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Spis treści

Introduction

The papers presented in the current volume discuss current problems of applied linguistics that are crucial to the development of this field of academic studies at the beginning of the 21ˢᵗ century.

The papers deal mainly with teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL), namely: language learning in the globalizing world, student–teacher collaboration, the significance of intercultural communication, as well as the development of specific foreign language skills.

Apart from Kraków, the authors represent a number of Polish academic centres, such as Warszawa, Gdańsk, Wrocław and Nysa, as well as foreign universities from Timişoara, Paris, Riga, Bratislava, Ústí nad Labem and Oslo.

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FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING IN THE GLOBALISING WORLD: ATTITUDES, MOTIVATION, LEARNER IDENTITY

Introduction

For many centuries, knowledge of foreign languages was largely elitist. It marked a high degree of education and, accordingly, high social status, thus could be regarded as a constituent of High Culture. Today, the possibility of fast travel and communication, opening frontiers and unifying economic markets have triggered increased social mobility, enabling contact between people of various origins and speakers of various languages. Foreign language acquisition is no longer restricted to the higher social spheres.

For many, operating within two or more languages on a daily basis is a natural phenomenon. Whether this is for professional purposes, such as trading, or for private use, e.g. in mixed marriages or in multilingual communities, bi- or multilingualism has become the norm for many, and not the characteristic of a select few. Also the necessity and/or willingness to use products of other cultures have boosted interest in learning foreign languages; thus its functional knowledge is an essential part of the popular culture.

The goal of this paper is to describe how attitudes to various languages and language learning have changed in the last two decades and what impact these social changes may have on language teaching pedagogy.

Attitudes to foreign language learning in Europe

As mentioned in the introduction the process of globalization has fostered the development of international and intercultural contacts, thus encouraging through necessity the acquisition of languages other than the mother tongue. This need is recognized both by individuals, educational institutions, and even governments, who may e.g. introduce obligatory foreign language(s) learning as an official educational policy.

The Council of Europe, an institution which offers cultural and educational support for the undertakings of the European Union, issued official recommendations for the educational policies of each member country, calling for the appreciation of the linguistic diversity of Union members. It is argued that plurilingualism of individual citizen should become a goal of language education, to be achieved by offering

two foreign languages for learning in the public education system. In addition the starting age of the second language should be lowered so as to prolong the overall length of received instruction and thus foster better foreign language learning results. Finally, linguistic minorities should have an opportunity to receive education and take state exams in their language. Learning of regional languages should be promoted (Promoting Language Learning and Linguistic Diversity: An Action Plan 2004–2006, Komorowska 2007). Following these guidelines, Wilczyńska (2008) suggests that Polish citizens living close to borders should learn languages of their neighbours, especially if they are linguistically related, e.g. Czech, Slovak, Russian.

While linguistic diversity and plurilingualism seem to be the official stance of European institutions, recent research on attitudes to foreign language learning reveals contrary opinions among individual learners. This concerns both the (un)willingness to learn foreign languages and choices of foreign languages taken for study.

The first large-scale longitudinal study on these issues was conducted in Hungary (Dórneyi et al. 2006). The study took place at three key historic moments: the collapse of communism in 1989, the building of a free market in the 1990s, and the accession to the EU in 2004. The goal was to investigate how these political changes influenced the attitudes of individual secondary school learners to foreign language communities and their languages.

The results showed that in 1989 and in the early 1990s the majority of schools continued to teach Russian – an obligatory school subject in Communist times – mainly due to the shortage of other language teachers. The following years brought about increased interest in western languages, and were subsequently offered in L2 instruction. These were, in a ranking order: English, German (traditionally very popular in the western regions of Hungary, for historical reasons), French and Italian (Dórneyi et al. 2006).

The results showed that a small and rather unvaried choice of languages taken for study may have been caused by a shortage of specialized teachers of other, less popular languages. This was especially true in the second batch of data collection in 1990s. However, in the last batch of the project (2004) all subjects showed an astonishing interest in learning mainly L2 English, leaving behind the traditionally popular German (Dórneyi et al. 2006).

Indeed, the same phenomena have been noticed in the international project reported by Wilczyńska (2008) and conducted partly in the area of Słubice and in Poznań: the availability of qualified language teachers influenced the language offered for instruction, particularly if that was L3. When it came to the choice of L2, most of the students (adolescents) chose English. German was the most popular L3, as this is the language of the neighbouring country. Learners expressed their willingness to study these languages by pointing out the practical usefulness of these languages in the future (instrumental motive). It may also be the case that public demand (parents, learners) restricts the choice of offered languages mainly to English as L2, and then German, French and Russian as L3. No other foreign languages have been taught, thus educational offer in this respect is relatively poor and contrary to the EU recommendations.

On the other hand, Polish adolescents are still willing to learn foreign languages and show interest and curiosity in other cultures, which is evident from their participation in after-school private language courses. Although English language courses are preferred, other languages as L3s are chosen as well (Wilczyńska 2008).

A different attitude to foreign language learning can be observed among youth in western European countries. Bartram (2006) investigated 411 adolescents, who came from England, Germany and the Netherlands, and their attitudes to learning L2 French, German and English.

The findings have shown the dependence between foreign language learning attitudes and ethnicity. Dutch and French adolescents studied a second language most willingly. It was also found that this positive attitude was influenced by parental support, namely those parents who had a good command of a foreign language acted as positive role models and therefore encouraged learners to learn the same foreign language. In most cases the preferred language was L2 English: parents often indicated advantages deriving from its knowledge.

In contrast, the English adolescents showed the least interest and eagerness to study foreign languages. English parents did not encourage their children to study a foreign language, nor did they know any L2 themselves. Lack of parental support in this respect must have been caused by the fact that English people already speak a language of international status and do not feel the need to learn other modern languages. All in all, it is evident from this study that both parents and adolescents treat language learning instrumentally, i.e. it is supposed to bring notable benefits in the future.

The status of English as a lingua franca: the present and future

The results of the above studies revealed that most learners are driven by an instrumental motive when they choose a language to study. They decide to learn the language that will turn out most useful in their future careers, help them use modern technologies, and help them communicate with other members of the global village. Not surprisingly then, they all choose to learn English as their first, and often only foreign language.

The choice of English is dictated by the special status this language has received in recent years: "lingua franca" or a global and international language (Crystal 2003, Jenkins 2007, Sharifian 2009).

The high status of that language is connected with political and economic dominance of AngloAmerican countries in the globalised world. Since its knowledge seems to be a must in international communication, it is the main foreign language learnt by many individuals, thus suppressing the popularity and need for learning other foreign languages. In fact, teaching and learning English worldwide is such a widespread phenomenon that the popularly used terms such as EFL or ESL have been often replaced by EIL – English as an International Language (Sharifian 2009). EIL is used in those contexts in which people who come from different cultural backgrounds have to communicate.

On the other hand, it is also possible that in the not so distant future the widespread popularity of English as a major foreign language studied may soon decline, as a Swedish study by Henry and Apelgren showed (2008). In the study

Henry and Apelgren (2008) investigated the adolescent attitudes to L3s before and a year after its introduction. It was found that learners showed a much greater interest and enthusiasm about those third languages than about learning their L2 English. This enthusiasm, although declined, was still greater after a year of the study. It was hypothesized from the results that what captivated learners' interest was engaging with the new linguistic code. Since English is so common in Sweden, and often used daily by adults, learners are exposed to it from early childhood, hence it does not hold much attractiveness originating from novelty. These findings are different from those in other educational contexts. Maybe they could be treated as predictive of future phenomena: once nearly every EU citizen possesses a working knowledge of English, other modern languages will gain popularity for studying purposes.

Also Chłopek (2008) who studied Polish students of philology found that those students, who were multilingual, i.e. tried to learn more than two foreign languages, showed more interest in other languages and cultures and were able to find more short-term motivators to foster their learning. It may be predicted that learners who have achieved satisfactory levels of L2 English may soon turn to learning other less popular languages, which will give them more satisfaction and perhaps also better job prospects.

Language learning motivation as a process:
from integrativeness to instrumentalism

Motivation is the most important construct conditioning success in second language learning. It makes the learner set goals to achieve, undertake appropriate means to study it, as well as assess his/her progress and even reward himself. It is often viewed as a stable feature characteristic of dichotomy, thus linguists and psychologists alike distinguish in a learner either integrative or instrumental motivation, intrinsic or extrinsic, positive or negative.

The precursors of the study on foreign language learning motivation, Gardner and Lambert (1972), claimed that it is the integrative drive that leads most of the learners to successful achievement. They defined (1972: 132) it as "reflecting a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other group." It is also characteristic of learners who learn a foreign language for its own sake. By contrast, instrumental motivation emphasizes some social or economic gains that learning a foreign language may bring.

Skehan (1989) claims, that since the integrative motivation is rooted in the personality of the learner, it sustains motivation more deeply, influences the learner over an extended period of time, and it is not so susceptible to external changes of learning conditions. Gardner and Lambert also agree that "[...] an instrumental motive is less effective because it is not rooted in the personality of the learner, and therefore, more dependent on fallible external pressures" (Skehan 1989: 53).

In some later studies Gardner and Lambert (1978 in Ellis 1994) found that integrative motivation bore more importance in a formal learning environment than instrumental motivation. Also in some "second" as opposed to "foreign" language settings learners select instrumental reasons as self-motivators more frequently than integrative reasons for language learning. It could be concluded that instrumental

motivation can prove successful in a situation where the learner is provided with no opportunities to use the target language, and therefore has few opportunities to interact with members of the target group. Accordingly, the kind of motivation learners exhibit and the kind that is most important for language learning seem to be conditioned by social situation of the learners.

The aforementioned research findings show that although motivation in this classic dichotomic distinction has been regarded for quite some time as a stable attribute of a learner, it is not so. An overview of more recent research shows (Pawlak 2009) that it is not a stable feature; it fluctuates and is dependent on such factors as the teacher, the learning situation, the length of learning, the task type, etc. Foreign language learning usually takes a long time, therefore it is impossible to maintain the same levels of motivation over a few-years' time. In response to such research results Dórneyi (2001 in Pawlak 2009) has proposed a dynamic model of motivation where the process of learning motivation consists of 3 stages:

1. *The planning stage*, in which a learner sets the goals to achieve, makes task choices, decides on the actions to do; this is the stage when motivation to study is generated. This is sometimes called selection motivation.
2. *The action stage*, which goal is to maintain the motivation obtained before; it consists in specifying the smaller tasks, monitoring their progress, overcoming obstacles which might prevent the learner from doing the smaller steps. This is an active motivation.
3. *The post-activity stage*, in which the learner evaluates the results of his work; this in turn may have an effect on the further undertakings of the learner and the types of the tasks that will be chosen to do. This is a type of an introspective motivation.

In each of the stages different motives can be used; thus not one type but many drive the language learner to complete the learning task. The reason for this is that different factors play a role in each of the stages. For example, in the planning stage, elements such as availability of goals, potential learning benefits, self-esteem in reference to the learning task, attitude to the language, perceived barriers, etc. will be of vital importance. In the following stage of doing the learning task the generated levels of motivation can be maintained, increased or decreased. This may depend on the learner's autonomy and employed learning strategies, support given by teachers and parents, quality of the teaching/learning process, system of rewards, peer group dynamics, and/or self-regulation strategies (e.g. persistence in doing a task, etc.). Finally, in the last stage, the learners may vary in how they evaluate their success or failure as this may have positive/negative outcome on the successive tasks.

The dynamic nature of foreign language motivation is, for instance, visible among instructed primary school learners. Many researchers (e.g. Nikolov 1999, Tragant 2006) observed that while many young children seem to be driven by overall curiosity and enthusiasm to L2 learning, which could be ascribed to an integrative/intrinsic type of motivation, their motivation changes in the process of schooling, perhaps under the influence of teachers, teaching methods, assessment system, peer group etc. With age most of the learners seem to be driven mainly externally and instrumentally.

The instrumental motives seem to gain importance also among adolescents and adults. As the studies on language attitudes and language choice showed (e.g.

Dórneyi, Csizer and Nemeth 2006), learners choose to learn languages which may bring them the most practical benefits. On the other hand, Lamb (2004) observed that instrumental and integrative motives nowadays can hardly be distinguished, as a learner's goal may be a desire to integrate with a global community of English speakers. This, in turn, may bring them some measurable profits, such as well-paid jobs in an international market.

Identity of the L2 learner

As it was stated above, in the past the integrative motivation seemed to stimulate the learner to succeed in L2 learning. As Gardner and Lambert (1972: 135) put it, the L2 learner "must be willing to identify with members of another ethnolinguistic group and take on very subtle aspects of their behaviour." In other words, the keener one is on L2 culture, the more willing s/he is to adopt a lifestyle associated with it, and the more successful s/he is in L2 learning.

It is possible, however, that an ardent lover of L2 culture and language may adopt a somewhat cosmopolitan identity and, as a result, meet with some feelings of alienation. He may no longer totally associate himself with his home culture; what's more, his attempts to transfer some habits, ways of lifestyle, from L2 onto L1 ground can be met with resentment, criticism and misunderstanding. On the other hand, the goal of becoming indistinguishable from L2 speakers in language and behaviour is unattainable. Thus the successful L2 learner may have problems with recognizing his identity, i.e. his true Self.

More recent views on language learning motivation emphasise that the L2 learner may decide himself on the extent to which he can give up his L1 identity and adopt L2 identity. This is possible since in the era of linguistic globalization varieties of language (also non-native ones) are accepted and a native speaker of L2 is not the only acclaimed model to compare one's L2 competence to. The integrative motive seems to lose on importance in view of the lack of the specific target group to identify with. As it was shown above, most L2 learners choose and learn a language for instrumental purposes; they do not have to necessarily use it with native speakers of that language. Using the language merely instrumentally does not include such a strong identification with L2 speakers, and so does not require the learner to lose his L1 identity.

Since motivation towards learning L2 is a continuous process, the identity of the L2 learner may fluctuate as well. In this respect Dórneyi (2005) proposes the dynamic model of development of learner identity and language learning motivation, the L2 Motivational Self System. This model proposes that a learner is willing to undertake efforts to master L2 in order to reduce the gap between his actual state of the learner, i.e. L2-Self and the one he wants to achieve, i.e. the Ideal L2-Self, which stands for the representation of desirable attributes such as hopes, aspirations, wishes etc. The introduced concept of an ideal L2-self does not relate to any L2 group or culture, however, but to "international posture." If the integrative motive is still valid, it relates to this "international posture," i.e. to a non-specific global community of L2 users and not to any special L2 group. As Pavlenko and Lantolf (2000: 162) put it, "people are agents in charge of their own learning, and

most frequently they decide to learn their second language «to a certain extent», which allows them to be proficient, even fluent, but without the consequences of losing the old and adopting the new ways of being in the world."

In this vein, Lamb (2004) carried out a study among Indonesians aged 11–12 studying L2 English and noticed that the learners' integrative and instrumental motivations were nearly indistinguishable. Their integrative desire was connected not with the particular Anglophone culture but with the desire to belong to the global society, in which English is a means of communication. Thus speaking English has an instrumental value as it helps to achieve integrative goals. Lamb (2004) argues that these adolescent learners aspire to "bicultural identity", which involves their L1-speaking Self and an English-speaking globally involved version of themselves.

In consequence, foreign language learning can be seen nowadays as a site of struggle for the new, cosmopolitan, plurilingual identity. A learner has to oppose internal conflicts "between monolithic ideologies of language learning and the authors' day–to-day experiences of participation in new discursive practices." (Pavlenko and Lantolf 2000: 162). While struggling to acquire the second language, one may lose his L1 identity along with all its subjectivities, his frame of reference, the inner voice, and, in case of immigrants, even his mother tongue. Yet, the process is reversible, and one can regain his L1 by gradually moving through the stages of appropriation of others' voices, then emergence of one's own new voice, often in writing first, translation therapy: reconstruction of one's past, continuous growth into new positions and subjectivities (Pavlenko and Lantolf 2000). Thus, whatever discourse a learner engages in, whether in L1 or L2 he is at the same time either appropriating or departing from his L1 or L2 identity. In this sense the process of identity construction fluctuates and is subject to constant negotiations, both internal and with other speakers.

This identity negotiation, whether internal (within Self) or external, influenced by other people, linguistic practices etc. may be also regarded as a site of struggle for power. By imposing a particular linguistic practice, such as speaking ELF, those who can use it with mastery, exert power over those who do not possess this skill. As Jenkins (2007: 201) put it, "power is at present, likely to be a major influence in the way many ELF speakers both categorise/affiliate themselves and ascribe identities to each other." Those who lack the desired capacity, the linguistic resource, go to any length to acquire it or otherwise feel excluded from the community, in this case the global community. The desire to master L2 (ELF) may involve resigning from L1 identity, at least to some extent. Therefore, as Pavlenko and Blackledge (2004: 12–13) indicate "any analysis of language practices needs to examine how conventions of language choice and use are created, maintained, and changed, to see how language ideologies legitimize and validate particular practices, and to understand real-world consequences these practices have in people's lives."

According to Jenkins (2007) these power relationships can be shifted, and new identity options can emerge. For the last decade of the 20th century the linguistic power of ELF communication tended to favour native speakers of English. Yet, in the global communication few of them are involved. While many speakers may continue to identify themselves with native speakers of English, "they may at the same time feel more at home in English as part of their own linguacultural community or even

an international NNS community" (Jenkins 2007: 199). Therefore English rather than as lingua franca, could be recognized as an International Language (EIL), which bears important implications for foreign language pedagogy.

Globalisation and foreign language learning

Up to early 1980s the methods and the goals of foreign language teaching and learning were relatively clear. The prevalent methods, such as the Audiolingual or Communicative one aimed at preparing learners for communication with native speakers of that particular language. So as to avoid misunderstandings in communication with L2 speakers which derived from lack of knowledge about social, cultural and historical heritage of the L2 community, a huge emphasis was put on teaching the cultural content, i.e. information, facts, knowledge. The cultural component of teaching L2 meant informing the learners of the whereabouts of the L2 countries, as if assuming that every L2 learner will visit/live in the L2 community. Thus the knowledge of L2 culture was to serve an integrative motive of language learning. A learner was to learn only about L2 culture, disregarding his native one, and assuming that L2 would be used only with native speakers of L2, and not other non-native speakers.

However, as it was shown in the above discussion, the rapid process of globalization changed the views on foreign language learning: nowadays it is treated mainly instrumentally. A foreign language is not learnt with the view to achieve native-like perfection, as motives, desires and needs may vary from an individual to an individual.

The interest in foreign cultures has been shifted from that of the culture of the L2 country into general openness and tolerance towards other cultures. Thus the goal of reaching cultural competence has been replaced by the necessity to develop intercultural competence. Intercultural competence is a core of language proficiency in international communication. It is described as a construct consisting of 5 elements: attitudes of curiosity and openness, knowledge of products and practices in a learner's and a foreign interlocutor's countries, skills of interpreting and relating documents and facts from another culture to a native culture and the ability of their critical evaluation, skills of discovering new knowledge about a culture and an ability to utilize it in a situation at hand (Byram 1997).

The greatest benefit of an intercultural approach to foreign language learning is that the learner does not have to get rid of his/her cultural heritage, nor be deprived of his L1 identity. As it was shown above, it is the learner himself who decides on the degree of his identification with L2 culture, i.e. his Ideal-L2 Self.

Another benefit of such an approach is an increased appreciation of various cultures and languages. Functional use of languages and learning for instrumental purposes seem to have gained priority. Even though the English language has the highest status and is the most commonly taught second language, other languages become of interest to learners willing to be multilingual. It seems that the knowledge of English can act as a kind of mediator in getting to know other people and cultures and subsequently lead to learning their languages. Thus bilingualism slowly gives way to multilingualism. If that happens, the European ideals of integration and mutual understanding will be met.

Indeed, as Byram (2008) in his later book declared, a shift from foreign language education to education for Intercultural citizenship could be observed. Advocating for plurilingual development may in fact denote advocating for a new European identity, developing in addition to the national identity. Since language has always been a symbol of national identity, so should plurilingualism become a symbol of European one. However, as Beacco (2005: 20) notes "the transition from a closed identity to a relaxed and welcoming relationships with languages that allows us the innumerable pleasures of plurilingualism requires *an education*, in the strict sense of the term, that develops pluricultural and plurilingual capability."

Final conclusions

The global spread of English is undeniable and the necessity to know it/use it is enforced by the dominance of the Anglo-American world in many spheres of life in the global village. While English will probably become the second language for majority of world speakers, it does not necessarily have to deprive its users of their L1 identities nor prevent them from acquiring further languages. In the era of global communication, English will remain an important channel of communication, but may also constitute a bridge to learning other (third, fourth, etc.) languages and cultures, as indeed plurilingual competence and multilingual identity may characterize a future citizen of Europe and the global world.

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Nauka języka obcego w dobie światowej globalizacji: postawy, motywacja, tożsamość ucznia

Streszczenie

Jedną z konsekwencji globalizacji jest uzyskanie przez język angielski statusu języka międzynarodowego. Fakt ten pociąga za sobą wiele konsekwencji dotyczących wyboru i motywacji do nauki tego, jak i innych języków obcych (przewaga motywacji instrumentalnej nad integracyjną, zmienny poziom motywacji, por. Dórnyei 2005). Ponadto motywacja ta jest powiązana z wizją własnej tożsamości uczącego się we współczesnym świecie oraz jego stosunkiem do kultury i użytkowników danego języka. Wydaje się, że wielojęzyczność, a co za tym idzie wielokulturowa tożsamość, jest w pewnym sensie koniecznością i wymaganiem współczesności.

Artykuł prezentuje powyższe tezy w oparciu o wyniki badań polskich (Wilczyńska 2008, Chłopek 2008) i zagranicznych (Lamb 2004; Bartram 2006; Henry and Apelgren 2006; Dórnyei, Csizer, Nemeth 2006) uczonych. W części końcowej przedstawiono konsekwencje tych zmian dla dydaktyki języków obcych, takie jak porzucenie nauczania według jednej metody, konieczność nauczania nie tylko form językowych, ale i kształcenia kompetencji interkulturowej.

Laura Ioana Coroamă

REVISITING THE STRUCTURE OF THE ENGLISH CLASS: TO WHAT EXTENT CAN THE COMMUNITY OF PRACTICE STRUCTURE PROMOTE NEW MOTIVATIONAL PATTERNS IN THE LANGUAGE CLASS?

Introduction

Learning English has undergone frequent and multiple metamorphoses during the last twenty years in post-communist Romania. Both globalisation and local economical and social context have made English learning a necessity from an early age. However, experience and current evaluations have showed that young learners encounter several difficulties in adapting their knowledge (resulted mainly from the subjects they learn at school) to the linguistic skills they acquire in English.

The aim of this paper is to revisit some concepts related to English language teaching from a more complex perspective. Up to the present, the tendency has been to teach grammar, vocabulary or conversational structures separately, expecting the learner to reproduce them as correctly as possible in certain situations (at school or in real life). Social theories (Dewey 1916, 1933, 1938; Freire 1972, 1995; Illich 1973, 1975), the ecological approach (van Lier 2004) and the communities of practice theories (Lave 1991, Wenger 2005, Rogoff 2006) emphasize the importance of situated learning and intentional participation in generating meaning.

The research described in this paper represents the initial stages of a project that is investigating different patterns of learning emergences that may occur within a language class, organized as a community of practice, in a non-formal environment. What is the impact of pedagogy based on community of practice? Could this new perspective be proposed as more efficient and motivating approach to learning foreign languages and cultures?

Theoretical insights

The ecological approach and language learning

Language learning in classrooms is undoubtedly a complex phenomenon. Acknowledging the notions of chaos and complexity regarding language learning (Larsen-Freeman 1997) and considerations of the class as a social ecosystem, the ecological approach focuses on the elements of the environment that make things happen the way they do. Ecology is also about the study of the dynamic, non-static dimension of learning. This combination between predictable and unpredictable influences and situations taking place in the language class provides "affordances

for active participants in the setting, and learning emerges as a part of affordances being picked up and exploited for further action" (van Lier 2004: 8). My project is based on the analysis of the type of emergences appearing within the language class and on their consequences on learners' motivation to learn English.

The concepts of *emergence* and *affordance* are particularly relevant to my research as they reflect the results of the dynamic dimension of formal-informal learning strategies in a non-formal environment. According to van Lier and in terms of learning, *affordance* indicates a relationship between a learner and the environment, "that signals an opportunity for or inhibition of action" while *emergence* happens "when relatively simple elements combine together to form a higher-order system" (van Lier 2004: 4–5). Language learners develop various patterns, both of action and knowledge-in-action through their interactions with others and with their environment. The ecological approach favours the interconnections, centre-multiplicity and the space within knowledge and learning centres.

Environment in language learning represents a key factor as it is defined in strict relation to contexts in which learners acquire the language outside the school (family, street, etc.). Thus, the school environment proves to be an excellent territory for uncontrolled language learning dynamics: the language input the pupils provide to the class language patterns is constantly reshaped by their experiences outside the school.

Environment learning analysis cannot be imagined without considering the concepts of *formal*, *informal* and *non-formal* learning. I will use for this research the definitions given by the European Commission: formal learning is typically provided by education or training institutions, with structured learning objectives, learning time and learning support. It is intentional on the part of the learner and leads to certification. Informal learning, however, results from daily activities related to work, family life or leisure. It is not structured and usually does not lead to certification, and in most cases, it is unintentional on the part of the learner.

For this project, the formal environment represented by English taught and learned in school and the informal environment referring to other means of learning the language, exterior to the institutional ones, are interconnected within a non-formal environment, a language class organized in a community of practice. Non-formal learning is not provided by education or training institution and typically does not lead to certification. However, it is intentional on the part of the learner and has structured objectives, time and support. The non-formal dimension of this community work is conferred by intentionality on the part of both teacher and learner (it was his/her choice to participate in this project and the sessions are not included in the curriculum), time planning and presence of main objectives.

Language learning and community of practice

Lave and Wenger first introduced the concept of Community of Practice (CoP) in 1991. Central to their notion of CoP as a means of acquiring knowledge is the process by which newcomers move from peripheral to full participation in the community as they learn from others. They named this process Legitimate Peripheral Participation (LPP).

As language learning is translated in terms of environment interactions and consequent emergences, the communities of practice theory represent an important

landmark of my research as young learners (consciously or not) are members of different communities, both at school (class community, friends' community, etc.) and outside it (family community, playmates groups, sports community, etc.). As Etienne Wenger (2007) defines them, "communities of practice are groups of people who share a concern or passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly." Applying this definition to the analysed group it has to be emphasized that its activity is represented by the learn-do-play triangle, as it is representative for the learners' age.

The class chosen for this project has been organised in a community following these main criteria: characteristics of communities of practice (Wenger 2005), member status (every community has core members and others placed at the margins depending on the dimension of their engagement in task solving), shared interests and repertoire. Members share a set of relationships over time (Lave and Wenger 1991: 98), and the fact that they are organized around a particular theme and activity confers on them a sense of identity. Commonly, the Romanian language teaching system highly prioritises individual work, while often disregarding learning in a community or by peer influence and help. The main hypothesis is that the activities of such community designed in a non-formal environment enable the emergence of language strategies which prove to be more efficient than those set by teaching system centred on the fact that learners are constraint to acquire discursive strategies.

Language learning motivation

Modern research in the field of motivation theories reveals two series of theoretical paradigms: general theories (which present motivation as a feature of people's personality subjected or not to variation) and situated theories (Dörnyei 2003). First of all, the latter highlights equally important roles of three elements, namely motivational factors, learner's exterior context and learner's specific features. What I consider edifying for this research is the analysis of the language learning complexity in a community of practice as a result of the intersection between situated learning in a specific context and situated motivation theories.

Profoundly influenced by the psycho-social approach, Robert Gardner's theory of motivation (1985) identifies motivational intensity (effort), the desire to learn the language (the need), attitudes regarding language learning (cognition) and the pleasure of learning (emotion). From an ecological perspective, these elements must be connected to the specificity of the environment, a combination of formal, non-formal, and informal elements in our case.

In self-determination theory (Deci and Ryan 1985) intrinsic motivation refers to behaviour which gives pleasure and satisfaction to the learner, "the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfaction rather than for some separable consequences" (Deci and Ryan 2000: 56) while extrinsic motivation corresponds to the desire of doing an action as a means of obtaining something else such as a higher mark, a better position or a certain reward.

"Interest in the motivational basis of language learning tasks can be seen as the culmination of the situated approach in L2 motivation research" (Dörnyei 2003: 14). Firstly, the task is the most important condition of the environment, in the community's activity in our case and, secondly, the task and the way the learner

refers to it are strongly related to the learning-teaching process. A non-formal context of learning, deprived of task or assessment constraints, benefits more from the learners' knowledge, skills and behaviour, as the personal expression is higher than in a formal context.

Research methodology

Project planning

The overall research designed for the project consists of several elements: an analysis of all the phases of the project, pupil questionnaires and pupil interviews. The project is designed for a period of 9 months and it has five stages: a preparatory stage, a second stage (a 7-week period with specific activities grouped around cultural icons related to Italy and England), a third stage (an 8-week period with similar activities on France and Germany), an assessment stage and a follow-up stage.

Name and number of stage	Stage description
1. Preparatory stage	– students' level of English is tested (reading, listening, speaking and writing skills, and also cultural knowledge about the British and European culture); – pair work and individual activities;
2. Main stage A	– specific activities in order to practice all communicative skills with particular focus on cultural elements from Italy and England; – pair work and group work; – activities designed to encourage teamwork and the development of a community of practice;
3. Main stage B	– same set of activities oriented to the French and German cultural environment;
4. Assessment stage	– group and class assessment of final products: advertising posters, tourist leaflets, registered role plays and project diary accordingly to pre-established criteria: linguistic, cultural and originality and creativity parameters;
5. Follow-up stage	– discussions around topics which have not been treated during the project or others which emerged as a consequence of the linguistic, cultural and collaborative work undergone by the members of the class-community.

Participants

The present project has been developed due to the contribution of ALDIDAC (Approche Linguistique et Didactique de la Différence Culturelle), a research group within IMAGER (Institut des Mondes Anglophone, Germanique et Roman) at Paris East University (France) and the Primary and Secondary School n° 19 from Timişoara (Romania). The pupils are in their last year of primary school and their second year of learning English as a compulsory subject in a formal context. Learners are 10 years old and they participate in this project one and a half hour each week. The language class (13 students) is conceived as a community that shares certain features (age, knowledge level, learning skills and English level) and whose members are involved in a series of activities imagined around the theme "Intercultural voyage."

The learners work in two groups, the criterion of choice being their personal preferences of accession to a specific group. Accompanied by an imaginary friend, they undertake a voyage to several countries, experiencing real life situations

(checking-in at the airport, interacting with the flight attendants during the flight, ordering food in a restaurant, asking for information, checking-in at the hotel, etc.), learning about the culture of the countries, and producing various materials (e.g. a newspaper article, letters, advertising posters, their own materials for the activities). Meanwhile the participants both practice and develop communication skills in English. The formal dimension of this community is given by the involvement of the participants' primary school teacher and the coordinator of the project, who is both an English teacher and a researcher.

Research tools

The data presented in this chapter was obtained during the second phase of the project and are the results of crossed analysis of the following: a collective initial assessment, an observatory protocol, informal interviews with the pupils after each session, constant feedback from the participants, the text of an article for the school magazine, and pupil questionnaires.

The coordinator of the project was responsible for the observatory scheme which consisted of the following categories: the number of participants, time distribution for each task (imposed by the teacher, accepted or negotiated, proposed by the pupils), attitudes towards task-solving (positive or negative attitudes; acceptance vs. refusal), task-solving strategies (strategies within the group and the community, strategies specific to formal or informal learning, emergence of new strategies), autonomy parameters (how the pupils solved the tasks: alone, in pairs, in group), motivation patterns (expressed vs. non-expressed motivation, implicit vs. explicit desire to learn more, verbalisation of their desires or obstacles while solving the tasks, the acknowledgement of certain elements which the pupils have found particularly motivating, and pupil–teacher relationship.

Observatory scheme

Stages / Variables	Preparatory stage	Main stage A	Main stage B	Assessment stage	Follow-up stage
Number of participants					
Time distribution/task					
Type of attitudes					
Autonomy parameters					
Motivation patterns					
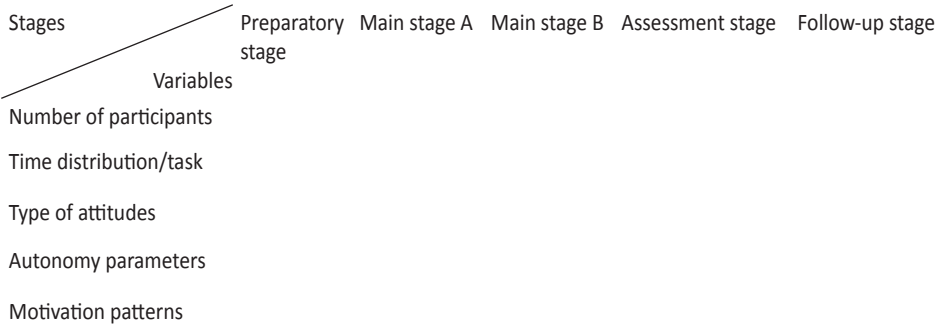
At the end of each weekly session, the groups gathered and each of their members had to give an overall opinion about their learning experiences. The goal of these activities was to encourage pupils to freely express their opinions regarding their own learning and to raise their awareness of their responsibility as full participants in the English learning process. During the entire project, pupils were asked to complete three charts pinned on the board called: "things I've liked today," "things I haven't liked today," "things I wish we did." Another data item that I consider particularly interesting is the writing of an article for the school magazine, the text of which reflected their feelings and opinions on the project.

All the participants completed the final questionnaire consisting of sections covering the following areas: autobiographical details, general impressions on the activities, degrees of participation in the English classes (regular class and project class), use of knowledge (learned in or out of school, from several school subjects), activities within the group (frequency, variety, participation), describing learning strategies and autonomy, commenting on community cohesion, and comparison of their language and motivation levels.

Research findings and further discussions

The observatory scheme has been a useful tool in collecting data about learners' approach to the task. For example, on some occasions, the learners easily accepted and solved the task, but at other times, the task had to be negotiated. There was also a constant tension as far as the language used was concerned (the mother tongue or English). In addition, the activities' dynamic and cooperative dimension has attracted learners' attention and raised their motivation.

Weekly discussion sessions represented a complementary and evaluative data collection tool as their role was to confirm or infirm the information obtained from the observatory scheme. It is important to highlight the fact that this type of group sharing (the teacher being also a member) has showed that learners are more aware of their linguistic and learning potential if they are asked to talk about it and if they listen to their peers' experiences. Moreover, the results given by the assessment questionnaires have confirmed the previous data: diversified activities without a specific linguistic purpose led to a higher participation and involvement in task solving; moving, dynamic and restructuring real life situations have a positive impact on their intrinsic motivation and on the development of new adapted learning strategies.

Task motivation and co-participatory patterns

As the data provided by this research tool revealed, the number of participants during the project remained unchanged although the measure in which they attended the activities and were involved in task solving has been fluctuating. This remark is justified and confirmed by the pupils' answers to their weekly discussion sessions. Among the recurrent elements were: the pleasure of doing an activity without evaluation pressure and a wide flexibility in choosing future topics and the playful aspect of such activities. As one of the participants mentioned: "we don't have tests, we can learn English and play at the same time." From this observation it was possible to discern several issues. There is clearly an affective attachment to the whole set of activities due to this playing–learning dimension. Even more, pupil behaviour reflects the pleasure of solving tasks and participating in activities for their "inherent satisfactions" (Deci and Ryan 2000).

Applying the member status analysis used by Wenger (2007) to the results of the observations, the creation of a group of core members has been signalled in each in contrast to members who manifested adhesion to neither tasks nor activities. The analysis of the crossing between data offered by pupils grades' records, the charts in which they have written their responsibilities during the project and the questions regarding their English level underlines the fact, that core members are pupils who

have a good level of English, presenting a higher level of confidence as far as their language skills are concerned. However, only 4 out of 13 pupils may be considered core members and the observations reveal their profile which is characterized by initiative in approaching the task and a tendency to solve it individually. It must be pointed out that the questions to the informal interviews indicated a certain change between collaborative models during the first 3 sessions and the next ones. The responses to the final questionnaire indicated that 9 out of 13 participants *often* or *sometimes* asked for their peers' help during the activities (compared to 5 out of 13).

The peripheral–marginal pair is closely related to the attitudes of participation or non-participation in the project. Involvement or refusals to complete the task are both parts of the participant's identity, impacting also the collective identity. Wenger (2005: 187) suggests that marginal and peripheral positions possess a combination of participation and non-participation. In addition, it appears to be extremely difficult to distinguish between them as they entail the development of strong identities. It may be argued that the non-participatory reactions noticed in the early sessions represented the manner in which some learners chose to approach the activity and how they related to the task imposed by the teacher. The observations have confirmed that in each working group at least 2 or 3 pupils did not approach the task, this aspect being mentioned in their feedback reports at the end of the session. A participant wrote down on her sheet: "I stay and I looked at the others... I don't know those words in English." In this example, the linguistic variable proves to be one of the factors that stimulated non-participation.

Projecting the interpretations of *non-participation* given by Wenger (2005: 191) onto this project, the data analysis has identified two types of non-participation which applied to our community: non-participation as a strategy (some pupils have mainly observed the activities before their involvement) and non-participation as a protection device. Faced with difficult learning and/or communicative moments, the pupils with a poor level in English refused to collaborate with their peers. The latter situation has been confirmed by the analysis of those pupils' responses to the questions regarding the frequency of speaking or writing actions.

On the other hand, one cannot disregard involvement in the task and motivational factors when discussing participation. As the CoP theory defines involvement in terms of negotiation of meaning, trajectory design and the evolution of learning experiences, the data from the observatory protocol and from the informal sessions underlined gradual involvement in the activities according to the following aspects: quality of task comprehension ("I haven't understood everything [...] that's why I have mistakes"), the system of skills of each group (what has each member known and how his/her knowledge helped the group) and group cohesion (a pupil justified: "we didn't finish because only four of us really worked...").

Activation of cognitive and emotional strengths was made possible by the participants' attachment to the task. Intrinsic motivation is undoubtedly connected to the specificity of the task in a certain context. The activities have been designed to involve all community members regardless of their English level. The main criteria for choosing these activities and appropriate tasks were related to other knowledge fields and/or school subjects (History, Geography, Sciences, etc.), similarity to real life situations and the presence of the fun element. As the pupils have answered in

the questionnaires (10 out of 13), the activities were evaluated as "easy," "useful" and "interesting," with students also adding "amusing" and/or "funny." Moreover, compared to the regular English class (in which only 3 out of 13 students said they participated a lot in all of the activities) this activity was rated with full participation by 8 out of 13 students.

By comparison to the traditional language class, the students were highly motivated by the task flexibility and task repartition that limited the communicative constraints. For instance, designing a newspaper article demanded various skills and actions besides the linguistic element. A pupil's remark "I'm happy I could draw and I didn't always have to talk or write in English. I'm not very good in English" suggests the task characteristics were not restricted to learning the language as it usually happens in the formal environment. Another aspect that appealed to the participants was the freedom they had in bringing their own material to class, acknowledging also their contribution to the result of the community. Both the data offered by the observatory protocol and the article written by the pupils confirmed their positive feeling towards this liberty of choice: "I could bring my stickers and pictures with my favourite football team;" "We were allowed to bring and use materials from Geography and History too."

As their tasks required both language and cognitive skills, the pupils were also determined to develop the management of the learning community. From my observations, it was obvious that, if at the very beginning they asked for teacher's help to explain them "how to do" and to appoint "who to do what," gradually group leaders emerged organising each stage of the activity. Several task-solving patterns have gradually evolved, from a reduced participation of members to a larger one; in other words, the community's core members developed integrative skills and assimilated the other members too.

Raising competence awareness and developing adaptive skills

Community work has influenced the way the pupils perceived their results, the process being less stressful; to a certain extent, the image of the community shadowed individual performances. The immediate effect was that the pupils with a lower level of English became more motivated, more confident in their ability to do something in the foreign language. Furthermore, class cohesion has improved (10 pupils out of 13 declared they find group work very useful while 10 out of 13 reported that they collaborate better with their classmates than they did previously).

The idea of using communicative skills in English in order to structure and assess activities based on knowledge originating from other environments (outside the language class) is strongly connected to integrative and social purposes. This project was conceived within the framework of interrelatedness, a concept defined as a sensible and dynamic phenomenon between various school subjects (a high percentage of learners – 11 out of 13 – declared they used knowledge previously learnt in Geography, History, Romanian or Sciences), and between knowledge received at school and outside school (8 out of 13 pupils responded in the questionnaire that they used both school knowledge and information learnt outside school to solve the tasks).

I would also like to put forward the value conferred to the formal-informal complementarity emphasized by the intermediary and by the repertoire of this

community of practice. As a consequence of the teacher's low degree of involvement in task solving or explanation (especially towards the end of this phase); the products of the community have been influenced in their creation by the informal elements brought by the pupils.

Filling an assessment chart with their responsibilities during the activities offered a clear image of each member's degree of participation both to his/her group and to the class community. After experiencing a three-hour period of time working and learning in their own group, some pupils commented on their feelings, saying that they liked it because they were encouraged and helped to say and write things in English. In terms of *emergences,* learners' initiative in specific and spontaneous situations, of reassessing their reactions and responding appropriately in the given context must be pointed out. For example, for a role-play activity at the airport, the pupils had to create passports and one of them forgot it, thus he "came" to the "check-in desk" with his imaginary character's passport and took on a new role.

Preliminary conclusions

In this chapter, I have argued that designing language activities in a class structured as a community of practice reinforces both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Moreover, crossing interrelated skills and learning strategies within situations close to real life experiences encourages learners to reassess their communication skills and adapt themselves better to various contexts. Learners have expressed a positive attitude for this modality of learning as their answers to the questionnaires show: 8 out of 13 pupils appreciated their English level better than before this weekly activity while 9 out of 13 pupils said they want to learn English more than they wanted before. Furthermore, developing adaptation as a competence represents a frequent learning strategy as the learners manage to process information coming from various environments in solving their tasks (Coroamă 2010: 327).

However, there are some limits. First of all, the temporal dimension is essential. Thus, a thorough analysis of this community project will be presented at the end of the research. It could consequently lead to further recommendations on language teaching and learning in non-formal communities of practice. Secondly, constant evaluations need to be done and observatory schemes have to be reinforced at the end of each stage in order to trace, register and categorize motivational and adaptive emergences.

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Ocena struktury klasy uczącej się angielskiego: do jakiego stopnia środowisko nauczania wpływa na motywację do nauki w klasie językowej?

Streszczenie

Niniejszy artykuł oparty jest na badaniach nad uczniami szkół podstawowych w wielokulturowym i wielojęzycznym regionie Rumunii. Grupa docelowa składa się uczniów w czwartym roku nauki języka angielskiego, którzy w swoim otoczeniu mają kontakt z innymi językami. Badania odnoszą się do nacisku na kształcenie sprawności językowych, który jest obecny w podejściu komunikacyjnym do nauczania języków obcych, podczas gdy relacje ucznia z otoczeniem są pomijane. Projekt ten ma pomóc w analizie, do jakiego stopnia współpraca w wielojęzycznym otoczeniu ucznia wpływa na rozwój strategii językowych bardziej wydajnych niż rozwijane w systemie nauczania nastawionym na rozwój strategii dyskursywnych. Nauczyciel języka i wychowawca stworzą środowisko ćwiczeniowe za pomocą zadań wymagających wiedzy multidyscyplinarnej, aktywacji sprawności językowych i zaangażowania ucznia. Będziemy obserwować, jak uczniowie dostosowują swoje strategie w zależności od wymagań zadania, roli sprawności językowych i systemu motywacyjnego, który pojawi się w takiej strukturze zajęć.

Małgorzata Jedynak

WHAT DO FL TEACHERS EXPECT FROM THE COURSE BOOKS? THE ANALYSIS OF TEACHERS' NEEDS

Introduction

What may be observed nowadays is a tendency for over-reliance on classroom teaching materials with non-realistic expectations made of them in English language teaching (Rea-Dickins and Germaine 1992: 29). Indeed, for many teachers foreign language materials seem to be these elements of learning/teaching situation over which they have little control. Analyzing the blurbs of various textbooks it may be noticed that the needs and interests of the learner are taken into consideration by the book authors. The fact made the author of the article realized that while learner variables have been frequently analyzed by the SLA researchers (Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991 or Ellis 1994) teacher variables have not been given a deserved amount of attention. Undoubtedly, the research findings focused primarily on learner variables influence on methodology of foreign language teaching including materials development. In comparison to the studies on learner variables, these devoted to teacher variables seem hard to find. Discussion about teachers has mainly focused on their roles in a classroom. Contrary to popular beliefs, teachers are not passive. They need to adapt flexibly to the roles determined by the objectives of the method and the learners' expectations. Teachers can be said to be the central figures in material development since they select materials and/or have an influence on the selection process. In the article the author makes an attempt to demonstrate some potential benefits of studying teacher variables. The identification of teachers' needs may help to answer the questions, which of them predict the final selection of a course book and which can be generalized as an indicator for the popularity of a particular course book.

Learners' versus teachers' needs

In the last twenty years the issue of needs analysis has appeared in the literature on foreign language teaching. Hutchinson and Waters (1987), Johnson (1989), Robinson (1980, 1990), and Richards (1990) described various needs, however they focused only on learners' communicative needs. What may be observed from the analysis of the literature is the fact that teachers' needs are not given significance at all or they are treated as a part of situation analysis.

The academic study of needs was most popular in the 1950s. Nowadays it receives less attention among psychologists, however, educationalists still delve the issue. For psychologists *need* is a psychological feature that arouses an organism to action toward a goal, giving purpose and direction to behavior. The conceptions of "need" may vary radically between different cultures or different parts of the same society. The literature identifies many various types of needs. Masuhara makes a collective list of needs one may come across in the literature devoted to needs analysis (Masuhara in Tomlinson 1998). Needs may be defined in terms of ownership (whose needs are they?), kinds (what kinds of needs are identified?), and sources (what are the sources for the need?).

Undoubtedly, learners' needs differ from teachers' needs in terms of kind and source. As far as learners' personal needs are concerned, the main sources of these needs are age, sex, cultural background, interests and educational background. Learners' learning needs, in turn may be seen as dependent on learning style, previous language learning experiences, gap between the target level and the present level in terms of knowledge (e.g. target language and its culture), gap between the target level and the present level of proficiency in various competence areas (e.g. skills, strategies), and finally learning goal and expectations for a course. It is also worth to mention learners' future professional needs having the source in requirements for the future undertakings in terms of knowledge of language, knowledge of language use and foreign language competence.

Foreign language teachers also have personal needs, the sources of which are in their age, sex, cultural background, interests, educational background and teachers' language proficiency. An equivalent of learners' learning needs are teachers' professional needs. FL teachers have their own teaching styles just like learners have their own learning styles. Undoubtedly, teachers' training experience and teaching experience have a great influence on professional needs. In any discussion about needs in educational context one should also consider administrators' needs which coexist with learners' and teachers' needs. Schools impose to a great degree a selection of a course book which is related to market forces, educational policy of a given country and various kinds of constraints such as time, budget or resources.

Masuhara (1994) made an important point, that in order to evaluate some group's needs the data must be taken directly from this group and their related documents by objective means. For example, to assess learners' needs one should avoid asking teachers for opinion. Teachers' survey opinions about learners needs are subjective and even if the data collected in this way is informative it tends to be variable and thus vulnerable in terms of reliability. We may say that such a survey measures teachers' perception of learners' needs but it does not refer to objectively perceived needs experienced by learners.

All categories of the needs described above influence the others. Thus, in any discussion on teachers' needs in material development one should take into account the fact that they are influenced by learners' and administrators' needs. When teachers are for example requested to prepare a list of their needs from a course book their responses may be influenced by teachers' perception of administrative needs, measured learners' needs, teachers' perception of learners' needs and teachers' wants. Thus, in order to design a reliable research methodology on teachers' needs

it seems vital to construct it in such a way as to eliminate the impact of other factors e.g. learners' needs and administrators' needs.

The needs that have been presented above derive from personal and professional traits of a teacher. Masuhara (in Tomlinson 1998: 242) also suggested another division of needs into self-perceived needs, needs perceived by others, and objectively measured needs. The first type of needs refers to the needs reported by the teacher. The second category of needs refer to the needs teachers are not aware of, however, they can be identified by other people such as researchers, teacher trainers or teachers' colleagues. These needs are the result of observation of teacher's teaching or analysis of his/her responses from questionnaires. The last group of needs is identified on the basis of objective studies in which quantified data is collected. Since the data undergoes analysis by a third party the final results are unbiased and accurate.

Teachers' needs and teachers' wants

Teachers' wants can be distinguished from needs "when there is preference despite the fact it may not be necessary, obligatory, encouraged, or assumed" (Masuhara in Tomlinson 1998: 244). If a teacher prefers to employ certain techniques of teaching vocabulary it would be rather called his/her want and not a need. Similarly, when a teacher implements in a classroom constructivist approach it reflects his/her want even though it is regarded as significant by administrators. The study of teachers wants is important since it may reveal that teachers' commitment and involvement due to their preference of materials and techniques/methods/ approaches are a key to effective foreign language learning. Frequently what is identified as "needs" by either teachers themselves or others (administrators, researchers, teacher trainers) may be also categorised under a heading of "wants." For example, foreign language adult learners have twice as many conversational classes which is based on the needs assessment of these learners, but it may be also because the teacher wants to enhance communicative competence of his/her learners.

Identification of both teachers' needs and wants seems crucial for foreign language material development. Firstly, knowing teachers' psychological needs the administrators, course book writers and teacher trainers are able to prepare teachers for a change related to redesigning the materials or selection of different materials. Moreover, identification of teachers' needs gives insights for new approaches in teacher development courses. Undoubtedly, it also provides course book and FL materials writers with some information about the content, coverage, and format of teachers' guidelines (teachers' books). Furthermore, they may set FL materials evaluation criteria on the basis of teachers' needs analysis. Similarly, identification of teachers' wants may contribute greatly to the format of teachers' guides, new directions in the content and approaches to FL materials. Additionally, it provides administrators, teacher trainers and researchers with information on how teachers react to various materials and implement them in a classroom. Teachers' needs and wants have appeared in the debate between the supporters and sceptics of course books. Hutchinson and Torres (1994) basing on Torres' survey results argue for the benefit of structured course books which cater for teachers' need for security

in classroom management. On the other hand, Sheldon (1988) shows that teachers need more theoretically and practically sound course books which may be modified and supplemented as required according to their classroom needs. However, both researchers seem to have one common ground in their approaches, namely that both teacher's confidence and professional expertise have an influence on how they view teachers' needs from a course book.

Adaptation of FL course books

It seems that there are two categories of FL teachers. In the first group there are teachers who treat course books as immutable objects and they tend to teach the textbook itself. The others treat it as a resource for creativity and inspiration or a learning tool for their learners (Cunningsworth 1995: 139). Researchers have addressed various problems with FL materials. According to O'Neill (1981: 153) the course book only provides some props and framework for classroom teaching. He also notices that there is no course book that would satisfy equally well learners and teachers. A similar point of view is presented by McDonough and Shaw (1993: 83) who claim that no matter how internally coherent a course book is, it will be not totally applicable. This observation is shared by Allwright (1981) and Swales (1980). The latter states that no given course book will be capable of satisfying teachers' and students' needs. Diversity of needs exists in all classrooms and there is no means to cater for this diversity. It is worth mentioning the position of Sheldon (1988: 239) who draws our attention to a very important fact namely cultural appropriateness of some course books related to the thinking underlying the textbook writing which may be different from or in conflict with the assumptions held by the teachers.

There is one common conclusion that emerges from all the views mentioned above. Teachers should see course books as their servants instead of master; as a resource or an "ideas bank" which can stimulate teachers' own creative potential (Cunnningsworth 1984: 65). This idea is reflected in Richard's work in which he argues that foreign language teachers should approach course books with the expectation that deletion, adaptation, and extension will be normally needed for the materials to work effectively with their class (Richards 1998: 135).

Description of the study

As it has been pointed out in the abstract, the study investigates what teachers actually do in FL materials adaptation, including why they make the changes and to what extend their adaptation influences their teaching. It is believed that teachers' needs are reflected in the changes they implement in FL materials. A survey consisting of five open-ended questions was distributed to six teachers of English working in secondary schools in Wrocław. Ranging in age from 32 to 34, they all had about 8 years of working experience. All respondents used the same course book, very popular in Polish secondary schools, but taught different units because of different paces of teaching. The course book was published by the English publishing house in line with communicative approach principles and it consisted of 4 volumes for over three-year use. The first volume, not used in this secondary school, was designed for beginners. The pre-intermediate, intermediate and upper-intermediate volumes

were only evaluated by the teachers. Each volume consisted of 12 units in which one can find the reading text (300–600 words) and the exercises to practice all language skills and language aspects such as grammar, lexis, and pronunciation. What is characteristic of this course book is that there is an abundance of short dialogues in pre-intermediate volume and the sections on phonetics do not occupy much space. In order to investigate how the secondary school teachers use the course book, i.e. what changes they introduced to optimize its potential and the effect of their teaching, the following questions were asked in the questionnaire:

1. What are the main advantages and disadvantages of the course books that you have used so far?
2. Have you ever made any adaptations to the units? Could you explain what adaptations have you made and how?
3. Could you tell your reasons for the adaptations you have made?
4. Are you able to evaluate the final effects of your adaptations?
5. Can you specify any factors which prevented you from adapting the unit the way you planned?

The results of the study

The data that was elicited from the respondents concerned four aspects: teachers' evaluation and adaptation of the textbook, rationales and underlying principles, effect of the teachers' adaptation and constraints they had encountered in their adaptation process. As far as the process of adaptation is concerned the secondary school teachers admitted that they carried out evaluation prior to adapting a course book. The respondents differed in their opinions about advantages and disadvantages of the course book they all use. The following advantages of their course book were identified by the questionnaire respondents:

1. It prepares learners for final secondary school exams.
2. It provides authentic materials.
3. It grades and sequences the material in a logical way.
4. It contains valuable self-study materials for the learners.
5. It is a source of various texts on the topics which appeal to the learners' interests.
6. It helps the learners improve reading and writing.
7. It contains practical guidelines for the teachers, especially in terms of background information and language points.

From the collected data one may say that the advantages of the course book are: preparing learners well for exams, its potential of expanding students' knowledge base with rich authentic reading materials, its focus on the language system and developing students' language competence, encouraging self-study. The respondents also identified the following disadvantages of the course book:

1. It provides little variety of activities.
2. Speaking and listening are not given much attention.
3. Some topics are out-of-date (e.g. the text about prince William when he was a child).
4. It does not suit the students' needs.
5. It is focused too much on language form and language use.

The main drawbacks of the course book observed by the respondents are: the limited varieties of activities, the lack of balance on the four language skills, too much importance attached to reading and writing while overlooking speaking and listening, out-of-dateness, low level of relevancy to students and focus on the language. Since the teachers felt the need to adjust the course book they applied a variety of adaptation techniques. The most popular was addition (6 respondents), others involved deletion (4 respondents) and modification (2 respondents). These techniques were utilized either at a particular stage of the lesson, or all the way through the lesson. The teachers enriched their classes by adding some warm-up activities, background information, language practice exercises, group work and reading comprehension questions. As far as deletion is concerned they omitted grammar exercises and detailed explanations of words. Modification of the course book involved changing dialogues into a role-play or adapting the text into a play for students to perform.

The author of the article also intended to discover the six teachers' underlying rationales and principles. It was found that they were guided in the course book adaptation by the following principles: 1) to cater for students' needs, 2) to integrate traditional and communicative methods, 3) to integrate as multiple language skills as possible in a reading lesson, and 4) to meet their own preferences and needs. As far as the teachers' views about the effects of materials adaptation are concerned there emerged a consensus among them that they had achieved the desired effects in a sense that they stimulated their students' interests, created a light and lively atmosphere and generated more student involvement. The analysis of the responses to the last question from the questionnaire revealed that they had encountered obstacles in their effort to adapt materials. The majority of the respondents reported that the constraints that emerged concerned: mismatches with traditional beliefs and practices, and inadequacy of teachers' expertise and physical constraints.

Conclusions

The study presented above looked at a group of six secondary school teachers and course book adaptation in their teaching practice. What is striking in the observations is the fact that in the adaptation process they do not treat their own needs and preferences as priorities. They either indeed cater for the students' needs or identify their own needs with these of the learners. Adaptation to the course book was common to all teachers, however, they did it to various degrees. Generally speaking the changes in materials were perceived by the teachers positively. The study carries important practical implications in a number of dimensions. From a research perspective, it highlights the necessity of doing further research on teachers' materials adaptation to shed light on various practical issues involved in teachers' use of materials. From the perspective of training methodology, it suggests that materials development is an effective way of helping teachers to understand and apply theories of language learning – and to achieve personal and professional development.

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Czego nauczyciele języków obcych oczekują od podręczników? – analiza potrzeb nauczycieli

Streszczenie

Wybór podręcznika do nauki języka angielskiego oraz sposób przerabiania zawartego w nim materiału jest najczęściej uzależniony od potrzeb i zainteresowań uczniów. Wielu nauczycieli nie traktuje priorytetowo swoich potrzeb identyfikując swoje potrzeby z potrzebami ucznia. W badaniach glottodydaktycznych rzadko poddaje się analizie potrzeby samych nauczycieli, których zadowolenie również wpływa na efektywność procesu dydaktycznego. Zidentyfikowanie potrzeb psychologicznych nauczycieli może ułatwić autorom podręczników oraz metodykom przygotowanie nowych materiałów lub przekształcenie starego materiału w taki sposób, aby spełnić oczekiwania zarówno uczniów jak i nauczycieli.

Niniejszy artykuł prezentuje badanie na temat oczekiwań nauczycieli języka angielskiego w szkole gimnazjalnej w związku z używanymi przez nich podręcznikami. Pytania, które zadała autorka artykułu ośmiu respondentom dotyczyły wad i zalet stosowanych przez nich podręczników, sposobów, w jaki dostosowują materiał z podręcznika do lekcji i przyczyn, dla których to robią. Analiza odpowiedzi respondentów pozwoliła na zidentyfikowanie pewnych ich potrzeb dotyczących wprowadzenia większej różnorodności ćwiczeń, zachowania równowagi pomiędzy ćwiczonymi czterema umiejętnościami językowymi a przerabianiem nowych tematów. Badani nauczyciele stosowali różne techniki adaptacji materiału z podręcznika, takie jak rozszerzanie lub opuszczanie pewnych jego treści oraz ich modyfikację.

Inta Ratniece

COLLABORATION WITH STUDENTS
– TRAINEE TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

Introduction

Latvian higher education and its study process have to meet the state needs and scientific interaction of the components: society–individual–education in accordance with educational regularities changing and developing in the 21st century.

The definition of "sustainable development" was first declared in the report of the Brundtland Commission in 1987 (Our common future, Brundtland, UN, 1987). It claimed that "sustainable development" is a development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. The issue of sustainable development has become very crucial at the United Nations Conferences on Environment and Development, the largest-ever meetings of world leaders created a plan of sustainable development for the 21st century. Spanning from 2005 to 2014, this resolution seeks to integrate the principles, values, and practices of sustainable development into all aspects of education and learning, in order to address the social, economic, cultural and environmental problems we face in the 21st century. Education for sustainable development aims to help people to develop the attitudes, skills and knowledge to make informed decisions for the benefit of themselves and others, now and in the future, and to act upon these decisions. Here we will look more closely at the learning process and teacher's role in the education for sustainable development.

Education process plays a very crucial role in successful education for sustainable development and, therefore, provides the most essential starting point for the future process of education. We need to consider many factors in comprehension process of education for sustainable development. First of all, the learning process should be **student–teacher collaboration oriented** – based on the teacher trainers and the students experience and aspirations, assisted by active equity in cooperation and collaboration. Secondly, it should be based on the processes of learning. And thirdly, it should be focused on taking action and appreciation to develop critical thinking and self-awareness of sustainability. Finally, the learning process should be also oriented towards the community to make the students assume the existing problems surrounding them in their everyday lives. It is very essential to build a learning process based on real situations known and common to students because

the successful process of education for sustainable development depends both on students and their entering positive collaboration with teachers.

The process of education cannot be successful without the teacher in it and the teacher plays a major role in the process of education for sustainable development. To perceive and comprehend the process of education for sustainable development the teacher has to pursue an open and flexible approach towards teaching. She/he should have an open mind for assessing new information and student opinions. The teacher should be the main facilitator for productive discourse in class and s/he needs to have talent to involve students and to develop their attitudes, knowledge, skills and experience to take informed decisions for the benefit of themselves and others, now and in the future, and to act upon these decisions.

In the process of education of trainee teachers for entering the world of qualified professionals, it is very essential to think more of the ways and paths they can involve the main aims of the education for sustainable development in the learning process and teachers should think more how they can successfully involve the students in the processes of extended life-long education for sustainable development.

Problem of research

Trainee teachers and academic staff widespread sustainable development (SD) and equity issues more professionally if they actively participate in international cooperation projects involving sustainable development and equity issues by collaboration of teacher trainers and teacher trainees (Ratniece 2008).

Research study

The research spotlight is to establish what knowledge, skills, experiences, personal traits and competences teachers have to possess to collaborate in the study process based on collaboration in English language teaching/learning process of the future English as foreign language teachers. The research encompasses an Erasmus sub-programme named EquiTiFoLa, promoted by 12 higher education institutions in the academic year of 2009/2010. It forwarded the following: to improve the quality and to increase the volume of student and teaching staff mobility throughout Europe, so as to contribute to the achievement by 2012 of at least 3 million individual participants in student mobility under the Erasmus programme and its predecessor programmes; to improve the quality and to increase the volume of multilateral cooperation between higher education institutions in Europe; to improve the quality and to increase the volume of cooperation between higher education institutions and enterprises; to facilitate the development of innovative practices in education and training at tertiary level, and their transfer, including from one participating country to others; to support the development of innovative ICT-based content, services, pedagogies and practice for lifelong learning in the ESD framework.

The 12 higher education institutions from the European Union and even beyond (Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Greece, Hungary, Latvia, the Netherlands, Spain, Romania, Norway, the UK and Turkey), which decided to contribute to European Priorities on Erasmus Intensive Programmes (IP), set out in the 2009 Call for Proposals by: focusing on subject areas for which shorter programmes

give a particular added value; giving evidence of full recognition and credits to the activities by the participating institutions; presenting a strong multidisciplinary approach; using ICT tools and services to support the preparation and follow-up of IP, thus, contributing to the creation of a sustainable learning community in the subject area concerned.

In addition, the consortium of teachers agreed to involve the participating students – trainee teachers into maintaining collaboration and team spirit throughout the whole Project procedure and, especially, during the activities of the Intensive Programme (Ratniece 2009).

Human pedagogy theory (Gudjons 1998; Špona 2001) claims school as an influential force in the mutual relationship of social culture, social economy and politics. Therefore, teacher training should enhance the conditions for the quality development of community: positive attitude, "students' joy to learn and teachers' wish to work in a creative manner" (Špona 2008).

Contemporary school and university, as "organized" by the state or individuals, are institutions with multiform structure for complex and systematic implementation of students' balanced development and socialisation functions in interaction: students → teachers → parents → society to reach the needed level of professional competencies. This means that the limelight of the education institution includes the internal and external contacts. Usually the state shifts focus on the internal life of school instead of external contacts which should be changed accordingly. As student's need to belong to a community of equals increases, amid the communities of equals students implement the act of learning, thus, acquiring the experience of working together, being helpful, responsive and responsible, acquiring the skills of cooperation and organizing work during lessons and beyond. The learning environment at school should be constructed as educational, influencing the person in positive manner. In a class environment, "mutual friendly relation between the students and teachers is one of the most significant factors for the development of personality" (Špona 2006) ready to encounter and adopt ESD ideas. Unfortunately, there is little or no ESD education provided to trainee teachers during studies at higher education institutions, therefore, "no skilful teachers enter the classes. As a result, school practice in the group of adolescents learning in forms 5–9 reveals current socio-pedagogical problems" (Špona 2008). These are two aspects of contemporary life that have become miserable and menacing and which cannot be tackled without educators.

Foreign language teacher training programmes in Latvia, as well as the contents of the subject English as a foreign language (EFL) are based on the classical traditions, with rather little consideration of the latest developments, especially of employing students' multiple intelligence, culture and creativity to motivate and encourage the language teaching/learning, methodology and benevolent environment creation for the students at the beginning of the 21st century (Ratniece 2010a).

Most significant to further debate and reflection on the ideas expressed by UNESCO international commission "Education for the 21st century" claiming education throughout life being based upon four pillars: **learning to know, learning to do, learning to live together and learning to be**. Since publishing the report in 1996 UNESCO force has been involved in follow-up activities to the report,

publishing background studies and holding seminars on issues related to the report for educators from all over the world. Thus, Latvian teacher trainers have joined in education for sustainable development to involve their students – the future teachers.

Education takes place throughout life in many forms, formal and non-formal, none should be exclusive. Nowadays we need to consider education in a more all-encompassing fashion. Likewise the four pillars cannot stand alone. Without all the four pillars education for sustainable development would not be the same. (UNESCO Education for the 21st century [Izglītība divdesmit pirmajam gadsimtam], www.iac. edu.lv/pk/merki.htm).

The ideas generated by the analysis of the pedagogical, psychological, theo-retical and practical sources, have led RTTEMA academic staff and students to participation in the abovementioned Erasmus project started as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) project, then empowered their academic staff and students by participating in its most recent development – EquiTiFoLa (Equity in Teaching Foreign Languages) with the purpose to sum up new information on the diverse significance of the EFL for the contemporary students. The ideas, knowledge, skills and experience gained by participation in the project's stages and the involvement in IP are being introduced into the training of the potential EFL teachers for the compulsory primary education schools (Forms 3–9) accomplished by RTTEMA. Participation in the Erasmus project stages has already promoted the inclusion of creative attitude and relevant issues into teaching of the course in academic writing. New type of essays such as team essay (written by a student team) have been introduced into the course due to experiences gained by participating in Cultifola in 2008 (Ratniece 2008) and ICT and video project-based instruction (Ratniece 2010b).

The academic year of 2009/2010 brought into studies at RTTEMA issues of equity and ESD as EquiTiFoLa addressed the issues and aimed to produce teaching materials which foster social and ecological sensitivity in students aged 10–18 in content and language integrated (CLIL) lessons.

Also during IP teachers and teacher trainees worked together in international groups, discussed updated, global pedagogical issues, and prepared lesson plans based on common criteria. They planned how to pilot their materials in schools and reflected on their experiences. A CD was produced and disseminated to CLIL schools in Europe containing the input of IP, the lesson plans, the teaching materials and the reflections on the lessons taught with video footage, designed with the intention to widespread among teacher trainees in all countries participating in the project. With every year preparatory and follow-up project activities are enhanced by a fo-rum provided by an Internet-based Learning Management System on a higher level as well (Ratniece 2010c).

Equity and other global issues were designed to be approached in a multi-disciplinary sense: the incorporation of education for sustainable development into different subjects of the school curricula contributed to the development of social and civic competences required for lifelong learning. EquiTiFoLa participants experimented with task-based CLIL lessons with elements from keyboarding skills, communications and arts.

EquiTiFoLa drew on previous project outcomes dealing with Multiple Intelligences, Culture and Creativity as well. The core of the consortium relied on 5 years of cooperation accumulating wealth of experiences in teamwork, which they shared with the participating teacher trainees. Thus, the trainee teachers developed and empowered their knowledge, skills and gained experience on sustainable development promotion for their future pedagogical mission.

Encouraging students to do their best in everything that was required of them, and that they required of themselves, should be the crucial reason why to become a teacher trainer or a teacher.

The crucial points on sustainable development and equity were introduced to the teacher trainees by collaboration of the teachers from the respective 11 higher education institutions. The questionnaire made up of 20 questions referring to the process of IP was administered to 47 participants and some of the valid answers analysed, which address the reactions of the students to the sustainable development issues explored and implemented into the videos produced by the students, sample designs and lesson plans used in the lessons conducted by the trainee teachers in schools during the intensive programme. Some interview results disclosing the reactions of the participating students were also included. The questionnaire included such questions as: What equity issues did you notice while observing lessons in schools? What sustainable development issues did you notice while observing lessons in schools? What equity issues do you plan to involve into the lessons you will be conducting in the host country's schools? What sustainable development issues do you plan to involve into the lessons you will be conducting in the host country's schools? How will you support and encourage your international team members during the lesson? What was surprising and innovative in the observed lessons for you in comparison with the lessons you have observed in your home country schools?

Results of research

The participants considered the knowledge gained, reflected on the most important issues of equity and sustainable development. In national and international teams they produced posters and videos on ESD. Preparatory and follow-up project activities were enhanced by the forum provided by an Internet-based Learning Management System (see Chart 1).

Equity and ESD issues were approached in a multidisciplinary sense: the incorporation of education for sustainable development into different subjects of the school curricula contributed to the development of social and civic competences required for lifelong learning based on sustainable development. Before visiting the IP schools the participants formed their free-choice 4 member international trainee teacher teams for observing and conducting the lessons in the IP offered schools. Thus, at first the trainee teachers in international groups guided by one of the IP teachers went to the chosen schools and observed classes and students. They observed science, history, geography, mathematics, domestic science, PE, EFL classes. Directly after the observed lessons the IP participants answered the questionnaire.

Chart 1. Teacher trainer and student collaboration model (Developed in collaboration with Špona A., 2008; upgraded in 2010)
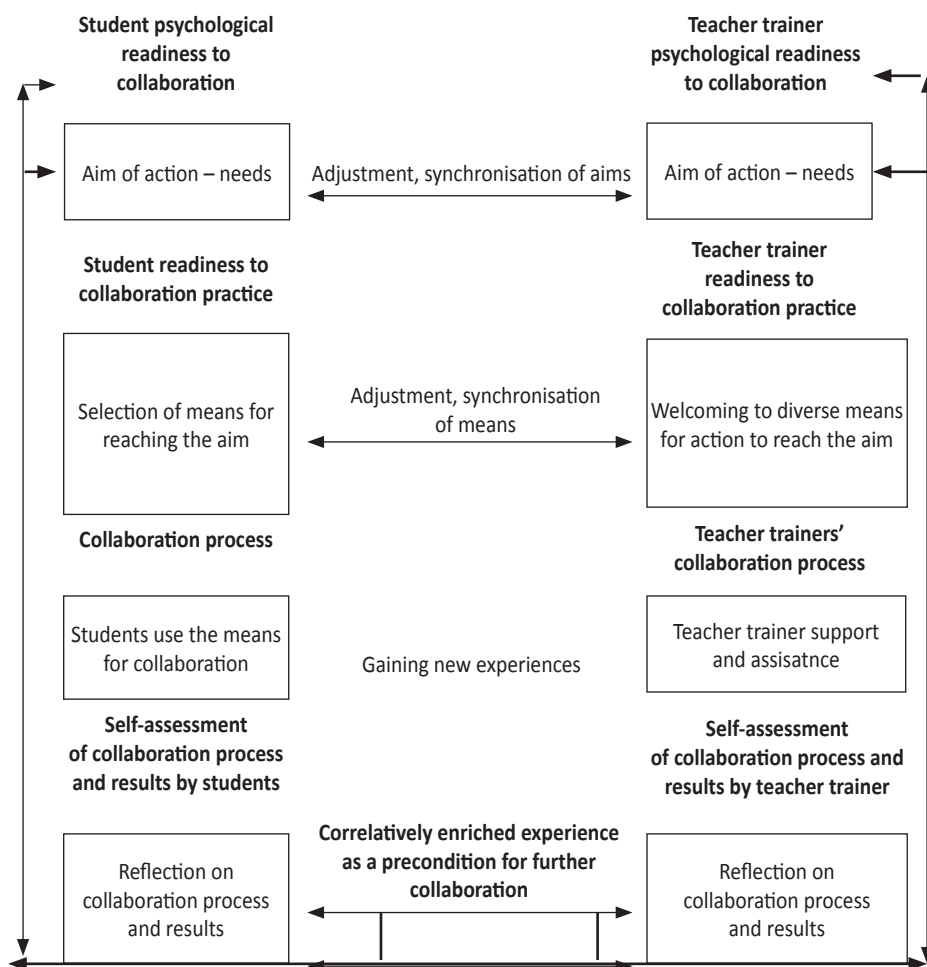
The answers included the following observations: students were highly motivated; talkative, willing to contribute; the teacher's friendly manner, positive and supportive atmosphere; Hi-Tech equipment; a smart board in every class room; mutual respect; relaxed students; allowed to come without footwear to class; multicultural class; freedom of movement within classroom; cooking class for both boys and girls; high level of English; two lessons (45 min. x 2) dedicated to the same topic; students were willing to complete their work; students not disruptive; open, common space within buildings, playgrounds; spacious buildings and grounds, ample classrooms.

As new and unexpected experiences were considered the following: no school uniforms; staff informally dressed; cheeky pupils; seating arrangements; mixed abilities in the classes; too much freedom; work, not play; attention paid

only to talkative pupils; pupils can take some time off from class, not participate in all activities; open, large library; pupils could go on their own to borrow books; observation turned into participation; warm and helpful teachers; teachers ask for pupils' opinions; an assistant for physically impaired pupils; teaching close to real life, problem based; mutual respect; up-to-date equipment in classrooms, special rooms and play grounds; little ethnic diversity in the private school visited.

Each participant compared the observed data to his/her own education system, social behaviour and environment in schools and beyond. Therefore, the received answers were really diverse. At the same time they helped the trainee teachers to learn more not only about the IP host country, but also about their respective countries, when the answers were displayed on the board.

In one of the schools the trainee teachers organized a games' session. The participants of the IP according to the division in international teams (trainee teachers from three or four IP countries formed one team) involved a group of students into their national games and rhythmic songs used for some traditional play-games. The communication turned out very friendly, enthusiastic and exciting for the both parties involved. The trainee teachers shared an opinion that the host teachers were very welcoming and supportive during the games' session. Supposedly the conducting of the lessons for the trainee teachers was in a friendlier environment in this school due to their mutual participation in the games' session.

The IP participants conducted the lessons in international teams of 4 trainee teachers from four different countries. EquiTiFoLa participants experimented with task-based CLIL lessons, with elements from keyboarding skills, communication and arts. They admitted as very useful inclusion of the tasks learnt during the IP workshops and lectures. The trainee teachers also admitted involving into their lessons the observed and shared novelties and innovative approaches. They concluded that the IP introductory lectures, workshops, assistance from the IP teachers for the lesson planning and hints for conducting were of major importance. The teachers and the trainee teachers observing the lessons conducted by the IP participants appreciated mutual support displayed by the trainee teachers conducting the respective lesson in an international team of 4 participants from 4 different countries. The self-assessment was done by each team on the lesson conducted and each member reflected on and self-assessed IP in total as well.

EquiTiFoLa drew also on previous project outcomes dealing with Multiple Intelligences, Culture and Creativity (Ratniece 2010).

By reflecting on the experiences and results, the below mentioned model of criteria, indices and levels was developed for measurement of trainee teacher competences in collaboration with RTTEMA professor A. Špona, habilitated PhD in Pedagogy sciences (see Chart 2).

The model of criteria, indices and levels for measurement of trainee teacher competences highlighting collaboration is displayed to scholars for discussing and suggesting variants for further development and improvement.

Chart 2. Model of criteria, indices and levels for measurement of trainee teacher competences highlighting collaboration

Criteria	Indices	Level A	Level B	Level C
Knowledge	1) Knowledge of English: reads, writes, speaks, listens	Perfect knowledge of English	Fluent knowledge of English	Poor knowledge of English
	2) Knows how to teach English	Knows interactive activity organisation	Moderately knows interactive activity organisation	Poor knowledge in interactive activity organisation
	3) Knows collaboration methods	Perfectly knows cooperative learning methods in accordance with pupils' needs	Moderately knows cooperative learning methods in accordance with pupils' needs	Poor knowledge of cooperative learning methods in accordance with pupils' needs
	4) Knows ESD conditions for society, economy and environment	Perfectly knows conditions for ESD	Moderately knows conditions for ESD	Poor knowledge of conditions for ESD
Comprehension/ understanding	1) Can understand causes and reasons of phenomena	Always can understand causes and reasons of phenomena	Often can understand causes and reasons of phenomena	Seldom can understand causes and reasons of phenomena
	2) Responses to self-discovered causes and reasons of phenomena	Always positive response to self-discovered causes and reasons of phenomena	Often positive response to self-discovered causes and reasons of phenomena	Indifferent to (self-) discovered causes and reasons of phenomena
	3) Skills to use self-discovered causes and reasons' phenomena	Instant, self-dependent use of skills in cases of self-discovered causes and reasons' phenomena	Rather slow, self-dependent use of skills in cases of self-discovered causes and reasons' phenomena	Rather slow, with support can use (self-) discovered causes and reasons' phenomena
Skills as ability to use knowledge	1. Reading	Can and is able to read perfectly any texts	Can and is able to read perfectly (textbook) texts	Can and is able to read poorly text-book texts
	2. Speaking	Can and is able to speak perfectly monologues and dialogues	Can and is able to speak moderately monologues and dialogues	Can and is able to speak poorly monologues and dialogues
	3. Writing	Can and is good at creating texts by writing	Can and is moderate at creating texts by writing	Can yet is poor at creating texts by writing
	4. Organising of interactive learning methods	Can and often is good at organizing interactive learning methods	Can and sometimes is good at organizing interactive learning methods	Seldom can organize interactive learning methods
	5. Collaboration methods appropriate for pupils' needs	Good at choosing collaboration methods appropriate for pupils' needs	Moderate at choosing collaboration methods appropriate for pupils' needs	Seldom chooses collaboration methods appropriate for pupils' needs

Shared relation-ships – living together	1. Organisation	Knows how and sys-tematically organizes cooperative learning in pairs and groups	Partly organizes cooperative learning in pairs and groups	Seldom organizes cooperative learning in pairs and groups
	2. Respect	During teaching/ learning process the teacher always respects pupils (their ignorance) and their parents	During teaching/ learning process the teacher often respects pupils (their ignorance) and their parents	During teaching/ learning process the teacher seldom respects pupils (their ignorance) and their parents
	3. Taking responsibility in collaboration	During teaching/ learning process the teacher and the pupil share respon-sibility for it equally (50%<=>50%)	During teaching/ learning process the teacher and the pupil share responsibility for it unequally (the teacher > than 50%)	During teaching/ learning process the teacher is always responsible for the pupils' learning process (100%)
Attitude	1. Attitude to the profession	I have prepared well for teacher's conti-nuous professional performance (3 points)	I have prepared for teacher's professio-nal performance (2 points)	I have not prepared for teacher's profes-sional performance (1 point)
	2. Attitude to the child	The child is a very great, genuine teacher's treasure	The child is a great, genuine teacher's treasure	The child is a teacher's treasure
	3. Interest in teacher's work	I am very greatly interested in the teacher professional performance	I am interested in the teacher professional performance	I am not much interested in the teacher professional performance
	4. Attitude to collabo-ration and coope-ration	I very highly appre-ciate collaboration and cooperation with pupils, colleagues and parents	I highly appreciate collaboration and cooperation with pupils, colleagues and parents	I appreciate not very much collaboration and cooperation with pupils, colleagues and parents

Conclusions

In order to drive positive change, contemporary teachers need the skills and competences to act appropriately – sustainability competences are increasingly seen as part of the normal, required cooperation and collaboration skill set within communities.

Valid knowledge on sustainable development and equity gained in collabora-tion of the teacher trainees and the academic staff emphasizes their significance for the next generation. The cooperation and collaboration should be developed still further to reach an appropriately high level for ESD.

Through face-to-face workshops, an on-line learning community and the support of contact tutor, the global issues are explored; trainee teachers' thinking developed and both personal and strategic action plans are created which ensure a holistic approach to ESD.

Lesson planning and conducting experience were developed due to the theo-retical input, the observation of practice and the lesson conducting in international teams by collaboration.

Teacher Education for ESD in Higher Education of Latvia has to be emphasized. Contemporary society and its education paradigm undergo fast changes. Equity implementation in benevolent, creative student and academic staff collaboration in a study process, involving participation in Erasmus projects, fosters English as a foreign language acquisition by use of ICT materials and involvement of non--traditional real life video and audio materials as well as contributions by students themselves, serves as a precondition of a creative professional's lifelong SD in the EU as well as in entire world democracy's efficient advancement context.

Educators should promote themselves creatively alongside their main collaboration partners – pedagogy students, to attain their common goal – progress due to ESD. Latvian educators should pursue the goal by joint efforts with colleagues outside of Latvia. Shared experiences bring genuine reward.

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Streszczenie

Szkolnictwo wyższe na Łotwie jest w trakcie zmiany związanej z trzema zmieniającymi się komponentami: społeczeństwem, indywidualizacją, edukacją.

Celem niniejszych badań jest ustalenie, jaką wiedzę, umiejętności, doświadczenia, cechy indywidualne i kompetencje powinni posiadać nauczyciele mający z powodzeniem przeprowadzić ten proces zmian.

Artykuł przedstawia model kompetencji, które powinni posiadać kształcący się nauczyciele języków obcych: 1) ogólne kompetencje zawodowe (wiedza, sprawności, doświadczenie, myślenie krytyczne, decyzyjność itd.); 2) kompetencje społeczne (kooperacja, zapobieganie i rozwiązywanie konfliktów, tolerancja itd.); 3) zdolności osobiste (kreatywność, inicjatywa, dążenie do celu itd.).

Anna Konieczna

MIRRORING THE WORK OF MIND:
VERBAL REPORT AS REFLECTING THE USE OF STRATEGIES

Introduction

The text presented here may be considered a continuation of the discussion that so far has evolved under several titles of mine (Konieczna 2009a, 2009b, 2011). The discussion concerns what can be denoted as theoretical foundations underlying the use of the think aloud (TA) variety of verbal protocol in the research on reading. The paper explores the metaphor of a mirror to discuss the validity of strategies reported through verbal reports. It should be admitted that the mirror metaphor is a very attractive one, as it suggests providing a comfortable way of doing observation on mental work. Sainsbury (2003: 134) used a similar metaphor of "a window into thoughts," also emphasizing the supposedly easy access that the think aloud verbal report offers to mental phenomena. Elsewhere the author explains that the procedure is likely to "capture some of the ephemeral processes of understanding" (Sainsbury 2003: 131). The paper presented here, though, tries to indicate that the "mirror of TA," depending on how it is used, may in fact reflect different phenomena. Many times it may be a distorting mirror, or at least one with scratchy surface, reflecting outlined images but making the details indiscernible, vague, and uncertain. All the comments included in this paper base on what researchers using the TA procedure report and on the author's own experience with the use of that method.

Retrospective and concurrent verbalizations

The optimism and approval surrounding the TA procedure, reflected also in the above mentioned metaphors, appears to result mainly from the disappointment with retrospective methods of cognitive research. Retrospective collection of data involves the retrieval of information from memory. It is realized after the primary task has been completed and requires the respondents to report what they remember doing or thinking. Yet, due to the consequences of time delay between task performance and reporting, retrospection is believed to be exposed to different sources of non-validity. For example, when reporting processes, respondents may not stick to one particular instance of performance, but may instead refer to their general knowledge of the tasks and how they deal with them generally. Respondents who are aware of what they normally do in similar tasks may be likely to report this,

without taking recourse to any particular situation (Ericsson and Simon 1993: 23). Retrospection is also very likely to misrepresent the sequence of steps taken while doing a task, as the information heeded by the respondent in particular moments of time can be easily confused with information attended to subsequently (Ericsson and Simon 1993: 19). One other point is that the retrieval of information attended to in the past "is an onerous task" (Ericsson and Simon 1993: 20), thus many respondents will find it easier to generate the information instead, which means that they will not really report on what happened, but will elaborate on the processes supposedly used only at the time of providing the protocol. "It is reasonable to assume that the subject either infers general motives or processes from retrieved selected episodic memories, or tries to rationalize his behavior using other sources of information than the memory of the processes" (Ericsson and Simon 1993: 46). Ericsson and Simon point to the fact that this ad hoc inference is very likely to take place while responding to the 'why' kind of questions. As the authors explain, answers to 'why' questions are often generated a posteriori, only at the time of asking, and are not based on the memory trace but inferred. Moreover, when retrospecting, subjects may draw from their knowledge and beliefs on what should be done in certain tasks (Ericsson and Simon 1993: 23; Garner, Wagoner and Smith 1983: 440). Research on retrospection has shown that subjects often "report using behaviours they do not demonstrate using" (Garner, Wagoner and Smith 1983: 440), fabricate strategies at the time of speaking and "fail to report obstacles or resolutions to obstacles apparently deemed too obvious to mention" (Garner, Wagoner and Smith 1983: 440). The limitations of retrospection have been mentioned by various researchers as rationalizing the use of the supposedly more veridical method of cognitive research which is the introspective think aloud protocol. Think aloud was believed to offer a way out of the memory problems described.

Think aloud is a kind of verbal report realized concurrently with the main task performed (called *primary task*). The procedure asks respondents to vocalize thoughts while performing the task. The assumption underlying the use of TA is that the sequence of the information heeded while performing a task is accessible and can be represented through reporting continually the content of short term memory. The TA procedure requires the researcher to draw inferences concerning the strategies taking place – the respondent is not encouraged to theorize on what he or she is doing, as this is considered to disturb performance.

The most thorough work on verbal reporting that has been referred to most often is the one by Simon and Ericsson (1984, 1993). Mere reference to these authors is often considered as validating the methodology used and as pointing to theoretical foundations underlying the methodology. The point I would like to make in this section, though, is that the reference made in some research reports is quite superficial, in the sense that it relies on mentioning the names of the authors but is not followed by strict adherence to the criteria the authors establish. This introduces much confusion to the research done with the use of TA, as the procedures which various authors use tend to differ considerably, in spite of the superficial similarity of the terminology used. This paper will not discuss the theory of Ericsson and Simon but will point to the methodological discrepancies in the way the theory is put into practice, and, taking the stance of Ericsson and Simon's perspective, will point to the dangers of non-validity introduced by the differences in TA usage.

Ericsson and Simon distinguish three levels of verbalizations in verbal reports, stating, at the same time, that only level 1, consisting of the "vocalization of covert articulatory or oral encodings" and level 2, involving additional recoding of non-verbal information into verbal code, can produce a protocol which is valid and which does not alter the structure of the cognitive processes taking place while doing a particular task. Verbalizations denoted as belonging to the third level, and involving not only articulation but also explanation of thoughts, ideas and motifs, filtering/ selecting information to be reported, or reporting on subconscious or automatized information will change the structure of the thought processes and thus invalidate the protocol (Ericsson and Simon 1993: 18–19, 79–80). Think Aloud is supposed to exemplify level 2 verbalization, displaying just the thoughts as they appear and thus not altering the structure of thought processes in which the subject is involved. TA protocols "reflect states of heeded information and do not describe the details of the information nor why that particular information was heeded" (Ericsson and Simon 1993: xxxv), thus "only in the context of a task analysis can one make sound inferences about the sequence of underlying cognitive processes." (Ericsson and Simon 1993: xxxv). Even though the TA verbalization is very often fragmentary, full of false starts and stops in the middle of the sentence, apparently lacking organization, researchers need to 'resist' the urge to elicit coherent and logically complete verbalizations. Descriptions and explanations in the protocols would add coherence to the verbalization, however, they would deviate the processes used for task performance (Ericsson and Simon 1993: xv). It is not the respondent's, but the researcher's work to infer cognitive processes from utterances which often apparently lack coherence and are fragmentary, and which do not answer the 'why' question. At the same time, it is very important for the appropriate use of the TA procedure that respondents are warned not to explain, describe, analyse or interpret their own thought processes (Ericsson and Simon 1993: xiii). All the interpretation, theorizing and inference belongs to the researcher.

What draws attention is the fact that some research done with what comes to be called *TA* does not fulfill the requirements of Ericsson and Simon's level 2 verbalization, and thus, at least according to the original theory, is likely to be reactive (changing the main process). Various researchers, as if ignoring Ericsson and Simon's statements and at the same time contradicting the essence of think aloud, ask respondents for reasons, descriptions and explanations. Jimenez (1997: 233) writes that "the think aloud procedure consists of [...] asking the participant to describe and explain [...] what he or she is thinking about." Scott (2008: 302–303, 316) in her TA coding scheme includes the category of *verbalizing actions taken to process the text*, giving as an example the following verbalization: "I was going to skip and then try to find it again try to figure it out... [sic]." This verbalization is clearly a description of actions, which should be avoided within the TA methodology. With reference to the possible kinds of verbalizations elicited, Ericsson and Simon also recommend the use of the "keep talking" prompt for situations in which the respondent lapses into silence. Prompts of the "what are you thinking about?" kind should be avoided as answering them "requires a description of the thoughts during the silence in a way that may disrupt the thought sequence" (Ericsson and Simon 1993: xxviii). In spite of that, researchers often admit to be using the "what are you

thinking about?" or similar prompt (Scott 2008: 300; Braten and Stromso 2003: 203), or the one that seems even more likely to elicit description instead of report: "What do/did you think about this/that?" (Jimenez, Garcia and Pearson 1996: 97; Scott 2008: 300). What is more, sometimes researchers decide to use probes – questions of a specific kind concerning particular information (see for example Jimenez, Garcia and Pearson 1996: 97). Probes, though, foster the selection of information and attending to information which otherwise might not have been attended to all. Thus they clearly elicit what was called level 3 verbalization and what was described as possibly modifying the sequence of thoughts. Respondents may infer or generate the information according to the probe, especially if they notice that is what the experimenter is interested in or what he wants to hear. They may act in compliance with these perceived expectations, and thus bias the data provided.

The here presented examples of unexplained divergence from what can be considered original and theoretically grounded form of the TA procedure is the first "scratch on the mirror." This divergence may be believed, at least within the framework of Simon and Ericsson's theory, to distort the image the metaphorical TA "mirror" reflects.

Overtness and covertness of processes

The distinction made by O'Malley and Chamot between overt and covert strategies can be taken as a starting point in the discussion on what TA is and is not likely to reflect. O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 87–88) define overt strategies (like using a dictionary or note taking) as those which can be easily observed, and covert strategies as requiring "introspective forms of data collection in which the informant provides a description of the strategy used." At the same time the authors admit that "strategies that occur overtly cannot qualify as mental processes" (O'Malley and Chamot 1990: 88).

The analogy I would like to draw between the distinction introduced by O'Malley and Chamot and verbal report data is that in the think aloud procedure some of the strategies are much easier noticeable than others (even though they are not completely 'overt' in O'Malley and Chamot's sense). Still, they are easy to notice as in fact they do not require inference on the researcher's part. They simply appear and can be observed while the respondent verbalizes. Questionable, though, is the extent to which the strategies can be considered as offering insight into people's mental processes and whether at all they should be defined as mental. In order to discuss the tension between what the TA methodology claims to be doing (offering insight into mental phenomena) and what it appears to be doing, at least within some of its applications, I will quote Green's data collected on a reading comprehension task. Green codes her TA data as follows. For student 1: read/re-read/read/re--read/read/focus/retrieve/read/read question 1/re-read question 1/re-read/re--read question 1/scan/read question 2/re-read question 1/respond. For student 2: read/focus/re-read/read/focus/re-read/read question 1/focus/keywords search/respond (Green 2009: 71–72). As can be noticed, the author coded most frequently and mainly instances of reading and re-reading. Noticing the respondent read while he or she is asked to verbalize is an observation quite easy to make. It does not

require inference on the researcher's part and does not reveal much about the way the text is comprehended. The final of the strategies coded as *responding* could be in fact considered entirely overt, thus not mental. The conclusions Green makes basing on the coding are the following:

> We begin by considering Student 1. From the coded segments, this student appears to go through a cycle of reading followed by re-reading sections of the passage. At segment 6 the student 'focuses', perhaps on a particular word or phrase, and then retrieves the meaning of that particular word or phrase. This could suggest an initial failure to understand and then retrieval of the appropriate meaning. The student then reads the question, re-reads the questions and then re-reads some text. Further cycles of re--reading the question and the text then ensue before the question is answered. Student 2 approaches the task differently. Student 2 reads a section of text, focuses on a phrase or word and then continues to read. The cycle is repeated until the passage is read. Responding to the first question of the text, the student reads the question, focuses on a particular word or phrase and then searches the text for that word or phrase. The question is then answered. (Green 2009: 72)

The first comment that can be made with reference to the data collected by Green is that certain processes appear quite 'overt' within TA, and that they do not really denote mental processes, but rather physical actions – concrete, easily observable behaviours. The easiest thing to observe is the sequence of actions taken (see also the study of Cohen and Upton 2007: 221; Konieczna 2009a: 156–158) and the particular actions/behaviours (like reading, re-reading) themselves. Here cognitive processes still stay hidden or are only minimally inferred. What is mainly coded is just the approach taken (approach externally observable) to complete the task. The TA procedure realized in this way is by no way 'a mirror' of cognitive processes; it can only be considered a mirror of some externally observable actions. Moreover, we may argue, as I have done elsewhere (Konieczna 2011), that some of the strategies most frequently coded in the TA on reading, for example *reading*, *re-reading*, *paraphrasing, translating* or *summarizing*, may be partly induced by the characteristics of the TA procedure as such (which asks respondents to report on the text read). Thus conclusions concerning their use for the sake of text comprehension may be biased. The overwhelmingly frequent coding of potentially TA-induced phenomena is pertinent not only to Green's study, but reappears in various reports (see for example Cohen and Upton 2007) including my own ones (Konieczna 2009a). Researchers (see Cohen and Upton 2007: 222) sometimes admit having developed an elaborate framework of coding rubrics before the actual coding took place, and having to reduce the scheme to just several chosen categories at the time of coding, which clearly suggests a kind of 'unexpected narrowness' of the quality of the data obtained. Researchers as if expect more than they really appear to get in the end. Normally the categories developed a priori need to be recombined, with some categories melded, and some skipped due to the scarcity of their appearances in the protocols. The difficulty here described, which is a first hand experience of mine, points to the fact that what the "mirror" of TA on reading reflects, may constitute a quite narrow range of the phenomena expected.

Misperformance within TA

The next dilemma that relates to the phenomena likely to be reflected with the use of TA concerns respondents' misperformance. More specifically, the problem concerns the classifications of mistaken trials to do something. I must admit I was faced with the dilemma of how to classify mistaken performance of respondents, and I finally decided to treat particular behaviours as 'trials' to do something, ignoring the extent to which the trial was successful. On the other hand, Green (2008: 82) chooses to use separate codes for *mis-reading text* and *mis-interpreting text*. Mistaken performance is also coded in the studies of Scott (2008: 303) and in the report of Kendeou, Muis and Fulton (2011: 6). The trouble that appears here, though, consists of the fact that what is being done is simultaneous coding and assessment, while not providing any kind of explicit assessment criteria. My own research shows that the seriousness of mistaken performance will most often be quite different. Sometimes, like for example in case of *interpretation*, or even more often in case of the strategy denoted in my research as *identifying the main idea,* I experienced serious problems concerned with deciding to what extent the idea given by the student could be considered correct or incorrect. Very often the thing was almost true, and had just some shades of incorrect interpretation. Even more often the trouble was that the main idea had been formulated in a way which I considered not quite complete or too general, and thus not fully true about the fragment considered. My opinion is that assessing performance without explicitly formulated rating scales may bias the results. In my research, as was noticed earlier, I decided to abandon the distinction into what was correct and what was incorrect. After all, a strategy may be used successfully or not, but it still keeps being the same strategy. Assessing the result of its use is quite a different thing and requires additional criteria. Most authors working with TA do not quote mistaken productions, nor even comment on the issue, basing on which we can assume that they code all instances of strategies use, not taking into account whether these are successful or not. Still, there are also cases in which authors try to deal with the issue of correctness within the TA methodology. Lau (2006), investigating good and poor readers of Chinese, introduces into the coding system differentiated weighting of strategies, depending on how successful they are (Lau 2006: 388). Using this rating Lau calculated respondents' strategy use score. Yet, such a rating relates not merely to strategy use, but rather to the successfulness of strategy use, which might be a slightly different issue.

As the issue of mistaken performance has so far remained, to a large extent, unresolved, its differentiated treatment within various research studies may influence the data coded. This, metaphorically, may add to the scratchy surface of the TA "mirror."

Conclusion

The observations made in the paper point to the fact that the "access to mind" that the think aloud verbal report offers is much more problematical than it seems. The Think Aloud "mirror," which is supposed to reflect the work of mind, may misrepresent certain facts. This misrepresentation is even more likely to take place

if researchers are not very specific about the procedure they use or unreflectively modify the procedure.

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Lustrzane odbicie pracy umysłu – raport werbalny jako odzwierciedlenie stosowanych strategii

Streszczenie

Artykuł dotyczy metodologii prowadzenia badań nad procesami poznawczymi z wykorzystaniem raportu werbalnego, ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem zyskującego na popularności protokołu głośnego myślenia. Przywołana w tytule artykułu metafora lustrzanego odbicia pracy umysłu doskonale obrazuje optymizm panujący wśród badaczy wykorzystujących protokół

głośnego myślenia. Artykuł tu przedstawiony wskazuje jednak na fakt, że optymizm ten nie jest w pełni uzasadniony. Autorka ukazuje liczne ograniczenia opisywanej metody badawczej. Odnosi się do prac badawczych autorów wykorzystujących protokół głośnego myślenia i ukazuje niespójności metodologiczne w obrębie tych badań. Ograniczenia metody i problemy z wykorzystaniem protokołu głośnego myślenia, na które wskazuje artykuł, to m.in.: występujące pomiędzy poszczególnymi badaniami niezgodności w sposobie zastosowania metody, ignorowanie podstaw teoretycznych metody opisanych przez Ericssona i Simona (1993), wnioskowanie w dużej mierze o strategiach jawnych, które można z łatwością obserwować, niewielka ilość inferencji dotyczących niejawnych procesów umysłowych. Artykuł opisuje ponadto cechy charakterystyczne raportów werbalnych realizowanych w sposób retro- i introspekcyjny oraz rodzaje raportów według klasyfikacji Ericssona i Simona (1993).

Hilde Tørnby

READING LITERATURE AS A POINT OF DEPARTURE FOR PHILOSOPHICAL DISCUSSIONS IN THE EFL/EAL CLASSROOM IN NORWAY – A LOCAL CASE STUDY

Introduction

The background for this paper is first and foremost a questionnaire completed during the spring of 2010 by 66 practicing EFL/EAL teachers in Norwegian primary schools. My heartfelt interest is to uncover what happens in the EFL/EAL classroom concerning reading a literary text. Is reading literature considered a starting point for ethical and philosophical discussions, or is the focus primarily on the content? The questionnaires indicate that using comprehension questions in relation to text is the method that primarily dominates in Norwegian EFL/EAL classrooms, whereas methods that might open up for more philosophical approaches like role-play have a much lower score. Additionally other aesthetic approaches like making a drawing from the literary text seem to be neglected. The idea that literature can function as an open door into more complex ideas is my genuine belief, however; these ideas might not necessarily emerge from comprehension questions, which tend to focus on content rather than the philosophy of the text.

Another motivation for exploring how literature can open doors into more complex ideas, is my personal experience of 14 years of teaching literature in EFL/ EAL classes in high school where this, to me, is the core essence of reading literature. When readers discover that literature is about the main philosophical, existential ideas and questions of life, such an experience will be a defining moment when it comes to reading literature. From my own teaching experience comprehension questions did not necessarily do the trick of disclosing the philosophical and existential ideas. The moment pupils experienced that "literature has not only made identity a theme; it has played a significant role in the construction of the identity of readers. The value of literature has long been linked to the vicarious experiences it gives readers, enabling them to know how it feels to be in particular situations and thus acquire dispositions to act and feel in certain ways" (Culler 1997: 115), the doors opened.

Observations in high schools A and B

With this frame of thought I set out to observe two classrooms in two different high schools in February 2011. The two schools were situated in the Oslo area, one

of which was located on the outskirts of Oslo (referred to as "school A") whereas the other was located in the very centre of Oslo (referred to as "school B"). The two teachers, the pupils and the parents had been informed about the intentions for this pilot on beforehand. The teachers were to select a chapter or chapters from the novel *The Absolutely True Diary of a Part-Time Indian* by Sherman Alexie as well as to develop their own activities in relation to this/these excerpts rather than have them prescribed by me. The reason for this was to try to observe an authentic literature workshop(s), which had not been influenced by my ideas. In School A I observed a 10th grade class as they worked with the first four chapters of the novel with the time-span of six English lessons. Additionally the pupils had to write a diary entry for one of the characters in these four chapters as their homework. In school B I observed an 11th grade class as they worked with the chapter "How to fight monsters" (chapter 8) during two English lessons conducted as a unit with a break. There was no homework given in relation to the work with this chapter for this group of pupils.

School A

During my first visit to school A I observed the class for 90 minutes. The pupils had already read chapter one the preceding week and the teacher started the session by asking a few comprehension questions from this chapter. Thereafter the class continued to read the novel. Since the school did not have a copy for each pupil to read individually, the teacher had scanned the chapters so that they read from a screen. Pupils were asked to read, but were not obliged to. The teacher read major parts since it was difficult for students to read from a screen. Moreover, she read with enthusiasm and different voices, which was appreciated by the pupils thus visualizing the text for them. Furthermore, in the beginning of the reading session the teacher took time to stop and ask questions to make sure pupils understood the content of these chapters. The novel included illustrations with vital information and great care was taken to let pupils analyze those during the reading session. As the reading progressed, the teacher read longer stretches not stopping as frequently as in the beginning of the session.

The next week the 90 minutes of English started with a short review of content from last weeks' reading session. Then the class finished reading chapter four in much the same manner as described above. Subsequently the teacher asked the pupils to work in groups to "find adjectives" that described the characters: Junior, Rowdy, the parents, Mr. P. and the sister. All adjectives were shared in class and the teacher wrote these adjectives on the blackboard. Hereafter the teacher asked students to discuss the following questions in groups: 1) "And hey, in a weird way, being hungry makes food taste better" (p. 8) What does this statement say about Junior?; 2) According to Junior what is the worst thing about being poor?; 3) What does the title of chapter three "Revenge is my middle name" refer to? After these questions were discussed the pupils were to choose one character, one setting or one situation that they were to either role-play or present to the other pupils in class. They were given approximately 20 minutes for preparation before all groups presented their work in class.

My third and last visit to this 10th grade was when they did their final work on the novel in English. This session was focused on preparation work for the diaries the pupils were to write. The teacher reminded the pupils of the genre-criteria in relation to writing diaries. Additionally she had quite a few questions to help the pupils get started on their written work. The questions were not comprehension questions, but rather open questions where answers were not necessarily found in the novel itself enhancing an aesthetic response to the literary text, which again may presuppose aesthetic reading. Pupils worked in groups divided according to which character they planned to write a diary for. The teacher made it clear that this session was "just for inspiration" and stressed that they were not required to include everything from this workshop in their diaries.

School A – analyzing classroom discourse on 2nd visit

When the teacher asked the first question: "And hey, in a weird way, being hungry makes food taste better" (p. 8) What does this statement say about Junior? One pupil responded "even if they are poor they are happy when they have food." Another student pointed out that Junior appreciates food more when he gets food seldom. The second question the teacher posed: "What is the worst thing about being poor?" was given the answer: "being hungry." Upon reading the novel Junior explains, that the worst thing about being poor, is not being hungry but being unable to take your sick dog to the vet. Later in this sequence one group of pupils chose to role-play the scene when Junior realizes his dog is very sick and the father has to shoot the dog since they have no money for the vet. One could assume that the question about being poor provided by the teacher spurred the pupils' understanding of this life condition and the pain of this situation. In their role-play a lot of emotions and empathy was played out. The dog was given the ability to speak and he begged for his life arguing that he was a living creature. Is being poor a philosophical or existential question? This might not be the case. But what was interesting here, was of course the pupils' interpretation of the scene underscoring the pain of a life--situation like this by giving the dog the voice, so that he can speak and try to save himself. In essence this scene was about life and death – and about being unable to save a pets' life due to poverty. By personifying the dog and by giving him the ability to speak, there might be an indication of the pupils' realization of the dog as the "Other" according to Levinas' philosophy. One might suggest that in this role-play the dog took on the face of the "Other" and pupils related to the pain and suffering the dog was experiencing. Furthermore, it can be argued that by realizing Junior's pain when having to part with his closest friend, the suffering of the "Other" was embedded in the play and the pupils made the pain their own.

Was it the role-play in itself that brought about a deeper understanding of the literary text? By being given the opportunity to use an aesthetic approach, a new text emerged. A possible understanding of this role-play might be that the role-play was an extension of the novel corresponding to what Wolfgang Iser refers to as a "virtual text" being created taking on a life on its own:

> From this we may conclude that the literary work has two poles, which we might call the artistic and the aesthetic: the artistic pole is the author's text and the aesthetic is the

realization accomplished by the reader. In view of this polarity, it is clear that the work itself cannot be identical with the text or with the concretization, but most be situated somewhere between the two. It must inevitably be virtual in character, as it cannot be reduced to the reality of the text or to the subjectivity of the reader, and it is from this virtuality that it derives its dynamism. (Iser 1978: 21)

The role-play is a new oral text with elements from the novel as well as elements from the pupils' reading and interpretation of the novel. When interviewing the pupils about this role-play and about why they had chosen to personify the dog, I was surprised at first. The pupils answered that the main reason for giving the dog lines to speak, was that they felt all members of the group should be given the opportunity to speak English. Despite this fact, a virtual text was created because of this coincidence or maybe this would have happened no matter what?

In the interview I also asked them why they had chosen this particular scene and the pupils said that they felt this scene was well written and that they really liked it. Moreover, one pupil pointed out that "Junior loved his dog so much" as an additional reason for choosing this scene. They all had pets themselves and could easily understand Junior. So this might be the core reason why this group of pupils appeared to have understood the text at a deeper level – that this scene struck a cord in them relating the text to their own lives. According to Iser "[…] instead of a subject-object relationship, there is a moving viewpoint which travels along inside that, which it has to apprehend" (Iser 1978: 109). Such a reading of a literary text might "create realities […] in which words invite us to create «realities» in the world to correspond to them" (Bruner 1986: 64). Consequently, in order to understand literary texts with a philosophical, existential view, aesthetic reading and response seemed to be the premise – the text must relate to my own life in one way or another.

School B

During my visit to school B I observed an 11ᵗʰ grade class for 90 minutes as the pupils worked with chapter 8 of *The Absolutely True Diary of a Part-Time Indian*. Starting the work with this chapter students were divided into six groups by the teacher. Each group got one segment of the chapter of which they were to make tableaus. The groups set about their work by reading the extract given to them. No other pre-task was given. Pupils then planned their tableaus discussing amongst themselves how to complete this task. All groups showed their tableaus to the other students. As the pupils presented their tableaus, they felt a need to explain what their picture envisioned. Afterwards the teacher gathered the class in a large circle in the classroom and pupils took turns reading the complete chapter. No one was forced to read aloud. The teacher did not ask questions as the reading progressed, but waited to the very end before posing questions. The teacher asked open questions that often lead to an engaging conversation.

Teacher: What do you think of this name?
Pupil 1: Junior is more common in the Rez.
Pupil 2: Isn't junior meaning "small" for the white people? Like we would say "kom da småen" (means: "come on little one").

Teacher:	Yes – that's right. Junior is another way of saying that you are small.
Pupil 3:	Junior is one person at the Rez and one at school.
Pupil 4:	He is named after his father.
Teacher:	He feels like he is two people in one body. Do you ever feel like this?
Pupil 7:	I live outside Oslo in NN where there are a lot of farmers. I was with friends and I started to talk "breiere" (means: using local accent), but when I came here and I speak "finere" (means: using the accent of the western part of Oslo, but student phrases it as speaking in a finer manner).
Pupil 8:	Snakker du finere her? (means: Do you speak in a finer manner here?)
Pupil 7:	Yes, I feel this is not as big difference as it is for Junior, but I do have this feeling.
Teacher:	How is he (Junior) different from the other kids?
Pupil 9:	He's Indian.
Pupil 10:	Geek.
Pupil 11:	Poor.
Pupil 12:	He talks differently.
...	
Teacher:	I tried to explain Arnold as an either-nor person. What do you think?
Pupil 7:	He tries being Indian and white and ends up being none of them – mixes up the roles.
Teacher:	Mixed up the roles?
Pupil 7:	Yeah.
Teacher:	"Betray his tribe". Why do you think he (Junior) says this?
Pupil 13:	Left them.
Pupil 14:	Left and wanted to get an education.
Teacher:	Does the tribe feel the same way?
Pupil 15:	I think they are proud of him.
Pupil 16:	His father is proud of him.
Pupil 17:	Yes, but his father is a drunk.
...	

After the classroom talk about the chapter students were given the task to make a front page of a newspaper where the "top stories" from chapter eight should be given a headline. Students then presented their newspapers.

School B – analyzing classroom discourse

In the first place when observing the classroom conversation in class B it is noticeable that students were engaged in the discussion. The most distinguishable part of the classroom talk was Pupil 7's numerous interactions with the text. Not belonging, or living between cultures were themes that this student clearly related to. The existential question of identity – "Who am I?" emerged from this conversation. Subsequently when readers relate the text to their own life, important questions and unmarked insight might arise. A totally new world might discharge from such insight corresponding to what Iser writes: "Instead of finding out whether the text gives an accurate or inaccurate description of the object, he has to build up the object for himself – often in a manner running to the familiar world evoked by the text" (Iser 1978: 109) Correspondingly three of the six front pages of the fictive newspapers

had titles related to the theme of identity: "Indian Boy at White School," "Reardan High School First Native American," and "First Native American Ever Attending Reardan High" indicating that other pupils had deciphered this idea as well. Furthermore the subject of alcoholism was present in four of the six newspapers. The classroom conversation transcribed above continued into a conversation about alcoholism among Native Americans. It should be noted that this topic was the last to be discussed before pupils started out with their written work.

Comparisons and concluding remarks

Chinn, Anderson and Waggoner claim: "To construct new concepts and acquire new ways of thinking, students need a chance to express their ideas and hear others' ideas. But research suggests that discussion often fail to achieve these goals. During a typical discussion, teachers dominate the talking and tightly regulate the content of the discussion" (Chinn, Anderson, Waggoner 2001: 378). When I compared the classroom talk or discussion in these two classrooms of my observation, it was rather obvious that in School A the talk was led by the teacher and in most instances the questions posed were primarily about content. Consequently the classroom discourse on these occasions did not lead to further exploration of philosophical ideas or existential grapples. What is more, the comprehension questions often led the teacher into dishing out the answers and her own understanding of the text. In contrast the classroom talk was as much directed by the pupils as by the teacher in school B. In particular this can be observed when the theme of alcoholism was initiated by a pupil. One might also suggest that the themes of "living between cultures" and "identity" were spurred by a pupil when Pupil 3 said: "Junior is one person at the Rez and one at school." However, when the teacher at school A catered for a discourse approach that opened up for an aesthetic stance, students were enabled to express their ideas and insights using role-plays and presentations. When the discourse took on an experience–text relationship and a collaborative reasoning, students and teacher shared the control of the topic as clearly visualized in the dialogue from school B.

To conclude, I must say that the limitations of my project are quite clear; I have only observed two classes during a limited timeframe. Despite this limitation, I do believe that some interesting observations were completed and suggest that further classroom observation and research in relation to how reading literature might enforce an awareness of the philosophical ideas encompassed in such texts, should be encouraged. In this project I set out to investigate if pupils were able to distill philosophical ideas in excerpts from Sherman Alexie's novel *The Absolutely True Diary of a Part-Time Indian*. My initial thought was that Levinas' philosophy of the "Other" would emerge clearly as the pupils worked with this novel. Nevertheless, at first sight one might hold that these ideas did not truly materialize. On the other hand I do feel that traces of Levinas' philosophy as well as other existential issues were seen in the role-play in school A, however; an essential question to be raised is – did the pupils at all realize these ideas themselves? From the interview it seemed rather clear, that to them it was not a conscious revelation. But then again, maybe from a subtle understanding a deeper knowledge will surface? Similar experiences were seen in school B during the classroom talk where Pupil 7 said he felt like Junior.

One might presume that the pupil saw Junior as the "Other" in this instance and that a notion of Levinas' ideas was felt. Furthermore, in my observation there seemed to be an obvious link between pupils' possibilities of grasping such truths and the methods used in relation to the literature in question. Open questions and role-play appeared to cater for an aesthetic response and a possibility for pupils to connect the literature they read to their own lives. A text-to-self connection appeared to be crucial for a deeper understanding. In such instances of text-to-self revelations a new door opened into the worlds of the pupils own minds as well as into the world of ideas. The novel and its characters became the "Other" enabling the reader to face the "Other" in the real world.

> The challenge to self is precisely reception of the absolutely other. The epiphany of the absolute other is face where the Other hails me and signifies to me, by its nakedness, by its destitution, an order. (Levinas 2003: 33)

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Czytanie literatury jako punkt wyjścia do dyskusji filozoficznych na lekcjach angielskiego w Norwegii – badanie lokalne

Streszczenie

Niniejszy artykuł jest oparty na kwestionariuszu wypełnionym w roku 2010 przez 66 nauczycieli języka angielskiego pracujących w norweskich szkołach. Celem było otrzymanie informacji na temat wykorzystania literatury w czasie lekcji języka angielskiego. Czy literatura jest punktem wyjścia do etycznej i filozoficznej dyskusji, czy też nacisk jest położony na samo rozumienie treści tekstu?

Kwestionariusze wskazują na dominację pytań o rozumienie tekstu wśród używanych technik nauczania. Mocno wierzę, że literatura może otwierać drzwi do bardziej skomplikowanych idei, ale te idee nie wynikną z pytań o rozumienie tekstu, które kładą nacisk na treść, a nie na filozofię tekstu.

W przyszłości planuję przeprowadzić obserwację, jak uczniowie radzą sobie z powieścią 'The Diary of a Part-Time Indian' autorstwa Shermana Alexie. Czy ten tekst otworzy drzwi do filozoficznych pytań? Jak praca z powieścią wpłynie na dyskurs w czasie lekcji języka angielskiego? Jak techniki nauczania wpływają na głębokie rozumienie tekstu literackiego? A także – jak uczniowie odbierają pracę z tekstem literackim na lekcji języka angielskiego?

Małgorzata Marzec-Stawiarska

INVESTIGATING WASHBACK EFFECT IN THE CONTEXT OF PLANNING READING COMPREHENSION TASKS

Defining washback

The influence of testing on language learning and teaching is generally described as the washback or backwash effect. Although these two terms are used interchangeably it is worth stressing that 'washback' is frequently used in the applied linguistics context and rarely used in everyday language and backwash seems to be a more common term that is possible to be found in dictionaries (Cheng and Curtis 2004).

There are many various definitions of washback, for example Messik (1996: 141) describes it in a rather neutral and general manner as "the extent to which tests influence language teachers and learners to do things they would not otherwise do that promote or inhibit language learning" and Buck (1988: 17) provides a more detailed description as the author puts emphasis on students' future affected by tests results, teachers' pressure to make their students obtain the best possible results from examinations and washback's consequences, positive or negative, for the process of learning and teaching:

> There is a natural tendency for both teachers and students to tailor their classroom activities to the demands of the test, especially when the test is very important to the future of the students, and pass rates are used as a measure of teacher success. This influence of the test on the classroom (referred to as washback by language testers) is, of course, very important; this washback effect can be either beneficial or harmful.

Negative washback

Although washback is a highly complex phenomenon, it is very difficult to talk precisely about its negative repercussions. First, Cheng and Curtis (2004) claim that teachers may ignore the skills and the techniques which are not covered by a format of an examination. This observation confirms the results of Wall and Anderson's (1993) study, according to which some teachers skipped or neglected listening activities as they were not tested during examination. As a result the curriculum was significantly distorted.

Moreover, testing techniques may become teaching techniques. Davies (1968) pointed to the phenomenon in which language education was based mainly on the

analysis of examination papers from the past. Overusing testing techniques, noticed by Davies (1968), may have also different consequences. It can be assumed that teachers may try to develop language skills with a very limited number of techniques, only these which fit to a test format. As a result the quality of teaching is violated and students may feel bored and not challenged enough by the same set of techniques.

It can be also assumed that in the reading development context there are some testing techniques which seem to have a very limited teaching value. In many cases multiple choice questions and true/false statements can be solved in a rather mechanical way, their results depend to a large extent on familiarity with strategies of test solving, not so much with reading comprehension as such. Finally, relevantly high scores may be a matter of luck.

Messik's definition quoted at the beginning of this article included one more element which may be interpreted in the context of negative washback, namely that "tests may influence language teachers [...] to do things they would not otherwise do." There is a danger that teachers may resort to the techniques which they do not believe to be efficient in language teaching but which may be components of a test. This situation was described in Wall and Anderson's article (1993) in which they described the possibility that both teachers and learners apply testing techniques none of them believe are efficient or useful.

This aspect of negative washback is directly connected with pressure teachers may feel in the context of preparing students for the examinations which decide about their future. It can be observed that in Poland teachers are very often assessed (mostly in an informal way) by students, parents, school authorities and other teachers according to their students' performance during final examinations.

Wall and Anderson (1993) also observed that teachers may implement the teaching policy they do not understand and as a result do not acquire any desired results, planned for by the designers of a test, or obtain them only in a superficial way. This phenomenon was also noticed by Cheng (1999), who observed that teachers started to use the techniques promoted by exams which main aim was to introduce more real-life communication into the foreign language classroom (that is why the format of examination was changed in Hong Kong), however, they did not change the interaction pattern and the activities were still based on teacher--dominated talk. Qi (2007) observed as well that teachers did not pay attention to the communicative aspect of students' compositions although writing tasks promoted by a reformed National Matriculation English Test in China were to make students and teachers develop writing for communicative purposes.

Positive washback

Positive washback can be observed in a situation when tests influence curriculum development and classroom procedures in a positive way, for example a test was designed to promote communicative skills development and as a result they start to be practiced and valued both by teachers and students.

Pearson (1998) presented a mechanism of positive washback simultaneously admitting that it is improbable to occur. He claimed that positive washback takes place when good tests are possible to use as teaching and learning techniques, and efficient teaching and learning techniques can be used as testing techniques. This

statement seems impossible in the context of developing reading skills as reading comprehension tests taken by thousands of students are to be practical, which means possible to assess in a quick and objective manner. On the other hand, the nature of reading comprehension teaching and learning necessitates more creative and open techniques, for example a summary writing or taking down the main ideas of the text, which are difficult to assess in an objective and key-based way.

The trichotomy of washback model

In 1993 Hughes (in Bailey 1999) proposed the framework of washback based on three main components: participants, process and product. Participants are all those whose behaviour may be affected by a test. These may be students, teachers, administrators, course book authors and publishers. Bailey (1999) also adds to the list researchers interested in the topic. The process has been specified as behaviour and decisions participants take which are to benefit teaching and learning. Within the process syllabuses are planned and prepared, course books and other teaching aids are written and designed. Students can be also instructed in all sorts of testing strategies and testing techniques. Bailey (1999) also suggests that these processes may include analysis of the tests from the past or even organising additional classes which would prepare students for a test. The last element to describe is product. Hughes specifies it as what is learnt and the learning and teaching quality. All the discussed components of the washback are co-dependent and interact in the following way (Hughes 1993: 2, cited by Bailey 1999: 10):

> The trichotomy into participants, process and product allows us to construct a basic model of backwash. The nature of a test may first affect the perceptions and attitudes of the participants towards their teaching and learning tasks. These perceptions and attitudes in turn may affect what the participants do in carrying out their work (process), including practicing the kind of items that are to be found in the test, which will affect the learning outcomes, the product of that work.

Developing reading comprehension in a foreign language

In order to discuss reading skills, efficient development of lower and higher levels of reading comprehension (Grabe and Stoller 2002, Grabe 2009) should be described. Comprehension at lower levels focuses mainly on understanding a text at a word and at a sentence level, higher levels of reading, on the other hand, allow readers to create a mental summary of the text based on a network of prepositions which organise information from a text in a hierarchical way. The most important ideas are supported by details and arranged around a thesis of a text. Grabe (2009) stresses that comprehension at higher levels is the essence of a reading process.

The concept of mental summary, which is also discussed by Koda (2004), can be interpreted in the context of Kintsch and van Dijk's text comprehension model (1978, Van Dijk and Kintsch 1983). The authors claim that text comprehension, which aim is to create a mental summary of a text, or in other words: its gist, is possible as a result of three operations: deletion (which allows readers to eliminate not relevant information and be left with the most important ideas in a text),

generalisation (which allows readers to retrieve the essence of information by its generalisation: the date 1978 may be generalised into the 70') and construction (which makes readers draw conclusions from what they have read; as a result they may create a concept representing the essence of an excerpt; in practice it may mean construction of a topic sentence which summarises a whole paragraph).

In order to develop reading comprehension in an efficient way teachers should promote higher levels of text comprehension and engage students into a conscious and active construction of a mental summary of a text. It seems logical to conclude that this may be achieved with the techniques involving the following elements: creating a mind map, a plan of a text, asking students "What is this paragraph about?" (which is to motivate students to identify a topic sentence in a text or to invent titles to paragraphs) and summarising. All these techniques make readers create a network of propositions, organised in a hierarchical way, which reflects a structure of a text and allows students to say correctly what a text is about and to identify the main ideas from a discourse.

Three levels of reading comprehension

Teaching reading skills should also develop comprehension at different levels. Dakowska (2005) discusses three dimensions of discourse understanding: semantic, interpretative and evaluative. The first level is practiced with all kind of WH questions, for example: "What does… (a word) mean in this text?," "Where did he go?," "Who helped the boy?" as its aim is to develop understanding at a sentence level. The interpetation level is activated by the following questions: What is the text about? What is the main idea of this paragraph? Is the title relevant to the text? Its goal is "reconstructing the writer's intention by linking the ideas expressed in the text into a coherent whole" (Dakowska 2005: 196). The third dimension is developed when students are motivated to think about the following issues: Do you like the text? Have you ever felt in the same way? Do you agree with the author? It focuses at critical evaluation of a discourse.

As it can be observed, the semantic level is close to lower levels of text processing, the interpetation leads to a mental summary construction and activates higher levels of discourse comprehension. Evaluation also promotes higher levels of text comprehension and additionally develops critical thinking and subjective responses to a text.

If the quality of reading comprehension teaching is to be assessed it should be taken into consideration whether all the levels of text comprehension are promoted. Discussing a text only from a semantic dimension or at the lower levels of text processing is an excellent introduction to successful reading, however, it is just an introduction and it is far away from how comprehension teaching should look like. Promoting mainly these aspects of understanding should be assessed as poor quality teaching. As higher levels of text processing constitute the essence of reading (Koda 2004) and they allow students to develop reading skills efficiently and successfully, teachers who focus on them during their classes can believe that they offer students a high quality reading development programme.

Lower secondary school and upper secondary school final
English examinations in Poland

This article is to analyse washback in the context of English examinations in Poland, therefore it seems necessary to briefly describe the techniques used to test reading comprehension typical for these exams. In Poland education of lower secondary (*gimnazjum*) and upper secondary (*szkoła średnia*) students ends with final formal examinations prepared by the Central Examination Board. As far as the lower secondary school examination in English is concerned it has a written form and all students in Poland write the same test. Reading comprehension, that consists of five texts, is tested with the following techniques:

1. true/false statements,
2. matching (descriptions of paragraphs with paragraphs),
3. matching (headlines with paragraphs),
4. multiple choice questions,
5. a gapped text (sentences are removed from a text and mixed, one distractor is added).

The upper secondary school final examination has got two versions: the standard one and the extended one (more difficult and demanding). As students get points after passing the exams which are decisive in their acceptance to the chosen university, taking an extended form allows them to obtain more points. A reading comprehension part of a standard examination in English consists of three texts accompanied by the following techniques:

1. matching,
2. true/false statements,
3. multiple choice questions.

The extended version is also based on three texts accompanied by the following techniques:

1. multiple choice questions,
2. a gapped text (pieces of a text are missing),
3. a cloze (some words or phrases are missing from a text and students choose the right one from a multiple choice test under a text).

The research description

The research of washback effect in the context of developing reading comprehension during foreign language classes was based on Hughes' concept of trichotomy of the washback framework. The main issues to investigate were the participants, teachers of English, the process, the way teachers plan their reading tasks with the emphasis on the techniques they apply to develop their students' reading skills and the product, which in this case is the attempt to asses quality of developing text comprehension during English classes.

Research questions

The research project was developed and carried out in order to find the answers to the following research questions:

1. Can washback be traced in the choice of techniques used by teachers to develop reading comprehension?
2. Are there any differences between lower secondary and upper secondary school teachers in the choice of the techniques and as a consequence in washback effect?
3. Can washback be traced in the factors teachers take into consideration while choosing techniques for development of reading comprehension?
4. Can washback be traced in teachers' creativity while constructing reading activities?
5. Can washback be traced in the choice of authentic and modified texts?
6. What is the 'washback product' in the context of developing reading comprehension?

    Formulating the answers to all these questions is allowing to discuss the notion of washback effect in the context of planning reading comprehension tasks.

Subjects of the research

There were 54 teachers who took part in the research. Twenty eight of them work in lower secondary schools and 26 teach English to upper secondary school students. The author of the research took care that both groups of teachers are included in the project as linguistic education in lower secondary school and upper secondary school ends with final achievement examination which may have an impact on the way teachers plan their reading tasks and as a result may give some ground for investigating washback effect. There was also an attempt to analyse two groups of teachers separately in order to search for possible differences in planning reading tasks in lower and upper secondary schools environment. Extra care was also taken to make sure that the questionnaires are not filled by the teachers who work both in lower secondary and upper secondary school.

Research tools

In order to formulate the answers to the research questions a short questionnaire was prepared (see the appendix) and distributed among the research subjects.

Research results

Washback and reading comprehension development techniques used by the teachers

In order to specify the most often used techniques of developing reading skills the subjects were asked to choose four activities that are most frequently used by them out of an array of following options:

1. Open questions
2. Closed questions
3. Multiple choice questions
4. Inventing titles to paragraphs
5. Matching titles with paragraphs
6. True/false statements

7. Underlining the most important information
8. Underlining topic sentence in a paragraph
9. Matching excerpts with the text
10. Making a plan of a text
11. A written summary
12. An oral summary
13. Other ………
     The detailed results are presented in the figure below:
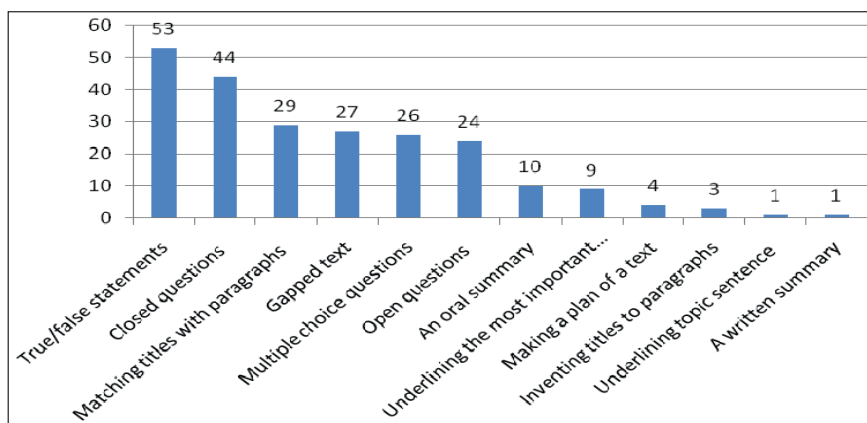
Figure 1. The most often used techniques developing reading

As it can be observed the techniques can be divided into three groups. True/false statements and closed questions belong to the most often used activities. They were chosen 53 and 44 times respectively. Matching titles with paragraphs, gapped text, multiple choice questions and open questions belong to the second group as they were picked 29–24 times. The third group of activities are the ones which are barely used as the elements of reading tasks. They are: oral summary, underlining the most important information in a text, making a plan of a text, inventing titles to paragraphs, underlining topic sentences in a text and a written summary of a text.

It should be stressed, however, that making the respondents select only four techniques might distort the picture of the most often used techniques as some teachers might apply a wider variety of reading activities. Hence, the next question in the questionnaire asked the teachers to assess the frequency of the application of each technique that was enumerated in the previous question. The teachers were to specify how often they apply a particular item according to a zero-to-three point scale in which 0 meant never, 1 – rarely, 2 – often and 3 – very often. The average frequency was calculated for each technique and the results are presented below. The techniques have been arranged from the most often used to the least often applied, in brackets the frequency mean is presented.

1. True/false statements (2,61)
2. Closed questions (2,4)
3. Multiple choice questions (2,4)
4. Open questions (2,05)

5. Matching titles with paragraphs (1,95)
6. Gapped text (1,79)
7. An oral summary (1,65)
8. Underlining the most important information (1,28)
9. Underlining topic sentence in a paragraph (0,82)
10. Making a plan of a text (0,7)
11. Inventing titles to paragraphs (0,58)
12. A written summary (0,56)

The quantitative data presented above allows to draw conclusions on whether washback can be observed in the choice of techniques and their frequency of use. As the most often applied activities to develop reading skills in a foreign language turned out to be the techniques which test reading comprehension during lower and secondary schools final examinations in English, namely true/false statements, a gapped text, matching titles with paragraphs and multiple choice questions, it can be concluded that to a great extent washback effect can be observed in this context. On the other hand, it should also be added that in addition to these tasks teachers frequently apply closed and open questions, which do not appear during the examinations.

Moreover, a kind of negative washback can be observed in the choice of techniques while planning reading tasks. The ones which are not promoted by examinations, for example an oral summary of a text, underlining the most important information, underlining topic sentence in a paragraph, making a plan of a text, inventing titles to paragraphs and writing a summary of a text, are neglected and barely applied in the context of reading skills development, which may have detrimental effects on the quality of reading development.

Differences between lower secondary and upper secondary school teachers in the choice of the techniques and as a consequence of washback effect

Since the research analysed the responses of two different groups of teachers, namely these teaching lower secondary school students and these working in upper secondary schools, the attempt was made to check whether there are any differences between these two groups in preferences of the techniques used to develop reading comprehension. The results are presented in the chart below, the figures represent the number of times a given option was identified as one of the four most often used techniques:

The techniques preferred by upper secondary school teachers		The techniques preferred by lower secondary school students	
True/false statements	26	True/false statements	27
Closed questions	20	Closed questions	24
Gapped text	16	Matching titles with paragraphs	15
Matching titles with paragraphs	14	Multiple choice questions	12
Multiple choice questions	14	Open questions	12
Open questions	12	Gapped text	11
A written summary	6	Underlining the most important information	5
Underlining the most important information	4	A written summary	4

Making a plan of a text	2	Making a plan of a text	2
Inventing titles to paragraphs	2	Inventing titles to paragraphs	1
Underlining topic sentence	0	Underlining topic sentence	1
An oral summary	0	An oral summary	1

Figure 2. Comparison of the most frequent techniques used by lower and upper secondary school teachers to develop reading comprehension

If we were to compare the responses of lower secondary school and upper secondary school teachers it can be concluded that no major differences can be observed. The hierarchy of the activities is almost the same, with true/false statements, closed questions as the most popular activities. Next a gapped text, matching titles with paragraphs, multiple choice questions and open questions are qualified as the most often used techniques to develop reading comprehension by both groups of teachers. The only difference is that upper secondary school teachers more frequently apply a gapped text (the third technique on their frequency list) than lower secondary school teachers (number six on the list). There has also been a small difference observed in case of written summary and underlining the most important information as the former is the seventh on upper secondary school teachers' preference list and the latter the eighth. As far as lower secondary school teachers are concerned the order is reversed (written summary – the seventh position and underlining the most important information – the eighth position on a list). To sum up, with these minor differences it is not possible to state that washback effects are different for the two groups of teachers as they tend to prefer the same set of activities.

Washback and the factors the teachers take into consideration while choosing techniques for development of reading comprehension

The second aim of the research was an attempt to analyse the factors the teachers take into consideration while choosing techniques for development of reading comprehension in a foreign language and to find out the extent to which the final examination form determines the decisions in planning reading tasks. The teachers were given some options they could circle if they found them true. They were also asked to add any other reasons they thought would be relevant in this context.

The research showed that there are three most decisive factors in planning reading tasks. The most common answer was "I choose the techniques typical for lower secondary school/upper secondary school examination" as it was chosen by 45 respondents (83%). The second almost as common response as the first one was "I choose the techniques which are liked by my students;" 43 teachers (80%) circled this option. The third factor influencing planning for reading tasks was simply following the suggestions from a course book. Forty teachers (74%) admitted that they rely on the activities suggested by the course book, which could be even qualified as a kind of 'lack of any decisive processes.' There were also other responses, for example 16 teachers (30%) claimed to use only the texts from the course book but to prepare text related activities on their own. Two respondents (4%) also try to apply other techniques which are typical for TOEFL or other exams.

Interpreting these results in the context of washback effect allows to state that the format of an examination is a highly decisive factor which influences the way teachers organise reading tasks during their lessons. Eighty three percent of respondents directly admitted that they choose the techniques typical for final reading comprehension tests. What is more, 74% claim that they absolutely rely on the course book. If we take into consideration the answer to the first research question which aim was to specify the most common techniques applied by the respondents, it may be concluded that course books also contain mainly the activities typical for examinations. As a result it might be suggested that even if the teachers do not consciously search for examination techniques they are somehow directed by course book creators and publishers into washback.

Washback and teachers' creativity while constructing reading activities

The research was also to analyse teachers' invention in preparing comprehension activities. The author assumed that there may be some negative correlation between washback effect and teachers invention and independence in planning reading tasks: if teachers consciously decide to practice only these techniques which prepare students for examinations they may limit the variety of reading developing tasks, they may become too reliant on the course book which promotes mainly these types of activities and they may display some unwillingness in preparing their own reading exercises and as a consequence resign from the search for authentic texts which require from teachers invention and construction of self-made text-related activities.

To begin with, it should be stressed that the subjects were asked directly whether, and 'if yes' how often, they prepare their own activities to the texts their students read during classes. Four of them (7%) claimed that they never do it, 43 teachers (80%) prepare them rarely, only 7 (13%) frequently try to construct their own activities and 3 (6%) do it very frequently. As it can be observed the teachers do not show a significant degree of invention in designing their reading tasks.

In the previous subchapter it was shown that 74% of teachers follow reading activities suggested by creators of course books. The reason behind this is that the majority of respondents believe that they are efficient. To be more precise: 39 respondents (72%) strongly believe course book tasks to be efficient, 4 (7%) of them think they are highly efficient. Only 14 (26%) have some doubts about their efficiency as they chose the answer "rather inefficient" and no one thinks that what course books offer is "not efficient at all."

In order to trace back washback in the procedure which teachers apply while planning reading tasks it seemed vital to obtain additional answers from the respondents who display some degree of initiative in preparing activities. This group chose the answer "I use only the texts from our course book but I prepare techniques on my own" and it consisted of 16 (30%) respondents. The reasons they justified their answers with are as follows: 5 of them claimed that course book reading activities are too easy, 4 believed they are not engaging enough, 2 simply stated that they are not interesting and 2 said that they are not varied enough. The closer analysis of their questionnaires showed that this is the group which chose the less popular reading development techniques (question I and II in the questionnaire) as underlining the most important information, underlining topic

sentence in a paragraph, making a plan of a text, inventing titles to paragraphs and writing a summary of a text.

It is a positive phenomenon as some level of dissatisfaction with what course book offers allows teachers to constrain the negative washback effect as they try to invent their own activities. It automatically makes them move to less common techniques of reading comprehension development which do not build final examinations but which may be qualified as more efficient in teaching reading comprehension and which are surely better tailored to students' linguistic level and needs.

Washback and the choice of authentic and modified texts

As it was hypothesised earlier there may be some correlation between washback effect and teachers' willingness to use authentic texts during reading comprehension teaching. However, it should be stressed that using authentic materials necessitates from teachers inventing some activities which could be used while or after reading a piece of a text. This assumption was the ground to ask the respondents what sources of reading texts do they use while constructing reading tasks. The research results show that the teachers are far from trying to base their reading tasks on authentic materials supplemented with self-made activities: 4 of them (7%) admitted using texts from newspapers/magazines (authentic materials not supplemented by any activities), 2 (4%) respondents use all sorts of texts from the Internet (authentic materials not supplemented by any activities), only 1 person claimed to bring pieces of literature to the classroom.

The most common sources and types of texts the teachers apply during their lessons are as follows: 47 (87%) use the Internet and look there for modified texts with ready-made activities, 46 (86%) take the texts from the main course book and other course books at the similar level, 35 (65%) work with the texts offered by the books preparing students for lower secondary school/matura examination and finally 8 (6 of them are lower secondary school teachers) (15%) use the main course book and never supplement it with texts coming from other sources.

To conclude, it may be said that teachers are highly unwilling to use authentic materials as they require some extra work and invention in construction of text related activities. Teachers do not limit themselves to one course book or to one source of texts, however, all the sources they choose give them the opportunity to look for modified text with ready-made activities. If these results were to be interpreted in the context of washback it may be hypothesised that teachers do not apply authentic materials as they are not a part of examinations and they are not supplemented by typical examination techniques, which are difficult to design on one's own.

Assessing 'washback product' – quality of teaching reading in English

As it has been discussed in subchapter 5 developing reading comprehension necessitates activating both lower and higher levels of text comprehension. To be more precise, we can start talking about reading comprehension in its full sense in the context of developing higher levels of understanding as lower levels are the necessary base of reading processes but are far from the essence of reading. The research showed that the activities which motivate students to develop the habit of

constructing a mental summary of a text while reading are simply not used by the respondents during their classes. Frequency of their use measured with the scale from 0 (never) to 3 (very often) does not display any positive tendencies: an oral summary (1,65), underlining the most important information (1,28), underlining topic sentence in a paragraph (0,82), making a plan of a text (0,7), inventing titles to paragraphs (0,58) and preparing a written summary (0,56). As it was discussed previously, the most prevailing techniques are testing techniques which may in some degree develop global reading comprehension but do not engage students directly into intensive construction of a hierarchical network of information from the text and do not make them search actively for the most important ideas in the text and distinguish between relevant and irrelevant pieces of information as it is done by mind map or summary-based tasks.

As far as developing reading at multiple levels of discourse comprehension is concerned, the most often used techniques undoubtedly develop reading at the semantic level as closed questions, true/false statements, multiple choice questions seem to develop surface level of sentence comprehension. Since open questions are also a very common technique applied in foreign language classes it may be concluded that they develop the semantic level of comprehension and the evaluation level. Unfortunately the questionnaire was constructed in such a way that it is impossible to state what kind of open questions teachers apply and whether they actually engage students into text assessment and a kind of personal evaluative reaction to the text. The last level to discuss is interpretation, which is supposed to make students discover the intention of the author and find out the main idea of the text, state whether the title is relevant or discuss rhetoric elements used by the author. Some of these aims may be achieved with open questions, however, due to limitations of the questionnaire it is not possible to state it. On the other hand, as far as identification of the main idea or ideas of the text is concerned it is undoubtedly achieved by the activities proposed earlier. As the research showed they are not applied by the teachers and consequently it may be concluded that this level is rather not developed and is neglected by reading activities respondents claim to use during their lessons.

Conclusions and research results interpretation

The research shows that washback can be observed in the selection of techniques the teachers prefer to use during classes aiming at developing reading comprehension skills. Out of six the most often applied activities in this context, four of them (namely true/false statements, multiple choice questions, gapped texts and matching titles with paragraphs) are the techniques which are typical for final lower secondary school and upper secondary school examinations in English. It should be stressed that, on the one hand, washback effect is positive as students practice test strategies typical for examinations. On the other hand, an immense discrepancy between frequency of use of these techniques and other activities developing reading comprehension, e.g. summarising or inventing titles to paragraphs, shows that teachers limit the scope of techniques and familiarise students mainly with these types of techniques which make reading development less efficient and successful. What is more, a constant use of the same techniques makes reading

tasks monotonous, predictable and not challenging. There is also a danger that high results in these typical testing formats like multiple choice questions or true/false statements do not mean that students understand the text and can tell the teacher what the text is about. As Alderson (2000: 211) claims: "Some researchers argue that the ability to answer multiple choice questions is a separate ability, different from the reading ability."

The research also analysed the decisive factors which influence planning reading tasks and tried to find out the occurrence of washback in this context. Washback does happen here as the teachers openly admitted that they choose the techniques which are typical for final examinations, which are liked by students and which are suggested by a course book. As it was observed in the previous paragraph, these techniques are mainly testing techniques and it can be concluded that the mechanism of washback described by McEwen (1995) takes place in this situation: the techniques used for testing become perceived as valuable both by students and teachers; as a consequence teachers believe they use the right techniques for reading comprehension development and students expect the teachers to use the testing techniques during classes. What is more, course book creators and publishers fit into this tendency and construct books in such a way that they intensely engage students into practicing reading mainly with testing techniques.

The research also aimed to specify the sources of texts teachers use while searching for texts for reading development. It was shown that teachers prefer ready-made activities based on modified texts. As a consequence all sources which offer such reading tasks were the most popular among respondents. The search for authentic texts and preparing some activities on their basis is a rare behaviour. It is difficult to connect this phenomenon directly with washback as there may be other numerous reasons why teachers are so unwilling to use authentic texts during classes, starting with the most basic one, which may be simply the lack of time. On the other hand, McEwen's washback mechanism can be once again relevant in this case. Teachers do not bring authentic materials to the classroom, as they do not appear during final examinations and as a consequence teachers may believe that authentic texts not accompanied by multiple choice questions or true/false statements are not efficient and needed.

The issues discussed in the previous paragraph are also connected with the next notion the research was to analyse: teachers' inventiveness and initiative in preparing reading tasks. This issue may be very difficult to interpret in the context of washback as being creative and innovative may be simply an inborn personality feature. On the other hand, there may be some additional reasons behind what the research showed, as the respondents practically do not show any creativity and resourcefulness in planning the reading tasks. Eighty seven percent of respondents rarely and never prepare text based activities on their own, 74% choose the techni-ques offered by course books. This observation is highly alarming as using ready--made materials and following the course book does not allow for individualisation of the reading process. It also does not promote meeting students needs in an efficient way, as course books are universal and each group of students is unique and should have the activities tailored to their linguistic level and demands. It is also difficult to imagine that what a course book offers always satisfies the teachers and

allows them to believe that they develop reading skills efficiently. On the other hand, the research showed that most of teachers actually believe that course book teaches comprehension in an efficient way. This impression may be justified by washback effect: if course book contains reading testing techniques teachers may believe that it develops reading in the most efficient and successful way.

The last issue that should be discussed is the 'washback product,' which is the quality of teaching reading comprehension in a foreign language. On the basis of the answers the respondents gave, it may be concluded that the quality of developing reading skills is quite low as all the techniques directly promoting construction of a mental summary are barely applied during English classes. However, it should be added that there is a minority of teachers who are disappointed with what course books offer and they apply these techniques.

As far as developing different levels of reading comprehension is concerned it should be stressed that the interpretation level seems to be neglected both by the teachers and by course books designers. Once again, it is possible to contribute this phenomenon to washback effect: elements absent during examinations are ignored during practice. However, there may be many other reasons behind this, for example teachers may be simply not aware that they should develop this level of reading comprehension, they may believe it is not important as it is not intensely promoted by course books. Moreover, making students write a plan of a text or prepare a written summary all the time may turn out to be monotonous or too difficult for students and teachers may not know how to instruct students into a plan or a summary writing. There is an option that a teacher may invent some funny and challenging group activities based on summarising or a text plan reconstruction but one has to be very creative and inventive and as the research showed there are some problems with the respondents' inventiveness and independence in reading tasks' construction.

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Badanie efektu washback w kontekście planowania zadań sprawdzających umiejętność czytania

Streszczenie

Washback to wpływ, jaki wywierają testy pisane przez uczniów na kształt kursu językowego. Literatura przedmiotu przedstawia głównie jego negatywny wpływ na nauczanie oraz uczenie się języków obcych, ponieważ uczniowie oraz nauczyciele często ograniczają się do nauki z mało zróżnicowanym zasobem technik, preferując te, z których składa się egzamin. Badanie przedstawione w artykule miało na celu analizę trychotomicznego modelu zjawiska washback Hughasa w kontekście kształcenia sprawności czytania. Sprawdzono, jaki wpływ ma washback na uczestników (czyli w tym przypadku nauczycieli języka angielskiego pracujących w gimnazjach oraz w szkołach ponadgimnazjalnych), proces (czyli decyzje podejmowane przez nich podczas planowania zajęć) oraz produkt (czyli jakość nauczania czytania). Badanie wykazało, że techniki najczęściej wybierane przez nauczycieli to te, z których składa się egzamin maturalny oraz gimnazjalny. Dzieje się tak, jak wskazali nauczyciele, ponieważ występują one na egzaminach, są preferowane przez uczniów oraz sugerowane przez podręczniki. Zaobserwowano także, że nauczyciele wykazują małą kreatywność w planowaniu zadań oraz niechęć do pracy z tekstami autentycznymi, preferując te z podręcznika, do których dołączono ćwiczenia, które z kolei są częścią składową egzaminów. Próba oceny jakości nauczania czytania pokazała, że techniki, które w wysokim stopniu rozwijają wyższe poziomy przetwarzania tekstu bardzo rzadko pojawiają się na lekcji języka obcego, co może stworzyć podstawę do zakwestionowania jakości kształcenia tej sprawności. Nie wykazano znaczącej różnicy w planowaniu zajęć między nauczycielami pracującymi w gimnazjach i szkołach ponadgimnazjalnych.

Appendix: The questionnaire for teachers of English

a) How long have you been teaching English as a foreign language? (at a public or private school)

☐ less than a year   ☐ 1–2 years   ☐ 3–4 years   ☐ 5 and more years

b) Where do you teach English? (more than one answer can be ticked)

☐ primary school (grades 1–3)
☐ primary school (grades 4–6)
☐ lower secondary school
☐ upper secondary school

☐ English course for children

☐ English course for teenagers

☐ English course for adults

I Tick four techniques developing reading comprehension that you use most frequently during classes with your students

☐ Open questions
☐ Closed questions
☐ Multiple choice questions
☐ Inventing titles to paragraphs
☐ Matching titles with paragraphs
☐ True/false statements
☐ Underlining the most important information
☐ Underlining topic sentence in a paragraph
☐ Matching excerpts with the text
☐ Making a plan of a text
☐ A written summary
☐ An oral summary
☐ Other ………………….

II How often do you use the following reading comprehension tasks? Please analyze every technique according to 0–3 frequency scale and put X in an appropriate column.

The technique	Very often (3)	Often (2)	Rarely (1)	Never (0)
Open questions				
Closed questions				
Multiple choice questions				
Inventing titles to paragraphs				
Matching titles with paragraphs				
True/false statements				
Underlining the most important information in a text				
Underlining topic sentence in a paragraph				
Matching excerpts with the text				
Making a plan of a text				
A written summary of a text				
An oral summary of a text				

III What are the sources of the texts that you read during classes? (you may tick as many options as you want)

☐ The main course book + other course books

☐ The main course book exclusively

☐ Books preparing students for lower secondary school/matura examination

☐ The Internet (modified texts with activities)

☐ The Internet (authentic materials not supplemented by any activities)

☐ Newspapers/magazines (authentic materials not supplemented by any activities)

☐ Other ....

IV Do you happen to prepare your own activities to the texts you are going to cover during classes?

☐ very frequently   ☐ often   ☐ rarely   ☐ never

V How do you assess the reading activities from your course book in terms of their efficiency in developing reading skills?

☐ Highly efficient

☐ Efficient

☐ Rather inefficient

☐ Not efficient at all

VI What do you take into consideration while choosing the techniques for reading comprehension practice? (you may tick as many options as you want)

☐ I choose the techniques typical for matura/gimnazjum exam

☐ I choose the techniques which are liked by my students

☐ I choose the techniques from our course book

☐ I use only the texts from our course book but I prepare techniques on my own

☐ I choose the techniques typical for TOEFL or other exams

☐ Other ....

VII If you chose the option 'I use only the texts from our course book but I prepare techniques on my own' in the previous question, could you briefly justify why do you decide to prepare activities on your own?

....

Lynell Chvala

EXAMINING ORAL SKILLS IN LOWER SECONDARY SCHOOL IN NORWAY – A CLOSER LOOK AT GENRE AND SITUATION

Introduction/background

The current National Curriculum in Norway introduced in 2006 (hereafter referred to as LK06) identified five basic skills which were to permeate all subjects for the ten years of mandatory education in Norway. The ability of pupils to express themselves orally is one of these five basic skills. Some research has been done on the development of oral skills is Norwegian classrooms, but the majority of this work has focused on oral skills in Norwegian across the different subject classrooms. How oral skills are understood and assessed in English classrooms in lower secondary school, however, is an area in need of further inquiry.

English as a subject in school is included in the Norwegian National Curriculum from the first to the final year of compulsory education. English is also currently defined as a *prioritized subject*, together with Norwegian and mathematics, by the Ministry of Education (St. meld. Nr 11, 2008: 17–18).

One of the primary aims of English in Norwegian schools, as defined in general introduction to the subject, is that it should enable pupils to interact globally, in a variety of contexts, and use spoken and written English in a number of different communicative situations. These general aims are specifically reflected in the aims for the 8th – 10th grade where pupils are meant to be able to *adapt their spoken English to specific genres and situations* (LK06). This paper will then examine the degree to which local, teacher-produced oral exam tasks for English from 2010 provide pupils with the necessary information to do just this. The oral exam is viewed as the final, summative assessment of pupils' oral skills and is meant to be directly related to the continual assessment of pupils' oral skills over the previous three-year period.

In this study, a sampling of oral exam tasks from three different schools in Oslo will be analyzed in relation to the following questions:

• To what degree are genre and the context of situation defined in the exam tasks?
• Which genres and situations are most frequent, and how does this reflect the general aims of the English curriculum?

Theoretical background

In Norway, oral exam tasks are required to include both spoken presentation, as well as spoken interaction. This is in line with the framework of spoken language competences as described in the Council of Europe's Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR 2001). Speaking as a separate language skill readily lends itself to a dialogic understanding of language as developed by scholars such as Vgotsky and Bakhtin, both of whom assert that language is "hardly ever a totally individual affair" (Larsen-Freeman and Cameron 2008: 161). Furthermore, in Halliday's systemic functional theory of language, speaking as a productive language skill is viewed as the result of a perceived need to communicate something to someone within both the immediate context of situation as well as the less tangible context of culture which permeates the situation (Butt, Fahey, Spinks and Yallop 1995).

Arguing for a discourse-based approach to second language learning and teaching, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain argue that "the process of enabling learners to become competent and efficient users of a new language" (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain 2005: 729) is the primary aim of second language instruction. In their article, they propose that of all competences identified in the work on communicative competence of Hymes, Canale and Swain, the "core" or central competence is discourse competence. They argue that the four competences which comprise communicative competence – the linguistic, sociocultural, discourse and strategic – do not exist as separate or independent competences, but are instead a part of a larger whole. At the center or "core" of this whole is discourse competence, which involves, from a top-down perspective, the necessary sociocultural competence to understand the cultural context of the discourse, while, from a bottom-up perspective, the necessary linguistic competence to provide the building blocks or the bottom-up resources necessary to produce the discourse. Strategic competence, in their model, refers to how well learners can apply the knowledge and resources available to them (including communicative strategies) in order to communicate intended meanings (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain 2005: 730–731). Understanding communicative competence in this way requires an explicit definition of discourse which Celce-Murcia and Olshtain define as:

> [...] an instance of spoken or written language that has describable internal relationships of form and meaning that relate coherently to an external communicative function or purpose and a given audience/interlocutor. Furthermore, the external function or purpose can only be determined if one takes into account the context and the participants (i.e., all the relevant situational, social and cultural factors) in which the piece of discourse occurs). (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain 2005: 730)

Celce-Murcia and Olshtain's definition reflects Halliday's understanding of spoken or written texts as "harmonious" collections of meanings which are appropriate to the context, where a successful text must take into account the three basic aspects of language use: 1) the field (the topic and purpose of the text), 2) the tenor (the relationship between the producer of a text and its recipient), and 3) the mode (the type or form of the text that is being produced). Halliday's definition of mode and the notion of text types are also closely tied to Bahtia's definition of genre as:

> [...] language use in a conventionalised communicative setting in order to give expression to a specific set of communicative goals [...] which give rise to stable structural forms by imposing constraints on the use of lexico-grammatical as well as discoursal resources. (Bhatia 2004)

In essence, all of these approaches to and theoretical understandings of discourse and language use are tied to an ability to respond appropriately to the context of situation or, in other words, to the demands of the topic, the purpose, the audience and the form of the language to be produced – be it oral or written. In this study, therefore, I will examine the degree to which these contextual clues are identified or defined in a sampling of oral exam tasks issued to pupils in 2010. This, in turn, will lead to a discussion of what type of oral texts these tasks may illicit from pupils and, therefore, gain insight into how this corresponds with the development of pupils' discourse competence in English and how it is related to the overall aims of this subject in Norwegian schools.

Materials/method

The materials for analysis in this study are a sampling of oral exam tasks from 2010 from three different schools in Oslo. These schools are geographically spread throughout the city and are referred to in the analysis in the following way: 1) school 1 which is located on the east side of the city and is referred to as the **Eastside school**, 2) school 2 which is located not far from the Aker River (which historically has divided the east and west sides of the city) and is referred to as the **Midtown school**, and, finally, 3) school 3 which is located on the west side of the city and is referred to as the **Westside school**.

It is also worth mentioning that, as there is no specific requirement as to the number of tasks a teacher can present to their pupils for this locally administered exam, the number of tasks from individual schools varied. The Eastside school submitted three tasks, while the Midtown school submitted only one and the Westside school a total of six.

As mentioned above, the aim of this study was to describe how genre and context of situation, analyzed as field, tenor, and mode were defined in the oral exam tasks provided to the pupils. In order to achieve this aim, discourse analysis was the method chosen to analyze the different task descriptions.

Analysis

The detailed analysis of individual tasks from each school is displayed in Appendix 1. Here I will discuss the similarities and differences found across the different schools in relation to the context of situation as specified in the different tasks.

We begin with the part of field which is meant to define the topic of the oral text which the pupils are to produce. For all of the tasks the topic of the oral text is, for the most part, clear. Some of the tasks provide a more open topic than others. Consider, for example, the difference between Shakespeare's tragedies as a topic, as opposed to "Being Young" or "the USA." In the tasks presented for the Westside and the Midtown schools, pictures were used in the text in order to support the

text in relation to the intended topic – or possible topics to choose from – of the presentation. The pictures are referred to explicitly in the task from the Midtown school ("Feel free to get inspiration from the pictures above."); while previous work in class, as well as a field trip, are mentioned to help guide pupils in narrowing down the topic of the presentation. The oral task descriptions from the Eastside school were the only of the three which did not provide any pictures as a visual support for the topic of the presentation. There was, however, a picture inserted into each task description, but this picture did not have any direct relevance to the topics proposed in the task. It is also worth noting that the tasks for all schools provided pupils with a heading in bold which identified the overarching or overall topic of the oral text.

Secondly, the part of field which refers to the purpose of the oral task varied from school to school and, in some cases, from task to task at individual schools. All schools and all tasks used variations on the verb "to present"; for example, "present the topic," "make a presentation," and "prepare a presentation." In addition, the Westside school had included in the task the description: "Remember to name your sources, and be prepared to talk about them and how you have worked and cooperated at the end of your presentation." Aside from making and/or preparing a presentation, there was little else to find in terms of what the purpose of the oral text was. On examination of the assessment criteria, it became clearer that the purpose of the presentation was to provide information on the topic(s); it was moreover clearly stated that personal reflection and/or a personal opinion were necessary for the highest marks for all tasks from all schools. This information, however, was not in the task descriptions themselves.

So what possible conclusions can we draw from the analysis of the field of the oral text for the oral exam? Firstly, it is clear that the teachers writing these tasks have clearly connected them to topics taken up both in the teaching and in relation to the curricular aims for this subject. Often, they have provided pupils with clues in order to help them in recognizing the topic or possible topics of their presentations and, in one case, they have included information from past experiences in order to support the pupils. In relation to the purpose of the oral text, the purpose as defined in the tasks seems to be that of making an informative presentation. If we look, however, at the aims from the curriculum, we find that the only aim that specifically uses the word "present" is the following: "The pupil shall be able to present and discuss current events and interdisciplinary topics." As both "current events" and "interdisciplinary topics" are very wide, overarching terms, we can see that – for the most part – all of the topics fall within this range. The question that arises, however, is how wide the topics provided by the teachers actually are. For example, where the Eastside school specifies "Shakespeare's tragedies" and "Conflicts and Peace – Northern Ireland" as their topic, the Midtown school chooses "The USA – The Land of Opportunities" with then a list of possible sub-topics, whereas the Westside school presents the pupil with the topic "War" and leaves it to the pupil to "Prepare a presentation on one or more aspects of this subject." What seems to come to light here is the differing demands on the pupils for determining the final topic of the presentation. It is important to note, however, that in the example with war as the theme, the teacher has tried to provide background clues in the text by referring them to previous work in class for the previous year. The following line is

also present in two of six tasks from the Westside school: "You are free to angle your presentation any way you want." It is a bit confusing what this actually means. Is this referring to determining the purpose of the presentation; for example, is the pupil to inform, to describe, to explain, to argue, to persuade, etc., or is this a statement referring to how the pupil will/should/could design the presentation ("angle it") to fit an audience or listener that the pupil has defined him/herself?

In terms of the mode or the type or form of the oral text, the Westside school defines it in the following way: "You can present your work in different ways using ICT, overhead, role play or music." Then there is a line included in all task descriptions which reads: "Still, don't forget that content is much more important than glitz." There are clues given that suggest that the intended oral text is meant to take the form of an informative presentation. The assessment criteria identify the need for an introduction, conclusion and a clear connection between the Power Point presentation and the oral presentation. However, from the task description, there is the suggestion of: 1) different tools and/or mediums of communication that can be used, i.e. ICT overhead, and/or music and – interestingly enough – 2) a different form of oral text which is not that of an informative oral presentation, i.e. a role-play.

Finally, in terms of the tenor or the relationship between the producer of a text and its recipient, the oral exam tasks were examined for a description or reference to who the intended audience or recipient of the text was meant to be. Here the results were conclusive. In the eleven oral exam tasks, there was no explicit reference to who the audience of the task was intended to be. In the task from the Midtown school, however, some contextual information was given in relation to the different roles the pupils could take. For example, the task description says: "You may present it as historian, a lecturer, a journalist, a guide, a TV reporter, etc." This was the closest that any of the oral exam tasks came to identifying the role of either the speaker or the recipient. It is interesting to see that the teacher writing this task has provided some contextual information to the pupils on their own role in the oral text, and through this information, it is then possible to determine to some degree if they have produced language which is appropriate for this particular role. What is still unclear, however, is the audience for this pupil-in-role. For example, is the *historian* presenting to *students*, *other historians/scholars*, at a press conference to *journalists*, etc.? This information, as far as I can ascertain, is meant to be determined by the pupil, either on their own or in collaboration with the teacher in the 48-hour preparation time. In terms of the analysis of the description of the context of situation, the analysis yielded the following conclusions:

The topics (field) included were quite wide and overarching in two of the three schools, namely the Midtown and the Westside schools. In terms of the Eastside school, however, the topics of the oral tasks were much more clearly defined – in some instances, defined to the extent of references to specific stories or texts.

The purpose (field) of the oral texts seems to be overwhelmingly that of delivering an oral text as a presentation or "to present" information and, perhaps, a reflection or opinion to an undefined audience.

The form of the oral text (mode), as reflected in the assessment criteria, seems to be that of an informative presentation. In many cases, however, there is variation

from specifying that the pupils are to produce an informative presentation or, for example, to perform a role-play (and then, further, what is the purpose of the role--play?). This lack of clarity is clearly shown in the oral exam task from the Midtown school where the task description states "Make clear how you choose to present it."

Finally, the audience of the text (which determines the tenor), as mentioned above is not explicitly defined in any of the oral exam tasks submitted. The audience, therefore, seems to consist of the two participants who are actually in attendance at the oral exam, namely, the teacher and the external examiner.

Discussion

Based on these finding, I would like to refer back to the aim of this study posed at the beginning of this article: To what degree are genre and the context of situation defined in the exam tasks? Based on the analysis of this small sample, the first general conclusion that could be drawn is that the exam tasks reflect a quite broad selection of topics for the oral text and that some teachers provide supporting visual clues meant to guide the pupils to possible subtopics, while others give their pupils a clear and more precise topic from the very start. Secondly, the purpose of the oral tasks seem to be "to present," and this can be found in every one of the tasks submitted. What is unclear in the different tasks, however, is what they are meant to present in the oral text. In other words, are the pupils in the process of presenting meant *to inform, to describe, to compare, to explain, to argue, to persuade,* etc.? In the assessment criteria for all of these tasks, pupils are to present their knowledge and to reflect and/or present an opinion or personal evaluation of the topic to achieve the highest mark, though neither of these are written explicitly in the tasks. Finally, it is noteworthy that the audience or the intended recipient of the oral text is not identified in any of the oral exam tasks submitted. If we refer back to the general aims for the subject of English in the Norwegian national curriculum, we find the following quote which was generally referred to in the beginning of this article:

> To succeed in a world where English is used for international interpersonal communi-cation, it is necessary to master the English language. Thus we need to […] listen, speak, read and write, and to adapt our language to an ever increasing number of topics, areas of interest and communication situations. We must be able to distinguish between […] informal and formal styles. Moreover, when using the language in communication, we must also be able to take cultural norms and conventions into consideration. (LK06)

It is interesting, therefore, to consider how well these oral exam tasks potentially illicit the functional use of oral English in communicative situations. Using a functional approach, language is meant "to do" for the person using it – and it is meant to do for a reason or a purpose and for a recipient or audience, in other words: in a communicative setting. What is perhaps worth taking away from this study is the degree to which the communicative settings, as reflected in the tasks submitted, reflect, thus far, a quite limited and school-centered context of situation.

Conclusions

As educators, it is always important to critically reflect on and question our own practices in relation to the purpose and competency demands of the subject in a real-life context. In this light, we must ask if the oral tasks submitted reflect the intermediate stage of development of discourse competence in relation to: 1) international interpersonal communication, and 2) adapting language (discourse) to communicative contexts, including formal/informal styles and the cultural norms related to defined audiences. As Celce-Murcia and Olshtain propose, developing pupils' communicative competence requires – at its very core – the development of pupils' discourse competence. From what is reflected in these tasks, there is quite a lot of inconsistency in relation to the top-down and/or bottom-up processing demands of discourse production as it is not entirely clear what the communicative situation is. This can be especially difficult for pupils who may not share an implicit understanding of what the context of the situation is or what the demands upon them are. The question can also be raised about the degree to which these oral exam tasks reflect overall pupil work with oral English in 8th to 10th grade. This reflects the need for further research into this area into: 1) what type of oral texts are pupils creating in lower secondary school, 2) how do these texts reflect the overall aims and/or the specific aims for this subject in the English curriculum, 3) how does the development of oral skills in English reflect a connection to the development of oral skills as a basic skill in other subjects in Norwegian schools. All of these questions are outside of the scope of this study, but all reflect a need for further research into this area.

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Ocena sprawności mówienia w norweskim gimnazjum – bliższe spojrzenie na gatunek i sytuację

Streszczenie

W Norwegii egzaminy ze sprawności mówienia są przeprowadzane samodzielnie przez szkoły. To powoduje, że nauczyciele sami muszą przygotować zadania egzaminacyjne oraz kryteria oceny. Chociaż narodowy program nauczania wskazuje na wiele celów związanych ze sprawnością mówienia, artykuł ten skupia się na jednym z nich: „uczniowie powinni być w stanie dostosować swój język mówiony i pisany do płci i sytuacji".

W oparciu o system sformułowany przez Halliday'a (1994), lokalne egzaminy ze sprawności mówienia oraz kryteria ich oceny zostały przeanalizowane pod kątem stopnia, w jakim odnoszą się do wspomnianego wyżej celu, w oparciu o podstawowe aspekty dynamicznej teorii językowej (Larsen-Freeman and Cameron 2008), oraz definicję płci sformułowaną przez Bahtia (2004). Materiały badawcze pochodzą z egzaminów przeprowadzonych w rejonie Oslo w latach 2009 i 2010.

Wyniki wskazują na szeroki zakres tematyki, częste użycie słowa 'present' bez wskazania celowości jego użycia, oraz brak jednoznacznie zdefiniowanego odbiorcy wypowiedzi.

Appendix

Eastside school	TASK 1	TASK 2	TASK 3
Part A – Presentation of a known topic			
Field – Topic	Shakespeare's tragedies	Conflicts and Peace – Northern Ireland	Racism and segregation
Field – Purpose	"present the topic in any way you find appropriate" / "present your sources and tell how you used/worked with them"	"present the topic in any way you find appropriate" / "present your sources and tell how you used/worked with them"	"present the topic in any way you find appropriate" / "present your sources and tell how you used/worked with them"
Mode – Form	"in any way you find appropriate"	"in any way you find appropriate"	"in any way you find appropriate"
Tenor – Audience	Not defined	Not defined	Not defined
Part B – Individual conversation			
Field – Topic	*Blackadder meets William Shakespeare –* "Blackadder: Back and Forth," scene 6 / OR / The novel you have read this year / OR / Present the career of your dreams	*The Sniper* / OR / The novel you have read this year / OR / Present the career of your dreams	*The Boy who Painted Christ Black* / OR / The novel you have read this year / OR / Present the career of your dreams
Field – Purpose	Prepare a presentation	Prepare a presentation	Prepare a presentation
Mode – Form	?? (Subheading is *Individual Conversation*, but asks for a presentation)	(same)	(same)
Tenor – Audience	Not defined	Not defined	Not defined

Midtown school	TASK 1
Field – Topic	The USA – The Land of Opportunities (feel free to get inspiration from the pictures above) Keywords: Immigration – Ellis Island The Civil War/slavery Segregation/Martin Luther King Jr. Different states/stopovers/stories The American Dream Famous Americans Music, film, TV, literature, etc. Pictures: Statue of Liberty, Ellis Island, Barack Obama, Martin Luther King, Jr., Plains settlers, Dutch settlers, the KKK, Route 66 sign, picture in relation to Death Row in Texas, a map of the USA, a Coca-Cola ad, the Hollywood sign, American flag, picture of a Japanese interned during WW2, picture of a Northern soldier facing a Confederate soldier, Marilyn Monroe, John F. Kennedy
Field – Purpose	Make a presentation on the given topic using some of the keywords below
Mode – Form	Make clear how you choose to present it
Tenor – Audience	Partially defined, but unclear Contextual clues: (student in role) You may present it as a historian, a lecturer, a journalist, a guide, a TV reporter, etc.

Westside school	TASK 1	TASK 2	TASK 3
Field – Topic	Film/Theatre/Music (integrates all three, or choose whatever focus you want within one or two of the topics) Picutres: Red Hot Chili Peppers, Bridget Jones Diary, drama performance	War (read texts, watched documentaries, visited concentration camps in Poland and Germany) (on one or more aspects of this subject) Pictures: concentration camp entrance, Mi Lai in Vietnam	War (read texts, watched documentaries, visited concentration camps in Poland and Germany) The theme of war Pictures: concentration camp entrance, World Trade Center, buildings on fire
Field – Purpose	Prepare a presentation Remember to name your sources, and be prepared to talk a bit about them and how you have worked and cooperated at the end of your presentation	Prepare a presentation Remember to name your sources, and be prepared to talk a bit about them and how you have worked and cooperated at the end of your presentation	Prepare a presentation Remember to name your sources, and be prepared to talk a bit about them and how you have worked and cooperated at the end of your presentation
Mode – Form	You can present your work in different ways using ICT, overhead, role play or music	(same)	(same)
Tenor – Audience	Not defined	Not defined	Not defined

	TASK 4	TASK 5	TASK 6
Field – Topic	USA The themes which you believe represent "The American Way of Life" in a typical way (You have read a few texts about the United States of America this year, and you have watched documentaries and films showing different aspects of USA) Remember to name your sources, and be prepared to talk a bit about them and how you have worked and cooperated at the end of your presentation Pictures: Barack Obama, a skyscraper, baseball	Being young The theme of "Being Young" (We have read texts and watched documentaries this year which in different ways focus on growing up and being a teenager) Pictures: from *Home Alone*, a teenager sitting at a computer, two teenage girls talking to one another	English speaking countries (The presentation) should contain **one or more** of the following aspects: – Culture – History – Geography Pictures: David Cameron, The Beatles, aborigines, U2, a man playing bagpipies, Doris Lessing
Field – Purpose	Prepare a presentation	Prepare a presentation You are free to angle your presentation any way you want	Prepare a presentation You are free to angle your presentation any way you want
Mode – Form	You can present your work in different ways using ICT, overhead, role-play or music Still, don't forget that content is much more important than glitz	You can present your work in different ways using ICT, overhead, role-play or music Still, don't forget that content is much more important than glitz	You can present your work in different ways using ICT, overhead, role-play or music Still, don't forget that content is much more important than glitz
Tenor – Audience	Not defined	You are free to angle your presentation in any way you want Not defined	You are free to angle your presentation any way you want Not defined

Diana Liepa

CRITERIA OF INTEGRATED FOREIGN LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Changes in higher education in Latvia and on a world scale are inextricably related to the national and social development on the whole. Education system and the processes involved exert a crucial influence on the developmental processes of the state. Improvements in higher education must go hand in hand with the development of the whole society. A deliberate, coherent educational policy fosters the increase of the level of employment and productivity of labour. The current situation testifies that after having graduated from higher educational institutions graduates have not always been adequately trained in compliance with the needs of the labour market. It is absolutely essential that study programmes pursuant to the interests of the society and the needs of the country are implemented in higher education in Latvia. Tendencies in the labour market are indicative of the fact that foreign language mastery and its professional use are indispensable, which manifests itself in different levels of particular language skills (listening, reading, taking part in conversations, monologue, and writing).

After having done the analysis of ideas propounded by different scholars on the acquisition of language skills, certain provisions emerge which are essential for language acquisition.

Scholars associate language acquisition with the term "language skill" and distinguish between four basic skills. Basic receptive and productive skills manifest themselves either orally or in writing. Acquisition of basic skills cannot be identified with the results of formal linguistic tests, but should be viewed in a wider social context. The basic skills do not exist in a standardized form, instead their acquisition is individual and diverse. For example, the language learner's ability to communicate, write or read in a particular foreign language may differ. The student who performs well in accuracy tests may perform worse in listening comprehension tests or may have poor speaking skills. In research papers the term "general language skill" is dealt with which is linked with the concept of two basic types of language skills – colloquial skill and academic language skill. It is the academic style which is commonly assessed in tests and should be differentiated from relatively superficial colloquial style. Colloquial skill can be acquired fairly quickly and is sufficient for communication in the street and shop, while academic

style takes 5–7 years to be mastered (Beikers 2002: 19). In language acquisition it is not only the language structure (lexis, grammar) that is essential; it is also the knowledge about communication that matters. For instance, language learners having limited language skills may be good communicators in diverse situations, while students endowed with good language skills may fail to communicate in real--life situations.

> "There exists difference between a language skill and its usage." (Beikers 2002: 16)
> "Competence – represents difference between knowledge in a language (or a subject) and our abilities to use it and, among others, pass it on." (Alijevs, Kaže 2001: 13)
> "Language competence cannot be detected directly, but by observing the language learner participating in activities, consequently, by stating how language is used pursuant to thinking and understanding." (Alijevs, Kaže 2001: 17)

Language usage has to be treated jointly with interlocutors of definite communicative situations, environment, it is dependent upon the place and time. Language usage embraces active language production and perception, it is determined by language usage targets, interlocutors and domains which, in their turn, presuppose differences of diverse study courses and individual needs of language learners. The prior experience testifies that language usage has not sufficiently been dealt with in language classes.

Language acquisition is a process wherein are humans bestowed with the ability to perceive, comprehend and use a language. Language is acquired naturally in a situation of free communication. Language is a means of information retrieval and communication.

In the study process language acquisition is a purposeful activity predetermined by the needs of the language use. As a result of their activity the students gain competences, ability to use a foreign language in diverse situations, attitudes, values.

Language learning is a process whereby students inherit socially accumulated experience, obtain knowledge, skills, attitudes, enrich their own experience by acting independently and reliably.

Language use and learning is a joint process.

The contents is claimed to predetermine the organization of the study process (the choice of the goal, tasks, forms, techniques and testing results). Foreign language study contents corresponds to foreign language acquisition needs which, in their turn, are determined by the ultimate goal**:** acquisition of language and professional competences (a set of knowledge, skills, attitudes, experiences, awareness and values) which would provide for competent use of a foreign language in communication, life-long learning, interplay of cultures in modern society, in professional activity and other real-life situations.

The attitude towards a student as an active subject of the study process lays the basis for the organization of the foreign language acquisition process and content selection. Each student's needs, ambitions, language proficiency level, interests and experience differ. Being aware of students' current learning and life experience contributes to the identification of their needs, objectives, the choice of relevant and

significant contents. The evaluation activity (both self-appraisal and that of others) is of paramount importance which enables one to compare one's own performance.

Language learning occurs being integrated with its usage in different real-life situations and embraces activities which being performed develop diverse language and professional competences and contribute to gaining experience. In foreign language acquisition process positive attitude to foreign language acquisition and future profession is being adopted, new values occur, the student's personality grows.

Language learning, acquisition and usage entails activities when humans are engaged in them as individual and social beings achieve diverse competences.

> Competence is an individual combination of abilities and experience based on the opportunities of gaining experience. In terms of a process it is progressing continuously, since the development of abilities is a lifelong process, experience is being enriched, and new opportunities of getting experience keep arising. Competence as a result manifests itself in the level of the quality of an activity in a particular situation. (Tiļļa 2005: 39)

In the foreign language study process the most significant language competences have to be mastered: communicative competence, intercultural competence and professional activity competence, foreign language content learning and usage competence.

The conceptual definition of the foreign language contents comprises the concept of competence, which was devised in the workshop of Flemish Community in 2001 and defined within the framework of OECD DeSe Co project.

Competence:
• integrates knowledge, awareness, skills and attitudes;
• may develop in diverse situations: formal, informal, deliberate, unintentional;
• facilitates reaching a solution in diverse situations;
• presents itself as an indispensable prerequisite for productive performance in diverse real-life situations.

(*Definition and selection of competencies: theoretical and conceptual foundation DeSeCo, country report for Flemish Community of Belgium,* OECD, 2001).

In conformity with the current global developmental tendencies the notion of competence is complemented by a novel behavioural aspect which suggests the necessity of creative activity. Apart from skills and qualifications as major constituent parts of the concept of competence, the notion of a competent person is being viewed from a new perspective. Competence can be detected and evaluated only when being engaged in some kind of activity, in reaching creative solutions in diverse situations which , in its turn, is based on self-experience.

• Competence has to be referred to the subject. It is related to achieving aims which are significant for an individual.
• Competence has to be viewed from a perspective of the interplay between the personal and the impartial aspect.

Wider significance keeps being attached to the study process the ultimate goal of which are competences that testify to students' abilities to successfully perform in diverse situations.

The foreign language study contents of adult education is closely linked with the most significant language competencies: communicative language competence, intercultural competence and professional activity competence.

The unity of foreign language content learning and usage competence represents knowledge and skills enabling one to perceive the informative contents in a foreign language and on the basis of the aforesaid develop one's own system of attitudes and values. Applying one's abilities, skills, knowledge one can achieve the anticipated goals and results, tackle problems, seek for new alternatives, collaborate with other people, listen, talk, write, establish healthy interpersonal relationships, and perform efficiently in diverse real-life situations.

The foreign language content acquisition and the development of the unity of content learning and usage competence, are implemented by integrating the components of the target language and a different study course, theme, problem or a contentious issue (objectives, tasks, contents, methodology, choice of teaching aids, assessment, self-appraisal) aimed at their functioning as a whole to foster the development of a free, creative, proactive, virtuous personality.

> The qualification of higher education in the majority of European countries is still judged by entrance regulations, the length and the contents of the study programme. Information of this kind does not supply either national or foreign employers, either students themselves or the society on the whole with adequate insight into the qualification obtained, since it does not provide them with the information about study results, skills and competences. Lately several countries involved in the Bologne process have devised introductory structures of a new type of qualifications wherein are qualifications described reflecting the study results – the obtained knowledge, skills and competences. (Rauhvargers 2006: 28)

Consequently, in foreign language studies evaluation criteria, indicators and levels of integrated foreign language acquisition, learning and professional usage skills should be applied (see table 1). The sequence of establishing criteria, indicators and levels is shown in the model (see picture 1).
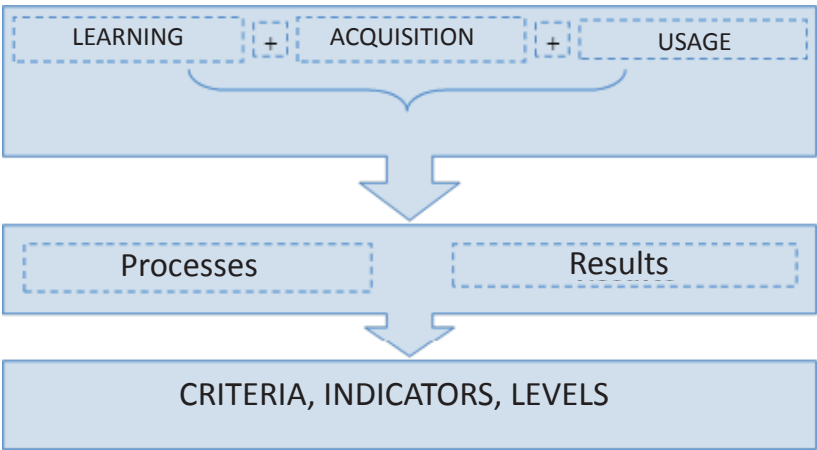
Picture 1. Criterion, indicator and level design model

Table 1. Assessment criteria, levels and indicators of students' foreign language skill acquisition, learning and professional usage integration

Criteria	A level	B level	C level
1. Foreign language content learning and usage competence	1.1. Ability to perceive and comprehend the subject matter in a foreign language with the help of a dictionary about: • oneself, • family, • dwelling, • employment place. 1.2. Ability to use a foreign language with the help of a dictionary in: • real-life situations, • conversations in presence, • over the phone. 1.3. Ability to write following a pattern: • letters, • notes, • presentations, • reports on professional issues, • filling out forms.	1.1. Ability to perceive and comprehend well the subject matter in a foreign language (sometimes with the help of a dictionary) about: • oneself, • family, • dwelling, • employment place. 1.2. Ability to use a foreign language well (sometimes using a dictionary) in: • real-life situations, • conversations in presence, • over the phone. 1.3. Ability to write partly following a pattern: • letters, • notes, • presentations, • reports on professional issues, • filling out forms.	1.1. Ability to perceive and comprehend the subject matter in a foreign language without the help of a dictionary about: • oneself, • family, • dwelling, • employment place. 1.2. • Ability to use a foreign language (without the help of a dictionary) in: • real-life situations, • conversations in presence, • over the phone. 1.3. Ability to write creatively: • letters, • notes, • presentations, • reports on professional issues, • filling out forms.

2. Intercultural foreign language competence	2.1. Be partly aware of the subject matter of diverse cultures. 2.2. Ability to use a foreign language in real-life situations using a dictionary: • in conversations in presence, • over the phone. Ability to dwell on diverse culture issues following a pattern. 2.3. Ability to write following a pattern: • letters, • notes, • presentations, • reports, • fill out forms.	2.1. Be well aware of the subject matter of diverse cultures. 2.2. Ability to use a foreign language well (sometimes using a dictionary) in real-life situations): • in conversations in presence, • over the phone. Ability to dwell on diverse culture issues partly following a pattern. 2.3. Ability to write partly following a pattern: • letters, • notes, • presentations, • reports, • fill out forms.	2.1. Be perfectly aware of the subject matter of diverse cultures. 2.2. Ability to use a foreign language in real-life situations (without the help of a dictionary): • in conversations in presence, • over the phone. Ability to dwell on diverse culture issues creatively. 2.3. Ability to write creatively: • letters, • notes, • presentations, • reports, • fill out forms.
3. Professional activity competence	3.1. Be able to partly comprehend the subject matter on the profession. 3.2. Have difficulty in holding a dialogue on professional issues. Be able to construct a narrative out of professional issues following a pattern. 3.3. Be able to write following a pattern: • presentations, • reports on professional issues.	3.1. Be able to comprehend well the subject matter on the profession. 3.2. Be well able to hold a dialogue on professional issues. Be able to construct a narrative out of professional issues partly following a pattern. 3.3 Be able to write partly following a pattern: • presentations, • reports on professional issues.	3.1. Be able to fully comprehend the subject matter on the profession. 3.2. Be perfectly able to hold a dialogue on professional issues. Be able to creatively construct a narrative on professional issues. 3.3. Be able to write creatively: • presentations, • reports on professional issues.

4. Communicative foreign language competence			
	4.1. Face difficulty in using a foreign language in dialogical information retrieval.	4.1. Be able to use a foreign language without any difficulty in dialogical information retrieval.	4.1. Be able to use a foreign language fluently and creatively in dialogical information retrieval.
	4.2. Face difficulty in using a foreign language in dialogical information exchange.	4.2. Be able to use a foreign language without any difficulty in dialogical information exchange.	4.2. Be able to use a foreign language fluently and creatively in dialogical information exchange.
	4.3. Face difficulty in using a foreign language in communication culture.	4.3. Be able to use a foreign language without any difficulty in communication culture.	4.3. Be able to use a foreign language fluently and creatively in communication culture.

Exploration of students' real L2 needs, lecturers' as well as learners' own assessment was carried out based on integrated assessment criteria, levels and markers which reveal learners' L2 acquisition skills, their ways of learning and their professional use of L2. The assessment was performed while analysing the results within learners' study process as well as diverse assignments during the first 2 sessions (see picture 2).

Using statistical methods the results were analyzed on the basis of the examination of the interplay of data by means of the quantitative statistical program SPSS 17,0 (statistical package for Social Sciences).

The assessment results show that L2 content acquisition and its usage competences differed as regards different markers related to certain levels as markers of each level imply perception and comprehension as well as its usage. 137 learners of B-level can perceive and comprehend the L2 content about the family, home, its location and work; 72 A-level students can do it with the help of a dictionary and 3 learners can do it without using a dictionary.

152 A-level learners can use L2 in real life situations as well as on the phone using a dictionary, 58 B-level learners can occasionally use L2 with a dictionary; 2 learners can do it without a dictionary. 168 A-level learners can write a letter, memos, presentations and notes as well as fill-in forms regarding professional issues using samples and patterns; 40 B-level learners can partly do it using a sample whereas 2 learners can do it creatively.

The results of the data analysis show that the majority of L2 learners can understand the foreign language better than use it in real life situations. Receptive skills are mastered faster than productive skills.

Also, levels of L2 intercultural competencies and their acquisition differ as regards diverse markers. 126 B-level learners are aware of intercultural content; 84 A-level learners are partly aware of the content whereas 2 students are well aware of it. 151 A-level learners can use L2 in real life situations (conversations), on the phone with the help of a dictionary, 58 learners occasionally use a dictionary whereas 2 learners can use L2 without a dictionary. 170 learners can write letters, memos, presentations, notes, fill-in forms using samples and patterns, 36 learners can partly do it using samples but 2 students can do the assignments creatively. Assessing L2 professional competencies the learners partly comprehend the content related to their professional field; 108 learners have obtained high comprehension level but 1 student comprehends the content perfectly.

174 learners conduct a dialogue associated with their professional issues with difficulties and can talk about the mentioned issues using a sample or a pattern. 37 learners can make appropriate dialogues on professional issues very well. 175 learners can write presentations as well as notes on professional issues following a sample or a pattern. 37 learners can partly carry out the above mentioned assignments, i.e. write the necessary documents and fill in forms.

119 learners use dialogues in L2 with great difficulties to obtain the necessary information; 91 learners use it without any difficulties but 2 learners can use the foreign language fluently as well as creatively in the process of info interchange; 153 learners use dialogues with great difficulties to exchange and obtain the necessary information; 56 learners use it without any difficulties, 2 learners can use the

foreign language fluently and creatively in dialogues. Within the process of cultural interchange 165 learners use it with certain difficulties; 44 learners use it without any difficulties; 2 learners can talk fluently and creatively (see picture 2).

The acquired results show that learners feel safer and talk freely on previously mastered themes as well as well-known situations. Moreover, they are eager to participate in discussions. The majority of students experience difficulties in using L2 in various real-life situations. They lack experience of L2 usage on a daily basis. It explains the language difficulties in unexpected situations.

If the assessment results at the beginning of the study course and the final period of the study course are compared, it can be concluded that all competencies have been developed. Most difficulties do not occur within the learning and teaching process but in real life situations, i.e. intercourse with exchange students, lecturers and representatives of related professions should be promoted on a larger scale. Insufficient writing skills are due to the limited number of L2 sessions that are planned for the acquisition of a foreign language (see picture 3).
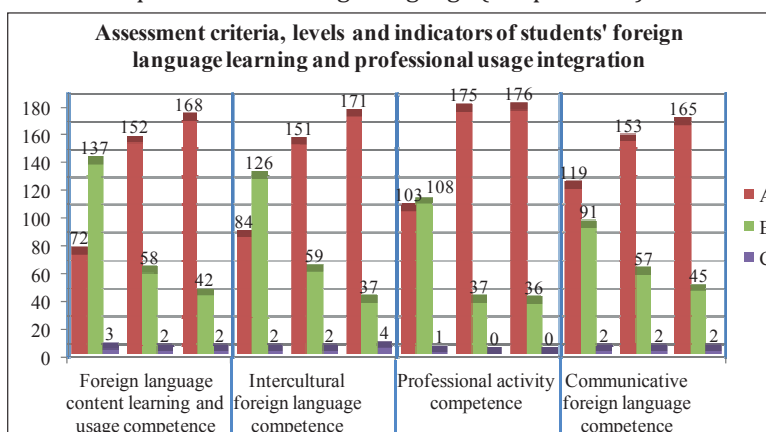
Picture 2. Assessment criteria, levels and indicators of students' foreign language learning and professional usage integration at the beginning of the study course
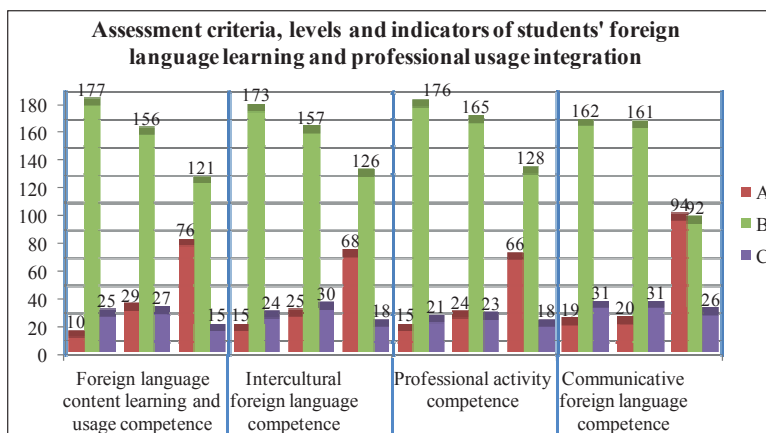
Picture 3. Assessment criteria, levels and indicators of students' foreign language learning and professional usage integration at the end of the study course

Conclusions

- Language acquisition occurs integratively. An integrated approach is adopted to the study process where the acquisition of the language system, thematic contents, communicative skills, cultural and linguistic knowledge is incorporated.
- Integration of foreign language acquisition components contributes to students' acquiring knowledge and skills intended to provide the accomplishment of the anticipated objectives and results, establishment of positive relationship, proactive and productive performance in diverse real-life situations.
- There is a difference between a language skill and its usage. Language use should be treated in connection with interlocutors of particular communicative situations and the changing environment dependent upon place and time.
- The result of language learners' performance is the bestowal of competences, ability to use a foreign language in diverse situations, attitudes and values upon each student.
- The development of foreign language competences occurs while integrating components of the target language and those of another study course or courses, subject, problem or a particular issue.
- To improve the foreign language study process, a new, integrated foreign language study conception is indispensable.
- In foreign language studies integrated assessment criteria, indicators and levels of students' foreign language skill acquisition, learning and professional usage are usable.

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Kryteria zintegrowanego przyswajania języka obcego

Streszczenie

Niedawno pojawiło się nowe podejście do integracji w przyswajaniu języków obcych. Teoria procesów integracyjnych proponuje cztery różne wymiary: procesy indywidualne, procesy interakcyjne, procesy instytucjonalne oraz procesy społeczne.
Nowe podejście do integracji wzajemnie łączy procesy indywidualne, instytucjonalne oraz społeczne. Następujące komponenty zostają zintegrowane w procesie przyswajania języka: uczenie się, treść, stosowanie w praktyce, doświadczenie oraz czynniki je wywołujące: potrzeby, wartości i cele. W ten sposób zdefiniowane zostały koncepcja zintegrowanych treści i struktur oraz kryteria oceny zintegrowanego przyswajania sprawności językowych, uczenia się oraz profesjonalnego stosowania języka.

Mona Evelyn Flognfeldt

EMERGING PRECISION IN LOWER SECONDARY STUDENT WRITING IN ENGLISH

For a number of years now, applied linguists and language educationalists have expressed a growing concern that the teaching of a *second* or *foreign* language seems to be starting from the wrong end. Instead of taking the learner's current language resources as their point of departure, grammarians advise English instructors to organise their grammar syllabus as add-on or parallel units rather than integrating the teaching of structure or form opportunistically along with communicative or message-oriented tasks in the classroom (Ellis 2002). Ellis deplores the fact that a thematically or task-based syllabus might not provide "full and systematic coverage of the grammar of the L2" (Ellis 2002: 21). Acknowledging a language learner's need to focus on form as well as meaning, the author proposes a model including remedial grammar units that target various "errors." His is an analytic (deficit) grammar syllabus; language forms seem to be disembodied bits and pieces out there that need to be put together at some point, in compliance with target language norms. The "correct" grammatical structure is to be *acquired* once and for all.

In opposition to this view, what seems more in line with current language and learning theory is an *emergent* view of language proficiency, one that takes *variability* as a natural feature of any human process. Language learning is not a linear process; learners continuously progress and regress, their so-called "inter--language" restructuring in the process.[1] There simply cannot be a final stage in this development if language users are themselves dynamic systems that keep adapting to the context in which they operate. In our study of writing in English, a growing command of the L2 or L3 in question is seen to emerge as language learners and language users try to assemble their language resources to make meaning in a given literacy event, i.e. on a given occasion of purposeful writing (and/or reading).

According to Norwegian curricular aims for lower secondary education, after 10th year of education students are supposed to be able to produce oral and written texts with "some precision, fluency and coherence" (Knowledge Promotion, 2006: English Subject Curriculum). The national guidelines do not, however, specify what does *precision* mean. It seems natural to subsume features of both lexical and

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[1] As a matter of interest, the term "inter-language" itself may be somewhat problematic if the final state of near native-like acquisition is no longer a tenable model.

grammatical structure. Precision may be taken to imply an appropriate degree of *specificity*. For example, instead of using general, simple high-frequency verbs only, students are expected to be more explicit in their descriptions of events, actions, opinions, etc. We also expect precise language to include more descriptive or referential detail, in the form of an increasing number of pre- and post-modifiers in noun phrases, for instance. With an increased focus in Norway on challenges in connection with transitions form one major phase of basic education to another, greater precision is indeed called for when students are preparing for upper secondary education and beyond.

There are a number of studies in the literature that address language proficiency development in various ESL/EFL contexts around the world in terms of *accuracy, fluency,* and *complexity* (Skehan 2009, Birjandi 2008, Larsen-Freeman 2006, Yau and Belanger 1984). Many of these studies are devoted to quantitative studies of the effect on language performance by *task iteration*. In this study, we shall be concentrating on two subsystems of precision, namely *lexical* and *grammatical complexity*. Since the current project is only in its infancy, our aim is first and foremost to analyse the initial conditions from which any development or emergence can be recognised. Insights from this kind of analysis will inform future pedagogical decisions.

Case study: one literacy event in a Year 9 multilingual urban class

The data on which the present study is based are texts written by students in their second year of secondary education. The learners are 14–15 years old and participants in a multilingual urban class environment. For their exam at the end of the first half of Year 9, the students had to write texts in response to three different tasks, the second of which is rendered here, as a choice between two, given locally by their class teacher:

> – 2a. Many inventions we use in our everyday life have first been created for use in space. Which inventions in your everyday life could you not "live" without? Write two paragraphs.
> – 2b. Being a space tourist costs approximately 20 million dollars. It is a fact that a lot of money is spent by the American government on space research and space travels. Do you think it is worth it? Write two paragraphs where you explain your views.

As will be clear from this instruction, the students were told to write only two paragraphs. Most of them chose the first task (16 students out of 22). The topic of space tourism had been addressed in lessons in connection with a unit in their textbook. Our motivation for selecting these particular tasks for diagnostic study was that since a personal response was called for, students were likely to feel engaged and motivated, despite the potentially dampening effect of having to hand in their text as part of a timed examination. In the first task, the students are asked to identify something that is close to their hearts or essential for their wellbeing. The second option calls for an explanation of their views. The first one does not require a justification, but most texts in the data do in fact include arguments in support of their choice of object(s). An interesting effect is that quite a few students depart from the specific focus in the instruction to describe material inventions in their

everyday lives that they cannot live without; some students' lists feature mums, dads, family and friends:

(1) I can't live without my family because them is everything for me (L22: 1)[2]

What our analysis brings out quite clearly is that in this class of 22 individuals, there is considerable variation in lexical and grammatical complexity as far as numerical measures are concerned. This result is hardly surprising; research into Norwegian classrooms has revealed a huge spread of abilities in individual classrooms. Figure 1 below depicts the vocabulary range in particular classroom as it applies to one short text as part of one literacy event. It is important to keep this point in mind; we are not in a position yet to *describe* "emergent precision" in these students' writing. Rather, our main ambition at this stage is primarily to get as clear a picture as possible of the initial conditions of the different learner systems in our case-study population.
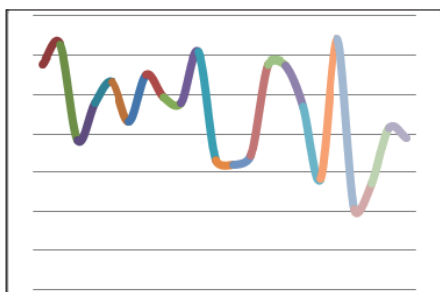
Figure 1. Lexical complexity across the class
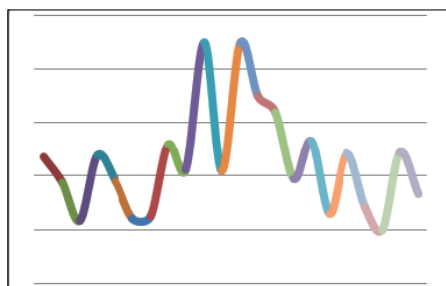
Figure 2. Grammatical complexity across the class

We have adopted a sophisticated way of calculating vocabulary complexity copied from Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008: 143–144), invented to avoid the problem of considerable variation in sentence length both within and across texts. The index for lexical complexity has been worked out as the ratio of number of word types (rather than tokens) and the square root of two times the total number of words in a given text. On the basis of this calculation, vocabulary complexity varies from 1.03 as the lowest and 3.21 as the highest measure in these texts. In absolute figures, the student with the lowest vocabulary range uses 12 different lexical (content) words per 68 words; the highest range measures 64 lexical word types out of a total of 199 words.

According to Larsen-Freeman, measures like *fluency* (average number of words per t-unit) *lexical complexity* (as defined above), *grammatical complexity* (average number of dependent clauses per t-unit) and *accuracy* (the proportion of t-units without errors to number of t-units) are "best measures of second language development in writing" (2008: 144). The key word here is "development"; the truly interesting part will be to compare individual scores at various future intervals to try to chart progress. However, given our view of learning as a non-linear and unpredictable process, new counts will only be indicative of possible development.

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[2] "L22: 1" refers to line 1 in the text written by (anonymous) learner number 22.

At any point, a given student might use fewer resources than before rather than more. A more qualitative analysis of the lexical tools that are being exploited in students' texts is called for and will be more informative for the teacher's preparation of affordance-rich tasks for learners.

It is interesting to report one qualitative discovery, which materialised as a side-effect during a quick scan to check for students' possible used of topic-relevant verbs depicting likes and preferences. What sprang to mind was that in their texts only very few students used verbs at all that consist of more than one syllable. These texts abound in verbs like *live, love, need, like, take, have, know, think, see, use, pay, say, fly, cost, make, watch, send, chat*, etc. Of course, we also find odd verbs like *finish, travel, relax*, etc. in some texts, but on the whole, the lexical store across the texts studied consists predominantly of simple (Germanic) one-syllable high--frequency verbs. This observation seems directly relevant to the development of "some precision" in student writing. Not only is *precision* a specific competence aim for the final stage of lower secondary education; students will need more complex vocabulary in order to cope with a demand for higher-order thinking in general and discussions of more abstract and cognitively demanding topics when they transfer to upper secondary education. Our professional interest in quality English-language education is coupled with a more general concern for ways of preventing students from dropping out of secondary education, with quality teaching and assessment at the lower-secondary level as a potentially preventive measure.

Grammatical complexity

The most frequently used index in the analysis of grammatical complexity in a number of studies is the ratio of t-units to the number of dependent clauses connected with each t-unit. A t-unit can be defined as a "minimal terminal unit or independent clause with whatever dependent clauses, phrases, and words are […] attached to or embedded within it" (Larsen-Freeman and Cameron 2008: 143). As figure 2 above demonstrates, two students in the class produce an average of 4,5 dependent clauses per t-unit. The least proficient writers in our data produce on average only very simple sentences.

Again, a quantitative measure of syntactical complexity is only a very crude indication of the extent to which students have moved beyond simple or compound sentence formation; once again, it is a closer look at what *kinds* of dependent clauses are used that will give us a richer view of these students' meaning-making potential. Only a few learners make use of –*ing* clauses, for example, but quite a few use adverbial clauses of reason (introduced by *because*) and even condition (*if*...), expressing circumstances around their needs for certain technological objects (or, as mentioned above, more *human* necessities like mums, dads, family and friends):

> (2) The things I could not live without are, my telephone because I do always need to call my parents or friends if I need some important or if I need to say some important. (L14: 1)

Grammatical complexity is relevant from the point of view of increased "precision" also in relation to the presence or absence of *relative clauses* in noun

phrases. In the material investigated here, as many as 9 students do not make use of relative clause post-modification at all in their texts. Of course, we cannot tell whether these students simply have decided not to specify their noun referents on this particular occasion, or whether relative clause post-modification is not yet part of their repertoire of constructions. As these young learners move on to upper secondary schools, however, more demands will be put on them; they will be required to handle increasingly more abstract topics and predications.

Complexity at the clause level is of course only one index of grammatical sophistication. It is clear from (2) above that this particular student is still working on consolidating her/his use of indefinite constructions*,* as in *need (to say) *some important.* This particular learner spells other indefinite expressions as two words: *some times* (L14: 3). The most immediate explanation for this instability, where **some thing* might have been another likely candidate in front of *important* (2), is that the student may be translating literally from Norwegian (one word *noe* [=English *something*] and two words *noen ganger* [=English *sometimes*]).

In our analysis so far, we have already made use of terms like *constructions* and *instability*. In a usage-based linguistic framework (Tomasello 2003), attempts are made to account for not just core or regular grammatical structure but also idioms, formulaic expressions like lexical chunks, mixed patterns, with invariable elements combined with slots for the insertion of various words or expressions (for instance, the *-er* construction, as in *the older you get, the wiser you become),* metaphorical extensions, etc. – all within one theoretical framework.

According to Tomasello (2003: 105), what characterises the linguistic competence of a mature speaker is that it is a "structured inventory of symbolic units," organised in the mind as a "complex, multi-dimensional network" (2003: 106). He offers the following definition of *construction*: "prototypically a unit of language that comprises multiple linguistic elements used together for a relatively coherent communicative function" (2003: 100), an example being the use of passive construction for when a role other than the doer is topicalised. Tomasello argues that the linguistic competence of L1 speakers is developed as children "construct their abstract linguistic representations out of their item-based constructions using general cognitive, socio-cognitive, and learning skills – which act on the language they hear and produce" (2003: 161).

We are, of course, interested in the implications of this general theory of language for L2 or L3 learning and teaching. If learners are to construct constructions on the basis of patterns of used language, they need to be provided with a lot of relevant text in English, both receptively and productively, from which they can abstract patterns and constructions. We know that there can be no guarantee that learners pick up exactly what their teachers or learning materials set them up to learn. According to a complexity-theory approach to language learning and teaching (Larsen-Freeman and Cameron 2008), language learners are themselves complex and dynamic systems developing as they keep interacting with the context in which they are a part, including their classroom peers. Their individual system of English[3]

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3   We sometimes prefer the abbreviation "EAL," representing "English as an Additional Language" instead of the more commonly used ESL/EFL. In the Norwegian setting, English is no longer considered a foreign language, nor is it unambiguously a *second* language. It is clear,

self-organises or goes through restructuring as the learners encounter and interact in English. In the terminology of complexity theory, emerging patterns are often referred to as "attractor states." Some of these attractor states may be less than beneficial for the learners. This is the case if the patterns constructed along the way are not in fact the same as native speakers would use. The following examples are a case in point:

(3) So the mobile phone has been so more than just <u>to</u> calling with these days (L2: 8)[4]
(4) The inventors are all the time finding new things <u>to</u> the phones that [...] (L2: 12)
(5) And soon will new and more amazing things come <u>to</u> the phones [...] (L2: 13)

This student's overuse of the preposition *to* is such an attractor state in his/her learning trajectory. The student does use *for* in constructions like *for me* and *for the whole world*. It is tempting to see the use of *to* here as a transfer from Norwegian *til*, since the two often match quite well; Norwegian is not, however, this student's L1. Still, it may be the case that L2 (here: Norwegian) patterns are extended to L3 (here: English). Again, on a complexity view of language development, systems are sensitive to initial conditions. Changes may occur, learning paths will take new directions given enough impact from outside the system, but unless such impact occurs, systems will remain stable. This is why it is so interesting to study variability and instabilities in students' texts. We get to see a system on the verge of changing. A case in point is the following sample from our Year 9 class:

(6) [...] newer times (which is the only time <u>I been</u> on this planet) there <u>is been</u> advanced technology [...] (L4: 1)

This student's system is unstable with respect to the construction of perfective aspect. The irregular verb form *been* is probably perceived as salient and becomes the main element in the first part. At the same time, the idea that the pattern requires an auxiliary has also registered. What appears, however, is a pattern with another auxiliary. This student clearly needs affordances that can push the current unstable system towards a shift that will ultimately stabilise as one construction, preferably complying with the appropriate *HAVE^{AUX} + VERB-ed* pattern.

Emerging precision in students' writing in English – where do we go from here?

It is the responsibility of teachers to manage the dynamics of learning for all those human "complex systems" in their classroom to the best of their ability. Their main challenge as teachers of English is to supply affordances in the classroom that are conducive to pattern formation in the learner. Classroom interaction and texts in English should ideally be useful tools from which to generalise and analogise. Language teachers need to intervene and facilitate their students' struggle to make

however, that for young learners to function well in Norwegian society and on the international scene, well-developed English literacy skills will stand them in good stead.

[4] Our underlining in all student sentences (3)–(6).

meaning in EAL. They must do this in an informed way, in alignment with both linguistic and learning theory.

When the basic skill of *writing* is in focus, and in our case – writing in EAL, we cannot ignore the challenges of *text* creation by concentrating too hard on lexis and grammar at the level of sentences and below, looking for mistakes and infelicities in a reactive way. More importantly, since EAL literacy is a gate-keeping competence even in Norway, problems of access for some and reduced opportunities to participate meaningfully in English also force teachers to target their students' general discourse competence, their genre awareness, and their ability to construct text in a *dialogic* perspective. Writers have to be reminded to keep their readers' best interest at heart. The problem of infelicitous and uncommunicative *reference* in texts is relevant in this respect. A number of students use pronouns and determiners that refer incorrectly, especially in terms of number, as in "Most things have electric stuff into *it" (L6: 9).

The topic of text coherence and cohesion will be one of the strands in our further work with literacy in English. More research is called for into the nature and formulation of *tasks* for the multilingual classroom. Studies have demonstrated (Hvistendahl 2009, Svendsen 2009) that many learners with minority-language backgrounds struggle with Norwegian and especially with figurative or non-literal language in various forms. This may also be the reason why a task that is formulated as a rhetorical question and meant to prompt the writing of two paragraphs of straightforward argumentative text is interpreted literally as a question and *answered*, as if it were a prototypical adjacency-pair interchange. Not only will it be of central concern for us to investigate tasks critically as a genre; it may also be worthwhile duplicating for the written medium a *task repetition* design with a view to establishing to what extent and in what way texts change when the students are past the challenge of *conceptualisation* (i.e. simply deciding what to write) (Levelt 1989). Will students attend more freely to other dimensions of text production, such as cohesion, stylistic variation, rhetorical organisation, and other dialogic qualities?

All students are likely to benefit from developing their general *language awareness*. In the multilingual classroom there should be ample affordances for awareness-raising processes. The very fact that there may be students there with L1 competence in languages other than Norwegian or English, that are typologically very different from these two languages, should be shared and exploited for all its language-awareness development potential (Flognfeldt 2010).

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Rozwój sprawności pisania w języku angielskim w gimnazjum

Streszczenie

Niniejszy artykuł przedstawia opis badań rozwoju języka na poziomie gimnazjalnym w Norwegii, w oparciu o teorię kompleksowości (Larsen-Freeman and Cameron 2008).
Jednym z celów kształcenia według programu narodowego w Norwegii na tym poziomie jest umiejętność pisania z 'pewną precyzją, płynnością i koherencją'. Artykuł przedstawia wyniki badań w przypadku tekstów napisanych przez 22 uczniów w wieku 14–15 lat. Analiza ilościowa, oparta na badaniu kompleksowości słownictwa i gramatyki, wskazuje na znaczną różnorodność w badanej klasie. Badania jakościowe pokazują zastanawiającą niestabilność leksykalną i gramatyczną.
Badanie diagnostyczne prowadzi do refleksji pedagogicznych na temat efektywności i proaktywności technik rozwijających sprawność pisania. Aby ułatwić przyswajanie użytecznych struktur języka angielskiego nauczyciele będą potrzebować zestawu technik dynamicznie powiązanych z życiem ucznia, aby zmotywować go do większej precyzji w pisaniu.

Małgorzata Smentek

DEVELOPING THE ADVANCED LEARNER'S PRODUCTIVE SKILLS

Introduction

Approaches to teaching speaking and writing, as well as other aspects of a foreign language (L2), have always been very strongly influenced by changing views on the nature of foreign language education. These changes have automatically been reflected in the objectives and content of L2 syllabuses and materials.

In traditional methods, for example, speaking meant memorisation of texts, repetition after the teacher or tape, and other drill-based activities with stress on learning pronunciation. Since the emergence of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approaches to foreign language learning have undergone a further metamorphosis. The key priority for most learners is now fluency, or more precisely, spoken fluency, which seems to have become the goal of contemporary language education. This widespread promotion of fluency, additionally reinforced by the role of English as today's, and probably tomorrow's 'global language' of the 'global world' (Crystal 2003), has led to a real abundance of tasks focusing on oral communication. Yet, while the development of productive skills, and speaking in particular, holds such a prominent place in 21st century foreign language teaching (FLT), for the advanced language learner these two skills invariably remain the most difficult ones to master. The forthcoming sections of the article attempt to identify and investigate the potential causes of the problem and examine some alternative solutions.

Fads and fashions

Naturally, the first question which needs to be addressed concerns the effectiveness of current teaching methods.

Focus on fluency

In contemporary EFL course books, which dutifully reflect prevailing communicative trends and, of course, the general language policy of the Council of Europe (CoE), fluency is practised and developed through various forms of activities based on students' interaction (in pairs or groups), and the principle of information gap. In fact, information gap, defined in terms of factual knowledge gap, has become a characteristic feature of communicative activities. "The bulk of these information-

-gap activities in a typical textbook creates the impression that the core of the social communicative activity relies on role-play, spot-the-difference activities, bridging the gap on the basis of personal forms, picture description tasks, and developing notes into full texts" (Dakowska 2003: 96–97).

This one-dimensional perception on the nature of communication leads to pseudo-authentic classroom simulations which simply cannot become effective production activities as they involve roles or situations which are often not even remotely related to students' experience, interests, knowledge and needs (lack of common ground), for which students are simply not ready, e.g. "Work in groups of four. You are on the Board of Directors of All Seasons. You are going to decide how to save the company. Before the meeting, prepare your ideas and review your notes from the consultant's report. Student A, B, C, D: go to page…" (Cotton et al. 2010: 55). Another frequent shortcoming of CLT speaking tasks is that they tend to be repetitive and tedious, e.g. "If you happened to win £100, what would you do with it? Discuss" (Wilson and Clare 2007: 66), or very mechanical: all they really ask the student to do is rearrange the elements of the information given – no intellectual effort required (e.g. writing letters of application based on the provided model).

As a result, learners become seemingly fluent, but only in the sphere of basic, linguistically and cognitively undemanding communication (Wenzel 2001). Therefore, it can be argued that tasks solely preoccupied with simulated communicative practice play a rather secondary role in terms of educational experience they provide for the advanced learner.

Focus on pair work

The whole discussion on communicative activities brings us to another characteristic feature of CLT-based programmes, namely pair work and group work. Communicative Language Teaching simply thrives on peer interaction. Throughout all the levels of ELT, group and pair work format is encouraged for all kinds of activities, the assumption being that it greatly increases the amount of time devoted to active speaking and generates more opportunities for student talk and input, i.e. communicative interaction. This, indeed, might be the case, especially at the stage of in-class brainstorming for ideas, critical discussions or planning. However, as Dakowska (2003: 103–104) points out, "peer input reaching the learner in pair and group work is not of the same quality as native or native-like input which can push the learner's development further. With limited error correction, various communicative activities may help proceduralization of incomplete knowledge and practicing incomplete strategies." It is mainly in this sense, i.e. lack of quality input and constructive feedback on error, that excessive dependence on pair and group work often turns out to be counterproductive, particularly in view of the needs and goals of the advanced learner.

Accuracy and correctness – out of focus

As we can see, CLT not only places communicative fluency on a pedestal, but also neglects many other valid aspects of foreign language learning. "The impressively fluent behaviour of the competent speaker is regarded both as a means and the end to the means" (Dakowska 2003: 105). As such, however, communicative teaching alone, while effective in developing communication skills, does not enable the

learner to achieve a high level of linguistic competence. With its unbalanced focus on fluency and processing language for meaning, the communicative school of teaching promotes and develops only top-down strategies based on context, at the expense of bottom-up strategies aiming at the decoding and encoding of the linguistic form (Ellis, Loewen and Basturkmen 2003).

Unfortunately, this kind of approach is educationally harmful. It completely disregards the fact that speaking and writing for the linguistic aims, i.e. conscious language study and practice of linguistic correctness (classification adopted from Wenzel 2001), are equally significant in foreign language education. Ironically enough, it is while developing the productive skills, and writing in particular, that accuracy and correctness of verbal expression can be thoroughly refined and culti-vated. Therefore, as Dakowska (2003: 99) concludes, "the treatment of communi-cative effectiveness as more important than accuracy goes against the grain of the quintessential nature of language as a system of signs."

Viewed from this perspective, communicative approaches, with their overemphasis on fluency and simultaneous neglect of linguistic precision and correctness, are more likely to impede than facilitate the advanced learner's progress to higher proficiency levels. From the above observations it follows that despite its numer-ous achievements in the field of foreign language didactics, "it would be a mistake to consider the contribution of Communicative Language Teaching as a final word in matters of developing foreign language skills, especially speaking, because of the narrow view of communication underlying CLT" (Dakowska 2005: 232).

It is therefore one of the aims of this paper to suggest that the development of productive skills must not be restricted to simulations of real-life communication (simulated communicative practice). Both speaking and writing should be equally effectively used as a stimulus for the expansion of students' linguistic knowledge. I am convinced that continuous development of this knowledge, rather than fluency--oriented "communicative" pair work, can aid the advanced learner in expanding his/her linguistic competence beyond the modest range of expressions and structures acquired at lower levels.

The advanced student – a fossil

It follows that further development of the linguistic aims plays an exceptionally significant role in the process of language education at the highest proficiency levels. The present section attempts to address this issue in view of the distinctive features of advanced students.

Today's advanced learners share several characteristics. First of all, they are all children of the communicative revolution. That is why it should come as no surprise that their command of L2 mirrors most of the virtues and vices of the communicative trend. Since day one of their EFL adventure these learners have followed a rigorous communicative diet, which, while simultaneously nurturing their fluency, cut out almost all accuracy. What it means in terms of their productive skills is that at the advanced level (C1 according to CEF) students are generally able to handle communication in most situations and express themselves on most topics fluently, spontaneously and coherently. They also know how to engage the reader or listener and how to construct extended stretches of discourse. Yet, although they

seem communicatively successful, their flow of speech is neither entirely natural nor correct. Conceptually difficult topics continue to hinder fluency while students struggle to recall or find the precise word, collocation, idiom needed to express some nuances or finer shades of meaning. They still tend to produce inaccuracies and inappropriacies, also in pronunciation and spelling, although these generally do not affect the clarity of the message (North 2007, University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations).

Having achieved a comfortable level of communicative fluency, it is these advanced learners in particular who find it extremely difficult to expand their active linguistic repertoire. As the grammar and vocabulary which have been automatised so far allow them to function successfully in everyday communication, they generally cease to advance any further. They basically come to a point in their L2 education when they get stuck in a phase of learning or, in other words, reach a plateau in language acquisition.

This naturally brings us to the issue of fossilisation, traditionally associated with lower proficiency levels, which turns out to be also one of the key problems of the advanced learner. Interestingly enough, fossilisation at this level predominantly affects the productive skills whereas the receptive skills generally continue to evolve. Apparently, the areas of particular concern are lexicon, register and pronunciation. The safe and conveniently available routine structures and lexis become "fixed in the mind and always ready to be used, blocking […] the use of new structures and words, which have been explained to the students, but which have been used in the more passive spheres of listening and reading" (Wenzel 2001: 98). Consequently, as Marton (1977: 36) reports, almost all advanced learners, in spite of their continual exposure to the target language, do not show any marked improvement in their linguistic development. Regardless of their seemingly impressive communication skills, they continue to rely on the language acquired at earlier stages of learning.

For the most part, they resort to compensatory and avoidance strategies, such as paraphrase, approximation, circumlocution, message reduction, semantic avoidance, etc. (Chesterman 1998). Broadly speaking, when they do not know or are not certain of the correct applications of particular words, collocations or structures, they play it safe by choosing the tried and tested semi-equivalents, preferably the ones which do not involve any risk of making a mistake and guarantee their communicative success (Rivers 1973, Marton 1974). These communication strategies enable learners to express themselves correctly yet inadequately. Nonetheless, no matter how linguistically imperfect the learner's discourse is, on the whole the output is comprehensible, and so communication is achieved (Marton 1977).

It appears, however, that although through all levels of the Common European Framework (CoE 2006) the emphasis is clearly on "getting-by" in a foreign language, the good advanced learner is no longer satisfied with conveying a message which is merely understandable. Rather, his/her objective is to be able to do it with the accuracy and fluency of a well-educated native speaker – WENS (term adopted from North 2005). To put it in other words, advanced learners expect to become bilingual and bicultural, perhaps not in an absolute sense, but to the greatest possible extent. Regrettably, in most cases their level of proficiency in terms of lexical precision, grammatical and discourse sophistication is not sufficiently developed. Although

they often reach near-native level in receptive skills, their productive skills hardly improve at all.

Consequently, when they finally arrive at the level of language learning where they function as independent users – C1/good operational proficiency (CEF), they begin to realise that despite the time and effort invested in learning L2, their active command of the language is by no means perfect. In other words, what they have achieved seems very limited in relation to their expected ideal: bilingual and bicultural competence. Thus, the most important question which arises at this stage is how to assist the learners in pursuing this dream.

Implications for the advanced level

It goes without saying that students at the highest proficiency levels are in need of excellent, academic and non-academic, written and oral language skills for use in their studies and future careers. Although verbal fluency, especially in speaking, is of primary importance in this day and age, it cannot be denied that also accuracy and correctness in speech as well as outstanding written abilities are indispensable in achieving high-level communication. If today's students, but tomorrow's leading economists, politicians, doctors and lawyers, cannot produce the standard of language that is effective and accepted as appropriate, they are likely to be disempowered in important areas of their professional and private lives. That is why the challenge is to find solutions which will enable these learners to further develop not only fluency but also accuracy, appropriateness and sophistication of language use – all the essential elements in reaching superior proficiency levels.

It is my firm conviction that in order to do it effectively, the syllabus has to address the neglected, less developed areas. Unfortunately, lists with words and phrases provided in the course book with the instruction, for example: "Discuss in pairs. Try to use some of the expressions in the *How to…* box" (Wilson and Clare 2007: 68) are perhaps not the most fortunate solution. Similarly, learning to write successfully does not mean copying a range of model texts and reshuffling some elements. At this level, students should be assigned more demanding and linguistically sophisticated tasks, which require a dramatically different scale of precision and correctness to that expected of lower-levels. One such alternative solution is briefly introduced in the subsequent section, which looks at the possibility of implementing translation as a complementary approach to the teaching of productive skills at advanced levels.

Focus on translation

Due to some mistaken associations with the old Grammar Translation Method (GMT), many methodologists still maintain that translation is bad pedagogy. Nonetheless, translation is the oldest method of learning a second language, and the fact that we cannot practise GMT without using translation certainly does not mean that we cannot use translation in FLT without practising the Grammar Translation Method (Claypole 2010: 77). In this part of the article it will be argued that despite its fairly limited popularity in the communicative EFL classroom, translation can become an invaluable component of advanced EFL courses.

For the sake of clarity, however, it needs to be emphasized at this point that the present discussion should not be interpreted as an appeal for a revival of the Grammar Translation Method. Neither does it intend to imply that translation ought to be a primary teaching or learning activity in a foreign language classroom. Instead, the main intention is to speak in favour of making use of translation as a complementary resource for the development of linguistic sophistication, accuracy and correctness of expression combined with the conscious study of a foreign language.

Benefits for the learner

The underlying conviction is that, for a balanced and uninterrupted development of advanced level productive skills, the practice of translation proper, i.e. interlingual L1 to L2 translation, carried out at all text levels (total translation) is a sophisticated task offering a myriad of long-term benefits to the advanced student.

Firstly, the practice of translation allows students to focus on form in the full context of a message-oriented activity: it primarily draws students' attention to conveying message content and yet, throughout most of the stages, it also focuses on form. As a result, within a single activity, students receive extensive communicative practice reinforced by conscious language development. By bridging the gap between advanced learners' high-level fluency and sub-standard accuracy and correctness of linguistic expression, translation can help them make a leap from the stage of learning plateau to higher proficiency levels, or from level B2/C1 to C2 and beyond the CEF scale.

Secondly, since translation for the advancement of productive skills is interpreted here as the transfer of meaning from students' L1 to L2 across linguistic and cultural boundaries, in translation tasks the student has to decode/interpret and then encode/re-express the meaning/message of the source text relying on textual information – the linguistic material, as well as contextual information – the context in which something is said. Naturally, while translating, students inevitably stumble upon some problems inherent in translation, e.g. its culture-bound aspects, translatability and untranslatability, etc. to which they have to work out some adequate solutions. In the process of total translation – complete translation at all levels of functional equivalence (Catford 1965), linguistic precision and appropriateness go beyond lexical and syntactical correctness. They entail the use of suitable register and adherence to the conventions of a given type of text. Seen in this light, the practice of translation is an extremely complex linguistic and cognitive activity which involves work on the linguistic, sociolinguistic and cultural levels of spoken or written discourse; an activity in the course of which the student becomes a mediator between different linguistic systems and cultural dimensions.

Thirdly, at level C1, where students have at their fingertips multiple safe structures or words to express the essence of an idea, and where over-dependence on various replacement and avoidance strategies reaches epidemic proportions, translation may prove to be the only efficient weapon against further fossilisation. One could even say that for the 21st century advanced student, slightly spoilt by the diet of communicative language teaching, translation takes on the role of a disciplinarian. According to Aarts (1968: 225) "Translation imposes a very rigid kind of discipline upon the student, because he is confronted with a text which he

cannot get away from, so to speak: he is to translate the text as it is before him with all its lexical and grammatical difficulties. [...] I am convinced that if a student fails to use certain grammatical structures or idiomatic phrases correctly in a translation, he would not be able to use them correctly in an essay or a conversation either."

Last but not least, further justification for the use of oral and written translation at post-C1 levels can also be found in the role it plays in developing the learner's autonomy. Since exercises in translation, in particular back-translation, can also be performed independently – as a form of self-education, it can be assumed that regular practice of translation will equip the learners with skills and strategies useful on their path of autonomous lifelong learning. Here the role of the teacher consists of guiding the students in their studies and in the coordination of such autonomous individual work with institutional teaching. Translation from L1 to L2 provides a multitude of opportunities for such self-development, not only for the advanced student but also for the language teacher. The tasks are extremely challenging and time-consuming as they involve searching in all kinds of resources. Nonetheless, the effort is worth it because it is "rewarded with an extensive, all-round development of the second language. The final product may not necessarily be of high artistic quality, but in terms of self-education the [...] development is remarkable" (Wenzel 2001: 181).

Practical suggestions

In order to maximise the impact of translation on students' active command of the foreign language or, in other words, for translation to be successful, it must never be approached in a void. That is why any material selected for translation must meet at least the following criteria: varied, authentic, fully contextualised input, characterised by a high degree of cognitive appeal. As "all language is relevant to translation – all styles and registers of both speech and writing" (Duff 1996: 6), it is also recommended that the material should be wide-ranging in scope, thus allowing the learner to experience the whole language, not just the fragments randomly isolated by the authors of the course book. The range of materials and tasks suitable for translation is incredibly wide (see e.g. Duff 1981,1994), thus allowing the teacher to cater for all possible interests and educational objectives.

Additionally, today's high pace of technological innovations creates favourable conditions for overcoming the monotony associated with written translation in GTM. For speech development, for instance, it is recommended that students perform consecutive interpreting of Internet/TV recorded news, interviews, speeches, series, documentaries, extracts from feature films, etc. Their performance can be further videotaped to allow for objective and constructive feedback. For writing, on the other hand, apart from the perhaps more common translations of articles, brochures, extracts from stories or short novels, the advanced learner may be asked to create scripts or subtitles (also with the aid of subtitling software) for the media--based input mentioned earlier (e.g. Vanderplank 1988). Like the input, the product of the translation process can be in the oral or written form, although with regard to the 90-minute-limit of an average EFL class, it might be more justifiable to leave the longer, written translations for out-of-class preparation.

In fact, students at the highest proficiency levels can try their hand at any kind of translation activity. It is important, however, to bear in mind that since the focus is on speaking and writing, it is translation from Polish into English that deserves their attention as more beneficial for target language practice (Dakowska 2005: 30).

These requirements fulfilled, translation into L2 holds promise for a linguistically and cognitively demanding activity with a multitude of long-lasting benefits for the ambitious L2 learner. In fact, it is my experience and firm conviction that in language learning at the highest proficiency levels the merits of translation are so manifold that their precise description would require at least a separate article.

Concluding remarks

Although it cannot be denied that the development of L2 speaking skills is a priority of contemporary communicative task-based approaches, many advanced learners invariably lack and cease to acquire the linguistic knowledge and competences which are necessary for achieving the highest proficiency levels. In the absence of extensive immersion in an English-speaking country, most advanced learners still cannot fully comprehend, let alone produce, natural spoken or written English. Instead, they tend to generate course book English or, more appropriately perhaps, an advanced version of interlanguage, all too often characterised by inappropriate use of register, collocations, idioms and a fossilised repertoire of vocabulary.

Learning a foreign language, however, should be oriented towards the native, socially-acceptable form as "a learner's L2 system is functional when targeted at this socially-accepted form, not at stabilising the idiosyncratic, transient approximation" (Dakowska 2003: 147). When speaking is confined only to fluency and deprived of informative teacher feedback including error correction, the development of linguistic precision and accuracy will remain an unrealistic expectation.

Therefore, as we consider how we might facilitate the attainment of these superior level competences, we come to the conclusion that L2 instruction must certainly remain communicative in the sense that it must involve the communicative aims of real-life discourse reception and production, yet it must also incorporate the linguistic aims of conscious language study and linguistic practice of correctness. When balanced development in terms of accuracy, sophistication of L2 use and WENS-like fluency is the goal of EEL instruction, the point is not to oppose these two aims of teaching but to account for such procedures which would enable the learner to develop both of them. Provided the principles outlined in the previous sections are followed, this can, for example, be co-achieved through the practice of oral and written translation.

It is hoped that the arguments presented in the article, although the list is by no means exhaustive, as well as – even more importantly – the references listed below, suffice to show that the incorporation of functional translation into a foreign language syllabus at an advanced level can considerably enhance the process of genuine development of production skills, thus contributing to the learner's evolution from communicative fluency to full bilingual competence.

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Rozwój sprawności produktywnych u uczniów zaawansowanych

Streszczenie

Ostatnie dekady w nauczaniu języków obcych są zdominowane przez Podejście Komunikacyjne (CLT), wskazujące *używanie języka* jako główny cel nauczania. Nauczyciele na wszystkich poziomach nauczania skupiają się na rozwijaniu sprawności komunikacyjnych przez ćwiczenie rozumienia ze słuchu i mówienia. Celem niniejszego artykułu jest krytyczna ocena efektywności nauczania komunikacyjnego w rozwijaniu sprawności produktywnych na poziomie zaawansowanym, biorąc pod uwagę ogólne cele kształcenia, poziom ucznia, jego potencjał kognitywny i potrzeby edukacyjne.

Analizując wybrane techniki stosowane w podręcznikach do nauczania języka angielskiego na poziomie zaawansowanym należy stwierdzić, że Podejście Komunikacyjne nie spełnia wymagań ucznia na poziomie zaawansowanym. Proponuje się zatem alternatywne rozwiązania przez zastosowanie takich technik jak tłumaczenie, które pod koniec procesu kształcenia językowego zwiększą jego efektywność.

Jana Pavlíková

COMMON PROBLEMS CONCERNING
THE USE OF THE INTERACTIVE BOARD

Introduction

The interactive whiteboard is an electronic tool primarily designed for business presentations; the hardware connects to a standard computer and a dataprojector, and the software enables the user to create a multimedia-based presentation, which is then projected on the board and can be edited directly by touching the board with a special pen or finger (as if using a touchscreen). The potential of including the interactive board into the teaching process is still being investigated, with lots of pros and cons widely discussed. It is the purpose of this article to identify some of them, mainly in the field of interaction and motivation.

Interaction in teaching languages

Out of the "new toys," the interactive (white)board (IWB) has been currently the most hailed, celebrated, cursed, and disputed. Originally meant for business presentation, IWB offers undoubtedly a great advantage of combining visual and auditory materials without the need to use a set of different viewers and players. The possibility of featuring images, audio recordings and videos together with explanatory texts and comments makes any presentation more communicative and more entertaining; it is a natural next step after PowerPoint.

In the previous ten years, the discussion over IWB has periodically brought up two fundamental questions, which in my opinion have not been satisfactorily answered:
- What does it mean "interactivity" in teaching?
- Is the IWB a more effective teaching tool?

Full answers to both questions are not to be expected without extensive and long-term research, nevertheless, certain trends and directions can already be identified, which should be useful for hands-on teaching.

Let us start with the views of the teachers, as presented online. Teachers in internet discussions generally welcome IWB as a useful tool, often without specify-ing why they feel so eager about it:

> Using the IWB, or smartboard, is the best thing that has happened to me in 15 years of teaching…[1]

(Of course we should not forget that teachers who contribute to internet discussions are almost certainly computer geeks and do not represent the teachers' community as a whole.)

However, the teachers are also aware of the unanswered questions in the field of interactivity:

> I've been using a data projector and a computer in class for a few years now and find that the IWB might be interesting but fail to see the real difference. Can anybody please talk about this and other possible uses that are really different from just having the computer and projector.[2]

What is the added value brought up by the IWB? Two-year research executed in Great Britain, the results of which were published in 2006, aimed at comparing the exam results of pupils taught with or without the interactive board. Surprisingly enough, according to these data "[…] the boards are having no discernible impact on children's test scores."[3]

Does it mean that IWB is simply another expensive toy with no direct influence over the teaching results? We already agreed that it helps the teacher organise the lesson, get rid of the annoying piles of books, flipcharts, worksheets, CDs and cassettes. The added value in comparison with a dataprojector, though, should be found in the interactivity.

Interactivity in teaching with IWB can be seen from two different angles. The first approach omits the direct interaction among the teacher and the students; it emphasizes the role of the technology and the interaction between the student and the computer, enabled by various interfaces, e.g. pulling words form a list to their correct place in a gapped text; nevertheless, such interaction, especially when automatic feedback is included,[4] is still a result of preceding teacher's work, with the technology playing the moderating role. As such, this approach might be preferred in distance studies, but definitely should not replace all other ways of communication in the class.

The second approach focuses on the people involved, and presents the technology as another type of medium, a carrier wave, which enables us to share information with other people. Adopting this definition actually clears up the muddy waters of IWB use. Peter Kent bluntly says that "[…] the only interactions that matter are the ones that occur between the people in the classroom" (Kent 2010).[5]

Foreign languages are primarily taught for the purpose of communication; therefore, the second approach reflects the learning needs much better, and supports

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[1] http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/talk/questions/using-interactive-whiteboards

[2] http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/talk/questions/using-interactive-whiteboards

[3] http://www.guardian.co.uk/education/2006/jun/20/elearning.technology

[4] e.g. Activ Inspire offers a simple setting which returns the wrong word from the gap to its original place, and accepts only the correct one. See the keyword "Container" in Activ Inspire to learn more.

[5] http://iwbrevolution.ning.com/forum/topics/what-makes-an-iwb-interactive

the use of the interactive board as one of many available tools, with the focus on its motivating role and on presenting new information and students' products. This opinion is also strongly expressed by Thornbury (2009): "[…] if you regard learning (and learning of languages) not as simply a form of information-processing, but as a process of socially-situated and socially-mediated activity, then the delivery capability of IWBs, while impressive, is of only marginal utility."

Motivation or demotivation?

Having a lesson in a classroom equipped with the attractive interactive board undoubtedly rises students' expectations and eagerness. However, this initial motivation can quickly evaporate or worse, change to demotivation, if the expectations are not met: if the students do not have a chance to use the technology themselves, if the lesson becomes tedious due to long periods of waiting (for the IWB to obey the teacher's instructions, for individual students to come to the board and perform a minor action etc.). "Grabbing the students' attention" (Stover) obviously is not enough.

In my opinion, based on twenty years of various teaching practice, generally there are three aspects which unfailingly induce intrinsic motivation: success, creativity and autonomy. How can we integrate these three factors into IWB-based lessons?

The chance to **succeed** is set by the task, and its motivational effect is adequate to the required effort. When working with interactive board, we often content ourselves with simple matching or gap filling tasks, which might be considered too simple; rising the demands and including more challenging tasks, which require e.g. using a dictionary or other sources, should also raise the students' satisfaction when they finish the task successfully.

The teacher's **creativity** is the integral part of any IWB material, and sometimes also its weakness, especially when the teacher is not aware of the opportunities the software offers. This seems to be a very sore spot when discussing the IWB specifics: we should admit that one has to be at least "computer-friendly" to actually enjoy the possibility to develop and design one's own teaching materials (not mentioning the fact that learning to work with a new software is always a very time-consuming process). What remains is the gaping need to exploit the students' creativity and their computer skills.

From the technical point of view, it is easy: after a school buys even a single IWB, both Smart and Activ (the two most frequent IWB types in the Czech Republic) offer free and legal installation of their software to all employees and all students of the institution (including their personal computers or laptops). The range of resulting possibilities is immense: from simple tasks re-designed in the class by the students (e.g. flash animations "half-baked" in Smart), through various types of homework, up to presenting own projects in the IWB formats, either in the class or online.

Autonomy is the hardest to achieve. As IWB was originally designed for frontal presentation, it does not primarily support the individual approach, variability and free choice of tasks; nevertheless, in combination with creativity, the IWB can promote plenty of independent students' work: from simple-decision tasks where

we e.g. offer the students a choice of images to describe at the spot, up to long-term projects.

Obviously, while exploiting the teaching and learning potential of IWB, we should also enrich our teaching approaches and the pool of tasks we offer; otherwise, the IWB remains another cute presentation tool among many.

IWB materials design

There is no doubt that "effective use of interactive whiteboards can also support visual, auditory and kinaesthetic learning."[6] Most of the materials made by teachers, though, focus on visual aspects (text and images), as if we were not sure how to integrate all learning styles and how to use all senses within one topic, one lesson.

The website [http://veskole.cz/] was the first (and remains the biggest) Czech site gathering teacher-made IWB materials for primary and secondary levels, and featuring all school subjects. I definitely welcome this effort, and I appreciate the work of everybody involved. Nevertheless, it should be mentioned here that the quality of the publicised materials varies a lot, and it is not so easy to discover the excellent items, hidden among the average. The majority of the English teaching materials use IWB as a presentation tool only. As mentioned above, this approach will certainly work very well – but does not require the expensive IWB hardware itself, as in such cases the teacher will cope with the IWB software and a dataprojector. Moreover, the teachers often stumble in the field of graphics and design, because they lack any appropriate training.

Common mistakes in interactive board materials design therefore include:

- Inadequate use of graphics, especialy colour combinations:
  – Bright yellow should be avoided at any cost, as well as flaring background colours;
  – Overuse of animated gif's becomes rather a nuisance than fun;
  – Funny pictures without any relation to the topic.
- General overuse of effects (colours, images, multiple font types…) "because they are here"; this seems to be a typical feature of first attempts, when the teachers discover the overwhelming amount of functions the software offers, and they cannot yet decide which of the effects will really help in teaching and learning; Image 1 shows how the background may make the text and tasks very difficult to distinguish.
- Text organisation:
  – Too much text in one slide, often unreadable due to too small font;
  – Too complex tasks featuring text only, and neglecting all other support (image/audio/video);
  – Leaving no free space for the students' writing; such approach changes the IWB into something less than a blackboard;
  – Image 2 shows the new words being hidden behind orange rectangles; this is a very practical way of offering feedback, nevertheless, the students may need more space when trying to actually write the new word. A simple reorganisation of the slide (e.g. adding dotted lines to write the word down) would make such a task more variable.

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[6] http://schools.becta.org.uk/index.php?section=tl&catcode=ss_tl_use_02&rid=86

IMAGE 1

IMAGE 2

- Explanation prevails over practice: at basic level, 3 minutes of presentation should be followed by 40 minutes of practicing the new items, gradually moving from controlled to guided and free activities and language production; to achieve this, the IWB materials should include plenty of variable tasks focused on the same topic and featuring the same language material.
- Rewriting the textbook: presenting the same texts and tasks, only through a different media.
- Missing feedback (e.g. in the favourite gapfill task, the next slide should present the same text with solutions; this can be done within seconds by cloning the previous slide).
- Using the mother tongue in instructions (thus needlessly lowering the amount and intensity of target language input) and/or for translating the words: visual support seems to be more effective method than translation, especially at the primary level.

Image 3 demonstrates several serious problems within one slide: mixing L1 and L2, overusing the graphics, and, very probably, causing spelling problems due to the strong visual presentation of misspelled words.

IMAGE 3

Find the right word

My strýc is single.
He´s the youngest dítě in my family.
I´ve got one older bratr .
Her otec is a teacher.
His žena is at home now.
Our dcera works in London.

daughter uncl waif child
dother uncle wife children
brother brather father fadher
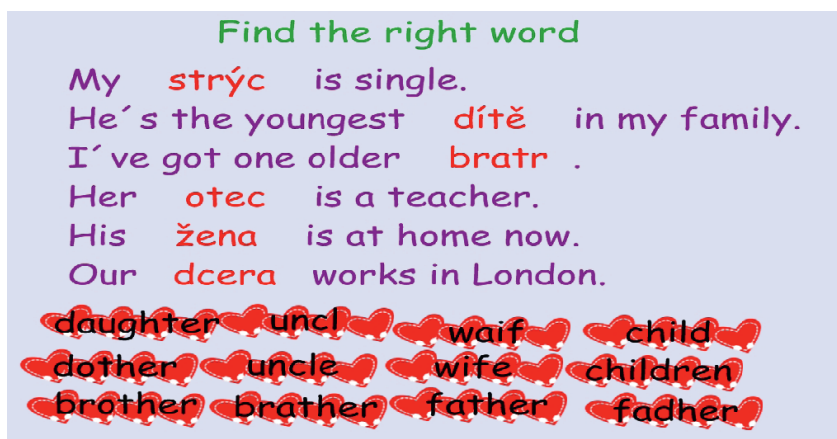
Typical IWB activities for teaching languages include the same activities as those we can find in textbooks: categorising, matching (a word to an image or a translation), gapfill, Yes/No questions, image-based activities (description), read/listen and do tasks. Not mentioning the Flash-based games, among the activities listed above the "listen/read and do" seems to be the most creative and interactive.

Image 4 shows a simple and effective way of applying the "listen and do" principle to practice the new vocabulary. As the instructions were not included in the *.notebook* file, we can suppose they were read aloud, probably from the textbook – and naturally, the instructions can be easily modified both in form and content, offering more variability of the task.

IMAGE 4

Follow the instructions and complete the room.
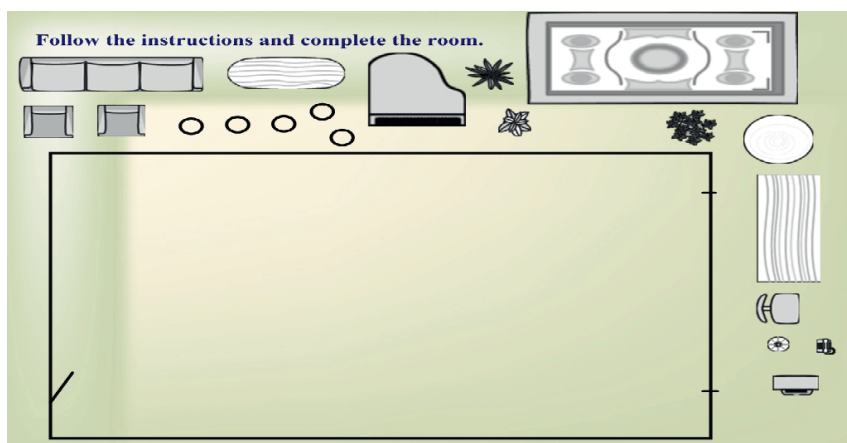
Conclusion

The most frequent deficiencies of the IWB materials usually result from the inadequate computer knowledge and skills of the teachers rather that their methodological (in)abilities. Nevertheless, INSETT courses focused solely on computer literacy would NOT help: what is needed is the complex view on teaching with the support of PC-based aids, including IWB. Such a course, or self-education, should focus on the ability to recognise the potential of the software and to apply this knowledge to the methodology of language teaching. In other words, even the interactive board is a useful servant, but a bad master.

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Online IWB materials

http://teacher.scholastic.com/whiteboards/languagearts.htm

http://veskole.cz/

http://www.amphi.com/departments/technology/whiteboard/lessonplans.html

http://www.kenttrustweb.org.uk/kentict/kentict_home.cfm

http://www.teachingmeasures.co.uk/

http://www.whiteboardroom.org.uk

Note

For obvious reasons, the authors of the slides used in images 1–4 are not mentioned. Let me express my admiration and gratitude to all teachers who spend their free time creating IWB materials for their students, and please consider this modest text as an attempt to support and improve, rather than criticise their work.

Częste problemy związane z użytkowaniem tablicy interaktywnej

Streszczenie

Niniejszy artykuł przedstawia wady i zalety użycia tablicy interaktywnej w nauczaniu języ-ków obcych. Przedstawione zostały również różne poglądy na 'interaktywność', oraz pomy-sły wpływania na motywację przez użycie tablicy interaktywnej. W ostatniej części ocenie zostały poddane niektóre materiały on-line przeznaczone do stosowania z użyciem tablicy interaktywnej oraz przedstawiono niebezpieczeństwa jak i korzyści związane z jej użyciem.

Piotr Zakrocki

DICTIONARIES AND CONTEMPORARY UNIVERSITY STUDENTS OF ENGLISH

Introduction

Dictionaries have always been one of the most basic reference tools used by virtually every student of any English Department. Traditionally the word "dictionary" is associated with a hefty book containing lists of words in alphabetical order together with their definitions or translations from one language into another. This traditional image is well illustrated by the first entry under the word *dictionary* in *Oxford English Dictionary* which states that a dictionary is "a book which explains or translates, usually in alphabetical order, the words of a language or languages (or of a particular category of vocabulary), giving for each word its typical spelling, an explanation of its meaning or meanings, and often other information, such as pronunciation, etymology, synonyms, equivalents in other languages, and illustrative examples" (2011).[1] Furthermore, OED explicates that "the earliest books to be referred to as dictionaries in English were those in which the meanings of the words of one language or dialect were given in another (or, in a polyglot dictionary, in two or more languages). Dictionaries (thus named) of this type began to appear in England during the 16th century, initially of Latin, later of modern languages."[2]

Dictionaries have come a long way ever since the 16th century. Living in this day and age one should remember that dictionaries are not exclusively lexicons in a book format, but can take all shapes and sizes – from a traditional hefty book to a CD-ROM, DVD-ROM, flash drive, mobile phone application or a web page. This situation gives modern students an abundance of choices when preparing for their classes at home. Thinking about this phenomenon I wanted to find out what dictionaries my university students used when studying at home on a regular basis (whether they still used dictionaries in a traditional book format or perhaps only electronic or online formats). I was curious to know how traditional or how modern my students were when choosing their dictionaries. I also wanted to know if there were any significant differences in the use of various dictionary formats among male and female students. In order to find out a group of first year BA students

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[1] *Oxford English Dictionary*. http://www.oed.com./view/Entry/52325 [Accessed: 25.03.2011]

[2] Ibidem.

of the English Department of the Pedagogical University of Cracow had been asked to answer a questionnaire focusing on their regular use of various formats of dictionaries. My paper serves as an overview of the results of this mini-survey.

Surveyed group

When trying to find subjects for my study I approached in January 2011 all registered and attending full-time BA students of the 1st year (63 Polish students using English as a Foreign Language) of the English Department of the Pedagogical University of Cracow asking them to take a questionnaire prepared by me. The students knew from the very start that this questionnaire was optional and anonymous (the only personal data asked for included the age and gender of a given student) and the results of it would be used purely for academic purposes. Overall, in January 2011 my questionnaire was distributed in a printed format among all 63 students (19 male students and 44 female students). The students were to take it home and, if willing, to return the questionnaire to me within the next few days. Eventually, a group of 36 students (10 male students and 26 female students) answered and returned my questionnaire. Therefore, I would refer to them as the surveyed group in my paper. This group represented 57% of all registered and attending full-time students. Within the gender groups 10 male students represented 53% of their gender group in the 1st year, while 26 female students represented 59% of their gender group. The average age of the entire surveyed group as well as both gender groups was 20.

As the background information it should be added that the 1st year students taking part in my survey being Polish and using Polish as the first language had mastered English on at least B2 level according to the scale of the CEFR – Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (Council of Europe 2001: online) and between the time of my survey (January 2011) and the beginning of their English studies at the Pedagogical University (November 2010) had been taking a series of practical English classes at B2/C1 level according to the CEFR. The process of preparation for such classes requires a regular use of a dictionary at home, in a dorm (generally outside the university classroom).

Survey – questionnaire

Starting my mini-research with the assumption that the surveyed students did use dictionaries when preparing for their university classes I wanted to establish which dictionary format is the most popular among them. Having asked the students about their gender and age my questionnaire offered them 6 questions that could be answered either "YES" or "NO." "NO" answer was a close-ended answer, while the answer "YES" required from a given student further information. For the students' convenience and to avoid any misunderstanding of technical terms the questions were prepared in their first language – i.e. Polish. However, for the purpose of this paper all questions and answers are presented in English.

Questions and answers

Question 1 and overview of the answers

The students were asked the following question as the first one:

When preparing for your practical English classes at home, in a dorm (generally outside university) do you regularly use (that is – at least once a week) a dictionary or dictionaries run or installed on your computer from electronic media such as a CD-ROM/DVD or a USB flash drive?
– NO
– YES (please specify the format and the title of the dictionary)

Looking at all the answers one can see that dictionaries run or installed from a CD-ROM or a DVD were used by 16 out of 36 students (44%), while none of them used a USB flash drive dictionary.

When comparing male and female students one might notice that CD-ROM/DVD dictionaries are favoured by men as far as percentage points are concerned. 70% of men (7 out of 10 male students) used CD-ROM or DVD dictionaries compared with 35% of women using the same format (9 out of 26 female students). In most cases students used only one CD-ROM dictionary regularly. However, the exceptions are 2 students – 1 female student that used 3 CD-ROM/DVD-ROM dictionaries and 1 male student that used 2 different dictionaries in this format.

Table 1. The use of particular CD-ROM/DVD dictionaries by the surveyed students

CD-ROM/DVD dictionary	Men (regular use)	Women (regular use)	Regular use by both men and women
Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary	4 out of 10 (40%)	4 out of 26 (15%)	8 out of 36 (22%)
Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English	1 out of 10 (10%)	3 out of 26 (12%)	4 out of 36 (11%)
Longman Pronunciation Dictionary/Longman Pronunciation Coach	2 out of 10 (20%)	2 out of 26 (8%)	4 out of 36 (11%)
Cambridge Pronunciation Dictionary	1 out of 10 (10%)	0	1 out of 36 (4%)
Longman Słownik Współczesny	0	1 out of 26 (4%)	1 out of 36 (3 %)
Longman Exams Dictionary	0	1 out of 26 (4%)	1 out of 36 (3 %)

When it comes to the choice of titles all students seemed to favour mainstream ELT publishing houses such as Oxford University Press, Pearson Longman and Cambridge University Press. The usage of particular CD-ROM/DVD dictionaries among the surveyed group can be illustrated by the table below:

What is characteristic of these dictionaries chosen by the surveyed students is that they were all prepared for CEFR B2/C1 students of English as a Foreign Language and their CD-ROM/DVD versions are multimedia editions of their paper-printed versions existing in most cases for many years or even decades.

Question 2 and overview of the answers

The following question was used as the second one:

When preparing for your practical English classes at home, in a dorm (generally outside university) do you regularly use (that is – at least once a week) an online dictionary or online dictionaries?
– NO
– YES (please give the website address of a given online dictionary or dictionaries)

The internet can be referred to as the greatest library in the world. Students of English can access hundreds of English dictionaries online. Obviously, not every online dictionary offers real linguistic quality. However, as underlined by Li Lan already in 2005 "nearly all major traditional dictionaries" had their "online versions, whether partial or full, paid or free" (Lan 2005: 16). Therefore, one might say that contemporary students are spoilt for choice every time they go online to use a dictionary and consequently the abundance of sources may result in random or erratic use of various dictionaries.

Nevertheless, in my mini-research I focused only on the regular use of online dictionaries. Such a regular use of an online dictionary or dictionaries was confirmed by 89% of the surveyed group (32 out of 36 students). Online dictionaries were popular both with men and women. However, female students seemed to favour online dictionaries more than men. 96% (25 out of 26) of the female students used an online dictionary or dictionaries on a regular basis, while 70% (7 out of 10) of the male students used the same format routinely.

When it comes to particular online dictionaries the surveyed group produced the following results illustrated by the table below.

Table 2. The regular use of particular online dictionaries by the surveyed group

Websites with online dictionaries	Regular use by male students	Regular use by female students	Regular use by both men and women
dictionary.cambridge.org (website run by Cambridge University Press offering a series of English dictionaries)	5 out of 10 (50%)	8 out of 26 (31%)	13 out of 36 (36%)
ling.pl (website offering a number of English-Polish and Polish-English dictionaries existing in paper-printed versions as well as other bilingual dictionaries and entries from selected monolingual English dictionaries)	3 out of 10 (30%)	9 out of 26 (35%)	12 out of 36 (33%)
oxforddictionaries.com (website run by Oxford University Press offering modern English dictionary and language reference service)	1 out of 10 (10%)	7 out of 26 (27%)	8 out of 36 (22%)
ldoceonline.com (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English)	0	5 out of 26 (19%)	5 out of 36 (14%)
megaslownik.pl (website run by the GG Network S.A. company offering an English-Polish and Polish-English dictionary as well as other bilingual dictionaries)	1 out of 10 (10%)	3 out of 26 (12%)	4 out of 36 (11%)
slowniki.onet.pl (website being a part of ONET.PL online service offering a number of English-Polish and Polish-English dictionaries, phrase books as well as other bilingual dictionaries and phrase books, and entries from selected monolingual English dictionaries)	1 out of 10 (10%)	1 out of 26 (4%)	2 out of 36 (6%)

dict.pl (Polish-English and English-Polish dictionary)	0	2 out of 26 (8%)	2 out of 36 (6%)
urbandictionary.com (colloquial English and slang dictionary)	1 out of 10 (10%)	1 out of 26 (4%)	2 out of 36 (6%)
www.oxfordadvancedlearnersdictionary.com (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary)	0	1 out of 26 (4%)	1 out of 36 (3%)
thesaurus.com (English Thesaurus, part of dictionary.com online reference service)	0	1 out of 26 (4%)	1 out of 36 (3%)
wordreference.com (website offering a number of bilingual dictionaries)	0	1 out of 26 (4%)	1 out of 36 (3%)
pl.bab.la (website offering a Polish-English and English-Polish dictionary and other bilingual dictionaries as well as translation services)	0	1 out of 26 (4%)	1 out of 36 (3%)
getionary.pl (Polish-English and English-Polish dictionary)	0	1 out of 26 (4%)	1 out of 36 (3%)
translatoor.pl (Polish-English and English-Polish dictionary)	0	1 out of 26 (4%)	1 out of 36 (3%)
howjsay.com (English Pronunciation Dictionary)	0	1 out of 26 (4%)	1 out of 36 (3%)
translate.google.pl (multi-language translation service that can be used as a dictionary)	0	1 out of 26 (4%)	1 out of 36 (3%)
merriam-webster.com (dictionary and language reference website run by Merriam Webster)	1 out of 10 (10%)	0	1 out of 36 (3%)

Out of the ocean of online dictionaries and online reference tools the students from the surveyed group listed 17 websites. It might be worth noticing that 5 of all the mentioned websites came from main international ELT publishers such as Cambridge University Press, Oxford University Press, Pearson Longman and Merriam Webster, and out of the remaining 12 as many as 11 websites offered what might be essentially described as standard language content, while only 1 online dictionary (urbandictionary.com) focused primarily on slang and colloquial language.

Question 3 and overview of the answers

The surveyed students were asked the following question as the third one:

When preparing for your practical English classes at home, in a dorm (generally outside university) do you regularly use (that is – at least once a week) a dictionary or dictionaries in a traditional book format?
– NO
– YES (please give the title/titles)

Looking at the gathered answers one can see that 61% (22 out of 36) of all surveyed students did use a dictionary or dictionaries in a book format. However, at a closer look one notices that 21 out those 22 students were female, while only 1 male student used a dictionary in such a format. That means that 58% of the surveyed women used a paper-printed dictionary or dictionaries, while only 10% of the male group (represented by only 1 man) did the same.

When it comes to particular dictionary titles the students showed the tendency to choose household names in the ELT publishing market. The table below summarizes the students' choices:

Table 3. The regular use of dictionaries in a book format by the surveyed group

Dictionary title	Regular use by male students	Regular use by female students	Regular use by both men and women
Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English	0	5 out of 26 (19%)	5 out of 36 (14%)
Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary	0	3 out of 26 (12%)	3 out of 36 (8%)
Oxford Wordpower	0	3 out of 26 (12%)	3 out of 36 (8%)
Longman Pronunciation Dictionary	0	3 out of 26 (12%)	3 out of 36 (8%)
Longman Słownik Współczesny (English--Polish and Polish-English Dictionary)	0	1 out of 26 (4%)	1 out of 36 (3%)
Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary	1 out of 10 (10%)	0	1 out of 36 (3%)
Wielki Słownik Oxford PWN (Polish-English and English-Polish dictionary)	0	1 out of 26 (4%)	1 out of 36 (3%)
Langenscheidt Pocket English-Polish and Polish-English Dictionary	0	1 out of 26 (4%)	1 out of 36 (3%)
Collins Cobuild English Dictionary	0	1 out of 26 (4%)	1 out of 36 (3%)
Oxford Idioms Dictionary	0	1 out of 26 (4%)	1 out of 36 (3%)
Oxford Collocations Dictionary	0	1 out of 26 (4%)	1 out of 36 (3%)
Oxford Phrasal Verbs Dictionary	0	1 out of 26 (4%)	1 out of 36 (3%)

Question 4 and overview of the answers

When preparing for your practical English classes at home, in a dorm (generally outside university) do you regularly use (that is – at least once a week) a dictionary or dictionaries in the form of a mobile phone application?
– NO
– YES (which one/which ones)

The general assumption is that virtually every university student does have a mobile phone and uses it for a variety of purposes including the usage as a reference tool. Following this assumption one might be surprised that out of 36 surveyed students only 5 (14% of the entire group) used a dictionary in the form of a mobile phone application. When it comes to genders 4 out of 26 (15%) female students used a dictionary in such a format, while only 1 out of 10 (10%) male students did the same. The following table summarizes their answers.

Table 4. The regular use of a dictionary in the form of a mobile phone application by the surveyed group

Type of mobile phone application	Regular use by men	Regular use by women	Regular use by both men and women
Xlator	0	1 out of 26 (4%)	1 out of 36 (3%)
Wordmax	0	1 out of 26 (4%)	1 out of 36 (3%)
Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary	1 out of 10 (10%)	0	1 out of 36 (3%)
Students did not specify the name of the application, but confirmed using one.	0	2 out of 26 (8%)	2 out of 36 (6%)

Question 5 and overview of the answers

Students were asked the following question as the fifth one:

When preparing for your practical English classes at home, in a dorm (generally outside university) do you regularly use (that is – at least once a week) a dictionary or dictionaries in the format that was not mentioned in the previous questions?
– NO
– YES (which format/s; which dictionaries)

The presented above question was answered "no" by 35 out of 36 (97%) surveyed students. Only 1 female student (representing 3% of the entire surveyed group and 4% of her gender group) answered "yes." This student used on a regular basis an electronic pocket dictionary with the content of *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*. Therefore, a different electronic medium carried a content used by other students on a CD-ROM, online or in a book format.

Question 6 and overview of the answers

When finishing the completion of the questionnaire the surveyed students were asked the following question:

If at least once you answered "YES" to any of the previous questions could you please specify which dictionary format or formats you consider to be the best one/ones when preparing regularly for your practical English classes?

Although all students answered "yes" to at least one of the previous questions, 3 of them (2 women and 1 man) did not answer the 6th question. However, 33 students (92%) did answer this question. Many students pointed out two dictionary formats as equally beneficial for their regular class preparation. The following table summarizes their answers:

Table 5. Preferred format of a dictionary for a regular use by the surveyed group

Preferred format of a dictionary for regular use	Men	Women	Both men and women
CD-ROM/DVD dictionary	6 out of 10 (60%)	6 out of 26 (23%)	12 out of 36 (33%)
online dictionary	2 out of 10 (20%)	6 out of 26 (23%)	8 out of 36 (22%)
book format	0	5 out of 26 (19%)	5 out of 36 (14%)
both CD-ROM/DVD and online dictionaries	1 out of 10 (10%)	3 out of 26 (12%)	4 out of 36 (11%)
both online dictionary and a book format	0	2 out of 26 (8%)	2 out of 36 (6%)
both CD-ROM/DVD and mobile phone application	0	1 out of 26 (4%)	1 out of 36 (3%)
electronic pocket dictionary	0	1 out of 26 (4%)	1 out of 36 (3%)
no answer	1 out of 10 (10%)	2 out of 26 (4%)	3 out of 36 (8%)

Conclusions

Results of the last question concerning the preference survey together with the data focusing on the actual usage of particular dictionary formats collected in questions 1–5 show an overall picture of the students' use and directly stated preference of particular dictionary formats. Male students preferred to use CD-ROM/DVD applications and online dictionaries (however, it should be clearly pointed out that although the use of CD-ROM/DVD dictionaries and online dictionaries was on the same level among the male students, the CD-ROM/DVD dictionary format was definitely their favourite in terms of directly stated preference), while book format dictionaries seemed to be virtually obsolete to them. Women used online dictionaries in the biggest number, though in terms of directly stated preference online, CD-ROM/DVD and traditional book format dictionaries seemed to be similarly or even almost equally valued by them. Mobile phone dictionary applications as well as electronic pocket dictionaries did not seem to offer a preferred alternative for regular dictionary use for most of the surveyed students.

What is common for most of the students' choices in their regular dictionary use is that irrespective of the dictionary format they had a tendency to go for what could be referred to as reliable linguistic sources – that is dictionaries prepared by specialized ELT publishing houses.

Obviously, my mini-research was conducted on a very small population of university students and therefore further studies of a bigger university population in other similar academic institutions might shed more light on the issue of the use of various formats of dictionaries by contemporary university students of English.

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Słowniki a współcześni studenci języka angielskiego

Streszczenie

Słowniki były od zawsze jednym z podstawowych narzędzi używanych przez praktycznie wszystkich studentów na wydziałach filologii angielskiej. Tradycyjnie 'słownik' kojarzy się z opasłą książką zawierającą listę słów ułożonych alfabetycznie wraz z ich objaśnieniami lub tłumaczeniami z jednego języka na drugi. Jednakże w dzisiejszych czasach słowniki przybierają różnorodne formy – od tradycyjnej papierowej publikacji książkowej po CD-ROM, DVD-ROM, flashdrive, aplikację na telefon komórkowy lub stronę internetową. Taka sytuacja daje współczesnym studentom ogromny wybór co do rodzaju i formy słownika jaki mogą używać przygotowując się do zajęć w domu. Mając na uwadze to zjawisko chciałem dowiedzieć się jak nowocześni lub jak tradycyjni są współcześni studenci przy wyborze słowników, które używają regularnie. Niniejszy artykuł przedstawia wyniki ankiety dotyczącej tego zagadnienia przeprowadzonej wśród grupy studentów pierwszego roku studiów stacjonarnych pierwszego stopnia Filologii Angielskiej na Uniwersytecie Pedagogicznym w Krakowie.

Aleksandra Łuczak
DO WE CLIL IN LEGAL ENGLISH CLASSROOM?

Introduction

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has become very popular in Europe since the term was first coined in 1994 to name the joint project of UNI-COM – a platform of The Continuing Education Centre at the Finnish Jyvaskyla University – the key centre for CLIL expertise in the world and European Platform for Dutch Education. This term was used to describe an approach for learning content through the medium of a foreign language. The CLIL definition by Marsh and Lange (2000: iii) is quoted most often and explains that "content and language integrated learning (CLIL) is a generic term and refers to any educational situation in which an additional language and therefore not the most widely used language of the environment is used for the teaching and learning of subjects other than the language itself." So, as Marsh (2005) explains, it is an "approach which involves learning subjects such as history, geography or others, through an additional language. It can be very successful in enhancing the learning of languages and other subjects." He also convinces that "it has been found that some of the most suitable CLIL teachers are those who speak the majority language as their first language and the CLIL language as the second language."

In 2010 the definition of CLIL was simplified by Coyle, Hood and Marsh (Coyle et al. 2010: 1) and now it states that "CLIL is a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for learning and teaching of both content and language."

CLIL has been widely supported by the European Commission which defines it as a method that "involves teaching a curricular subject through the medium of a language other than that normally used and the key issue is that the learner is gaining new knowledge about the 'non-language' subject while encountering, using and learning the foreign language."[1] The European Commission also supports the professional development of CLIL teachers who are required to be "specialists in their own discipline rather than traditional language teachers. They are usually fluent speakers of the target language, bilingual or native speakers."[2]

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[1] http://ec.europa.eu/education/languages/language-teaching/doc236_en.htm [Accessed: 20.03.2011].

[2] http://ec.europa.eu/education/languages/language-teaching/content-and-language--integrated-learning-en.htm [Accessed: 20.03.2011].

This paper will analyse whether Legal English classes at universities fit into the definition of CLIL and what competences Legal English teachers need in order to run English for Legal Purposes (ELP) courses successfully.

Legal English courses at universities

In the first decade of the 20th century Legal English courses became very popular at Polish universities due to the fact that new law faculties opened at many Polish private universities and the number of law students increased significantly. At the same time university English teachers faced a new challenge of modelling and teaching very specialist Legal English courses. The biggest problem they faced was the content knowledge of law which most of them lacked, since they were linguists with no legal educational background. Even though they were confronted with pre-experienced learners, they still needed some knowledge of law in order not to feel intimidated and frustrated when explaining the intricacies of legal concepts. Northcott (2008: 40), however, convinces that "how much the ELP teacher needs to engage directly with legal subject matter will be affected by the learners' level of legal knowledge and also by what other exposure learners have to legal output."

Results of the research entitled "Becoming a Legal English Teacher in Poland. Teachers' Biographies" conducted by the author of this paper in September 2010 that drew on thematic narrative interviews with eleven experienced university English teachers working at leading Polish universities provided meaningful feedback as to differences between teaching Business and Legal English. Such comparison was possible to conduct, since all of the respondents had experience in teaching Business English as well. All teachers agreed that teaching Legal English was much more demanding and it required more content knowledge and solid background on the content. Business English bases on more common knowledge and is more intuition-oriented when it comes to content expertise. Business English is also more international and country specific differences do not play such a big role compared to diversity in legal systems across the world. Teaching Legal English may be, therefore, more misleading and requires more precision in terms of terminology and feedback.

Another difference between Business and Legal English is the quality and availability of teaching materials which in case of Legal English are not very exciting and rather monotonous as they are mostly aimed at developing vocabulary and reading and writing skills. Therefore, Legal English teachers are forced to produce their own materials if they want to make their classes more attractive and develop other skills especially communication. Another problem is the lack of published Legal English materials that develop the content knowledge of Polish law. Namely, they usually cover the issues typical of common law systems. For that reason, teachers who understand the need of their Polish students to develop the ability to discuss Polish legal issues in English will regularly need to supplement course books with Polish law-oriented in-house materials. Business English materials due to their multitude offer the teachers wider choice of activities and allow for satisfying most of the wishes, wants and likes.

The research showed that Legal English courses at universities contain many elements of CLIL, since in practice they go beyond strictly language objectives. An

experienced teacher will know that setting only linguistic goals for law students is irresponsible. This requirement found its reflection in the research conducted by Catherine Mason of Global Legal English, the author of The Lawyer's English Language Course book, among the Magic Circle international law firms based in Warsaw. The questions which the representatives of the Magic Circle addressed concerned what qualifications they require from law graduates who apply for jobs with these internationally recognized firms. During her presentation for students delivered at Kozminski University on 18 May 2010 Catherine Mason mentioned two skills that law graduates need:

• **practical skills** including excellent accurate English in speaking and writing, especially plain English drafting;
• **commercial awareness** which refers to students' general knowledge of business, their business experience (or work experience) and, specifically, their understanding of the industry which they are applying to join. Students will need to know some basic general commercial principles to be able to answer general commercial awareness questions, such as being able to explain the difference between a private limited company and a public limited company. They will also need to be able to discuss differences between Polish or European Union and common law systems, e.g. tax rates, employment law issues, finance options for a new business, liabilities for debts, etc. They will also need to know about any current major global economic issues, and their impact, or potential impact, on their employer's business sector.

A web portal www.wikijob.co.uk gives the following examples of typical commercial awareness interview questions:
1. Describe a company you think is doing well/badly and explain why you think this is so.
2. What do you think are key qualities for a company to have to be successful?
3. What do you understand of the role this firm plays in this industry?

Interestingly commercial awareness has been ranked[3] in the first position on the "Top Ten" Skills Shortages List among graduates as mentioned by the employers. Therefore, in order to be able to teach a specialist variety of English and commercial awareness, the teacher must develop the considerable knowledge of the subject matter, in this case of law: common law, local (Polish) law, European Union law, contract law, company law, tort law, employment law, administrative law, tax law, criminal law, etc. Officially Legal English courses at Polish universities are regular ESP courses and they are run by English teachers with no legal educational background. In practice, however, they are usually based on the concept of Content-Based Instruction (CBI) which refers to the integration of particular content learning with language teaching aims as well as the concurrent teaching of academic subject matter and second language skills (Brinton, Snow and Wesche 1989). The research conducted by the three authors was meaningful for the development of CBI concept and concentrated mainly on the tertiary context. The CBI syllabuses were evaluated as especially effective as they naturally integrate all language skills, i.e. reading authentic texts and interpreting them, expressing critical opinions orally or in writing. CBI classes are also viewed as highly motivating, as Stryker and Leaver

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3 http://www.kent.ac.uk/careers/sk/commercialawareness.htm [Accessed: 20.03.2011].

(1997: 19) point out: "in content-based classroom, students are exposed to complex information and are involved in demanding activities which can lead to intrinsic motivation."

The feedback provided by law students taught by the author of this article supports the above conclusion. Their motivation increases significantly the moment they start to study Legal English. The English teachers at Kozminski University are offered a lot of autonomy in structuring Legal English courses and selecting the content to teach. Some of them decide to devote the first year of the course, which altogether lasts three years, to developing Business English and only in the second year they introduce Legal English content and skills. Students, however, perceive the Business English component as particularly tedious and not exactly useful for them as lawyers-to-be.

The concept of CLIL is wider than CBI. According to Wolff (2002: 90) it is based on five main dimensions which justify this kind of instruction and include: the culture, the environment, the language, the content and the learning dimensions. CLIL model was enriched with the culture dimension which was not emphasized in CBI and involves developing intercultural knowledge and competence, learning about Anglophone countries, understanding the cultural context and as a result facilitating adaptation and assimilation processes.

Legal English teachers would face an unbelievably intimidating experience if they had to run Legal English classes at universities according to CLIL method. Such classes, however, would constitute the highest value for students. Such opinion found its reflection in the above mentioned research conducted among Polish university Legal English teachers, during which the respondents were asked to depict the ideal Legal English teacher. The answers provided a collection of descriptions relating to personal qualities, educational background and professional experience.

Some of the respondents concentrated on personality traits which a person pursuing Legal English career should possess. An ideal Legal English teacher was described as a hard-working, brave, open, stubborn, curious person, lifelong learner and constant knowledge seeker. The person must also be ambitious and stress resistant, as lawyers are very demanding students who might like to undermine the non-lawyer teacher's qualifications just to show that linguists are not good at law. A person interested in Legal English teacher's career may be unaware that being able to provide the students with Polish equivalents of some English law terms in not enough. Being an efficient Legal English teacher requires broader understanding of the mechanisms ruling the world of law. One of the respondents, therefore, coined a term "half teacher – half lawyer" to describe a perfect Legal English professional. Therefore, teachers working with law practitioners will need to engage much deeper in the subject matter, while teachers cooperating with law students will get a smoother introduction to the new profession as both parties, the students and the teachers, will be freshmen in the subject of law.

The description which was most often repeated pictured a person who was either fluent in English, bilingual or a fully qualified EFL/ESL teacher and practicing lawyer or professional translator of legal documents at the same time. None of the respondents in fact obtained this kind of dual educational background. Therefore, they strongly denied teaching the content of law and decisively underlined that they taught **only** the language and had no intention to teach the content.

Despite their denial, Legal English teachers operate on the verge of CLIL methodology, as it is impossible to teach Legal English totally ignoring the content and not bothering about understanding the subject matter. Teachers require particular competences so that content and language learning takes place. Apart from strictly linguistic component, Legal English syllabus will usually include the development of intercultural knowledge, academic skills, learning strategies, self--esteem as well as preparation for the international certificate examinations, mobility and internationalization.

That is why, Legal English teachers may wish to develop the competences typical of CLIL teachers when they pursue their professional development. A collection of competences for CLIL teachers identified in a SOCRATES-COMENIUS project entitled: "CLIL across Contexts: A scaffolding framework for teacher education (2006–2009)" will be presented below. The outcome of the project will be confronted with the CLIL competences grid drawn up by CLIL Cascade Network (CCN) – an on-line community of CLIL practitioners and their professional partners available on www.ccn-clil.eu, a project supported by the European Commission.

CLIL competences for teachers

SOCRATES-COMENIUS project was undertaken by nine institutions based in six European countries: Luxemburg, Spain, the Czech Republic, Great Britain and Spain. The rationale of the project was to develop new trends in teacher education which promote a better integration of content and language learning.

Eight areas of CLIL teacher competences have been identified by the project and they comprise:

1. **the awareness of students'** individual differences, ability to investigate their **needs**, making the use of students' experience and background and structuring the tasks to engage the students in activities that suit their learning styles;
2. **planning and managing the teaching and learning process** effectively by setting realistic objectives, sequencing and balancing material for developing the language and the content, selecting resources, and specifying assessment procedures;
3. employing **multimodality** (i.e. several modalities) of perception and production in order to share information with the students using both linguistic and non--linguistic content, code switching, varying input (i.e. verbal, non-verbal, visual, kinesthetic, tactile) to address multiple intelligences;
4. teacher's **social interaction competence** that will provide students with opportunities for the active use of the foreign language for different communicative purposes, i.e. contributing to conversations, initiating interactions, elaborating on meaning, etc.;
5. **subject** and knowledge **literacies** that will allow for a diligent interpretation of not only the content but also the genres of the text used and produced by students;
6. the ability of effective **assessment of the learning outcomes** not only by the teachers but also peer evaluation and self-evaluation;
7. the ability of **cooperation with other teachers**, exchanging ideas, inspiring one another, sharing methods and examples of good practice, discussing

problems and anticipating others, conducting peer-observation, **reflecting** on their practices, building a teaching community and developing their knowledge beyond their initial teacher training, i.e. "knowledge-in-practice;"

8. **understanding the cultural diversity** and introducing it to the classroom as a toll for content learning and communicative behaviour in a foreign language, preparing students for mobility and diversity of authentic situations, texts and topics by the use of authentic materials from different countries and initiating exchanges with students from other regions.

   The outcome of the CCN project is the CLIL Teacher's Competences Grid which can be used by teachers to identify professional development needs. The animated grid is available online and below the selected areas of competences applying to Legal English teachers' situation that might supplement the above mentioned eight competences and will be presented:

1. **target language competence** on the academic level of proficiency which will enable the teachers to read subject material and theoretical texts, use appropriate subject-specific terminology and syntactic structures and conceptualise whilst using the target language;

2. the ability **to design a course** so that it combines language, content and skills outcome, synchronising the language and subject curricula, so that they support each other, scaffolding language, content and learning skills development, developing learners autonomy, fostering critical thinking, helping students to link learning from various subjects in the studies programme;

3. the ability to **select, adapt and design learning materials**, making the use of various learning environments (e.g. discussion forums, ICT, web 2.0), finding and adapting authentic materials which speak to students' interests and needs, creating cross-cultural themes, creating opportunities for researching topics independently and through cooperation with others;

4. the ability **to select the language** needed to ensure student comprehension, rich language and content input, rich student language and content output, efficient classroom management, linking previous and new knowledge;

5. the ability **to build constructive relationship with students** by connecting with each student personally, being respectful of diversity, creating, reassuring and enriching learning environment, supporting individual and differentiated learning, adapting materials and strategies to students' needs;

6. **applying interactive methodology** by fostering manifold interactions (L-L, L-T, T-T), creating rich learning experiences (group work, peer enhancement, whilst presentation tasks, end-of-task assessment of group work);

7. **preparing students for formal examinations,** including high-stakes examinations.

Conclusions

   The research conducted among Polish Legal English teachers revealed that the decision about becoming a Legal English teacher is rarely the teacher's own initiative. They were usually "asked" or "forced" to teach law students when the demand arose. They had to start to teach the course immediately and at the same time develop their knowledge of the very demanding and often controversial subject matter as

well as the know-how of the teaching skills, experimenting with the new techniques in order to bring life into dry materials provided by Legal English course books. The whole process, therefore, was and probably still is marked with ups and downs and in many areas overlaps with CLIL methodology.

The answer to Legal English teachers' success might be the fact that they all were aware of how important lifelong learning and lifelong professional development are. The teachers undertook many self-initiatives aimed at continual evolution in the role of the teacher. They mentioned peer teaching as specially valuable and supportive activity. They all worked systematically to develop the content knowledge and teaching techniques. They were not afraid of testing new media and new materials in order to bring life into dry materials provided by Legal English course books. They took part in professional development trainings, undertook post-graduate and PhD studies, wrote their own teaching materials and even published Legal English course books, supported one another and shared their expertise and examples of good practice. They created a new quality and proved to be very responsible, creative and at the same time hard-working professionals who fully understood what it means to be a modern foreign language professional.

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Czy używamy zintegrowanego nauczania przedmiotu i języka (CLIL) na zajęciach z prawniczego języka angielskiego?

Streszczenie

Lektorzy zazwyczaj zaprzeczają, że na zajęciach prawniczego języka angielskiego nauczają prawa po angielsku. Twierdzą zaś, że ich zadaniem jest nauczanie wyłącznie języka prawniczego,

co w praktyce jest w zasadzie niemożliwe. Trudno jest zupełnie pominąć treści prawne i na-uczać języka prawniczego bez zrozumienia i wyjaśnienia zagadnień merytorycznych.

Można zatem postawić tezę, iż lektorzy prawniczego języka angielskiego powinni rozwinąć kompetencje typowe dla zintegrowanego nauczania przedmiotu i języka (ang. CLIL), gdyż poza rozwijaniem kompetencji językowych program nauczania prawniczego języka angiel-skiego obejmuje również budowanie wiedzy kulturowej, sprawności akademickich, strategii uczenia się, poczucia własnej wartości, jak również przygotowanie do międzynarodowych egzaminów certyfikatowych, mobilności studentów i później pracowników.

Artykuł jest analizą kompetencji typowych dla nauczycieli nauczających metodami CLIL, któ-re zostały wyłonione i opracowane w ramach projektu SOKRATES-COMENIUS pod tytułem „CLIL across contexts: A scaffolding framework for teacher education (2006–2009)" oraz tych prezentowanych na stronie internetowej społeczności CLIL Cascade Network (CCN) skupia-jącej nauczycieli CLIL i wspieranej przez Komisję Europejską dostępnej na www.ccn-clil.eu. Wnioski z powyższej analizy zostaną porównane z opiniami doświadczonych lektorów praw-niczego języka angielskiego wyrażonymi w ankiecie przeprowadzonej przez autorkę artyku-łu latem 2010 roku.

Jarmila Brtková

THE IMPORTANCE OF TEACHING CULTURE
IN BUSINESS ENGLISH

Introduction

There is no doubt that the lingua franca of today's business world is English, which enables communication among business practitioners coming from a variety of cultural backgrounds. This fact makes learning English interesting and useful for all those who might be using it when they enter the world of international business. It is therefore natural that there is a demand for business English, which appears to be growing, because learners are becoming clearer about what they want to use English for. In today's global economy they want not only the skills to write, read, listen to and speak English fluently, they also want to be able to communicate in a way which will be recognised and appreciated by their counterparts at international level.

Aspects of teaching Business English

Many students of Business English are people who have been already working in business within their own linguistic environment and who wish, for a number of reasons, to be able to function in their business role in English too. The teacher's role in this case is not to present business concepts to such students or even to instruct them how to conduct their business, but it is to enable them to develop their language skills within a business context. Teachers of Business English are first and foremost teachers of English. It is important for them not to be intimidated by the status and professions of the learners but rather to establish the kind of teacher–learner relationship where both sides are recognized as experts – the learners as experts in their particular field of expertise and the teacher as an expert in the field of language teaching and as an indispensable source of linguistic information. The main differences between teaching Business English and general English are in the choice of contexts for listening and reading texts, as well as in the choice of lexis in grammar and vocabulary exercises, where examples such as "We have just received the invoice" will replace "We have just seen Tom." There is also a huge bank of business-related authentic materials to choose from, what is a big advantage. Articles in magazines, journals, and newspapers also offer both relevant pieces of up-to-date information and a significant learning experience. Moreover, they sound less theoretical than textbooks, so even students often find them more

attractive. In addition, watching business news and other business programmes can be a valuable source of terms and phrases used in different fields of business. The methodology used by Business English teachers can be a little different from general English, because students might learn more from fascinating case studies, interactive problem-solving activities including role plays and interviews, critical thinking activities and authentic business materials including graphs, contracts and advertisements.

Culture – the fifth language skill

On the other hand it is important to point to the fact that by teaching English for business communication we also teach culture to a large extent, because language and communication cannot exist apart from culture. They are closely intertwined because culture not only dictates who talks to whom, about what, and how the communication proceeds, it also helps to determine how people encode messages, the meanings they have for messages, and the conditions and circumstances under which various messages may or may not be sent, noticed, or interpreted. Culture is the foundation of communication (Samovar, Porter, Jain 1981: 24). So effective communication is more than a matter of language proficiency. There are several components in foreign language learning, including knowledge of the grammatical system of a language, which is described as grammatical competence, then language proficiency, as well as communicative competence and it has to be complemented by understanding of culture – specific meanings, which is described as cultural competence (Byram, Morgan et al. 1994: 4). Cultural competence is undoubtedly an integral part of foreign language learning, and many teachers have seen it as their goal to incorporate the teaching of culture into the foreign language curriculum. It can also lead to empathy and respect towards different cultures as well as promote objectivity and cultural perspicacity. Culture is therefore considered a fifth language skill by many teachers, in addition to listening, speaking, writing and reading.

There are two good reasons for taking culture into account as a part of foreign language teaching. One is the international role of the English language, which has become the lingua franca and the other is globalisation. The world is full of confrontations between people, groups and nations, who think, feel, and act differently. At the same time these people, groups and nations are exposed to common problems that demand cooperation for their solution. In the booming market for cross-cultural training, there are courses and books that show only cultural synergy and no cultural conflicts, but studying culture without experiencing a culture shock is like practicing swimming without water. Many people assume that if they learn the language, they learn the culture but sharing a language does not imply sharing a culture. Actually they can learn a lot of cultural features, but it does not teach them sensitivity and awareness or even how to behave in certain situations. What the fifth language skill teaches them is the mindset and techniques to adopt their use of English to learn about, understand and appreciate the values, ways of doing things and unique qualities of other cultures. It involves understanding how to use the language to accept differences, to be flexible and tolerant of ways of doing things which might be different from ours.

What is culture?

At the beginning of our cogitation about the importance of teaching culture we should answer the fundamental question: What do we mean by 'culture'? So first of all it is necessary to define and explain the concept of culture. For this reason we will take the book *Cultures and Organisations* for our starting point, which was written by Geert Hofstede and his son. According to him every person carries within him- or herself patterns of thinking, feeling and potential acting that were learnt throughout their lifetime. Using the analogy of the way computers are programmed, such patterns of thinking, feeling and acting are viewed in this book as mental programs or software of the mind. The sources of one's mental programs lie within the social environment in which one grew up and collected one's life experiences. A customary term for such mental software is culture, which has several meanings, all derived from its Latin source, which refers to the tilling of the soil (Hofstede 2005: 2–3). In most Western languages the word 'culture' means 'civilization' or 'refinement of the mind' and in the narrow sense also results of such refinement, including education, art, and literature. However, culture as mental software corresponds to a much broader use of the word and is a catchword for all those patterns of thinking, feeling and acting, which were mentioned before. There are included not only activities supposed to refine the mind, but also the ordinary and menial things in life, for example greeting, eating, showing or not showing feelings, keeping a certain physical distance from others, making love or maintaining body hygiene (Hofstede 2005: 3–4). Culture is always perceived to be a collective phenomenon, because it is at least partly shared with people who live or lived within the same social environment, which is where it was learnt. Culture consists of the unwritten rules of the social game and can be described as the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others (Hofstede 2005: 4). It is also of great importance to emphasize that culture is learnt, not innate and ought to be distinguished from human nature on one side and from an individual's personality on the other, although exactly where the borders lie between nature and culture, and between culture and presonality, is a matter of discussion among social scientists.

Culture is everywhere. It is shaping what you are thinking and seeing right now. And it shapes the way you are being viewed by people from other cultural contexts. Cultural differences manifest themselves in symbols, heroes, rituals and values. Symbols represent the most superficial manifestations of culture. They are words, gestures, pictures or objects that carry a particular meaning only recognized as such by those who share the culture. Heroes are people, alive or dead, real or imaginary, who possess characteristics that are highly prized in a culture and thus serve as models of behaviour. Rituals are collective activities and are considered as socially essential within a culture. Rituals include ways of greeting and paying respect to others, as well as social and religious ceremonies. Symbols, heroes and rituals are described as practices, they can be observed and identified. These are the visible cues about cultural differences that exist in a society. The core of culture is formed by values which are broad tendencies to prefer certain states of affairs over others. They lie beneath the surface of what's visible. As almost everyone belongs

to a number of different groups at the same time, people unavoidably carry several layers or levels of culture within themselves (Hofstede 2005: 6–11).

Language and culture

Language is a product of the culture, as any other, but it also plays a distinct role. Members of the culture have created the language to carry out all their cultural practices, to identify and organize all their cultural products, and to name the underlying cultural perspectives. The words of the language, its expressions, structures and sounds reflect the culture, just as the cultural products and practices reflect the language. Language, therefore, is a window to the culture (Moran 2001: 35). To practice the culture, we also need language. We need to be able to express ourselves and to communicate with members of the culture. Moreover, it is important to use the right language in the right way, according to the expectations of the members of the culture. This is the language of self-expression, communication, and social interaction, which is based on direct experience in the culture and interactions with members of the culture. So language and culture are inseparable from each other. However, under certain circumstances, it is allowed to separate them in order to make the teaching process more effective, especially at lower levels of proficiency. This separation has an undeniable advantage. First of all, learners do benefit by concentrating only on mastery of linguistic forms; including the cultural dimension could add unnecessary complexity. Second, and most relevant to culture, we use language to learn culture, a separation that helps language learners. The language we use to learn culture is specialized. It is the language of the classroom, where culture is the topic and language the means to comprehend, analyze, and respond to it. To achieve this, four language functions are needed: language to participate in the culture, language to describe the culture, language to interpret the culture and language to respond to the culture. These four functions mirror the stages of the cultural experience cycle: participation, description, interpretation, response – knowing how, knowing about, knowing why, and knowing oneself. In order to learn culture through experience, therefore, it is necessary to use certain kinds of language at each step along the way (Moran 2001: 38–39).

According to Tomalin and Stempleski the teaching of culture has the following objectives:

– To help students to develop an understanding of the fact that all people exhibit culturally-conditioned behaviours;
– To help students to develop an understanding that social variables such as age, sex, social class, and place of residence influence the ways in which people speak and behave;
– To help students to become more aware of conventional behaviour in common situations in the target culture;
– To help students to increase their awareness of the cultural connotations of words or phrases in the target language;
– To help students to develop the ability to evaluate and refine generalizations about the target culture, in terms of supporting evidence;
– To help students to develop the necessary skills to locate and organize information about the target culture;

– To stimulate students' intellectual curiosity about the target culture, and to encourage empathy towards its people. (Tomalin, Stempleski 1993: 7–8).

There is a need to emphasize that the main goal of teaching culture is to increase learners' awareness and to develop their curiosity towards the target culture and their own, helping them to make comparisons among cultures. These comparisons are not meant to underestimate foreign cultures but to enrich learners' experience and to sensitise them to cultural diversity. This diversity should be understood and respected, and never over- or underestimated. In order to reach such aims, the teaching of culture should include cultural knowledge, cultural values, cultural behaviour and cultural skills. Every student goes through the culture learning process in a unique way. Because of these individual differences, one of the primary tasks for the teacher is to help students express and respond to their cultural learning experiences. Teachers need to be versatile. It is important for them to be able to present or elicit cultural information, coach and model cultural behaviours, guide and conduct cultural research and analysis. They also need to be able to enter learners' worlds by listening, empathizing, and sharing their own experiences as culture learners, so as to help learners step out of their worlds into another language, another culture. Teachers also need to be learners of culture and go through the cultural experience that they propose to learners in their language classes (Moran 2001: 143–152).

Considering cultural differences

In verbal communication there still exist noticeable differences in understanding specific terms which are caused by cultural differences. For instance the Business English term 'corporate social responsibility' is understood differently in the European and American culture (Búciová 2010: 31–38). Alongside linguistic knowledge, students should also familiarise themselves with various forms of nonverbal communication, such as gestures and facial expressions, typical in the target culture. More specifically, students should be aware of the fact that such seemingly universal signals as gestures and facial expressions, as well as emotions, are actually cultural phenomena and can also lead to misunderstanding and erroneous assumptions. The significance of a gesture can vary in different cultures. The 'thumbs up' sign indicates approval in some countries, but in others, it is obscene and offensive. Eye contact is another important way in which we signal our intention: but at what point does a look become a stare? According to Straub it is important to encourage students to speculate on the significance of the symbolic meanings of colours, gestures, facial expressions, and the physical distance people unconsciously put between each other and to show in what ways these nonverbal cues are similar to, or at variance with those of their culture (Straub 1999: 6).

As corporate gift giving has become more popular nowadays, knowing the connotative meaning of flowers, items and other words (e.g. colours) may help learners avoid possible pitfalls when travelling abroad and become more confident in language use (Weberová 2007: 1–4). For instance the word 'rose' is associated with love and beauty in many cultures (Kramsch 1998: 16). On the contrary, a chrysanthemum is associated with death in Germany and Slovakia. White lilies are often perceived as a symbol of innocence in Slovakia, but as a symbol of death

in England, Australia and Canada. The black colour is traditionally associated with mourning in most European countries whereas in Asia the white colour has the same meaning.

Humour is another potential minefield for an inexperienced learner as it varies from culture to culture. What is considered funny is highly culture-specific. In intercultural encounters jokes and irony are taboo until one is absolutely sure of the other culture's conception of what represents humour. Humorous remarks are for example particularly welcomed in presentations held in the Anglo-Saxon environment. This is rarely a case in Germany (Weberová 2008: 189).

There are certain cultural differences which have to be taken into account. For example, in business meetings people of different cultures may behave in a different way. In Scandinavian countries meeting participants pay attention to turn taking and do not interrupt their partners. A reserved approach lacking in nonverbal communication is typical of these countries. On the other hand, people coming from Latin America discuss issues in a lively way, interrupting each other without fear and they use expressive gestures. In China it is very impolite to express your emotions, anger or impatience. On the contrary, in Russia feelings are openly expressed and meeting participants can be confronted with expressions of anger or disagreement (Lašáková et al. 2010: 172–175).

Conclusion

Language and culture are inseparable from each other. Due to the fact that we live in the global world where a lot of people come into contact with people from other cultures, the cultural competence is of great importance to all learners who wish to be competent users of the foreign language. This paper has made an attempt to explain the conception of culture and its importance in teaching Business English. It also deals with the relationship between language and culture. Culture plays an important role, because cultural differences are reflected in both verbal and nonverbal communication, therefore, they should not be ignored.

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Znaczenie nauczania kultury w angielskim dla biznesu

Streszczenie

Nie ma wątpliwości, że język angielski jest obecnie lingua franca świata biznesu, umożliwiając kontakty przedstawicielom różnych kultur. Jest więc naturalne, że uczniowie chcą nie tylko opanować sprawności czytania, pisania, rozumienia ze słuchu i płynnego mówienia, ale przede wszystkim chcą być w stanie komunikować się na poziomie docenianym w międzynarodowych kontaktach biznesowych. Aby to osiągnąć, ucząc komunikacji w biznesie uczymy również aspektów kulturowych, gdyż komunikacja nie istnieje w oddzieleniu od kultury. Są dwa powody dla których istnieje konieczność nauczania kultury w nauczaniu języków obcych: międzynarodowa funkcja języka angielskiego oraz globalizacja.

Niniejszy artykuł podkreśla konieczność nauczania kultury w nauczaniu języka angielskiego dla biznesu, gdyż sama znajomość sprawności językowych nie wystarczy do skutecznej komunikacji, ale musi być uzupełniona o znajomość znaczeń specyficznych kulturowo, takich jak konwencje, zwyczaje, przekonania typowe dla drugiego kraju, czyli kompetencję kulturową. Nauczanie kultury powinno zawierać wiedzę kulturową, wartości, zachowania i umiejętności kulturowe.

Dagmar Weberová

SELECTED LANGUAGE BARRIERS
TO INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION
IN THE CONTEXT OF MANAGEMENT STUDIES

The importance of English in an international business environment

Nowadays, we are in no doubt, English has become the lingua franca of the new millennium. Phillipson (1992: 42) uses the following definition of the term lingua franca: it is

> a language that is used for communication between different groups of people, each speaking a different language. The lingua franca could be an internationally used language of communication (e.g. English), it could be the native language of one of the groups, or it could be a language which is not spoken natively by any of the groups but has a simplified sentence structure and vocabulary is often a mixture of two or more languages.

In our global world there is a strong tendency to promote English as the only language which can serve modern purposes. This tendency is supported by the fact that a quarter of the world's population, i.e. 1.2 to 1.5 billion people, can speak English at some level of proficiency and it is also true that English has already become the lingua franca of international business. But what English has in common with other languages is the fact that it can also be a barrier.

Language as a barrier to intercultural communication

Language is only one of many barriers to intercultural communication. Words as symbols often turn out to be barriers when their denotative or connotative meaning is not shared. There are many examples when even speakers of the same language do not share exactly the same meaning for every word. This can be particularly observed in the use of British and American English, in which some lexical variations are significant. For example, the sentence "His business is going a bomb" is understood by an American that it is a complete failure while for a British the same sentence has an opposite meaning, i.e. it is very successful. This example indicates that one has to be very careful with words, expressions and idiomatic phrases. Although the number of similar expressions is not very high, it is recommended to be cautious. On the other hand, we can also find a number of idiomatic phrases with only slight variations which have the same meaning in both British and American English (see Table 1).

Table 1.

British English	American English
• beat <u>about</u> the bush	• beat <u>around</u> the bush
• sweep something under the <u>carpet</u>	• sweep something under the <u>rug</u>
• blow one's own <u>trumpet</u>	• blow one's own <u>horn</u>
• like a red <u>rag to</u> a bull	• like waving a red <u>flag in front of</u> a bull
• a/the skeleton in the <u>cupboard</u>	• a/the skeleton in the <u>closet</u>
• cash on the <u>nail</u>	• cash on the <u>barrelhead</u>
• bargaining <u>counter</u>	• bargaining <u>chip</u>
• on/have second <u>thoughts</u>	• on/have second <u>thought</u>
• off the back of a <u>lorry</u>	• off the back of a <u>truck</u>
• if the <u>cap</u> fits, wear it	• if the <u>shoe</u> fits, wear it

Some differences in spelling conventions between British and American English are presented below.

Table 2.

British English	American English
• high-flyer	• highflier
• on a shoe string	• on a shoestring
• pay lip service	• pay lip-service

The strong influence of US movies and television has led to "a considerable passive understanding of much American English vocabulary" (Crystal 2003: 306). Moreover, many of these expressions have been used actively by younger people.

Translation

Translation problems between languages represent a problem. It has been proven that cultural factors as beliefs, values and attitudes play a significant role in how advertisements are perceived by the local audience. This fact holds true even in the case that some nations speak the same language. Speaking one language does not necessarily mean that nations share the same values or have the same tastes. This brings us to the conclusion that it is a very challenging task to communicate a message to people of different nationalities speaking one language. So to communicate a message to people of diverse nationalities speaking other languages is a far more complicated task. When people speak different languages, translation is important but always imperfect. Although many languages are translatable, there will always be "an incommensurable residue of untranslatable culture associated with the linguistic structures of any given language" (Kramsch 1998: 12). "Sechrest, Fay, and Zaidi have identified five translation problems that can become barriers to intercultural communication" (Jandt 2010: 135). These are vocabulary equivalence, idiomatic equivalence, grammatical-syntactical equivalence, experiential equivalence, and conceptual equivalence.

As many advertisements are used internationally these days, it is quite useful that companies think about possible pitfalls right from the beginning. It seems to be insufficient to produce an advert in one language, and then find an agency to

translate the text into another language. The fact that the length of advertising texts will vary from language to language has to be taken into consideration while working on the physical layout of an advertisement. For example, almost every text written in English will be approximately one third longer in Slovak.

It is obvious that international advertisements have had a significant impact on the style, structure and language of national advertisements. There are some negative phenomena, such as word-by-word translations, frequent use of certain words and exaggerated use of attributes that can be observed in advertisements widely used all over the world.

Many times companies do not pay enough attention to market research. Richards, Hull and Proctor (Richards et al. 1998: 77) mention some areas in which problems have arisen. A wrong choice for the name of a product can have fatal consequences for sales. For example when General Motors introduced its Chevy Nova into Latin America, it did not realize that "*No va*" in Spanish means "it doesn't go." The Colgate company introduced a toothpaste in France called Cue, the name of a French pornographic magazine.

Badly translated slogans can also cause difficulties. The slogan "Come alive with Pepsi!," so successful in the United States was an embarrassing flop in Germany and China because it was pleading with Germans to "come out of the grave" and telling Chinese that "Pepsi brings your ancestors back from the grave." When Parker marketed a pen in Mexico, its ads were supposed to say "It won't leak in your pocket and embarrass you." However, the company translated "embarrass" as *embarazar*, which means "to become pregnant." So the ads said "It won't leak in your pocket and make you pregnant." An American T-shirt maker in Miami printed shirts for the Spanish market which promoted the Pope's visit. Instead of "I saw the Pope" (*el Papa*), the shirts read "I saw the potato" (*la papa*). When Braniff Airlines translated a slogan for its comfortable seats, "fly in leather" it came out in Spanish as "fly naked." The American slogan for Salem cigarettes, "Salem-Feeling Free," was translated into Japanese as "When smoking Salem, you will feel so refreshed that your mind seems to be free and empty."

There are many ways how to improve translation and avoid amusing translation errors. One of them is to use back translation. It involves translating from the first language into the targeted language, then translating back into the first language. Then the result is compared to the original.

Vocabulary equivalence

Many English words have multiple meanings and a lot of groups of words can be easily confused. In Jandt's book (2010: 136) a sentence written by a U.S. businessperson was supposed to be translated into Japanese. The sentence "We wonder if you would prepare an agenda for our meeting" was translated as "We doubt that you would prepare an agenda for our meeting." In the original text, the word "wonder" was meant as a polite way of telling the Japanese partners to prepare the agenda. In a restaurant we can order the following meal "Beef broth with *ancient Bohemian meat balls" (Clark, Pointon 2003: v). Instead of using the word "ancient" the word "traditional" would be more appropriate. "A well known rally driver is reported as saying: For many years, Ford and I have had a gentleman's

agreement – in writing of course." (Clark, Pointon 2003: 9). A gentleman's agreement means an unwritten, yet binding agreement. An alternative to this expression is "verbal agreement." The word "actual" is commonly used in the business context. In many languages, including Slovak, it means current or topical but in English it refers to "real," e.g. actual performance = real performance, so actual performance does not mean current performance. "Both the *mother and daughter company did not perform very well last year." In many languages the term "mother company" is correct, yet English has the term "parent company." "Let me introduce Mr Schmidt, our *economical director." (Clark, Pointon 2003: 70). The word "economical" refers to saving money, resources and time, while "economic" is connected with the word economy and the subject of economics. A certain similarity can be seen in the use of "electric" and "electrical." The adjective "electric" refers to the production and use of electricity while the adjective "electrical" refers to things connected less directly with electricity. The expression "*electric engineers" indicates engineers powered by electricity while graduates in electrical engineering are "electrical engineers" (Clark, Pointon 2003: 72).

Idiomatic equivalence

According to Crystal (2003: 163), the meaning of the idiomatic phrase cannot be deduced by examining the meanings of the constituent lexemes. This implies that idiomatic expressions have a figurative meaning which is known only through conventional use. In fact many words in English have idiomatic origins, but with time passing on they have been assimilated and their figurative sense has been lost. For example, the word "headache" in the sentence "Trying to make the company place more orders is a big headache" can be replaced by the word "problem." But most idioms have no easy equivalent, and the only way how to help non-native speakers understand these phrases lies in explanation. Taking a closer look at British and American English, Crystal (2003: 306) shows the following idiomatic expressions:

Table 3

Idioms used in British English	Explanation
• hard cheese	• bad luck
• drop a brick	• blunder
• in queer street	• in debt
• The best of British!	• Good luck!

Table 4

Idioms used in American English	Explanation
• right off the bat	• with no delay
• feel like two cents	• feel ashamed
• out of left field	• unexpectedly
• take the Fifth	• refuse to answer
• a bum steer	• bad advice

Semantically, the majority of English idioms are monosemantic (i.e. they carry only one meaning) but some of them are polysemantic (i.e. they have more meanings). For instance, in the English expression "bring home the bacon," a non--native speaker knowing only the meaning of individual words (bring, home, and bacon) is unable to derive the expression's real meanings, which are either "to succeed" or "to earn money to live on." The next phrase "be running on empty" means either to continue to work although one has no energy left or a person/company has no new ideas anymore and is not as effective as earlier.

From the semantic point of view, idioms are basically classified into pure idioms, figurative idioms, and semi-idioms.

Pure idioms (also called opaque idioms or demotivated idioms) are expressions which meanings cannot be deduced by examining individual words of the phrases, such as red tape, paint one's fence, hit the roof, (be) on the ball or dead wood.

Figurative idioms (also semi-opaque or partially motivated idioms) are expressions which meanings can be deduced by examining individual words of the phrases, such as talk behind one's back, bottom of the career ladder, hammer out the details or get the message.

Semi-idioms (restricted collocations) are expressions in which at least one word is used in a figurative meaning while the other word/words has/have a direct meaning, such as wrap up the meeting, golden hello, golden handshake, blind alley job, rain cats and dogs or keep sb in the picture.

Another feature of idiomatic expressions is figuration. As we can notice above, idiomatic phrases usually consist of words that are used in an indirect, non-literal sense or atypical mode. There are four basic figurative elements that can often be observed in idiomatic expressions – metaphor, metonymy, hyperbole and simile.

Metaphor is an implied comparison, in which a word used originally for one thing is applied to another (e.g. on thin ice = in a potential minefield, a headache = a problem, or homework = preparation).

We speak about another figure of speech, metonymy, when the name of one thing is used instead of another one which is associated with it, e.g. a small beer meaning an unimportant person or thing, a fat cat meaning a rich and influential person, a big fish/noise meaning an important and powerful person, Uncle Sam meaning the government or the country of The United States of America, or Fort Knox (His house is like a Fort Knox) meaning a very well protected building.

Hyperbole means exaggerating for effect, in order to make something sound bigger, stronger, better or smaller, worse, etc. For instance, to kill sb with kindness means that one is too kind to somebody, or to kill time means wasting time.

Simile is a figure in which one thing is compared to another, which is quite dissimilar, it often contains words such as "like" or "as": as safe as houses = very safe, as sharp as a needle = bright, fit as a fiddle = healthy, like a fish out of water = uncomfortable, a memory like a sieve = a bad memory.

It is generally accepted that idiomatic phrases are culturally salient. Idioms require some basic knowledge, information, and experience of using them within a culture where they are used. Furthermore, some meanings can be precisely expressed only in metaphorical language. Of course, it is necessary to explain the exact function(s) of an idiomatic phrase, but more importantly, it seems to be crucial

to draw non-speakers' attention to the role of these expressions in exchanges between speakers.

Grammatical-syntactical equivalence

Languages do not have the same grammar. English places emphasis on the word order which is often described as fixed. And although the placement of the core elements in a clause is regulated, variations are allowed. But all in all word order is used in English as a grammar signal. A typical word order is the SVO order (subject – verb – object). Its importance can be seen in Table 5, where the meaning of the sentences varies based on the changes made in the word order.

Table 5. Source of sentences 2 and 3: Crystal (2003: 214)

1	Please, place a book on the table.	↔	Remember to book a place.
2	Only I saw Mary.	↔	I saw only Mary.
3	The man with a dog saw me.	↔	The man saw me with a dog.

In Table 6 basic word orders of some languages are presented (Jandt 2010: 129).

Table 6

Word order	Sentence	Sample Languages
SVO	"Cats eat mice."	English, Chinese, Swahili
SOV	"Cats mice eat."	Japanese, Korean
VSO	"Eat cats mice."	Classical Arabic, Welsh, Samoan
VOS	"Eat mice cats."	Tzotzil (a Mayan language)
OSV	"Mice cats eat."	Kabardian (a language of the northern Caucasus)
OVS	"Mice eat cats."	Hixkaryana (a language of Brazil)

Experiential equivalence

If an object or experience is not present in one culture, it might be complicated to translate words relating to that object or experience into that language when words do not exist for them.

Conceptual equivalence

The problem of conceptual equivalence refers to abstract ideas that may have different meanings in different cultures. The meaning of words like freedom, democracy, human rights or corruption is not universally shared. In Slovakia people often associate freedom with speaking honestly their mind or with travelling without restrictions. The meaning of this freedom is not equivalent to what one can experience as freedom in the United States. The word corruption "connotes negative, bad, improper behavior" (Jandt 2010: 137) in the Unites States and in Slovakia; in the United States corruption is a crime and wrong on moral grounds, while in Slovakia corruption is often not perceived as morally wrong.

Linguistic imperialism

In our opinion no language should dominate the world. We think that linguistic rights have to be upheld because each language is unique and because "each language provides a uniquely communal, and uniquely individual, means by which human beings apprehend the world and one another" (Kramsch 1998: 77). However, it seems that the spread of English is undeniable. Phillipson defines English linguistic imperialism as follows: "the dominance of English is asserted and maintained by the establishment and continuous reconstitution of structural and cultural inequalities between English and other languages" (Phillipson 1992: 47). The dominance of English has resulted in the fact that firstly, more and more resources are allocated to English than to other languages. Secondly, the global use of English benefits those people who are proficient in English. According to Phillipson, "the legitimation of English linguistic imperialism makes use of two main mechanisms" (Phillipson 1992: 47) – anglocentricity and professionalism, which considerably contribute to the structural and cultural inequalities between English and other languages. The significant economic importance of English is also reflected in this quote: "Britain's real black gold is not North Sea oil but the English language" (Phillipson 1992: 49).

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Wybrane bariery językowe w komunikacji międzynarodowej w kontekście studiów z zarządzania

Streszczenie

Obecnie silnie promuje się język angielski jako jedyny, który jest w stanie sprostać wyzwaniom współczesności. Jednak język jest również przeszkodą w komunikacji międzykulturowej. Słowa jako symbole stają się barierą gdy ich denotacja lub konotacja nie są wspólne dla uczestników rozmowy. Przykłady źle przetłumaczonych haseł reklamowych pokazują, że wiele firm nie zwraca uwagi na aspekty kulturowe. Szczególnie w języku angielskim, w którym wiele słów ma wiele znaczeń, a sam język jest bogaty w wyrażenia idiomatyczne. Jest

oczywiste, że idiomy powinny być używane jedynie w ramach kultury do której przynależą, a ich użycie wymaga wiedzy i doświadczenia. Kolejnym aspektem jest gramatyka, która różni się w języku angielskim w porównaniu z innymi językami przez swoją zamkniętą strukturę zdania. Podobnie jest z wyrażaniem pojęć abstrakcyjnych, jak wolność, demokracja, korupcja. Różnią się one znaczeniem w zależności od kultury w której są używane. Mimo to język angielski dominuje obecnie w światowej komunikacji.

Małgorzata Smentek

BRINGING LANGUAGE AND CULTURE TO LIFE
– THE SIGNIFICANCE OF AUTHENTIC AUDIOVISUAL INPUT IN ELT

Foreword

High technology and the media have permeated our everyday existence. They are not only an integral part of our daily routine but, for many, also "a primary source of social models and [...] social identities" (Meskill 2002: 23). It is most evident in the case of the New Millennium Learners, so accustomed to this cutting edge reality that life might seem empty without it.

In contrast to these trends, many, if not most Polish educational institutions, continue to rely on the conservative transmission mode of education, noticeable already at the visual level of the teacher-fronted set-up of the classrooms. Similarly, foreign language classrooms in Polish schools still appear to be largely confined to the traditional course book based instruction where the CD is the only resource tool in the hands of the language teacher, and where the CD and the teacher provide the only form of aural input.

Despite EFL teachers' declared willingness to make use of technological innovations in language teaching as well as their asserted familiarity with the plethora of studies conducted on the benefits of technology-enhanced methodologies, most of our EFL classrooms remain set in their ways, unaffected by the world outside.

The aim of the present study is to argue for the obligatory incorporation of authentic audiovisual resources into foreign language education, in particular at the highest proficiency levels. While developing this argument, I focus on a number of key issues: the characteristics and needs of today's C1+ learners, the notion of authentic materials in ELT and their function in the development of advanced students' linguistic, sociolinguistic and cultural competences.

Advanced learners in ELT

This paper concentrates exclusively on the advanced learner. Although a number of the ideas suggested here may be valid for lower proficiency levels, it is at the highest stages of foreign language education that students need to learn and absorb the common as well as the unique in terms of linguistic discourse and sociolinguistic expression. Only then can they finally focus on those aspects of language which had to pass unnoticed at lower stages of their language education.

Advanced level – a description

Advanced learners, as understood in the forthcoming discussion, are learners at level C1 and above, as defined by "The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: learning, teaching, assessment" (CEF). According to CEF (CoE 2006), with regards to the receptive skill of listening, the development of which is central to the present discussion, C1 learners can comprehend a wide range of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms; follow with considerable ease extended speech on abstract, complex topics i.e. most lectures and discussions, as well as broadcast and recorded audio material.

Therefore, the assumption is that the advanced student is a fairly proficient listener. On the other hand, however, practical experience shows that there are many C1 learners who are "hard of listening" (Vanderplank 1988: 277) and who, although quite good at course book-based listening comprehension activities, continue to struggle while trying to comprehend natural, authentic spoken discourse. That is why, in order to facilitate their further progress, teachers must adopt some solutions which will enable them to equip the learners with competences needed in genuine everyday interaction outside the language classroom.

Advanced learners' objectives

In the broadest sense, the objective of listening practice is to prepare the learners to function successfully in real-life listening situations (Ur 1984, 1996: 105). Yet, highly advanced learners are expected to (North 2007), and in most cases also would like to effectively understand any spoken discourse regardless of its obscurity, sophistication or complexity levels, preferably with the effectiveness of a well-educated native speaker – WENS (term adopted from North 2005). To assume that this calibre of knowledge and skills will be acquired "by the way," would be extremely naive. It is indisputable that in order to develop and master such an array of aural receptive abilities, advanced learners need to gain excellent linguistic skills as well as comprehension skills of sociocultural and sociolinguistic references. All these objectives call for much more than the mere ability to "get the gist," to "get by" fostered by the popular communicative approach.

Language competence is much more than linguistic knowledge alone (Swain 1998, Crozet and Liddicoat 1999, Niemeier 2004). Students also have to learn and understand how the foreign language works and how things are said and done in a given culture. They also need to become familiar with the minutiae of daily life – habits, body language, fashions in clothes, gender roles, relationships within the family and at work – "and indeed the whole feeling of the social landscape" (Sherman 2003: 12). In order to do so, they must not be confined to communicative listening tasks and pseudo-authentic materials available on the CD accompanying their course book. Recordings selected for these kinds of activities at best try to simulate real-life communication in the target language. Unfortunately, they "convey very little information beyond actual semantic content. Most recordings take place against a silent and therefore totally neutral background, the participants are of indeterminate age and character, speak in standard accent [...] and are rarely actually performing a significant communicative transaction" (Ur 1984: 164). Also, the prevailing trend in ELT seems to encourage listening solely for the purpose of

simulated, communicative practice, narrowed down to multiple-choice and T/F questions (Wenzel 2001: 94–95), which, while effective at lower proficiency levels, do not lead to the expected development of linguistic and cultural competences pursued by the very advanced learner.

To acquire these competences students have to expand their linguistic repertoire and understanding of the target culture in order to be later able to interact in it in appropriate and socially acceptable ways. One must not forget that even very advanced learners are not native speakers: although they generally have the ability to understand many sociocultural and sociolinguistic references, in practice, they miss a great deal of linguistic and socioculturally rooted nuances and subtleties: slang, idiomatic expressions, puns, verbal word play, allusions, jokes, sarcasm and irony, to name but a few.

Up to the advanced level, students are not expected to comprehend cultural specificity in the target language simply because their wealth of vocabulary and structures is not extensive enough. The situation changes dramatically at the highest levels of proficiency: now sophisticated sociocultural and sociolinguistic sensitivity becomes indispensable. Since language depends on context and context is cultural, even a student whose knowledge of the foreign language is very good still experience frequent communication problems due to his/her inadequate cultural interpretation. Culture affects the linguistic code. The sociopolitical environment of a given society can penetrate the language to such an extent that many lexical units and phraseologies are very difficult, if not impossible, for a foreign learner's comprehension (Leaver and Shekhtman 2002: 23).

That is why at highly advanced levels of proficiency the learners need to maintain constant contact with the target language culture. As direct and intensive immersion is seldom possible, culture has to be regularly smuggled into the classroom as well as into teaching resources. It is my firm conviction that this requirement can effectively be fulfilled by means of incorporating into ELT complementary authentic video materials, rich in sociolinguistic and cultural associations, which are unavailable in the course books on offer.

The notion of authentic materials and authenticity

The term "authentic" in FLT is very imprecise and, depending on the adopted criteria, can be interpreted in a number of different ways (Dakowska 2001: 127–135, 2005: 183–187). In most FLT materials, the notion "authentic" describes materials, i.e. authentic texts/input data (written or spoken). Some scholars argue that these are materials created by native speakers for native speakers of a given language (Rogers and Medley 1988). Others claim that they are materials which have been "produced for purposes other than to teach language" (Nunan 1988: 99) or, in other words, written for real-life communicative purpose (Lee 1995), not with the foreign language learner in mind (Ur 1996). There are also researchers who question this one-sided line of interpretation, arguing that any text which has been removed from its original context and/or intended audience immediately becomes "inauthentic" (Breen 1985, Widdowson 1998, Chavez 1998). Many insist that authenticity should not be narrowed down to materials alone. Consequently, they extend the interpretation of authenticity and subdivide it into text/input authenticity, task

authenticity, learner authenticity, authenticity of use, interaction and situation (e.g. Breen 1985, Lee 1995, Widdowson 1998, Wenzel 2001).

For the purpose of the present discussion, however, the term "authentic material" is used in the most basic sense, i.e. to describe audiovisual (AV) materials drawn from genuine contexts and sources which have not been created or simplified for the purpose of FLT.

Authentic video in practice: a look at the classroom

Audiovisual materials have been assigned a significant role in foreign language teaching for so long that, in fact, video is no longer perceived as new technology. Nevertheless, despite its seemingly well-established position in FLT, video, even the kind explicitly designed for language teaching, is still a very rare component of our foreign language lessons. The above conclusion stems from over sixty hours of EFL lesson observations and evaluations conducted over a period of the past seven months, as well as the preliminary findings of a questionnaire carried out among randomly selected 118 post-B2 level university and secondary school students in the Gdańsk area. According to the questionnaire over 88 percent of students declare that they have not watched any video material in their compulsory foreign language class in the past two terms, while the remaining 12 percent have done so once or twice in the same period of time. These results are quite illustrative of what goes on in the language classroom. Conclusions drawn from lesson observations and evaluations, unfortunately, largely confirm the data obtained in the preliminary student questionnaire.

The question remains: what are the reasons for this widespread absence of audiovisuals in our language classrooms? The information obtained from EFL teachers in personal communication sheds some light on the problem and allows us to identify three major reasons for the current state of things. Firstly, there are many teachers who claim they do not have immediate access to the necessary equipment, reluctantly admitting that the thought itself of having to sign up for a TV set and a DVD player days, if not weeks, before the lesson coupled with the hassle of wheeling the equipment back and forth between the classrooms only to use it for 15–20 minutes are enough of a deterrent. Secondly, there are those who decide not to implement additional materials as they feel "pressed for time" because "there is a course book to cover and a syllabus to follow:" coincidentally, they usually happen to be the ones teaching advanced levels, e.g. A-levels, CAE or CPE exam courses, where the exam/test seems to be the ultimate goal of language education. Last but not least, there are also the teachers who dismiss the value of authentic audiovisuals in formal educational institutions, arguing that they are "only a distraction in the process of teaching," breed "inactivity and passive viewing" and, as such, "had better be left for after school entertainment."

A different perspective: advantages for the advanced learner

In contrast to the opinions presented above, among most SLA researchers and FLT methodologists, there seems to be a general consensus as regards the role and benefits of authentic audiovisuals for the language learning process (e.g. Ur 1984, 1996; Rogers and Medley 1988; MacWilliam 1990; Stempleski and Tomalin 2001; Rost 1990, 2002; Harris 2003; Shermann 2003). Their research demonstrates that

the advantages stemming from the regular use of authentic video and television in class are indeed multiple.

To begin with, "the most obvious reason for using video [...] is that language students want it. It is not an indulgence or a frill but central to language learning" (Sherman 2003: 12). It is like a breath of fresh air in an EFL classroom as it replaces the monotony and predictability of the course book or exam oriented lesson. It deals with contemporary issues relevant to students' lives and conveys real--life language, used by the target language community – also in all down-to-earth situations marginalised by academically or exam-oriented course books for the advanced addressee. It exposes them to different accents, dialects, registers, slang as well as up-to-date vocabulary and colloquialisms. More importantly, however, the language can finally be interpreted in the dense visual context supplied by events, actions, expressions and gestures (Sherman 2003: 13). It is therefore more likely than the semi-authentic AV materials for ELT, not to mention sound-only CD recordings, to awaken students' true curiosity for language, to sensitise them to the great richness of linguistic expression and, consequently, to enhance their language awareness. Thus, authentic AV recordings are a real learning-well of linguistic and sociolinguistic information delivered in context. What is more, with proper teacher guidance, some of this input can be successfully turned into intake. Not surprisingly then, authentic resources are usually very enthusiastically received by advanced language learners as extremely motivating and interesting. In fact, students tend to perceive them as one of the most supreme sources of linguistic and sociocultural knowledge available outside the target language community. Their strong affective impact also plays an important role in boosting the student's genuine interest in the content, thus increasing the probability of authentic language use.

Apart from being a potentially convenient springboard for reinforcing students' receptive skill of listening, authentic AV materials can be immensely motivating to watch, thus engaging students' long term memory, which, in turn, facilitates the acquisition of language and general knowledge. Consequently, they are also likely to encourage the learners to adopt L2 viewing habits and make independent use of authentic AV sources outside the EFL classroom, thus aiding life-long autonomous learning.

Although in ELT our main concern is language development, the application of authentic AV materials in class should not be limited to the linguistic aim only. Authentic video also embeds the linguistic terms into culturally influenced forms of thinking and sociocultural concepts (Meskill 2002). Due to its wealth and complexity of sociocultural associations and nuances, this type of input is irreplaceable for the development of advanced learners' knowledge of the social, cultural, economic and political aspects of the target community. This knowledge is a pre-requisite if one wishes to comprehend language with the effectiveness of an educated native speaker. According to Kramsch (1993: 188): "The idea that is raised by the use of real-life materials is that culture is a reality that is social, political and ideological and that the difficulty of understanding cultural codes stems from the difficulty of viewing the world from another perspective, not grasping another lexical or grammatical code." Authentic AV input "is a window into [that – M.S.] culture" (Sherman 2003: 12). This contact with the target language and culture, or its lack, enhances or

hinders language acquisition and the development of cultural competence (Meskill 2002).

Creating cultural awareness involves observing, exploring and comprehending a different reality. "Providing the learner with ample communicative environment caters to [the learner's – M.S.] role of an observer" (Dakowska 2003: 166). Language students, in particular those at the higher proficiency levels, need extensive exposure to realistic interaction as a basis for their own speech (Sherman 2003: 14). Judiciously selected and implemented AV input answers these needs. In fact, "it is an entry ticket to the English speaking world, on a par with […] other language activities found in EFL course books. It should like them be regarded as a language learning goal in its own right" (Sherman 2003: 13).

Practical implications for the advanced EFL classroom

Although the significance of authentic AV materials in ELT is unquestionable, exposure alone is not sufficient to stretch the advanced students' linguistic and sociocultural powers to the limit. Consequently, the process of viewing has to be purposely integrated with language learning. The success of this venture to a great extent depends on the selection of input and the procedures adopted in class.

Input selection

Today's multitude of potential sources of authentic AV input for ELT is truly impressive. It is easily accessible through satellite and cable TV, the Internet and DVD, and ranges from educational films, documentaries, TV news, interviews, through sports programmes, soap operas, drama series, comedy sketches, to full-length feature films, plays, etc. The process of material selection and task design, of course, will not be complete without considering the academic and/or non-academic interests and needs of the student. These, too, due to affective and motivational factors, are of paramount importance for any language learning activity. As long as the discourse is related to the students' general interests, field of study, current hot issues, or always enthusiastically received entertainment, students' response is very positive.

My experience shows that in case of very advanced L2 students it is a good idea to apply similar criteria of material selection as one would for L1 input. C1 level students of economics, for example, appear to be genuinely interested in and benefit from the latest news programmes and TV interviews in which issues such as unemployment, taxes, bank and company mergers are discussed. However, with a similar class of early education students, these topics are unlikely to gain popularity. Interestingly, they would much rather follow educational TV programmes, or even cartoons, designed for English speaking children, which, conveniently for the latter group, offer ample opportunity to plug many gaps in their lexicon. It is my experience that very many advanced students do not comprehend notions and expressions with which English 3-year-olds are familiar, e.g. "Action Stations," "go tobogganing," "candy floss," "night-night," "play musical statues," "play freeze tag" or "make a snow angel." As follows, even such trivial, ludic and definitely non-academic input as cartoons for pre-schoolers can, to some extent, raise the advanced students' cross-linguistic and cross-cultural competences.

Input exploitation

Ever-newer innovations in digital technology allow for enormous freedom and creativity in terms of the ways AV input can be presented and exploited in a modern EFL classroom. Teachers can now choose from an impressive range of techniques, tools and activities.

To make optimal use of AV-enhanced teaching it is highly recommended that the input meets the following criteria:
• it is suited to the students' interests, linguistic needs and/or general educational goals;
• it is appropriate for the aim of the teacher's procedures in the EFL classroom;
• it is challenging, yet generally comprehensible; characterised by a high degree of naturalism of speech, as well as high verbal density rather than plenty of action;
• it is self-contained, i.e. meaningful and significant but not too long – cutting off a story-line midstream will prove counterproductive (Meskill 2002: 101).

Last but not least, the strategy adopted for video implementation in class must be top-down processing first, rather than bottom-up. Simply stated, first comes the viewing for general comprehension, with the hope for authentic listening/ authentic language use; next come bottom-up processes focusing on the analysis and processing of linguistic data.

Through a variety of approaches, at C1+ level AV input can be effectively used for practising broadly understood listening skills as well as for conscious language study. It is also a convenient springboard for developing follow-up speaking, writing or even reading (AV with L2 subtitles).

As it is beyond the scope of the present article to compile a selection of ready--to-use AV activities, or go into an in-depth discussion of all the possible ways of teaching English with this particular aid, I shall limit myself to presenting only these ideas which I have found particularly fruitful for the advanced level student. These include the following:

1. After a brief introduction by the teacher, students watch the whole programme. Provided its content is characterised by a high degree of cognitive appeal (Wenzel 2001: 46, 53–54), students are likely to become genuinely involved in the listening-viewing process. If this is the case, no standard comprehension--check techniques (e.g. multiple choice or T/F questions) should be assigned as they will inevitably change the character of listening from authentic listening/ authentic language use to listening practice (Wenzel 2001: 51). Rather, it is hoped that the AV input becomes a point of departure for an in-class discussion focusing on its deeper layers, as well as target culture specific political, social or economic issues. A possible follow-up, with the aid of freeze framing, is for the class to concentrate on and discuss visual cultural information such as buildings, institutions, events, signs, notices, etc.

2. Having completed step 1 (above), the teacher can proceed with activities aiming at language development. One idea is for the students to practise the skill of "shadowing" (Dakowska 2005: 30): the teacher pauses the recording sequentially while students repeat in L2 everything that has been said. It is an excellent stimulus for a thorough analysis of the language used in various registers. Slang, colloquialisms or difficult vocabulary hindering full comprehension can

be handled at the moment the problem is discovered. The aim is to improve intensive listening, pronunciation/intonation (for this purpose, however, standard accent recordings only), and expand L2 lexicon. The activity may also aid the development of working memory span for productive tasks (Dakowska 2005: 222).

3. Optionally, instead of "shadowing" the teacher asks the students to perform consecutive interpreting (from L2 to L1) of selected fragments of the AV recording.

4. An even more challenging variation of this procedure is for the students to prepare, with the help of semi-professional subtitling software, L1 or L2 subtitles for selected video clips viewed in class. However, due to reported technological limitations (lack of computer labs at schools and colleges), this idea may not be feasible in many school settings. A possible solution is to turn this kind of task into a homework assignment: individual or group project.

5. Videos can also be used as a basis for comparing L1 subtitles with the original soundtrack, as well as identifying and correcting defective and ambiguous extracts in already available translations.

The list of AV applications presented above is by no means exhaustive. However, the aim of the article is rather to provide a stimulus for language teachers to pursue their own ideas and ways leading to more effective EFL teaching of the E-generation. My conclusions from lesson observations as well as several years of hands-on experience of teaching C1+ levels lead me to suggest that in the process of material selection and task design teachers should remain very open-minded. Rather than subject the input to intense academic scrutiny, they should examine and focus on their learners' objectives and interests. From the students' perspective, AV-enhanced learning is usually a very attractive alternative to the classroom routine. Due to its high degree of cognitive appeal, when judiciously selected and implemented, it also tends to leave a more lasting imprint on the student's cognitive structure than a few pages covered in the EFL course book.

Concluding remarks

Although (it might seem) one can hardly deny the usefulness of authentic AV input in the foreign language classroom, its practical implementation in educational establishments does not match the declared rate of adoption, thus falling short of the expectations of the linguistically and technologically advanced New Millennium Learner.

We should not overlook the fact that these learners come from "a culture dominated by the visual image, and in particular, the moving image" (Maley in the foreword to Stempleski and Tomalin 2001). For the E-generation, authentic audiovisual materials are a natural, convenient and intrinsically motivating medium as well as the source of sociolinguistic, sociocultural and paralinguistic information delivered in full context.

When the input material is selected according to its cognitive potential (Wenzel 2001) and matches the interests and educational needs of the advanced learners, it becomes challenging and cognitively involving. As such, it facilitates

further development of the learners' linguistic repertoire and general knowledge. It "offers an enlargement of [their – M.S.] knowledge of the world and the cultures that it contains. It is in the broadest sense «educational»" (Maley in Stempleski and Tomalin 2001).

As a matter of fact, in the absence of a possibility of direct immersion in the foreign language and culture, the inclusion of supplementary authentic audiovisual data remains one of the best means of bringing the target language and culture to life.

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Stosowanie znajomości języka i kultury w życiu codziennym – znaczenie materiałów autentycznych w nauczaniu angielskiego

Streszczenie

Stosowanie materiałów audiowizualnych na lekcjach języków obcych nie jest niczym nowym, jednak w czasie formalnych lekcji języka obcego, w znacznym stopniu opartych na materiałach podręcznikowych, dosyć rzadko sięgamy po autentyczne programy telewizyjne, seriale, filmy.

Celem niniejszego artykułu jest odpowiedź na sceptycyzm nauczycieli wobec stosowania autentycznych materiałów audiowizualnych i przekonanie ich, że w czasach, gdy ich uczniowie są od urodzenia mieszkańcami zaawansowanego technologicznie świata, oni też powinni do tego świata należeć.

Artykuł omawia emocjonalne, kognitywne i lingwistyczne powody dla których autentyczne materiały audiowizualne powinny być częścią każdego kursu języka obcego, szczególnie na wyższych poziomach zaawansowania, a także przedstawia kilka propozycji technik nauczania z użyciem autentycznych materiałów audiowizualnych.

Agnieszka Strzałka

POLITE AS YOU CAN BE.
TEACHING TO BE POLITE IN ENGLISH AS A LINGUA FRANCA

> *[...] teaching of English as an International Language*
> *entails a mindset different from previous approachesto ELT*
>
> (Sharifian 2009: 11)

Theoretical considerations

Linguistic politeness in the world

For the purpose of this paper politeness will be understood in the spirit of Wierzbicka's criticism of Gricean maxims, which she describes as "exceedingly ethnocentric" (Wierzbicka 2008: 3), because based exclusively on Anglo-Saxon values. Rather than consider politeness from the perspective of universalism, we will venture to discuss it in terms of sociolinguistic knowledge of different ways of communicating politely: cultural relativism and ethnography of speaking.

Politeness can be realized by different communities and cultures though their use of different politeness strategies. The strategies form part of the communicative competence of the speakers, their knowledge of how to speak to whom, when and what about so that they are not only understood but also appropriate.

Brown and Levinson's politeness strategies, although universalists in provenience, can be used to discuss differences between communities (social variable) and cultures (cultural variable). Their typology includes positive politeness, negative politeness, off-record politeness and bold on record politeness (Brown and Levinson 1987). While positive politeness denotes the speaker's attempts to satisfy the hearer's positive face, that is their need to be noticed, accepted and liked, negative politeness covers attempts to save the hearer's negative face, that is the need for autonomy and independence. The two types can be exemplified with two different ways of offering help: "let me take this for you," where the value is solidarity, and leaving the hearer with a choice: "I can help you with that if you want me to," where the value is respect for independence and distance. Off record politeness is marked by the speaker's indirectness, attempts to save the hearer's negative or positive face by means of hints, allusions and hesitant suggestions, for example: "I have walked a long way" rather than "Can I have a drink?." The value here is lack of imposition, tact, and care for hearer's feelings. On the contrary, bold on record strategy, consists of direct expressions of wants, instructions, refusals etc, e.g. "No" rather than "nor really," "Give me a pen/hand/glass of water," where the value is honesty and low chances of misunderstanding. The level of accepted

directedness will be defined by the speakers' relative status and emergency of the situation but also the cultural preference for strategy choice, e.g. while Anglo-Saxon culture values indirect requests and disagreements in most contexts, cultures such as Russian, Israeli or Polish will see more "closeness" or solidarity in expressing wants and opinions directly (Wierzbicka 2003). The Dutch, opting for tolerance of opinion, express their views in a discussion mildly, which contrasts with a direct, almost aggressive participation style of the Germans (Hofstede 2002). Ways of speaking, like ways of thinking, are culturally-specific.

Speech community as a nest of politeness norms

As it is social and cultural groups who produce, share and carry forward certain norms of polite behaviour, from the perspective of ethnography of communication different cultures, ethnic groups and social strata can understand politeness in different ways. Speech community, understood as people who share a language or dialect, and more specifically, the rules of speaking, norms of interpretation, and discourse strategies, will be the central notion of the next section, in which we look at the differences between English as a Native Language and English as a Lingua Franca.

English as a Native Language and English as a Lingua Franca

Apart from being the mother tongue of approximately 400 million speakers, English is now a means of communication for a population of non-native speakers (including speakers of English as a second language) that outnumbers the native speakers by 3: 1 ratio (Crystal 2003).

The speech community of native users of English, however heterogeneous, is different from the world wide community of users of English as an International Language or Lingua Franca (called henceforth ELF). In fact the communities form inclusive groups: users of ELF can be native speakers, Kachru's Outer Circle speakers (e.g. Indian speakers of English) or Expanding Circle speakers (The Chinese, Poles, etc.). Seen in this light, the speech community of ELF speakers is much more heterogeneous than the Inner Circle (ENL) community.

An issue in this section is whether to be communicatively competent in English as a Native Language means to be equally competent in English in its Lingua Franca variety? If we assumed a positive answer, we would need to conclude that native speakers of English are perfectly competent in ELF. Henry Widdowson once remarked that native speakers of English should in fact learn how to speak ELF, which is a code separate from ENL (Widdowson 2004, public communication). Consequently, the sharing of norms, interpretations and strategies, characteristic for the original Anglo community may be questioned and subject to negotiation, and accommodation processes (in cognitive terms, to *normalization*, as Sifakis 2006 suggests). In this article the negotiation of norms of speaking will refer to the politeness face of communication.

Politeness in ENL versus ELF

As an alternative to Kachru's Inner Circle English, Wierzbicka mentions Anglo--English, as a specific core of values associated with English despite its variation

and change in the world. This core, she says, "is not culturally neutral" (Wierzbicka 2008: 5).

Today English is considered a shared property of native and non-native users and we can hypothesize that not all norms of ENL will be automatically used in ELF. Part of them may be carried through to that variety, as part of "heritage" of the previous "owners of English," while some others will be not.

In ELF communication, where linguistic and cultural variation is a fact, a crucial issue is its speakers' comprehensibility, that is the ability to adjust their speaking to the interlocutors' communicative performance. Consequently, ELF communication is described as much more situation specific than norm driven (Sifakis 2006 after Giles et al. 1991).

Still, research focusing on intercultural pragmatics often shows that there seems to be a problem with the native speaker. The native speaker continues to "haunt" SLA studies and L2 users remain to be "the only group still judged by the standards of another" (Cook, http://homepage.ntlworld.com)

Speech acts of L2 users

When we look at studies of specific speech acts, it turns out that non-native speakers' repertoire, for instance of requests, is much wider than the native speakers'. Ambrose, who studied Romanian teachers of English, observes: "The richness of routines does mark their utterances as non-native, but is that necessarily bad? The native speakers seemed downright inarticulate and dull in comparison" (Ambrose 1995: 5). However, when native speakers evaluate non-natives' speech acts, often the non-English strategies of politeness used are considered rude and ineffective. For example, when offering cake at a formal dinner party, "encouragers are meant by the Romanians to be a mark of politeness, but for the native speaker of English they have the opposite effect" (Ibidem: 6).

The clue seems to be cultural values behind speech acts: in this case the Anglo rule of independence collides with Romanian value of hospitality, a value shared by Slavonic and many other world cultures.[1] Wierzbicka often quotes Russian as a language which norms differ drastically from Anglo norms. For instance, there is no norm in Russian against making personal remarks or saying what one thinks, or simply "is the truth" (Wierzbicka 2008: 11). On the other hand, a dialog between native and Chinese speakers of English will show the former as much more truth-than politeness-oriented, in relative terms.

Transfer of politeness strategies – research review

If the politeness norms of a speakers' L1 and L2 differ, the speakers behaviour can be subject to pragmatic transfer. This frequently reported phenomenon can have several reasons: lack of proficiency, the ideas that a given speech act is governed by universal principles, perception of similarities of cultures, overgeneralization, oversimplification or reduction of sociolinguistic knowledge (Dogancay

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[1] In this respect Poland's core values: readiness to share and hospitality reveal our collectivist soul. Comparing our index for Individualism (60) with Anglo one (90) we also seem much more collectivist (or less individualistic). http://www.geert-hofstede.com/hofstede_dimensions.php

and Kamisli 1997). The following table shows some examples of studies confirming the differences between native speakers' and L2/L3 users of English.

Table 1. Sample studies dealing with the problem of politeness in multilinguals

Author, date	Sample	Research problem	Tools	Results
Dogancay and Kamisli 1997	Native Turkish speakers learning English as a Second Language (ESL)	Reaction to wrongdoing of a status-unequal interlocutor in the workplace	Situated role plays	Advanced ESL learners could diverge significantly from target language norms
Sharifian 2008	Persian students of English of intermediate level in English Language Institute in Teheran	Compliment behaviour	Discourse completion test	Speakers of Persian instantiated the cultural schema of *sheka-steh-nafsi*[2], in varying degrees, both in their L1 and L2
Ambrose 1995	Native English speakers and Romanians with a very high level of English fluency	Requests	Questionnaire	Much higher frequency of encouragers, unconventional placement of "please" by non-native speakers[3]
Prykarpatska 2008	Speakers of AE and Ukrainian	Complaints	Natural observation, questionnaires	Complaints made by Ukrainians are much more severe and informal, include greater directness[4]

  Significant differences in the politeness strategies employed by the native speakers and the non-native speakers were found. In the context of second language acquisition, the final judgment made is from the perspective of native-speaker norm: non-native speakers, who carry over pragmatic rules from their first languages are seen as inadequately competent. Researchers working more in the cross-cultural tradition simply observe that these patterns are different due to cultural differences. Such differences can be explained, for example, in terms of Hofstedian culture dimensions (Prykarpatska 2008).

  It cannot be forgotten, though, that also positive transfer of pragmatic knowledge can occur (Kasper 1992, Takahashi 1996 cited by Martinez, Flor, Juan and Guerra 2003).

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[2] Modesty.

[3] For natives, there were hardly any "pleases" attached to requests (e.g. borrowing sth), instead they used other softeners, like "for a moment/minute/second" (Ambrose 1995).

[4] While Americans often used conditional imperatives "Next time, please, call, if know you'll be late," or questions "What happened?" Ukrainians: "How long can you be late?" "I'm sick and tired of waiting," (slang in original), "You could have thrown an sms," "You are always late," "Next time I'll be late" or "Coffee is on you."

Polish politeness versus Anglo English politeness

Politeness strategies described by Polish politeness expert, Małgorzata Marcjanik, as "specific for Polish culture" seem to have at least some common ground with the Anglo world. For Polish learners of English this means the possibility of positive transfer of politeness norms.

For example, the symmetry strategy calls for being reciprocal in using polite phrases, so for example saying "thank you" requires an answer similar to an English "You are welcome." Perhaps what is more problematic is the extension of this norm on "the whole of social relationships" (Marcjanik 2009: 4), which for Poles means that an invitation, memory or favours should always be paid back. The solidarity strategy seems to be an embodiment of positive politeness, in which the speaker feels with the hearer, invites them, offers to help. The English language as such is not devoid of this kind of politeness forms: "congratulations," "we are having a party, why don't you drop by," or "let me carry this for you." Some others, however, differ quite considerably.

The inferiority strategy is probably where Polish and Anglo rules differ most. It shows in such verbal behaviours as rejecting compliments (where the Anglo community would merely play them down or accept), or even congratulations, lack of assertiveness in admitting somebody's fault: "nothing happened," "no problem" as a reaction to irritating behaviour, such as being late, breaking a glass, entering with shoes on (Marcjanik 2009). The principle of magnifying one's faults, e.g. "sorry for taking (wasting) so much of your time" said when leaving somebody's house, after being invited as guest, would sound rather weird in English, especially in the native speaker's ears.

Although the independence principle, as Marcjanik calls it, sounds familiar to a user of English: it says we should be discreet, should not address derogatory terms to the hearer, or third person, and should not impose, in fact the verbal behaviour of Anglo community and Poles often differs here. As Marcjanik observes, in Polish this principle is clearly broken in the context of receiving guests, where the value of hospitality overrules the independence principle: guests are encouraged to eat more than they can, as a response to which they do, not wanting to be impolite by refusing (ibidem, translation A.S.).

It is important to stress that awareness of one's L1 community norms is an important element of the communicative competence of ELF speakers.

Research

The pilot research project was undertaken to check advanced students' of English, future teachers' of that language perception of politeness norms in English as a Native Language, English as a Lingua Franca and in their first language, Polish. The aim of the pilot is to test research problems and tools for a wider study of ELF usage.

Research questions

The following research questions were asked: What is the future teachers' attitude to global English, specifically, which L2 norms, according to them, are present in ELF? What is the influence of L1 norms on teacher's declared politeness

behaviour in ENL and ELF? What is the influence of ENL/ELF norms on teacher's declared politeness behaviour in L1? Additionally, it was interesting for the author to see if the multilinguals' understanding of politeness in L1 is different from that of Polish monolinguals.

Sample

The main sample consisted of fifth-year, almost-graduate students of English Department who participated in the research in the number of 35. Additionally, for the purposes of comparing the data on L1 norm perceptions I asked 28 students of Polish Philology to complete a simplified Polish version of the questionnaire described below. Four of them, who declared proficiency in a foreign language, were eliminated from the analysis. Both groups were students of the Pedagogical University in Cracow. The choice of this convenience sample was justified by the preliminary character of the survey.

Tools

A questionnaire including 21 statements referring to Anglo norms of politeness was selected as a research tool. The statements were largely based on Polish--American differences, described by a sojourner, Laura Klos Sokol, in her book "Shortcuts to Poland" (Klos Sokol 2010). The respondents were asked to decide if they would behave according to a particular norm when communicating with native speakers, non-native speakers in English or other speakers of their first language, in Polish. An option of "I do not use the rule in any of the contexts" was given, too.

As Labov writes in *Sociolinguistic Patterns* (1972), "people's overt claims about language are inaccurate and often contradict their own actual usage" (Ambrose 1995: 1). However, as the aim of the research was more to explore future teachers' awareness of politeness than usage, the author intentionally resorted to this kind of tool.

Data analysis and discussion

ENL norms versus ELF norms

The students were asked to identify norms, which, according to them, apply only in the native speaker context and those which will be more universally used in English as a Lingua Franca. The following table shows the results:

Table 1. To what extent ENL norms apply in ELF usage?

L2 norm of politeness	Only ENL	Both ENL and ELF	Not at all	Comment
1. Response to "how are you" – a positive statement	12 (34%)	18 (51%)	4 (11%)	Still, sounds problematic
2. Meeting a new person tell her your name, start conversation	3 (8%)	18 (51%)	7 (20%)	
3. Difference of opinion – avoid open conflict	7 (20%)	13 (37%)	9 (25%)	Non Anglo emotionality?
4. Offering help/a favour respect independence	4 (11%)	17 (48%)	1 (3%)	

5. Asking a favour, show that you do not want to impose	4 (11%)	19 (54%)	1 (3%)	
6. Invitation of the kind "we must meet some day" is treated as a conversation closing	11 (31%)	8 (22%)	2 (6%)	It's too Anglo?
7. A food offer – another helping, avoid coquetry	8 (22%)	8 (22%)	8 (22%)	It's too Anglo?
8. Do not offer advice if not asked to	5 (14%)	6 (17%)	22 (62%)	Poles like to give advice
9. Behave calmly in public even if angry	6 (17%)	14 (40%)	3 (8%)	
10. Offer compliments as a way of socialising with people	9 (25%)	14 (40%)	5 (14%)	Sounds problematic
11. Avoid moments of silence	1 (3%)	16 (45%)	7 (20%)	
12. Do not ask how much people paid for something	4 (11%)	19 (54%)	7 (20%)	
13. Working in the services, speak cheerfully, be enthusiastic serving others	11 (31%)	14 (40%)	2 (6%)	
14. Entering a party or a group meeting greet everyone but don't shake hands	2 (6%)	15 (42%)	10 (28%) 5 NN	for Poles handshake still important
15. A friendly conversation, respect other's private zone 45 cm	5 (20%)	17 (48%)	9 (25%)	Quite many feel its "too far"
16. Say "excuse me" if invading other people's space (60 cm) in public places	7 (20%)	18 (51%)	3 (8%)	
17. Make room for other people to pass through	7 (20%)	14 (40%)	1 (2%)	
18. When expressing critique of others always stress the good points	7 (20%)	14 (40%)	10 (28%)	Poles have a different style
19. When criticised, accept responsibility	6 (17%)	18 (51%)	5 (14%)	
20. Be modest when talking about your achievements	3 (8%)	17 (48%)	4 (11%)	This rule is stronger than no 19
21. When making a presentation (public speech) smile and be friendly to the audience	6 (16%)	17 (48%)	2 (6%)	

As we can see, only a few norms (1, 2, 5, 12, 16, 19) are accepted by the majority of student teachers as ELF norms. What is more, the majority is rather vast. In most cases, the division of students' views, as well as students' opting out can indicate that application of a rule might depend on a number of situational factors. The rules which obtained less than 40% support, would seem to remain Anglo rules only (3, 6, 7, 8).

The influence of student L1 norms on suggested ELF norms

A hypothesis that if the user's L1 community practices a given L2 rule, the rule will also be used in ELF context was tested. The table shows students' responses.

Table 2. Does L1 influence ELF norms perception?

Norm in ENL	LOW/HIGH L1 usage	LOW/HIGH ELF usage	Comment
1. Positive response to "how are you"	L 8%	H 51%	Cultural awareness
2. Meeting a new person tell her your name, start conversation	H 62%	H 51%	Positive transfer
3. Difference of opinion – avoid open conflict	L 20%	H 37%	Cultural awareness
4. Offering help /a favour respect independence	L 21%	H 48%	Cultural awareness
5. Ask a favour, show that you do not want to impose	H 82%	H 54%	Positive transfer
6. "We must meet some day" is just a conversation closing	H 60%	L 22%	Cultural awareness
7. A food offer – another helping, avoid coquetry	L 40%	L 22%	ELF ownership
8. Do not offer advice if not asked to	L 31%	L 17%	ELF ownership
9. Behave calmly in public even if angry	H 80%	H 40%	Positive transfer
10. Offer compliments as a way of socialising with people	H 65%	H 40%	Positive transfer
11. Avoid moments of silence	H 65%	H 45%	Positive transfer
12. Do not ask how much people paid for something	H 65%	H 54%	Positive transfer
13. Working in the services, speak cheerfully, be enthusiastic serving others	H 45%	H 40%	Positive transfer
14. Entering a party/ meeting greet everyone but don't shake hands	H 57%	H 42%	Positive transfer
15. A friendly conversation, respect other's private zone	H 62%	H 48%	Positive transfer
16. Say "excuse me" if invading other people's space (60 cm) in public places	H 68%	H 51%	Positive transfer
17. Make room for other people to pass through	H 77%	H 40%	Positive transfer
18. When expressing critique of others always stress the good points	L 32%	H 40%	Cultural awareness
19. When criticised, accept responsibility	L 37%	H 51%	Cultural awareness
20. Be modest when talking about your achievements	H 71%	H 48%	Positive transfer
21. When making a presentation (public speech) smile and be friendly to the audience	H 62%	H 48%	Positive transfer

* The median for L1 usage is 44%

** The median for ELF support is 35,5%. All above the median results are treated as H, below the median as L

In many cases (2, 5, 9–17, 20–21) a rule declared by the students as L1 rule is positively transferred into ELF. Polite introductions, respect for others' private zone, modesty, lack of inquisitiveness (not asking about the price of something) as well as enthusiastic service and friendly presentation style are the patterns of behaviour which Polish advanced students of English/future teachers seem to find universal – they exist in Polish and are suggested as ELF norms. Interestingly, many of these norms are not typically Polish behaviour patterns (we used to like to ask the price of something, grumble at service providers and ignore the audience' friendly feelings as speech givers). This may point to the changing thinking and speaking patterns in the Polish speech community, which start from the young generation.

In just few cases students' responses indicate that although a rule is not practiced in Polish, it is to be accepted as an international norm. This is the case of

positive response to "How are you," avoiding open conflict in public and respecting others' choice, as well as treating non-specific invitations as closings and expressing balanced critique. It seems that the typically Polish values of solidarity, emotional arguing for one's case, collectivistic help without asking or blunt critique for the sake of improvement are suspended in an act of cultural awareness.

In some cases, low occurrence of a norm in L1 makes users negate its legitimacy in ELF. This is the case with coquetry at the table and advice giving. Young Poles admit practicing these behaviours and, as it seems, they do not see acting against them in ELF legitimate. For this reason, such cases were commented as "Ownership of ELF." They can mark ELF user's right to ignore the Anglo rules, as too remote from his cultural identity.

The difference between multi- and monolinguals on L1 norms perception

The mean support for all the rules presented being also L1 rules was only 52% in the group of multilinguals while in the group of Polish speakers as much as 79%. This was contrary to the author's expectations that students of English might reversely transfer some English rules into Polish. However, it was the students of Polish who expressed more support for the rules presented.

Concluding remarks

The ethnolinguist's claim that Polish culture entails a different set of patterns for social situations from the native speaker model (Wierzbicka 2003) supported with observations of sojourner native speakers of English, such as Klos-Sokol (2010), does not seem to be supported with young Poles' politeness declarations. The responses provided betray almost no traces of collectivistic thinking, emotionality, robust hospitality or imposing "togetherness" spirit ascribed to collectivists speech communities. Young or, as Klos Sokol says, New Poles claim to respect independence and individual space, they propose themselves as enthusiastic service people and speech givers. In some situations, however, they might still readily "deviate" from native speaker norm, inspired by values pertaining to the heart of their home culture.

We may ask ourselves the question, which models of politeness in English will be presented to learners in teaching English as Lingua Franca. Sifakis (2006: 152) calls this area of ELT "trendy, ever-fascinating but largely underexplored." Although much talked about, ELF seems to be difficult to observe with the naked eye in the English teaching materials. Some authors suggest that it would be the teachers' responsibility to prepare materials based on authentic exchanges from the context which they find most useful for their students. In order to do this, teachers need to be aware of L1 differences, other cultures and the fact that not all Anglo norms will be present in ELF. It seems that Polish student teachers of English are well suited to do that.

On the other hand, in the face of lack of defined norms specific to ELF, instruction in English remains largely a native speaker norm-bound process, leaving the situational decision making for the students to perform outside of it. Will they

know how to behave verbally? More research pointing to the ELF users' success or failure at negotiating polite behaviour is definitely needed.

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Tak grzecznym, jak to możliwe.
Nauczanie grzeczności w angielskim jako lingua franca

Streszczenie

Grzeczność w języku obcym, a zwłaszcza w języku używanym do celów komunikacji między-
narodowej, wymaga nie tylko opanowania odpowiednich środków językowych, ale również
modyfikacji kulturowo uwarunkowanych wzorców zachowania. To, co normalne w jednej
wspólnocie językowej, w innej wydawać się może dziwne lub niewłaściwe.

Dążąc do rozwijania kompetencji pragmatycznej w języku angielskim jako międzynarodo-
wym, napotykamy na szereg pytań. Czym grozi nawet częściowe porzucenie własnych wzor-
ców grzecznościowych? Czy przyjmując wzorce anglosaskie spotkamy się ze zrozumieniem
rozmówców z jeszcze innych kręgów kulturowych? Czy istnieje inne rozwiązanie?

Opisane w artykule badanie jest próbą określenia norm zachowań grzecznościowych świata
anglosaskiego wchodzących do repertuaru zachowań osób, które posługują się angielskim
jako lingua franca, w odróżnieniu od norm, które budzą zastrzeżenia i zostają modyfikowane.
Czy modyfikacja ta odbywa się pod wpływem kultury rodzimej? Respondentami badania są
studenci anglistyki kończący cykl nauczycielskich studiów magisterskich.