of internationalisation of which EMI is a part. For others, it should be seen as an opportunity to upskill and develop so that they can also provide the full range of language-based skills that this process demands.

REFERENCES

Chapple, J. (2015). Teaching in English Is Not Necessarily the Teaching of English. *International Education Studies*, 8(3), 1–13. <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1060798>

Christie, T., Munro, M., & Fisher, T. (2004). *Leaving university early: exploring the differences between continuing and non-continuing students*. Retrieved from <http://heer.qaa.ac.uk/SearchForSummaries/Summaries/Pages/AWP50.aspx>

Ethnologue. What is the most spoken language? <https://www.ethnologue.com/guides/most-spoken-languages> Accessed 3 June 2019.

Hofstede, G. (n.d.). Compare countries. Retrieved 3 June 2019, from <https://www.hofstede-insights.com/product/compare-countries/>

Macaro, E. (2018). *English medium instruction*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Office for National Statistics. (2016, September). *How has the student population changed?* Retrieved June 3, 2019, from <https://www.ons.gov.uk/peoplepopulationandcommunity/birthsdeathsandmarriages/livebirths/articles/howhashestudentpopulationchanged/2016-09-20>

Wächter, B., & Maiworm, F. (2014). *ACA Secretariat: English-Taught Programmes in European Higher Education. The State of Play in 2014*. ACA Secretariat. <http://www.aca-secretariat.be/index.php?id=792>

Westbrook, P. (2019, April 2). *Parallel language use: OK but what about the admin staff?* [Conference presented]. IATEFL annual conference 2019, Liverpool.