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Foreword

When Professor Petru Bejan invited me to guest-edit an issue of his journal, *Hermeneia*, three years ago, I accepted immediately on behalf of the Fédération Internationale des Professeurs de Langues Vivantes (FIPLV). What I didn't realise on that day in Iasi was that it would take such a long time to obtain a sufficient number of articles for an issue of 100 pages.

The recipe – tried and true – was to obtain a blend of papers from internationally renowned leaders in language teaching and learning and seek contributions by younger scholars (from FIPLV member associations) pursuing professional pathways – especially in tertiary institutions where credit-bearing publications are a factor in career retention and advancement.

Thus, on behalf of the Fédération Internationale des Professeurs de Langues Vivantes (FIPLV), I commend the following papers to you, as they demonstrate the professional diversity of individual members of associations affiliated to the Fédération Internationale des Professeurs de Langues Vivantes, while providing for our colleague and friend, Petru Bejan, an international perspective and scope for his journal.

It has been a welcome experience to be of assistance to the authors, the editor and you, the readers.

Introduction

The following collection of papers reflects and emphasises the richness and complexity of our profession in the diversity of their contexts, focus, discoveries, historical perspectives and revelations. Furthermore, the papers derive from a range of countries, the research from several more, as we enjoy contributions from Australia, Hungary, Latvia, Poland, the Russian Federation, South Africa and the United Kingdom.

Tatiana Koneva of Barnaul of the Russian Federation takes us to unexplored territories, where she considers the Ecces situation as a context for language teaching and learning. Clarification is forthcoming in her use of examples.

Tony Kolb, Jessie O'Sullivan and Cathy Wu of Mater Christi College in Belgrave (Australia) provide a consideration of the use of technology for the teaching of French and Chinese. As we explore different ICT configurations, this account of experimentation of Wikispaces and Tokbox at the secondary level provides further insights.

Katalin Eklics of the University of Pécs in Hungary investigates language in the context of media, specifically televised political interviews. As interviews increase in usage in language teaching and learning, the preparation of strategies – straight talk, turn-taking and interruptions – from this research is informative for the educator considering the implementation of interview as a didactic and assessment task.

Terry Lamb of the University of Sheffield takes the view that the rapidly changing nature of Europe and of identity and culture within the new Europe demands a re-analysis of the concept of intercultural education. New metaphors for culture in the classroom are developed, taking the field of cultural studies as a starting point. A model for intercultural education within languages education is used as a starting point for discussion around intercultural education across subject disciplines.

Iwona Dronia of Poland investigates political correctness of English language, especially in the context of what she identifies as special education needs learners. The notion of political correctness is relatively new, as she states, but has had a considerable impact on how we think about and use language; it has also had a significant impact on how we view others, as old terms disappeared – unacceptable and obsolete – to be replaced by inventive and sensitive terminologies, some of which are remarkably transient. While much of the philosophy of political correctness is driven by the best intentions of individuals caring for others who may be less fortunate, other terms evolve in the face of increased medical accuracy – such as *Down's syndrome* (now *those with Down's syndrome*) – sensitivity (with *Hansen's disease* replacing *leprosy*), and broader social issues, such as multiculturalism and bullying.

Zigrida Vinčela reports on action research between students of her university and those at a college in the USA. After preparing a theoretical premise, she describes the stages of cross-cultural writing sessions, the exploration of the lexical complexity of interactional and transactional texts developed by the students of the

University of Latvia and examines their overall attitude towards the cross-cultural writing sessions. Another investigation of and contribution to the growing research into the effective manner in which ICT can be implemented for the teaching and learning of languages, Vinčela opens up international pathways from interactional to transactional writing in cross-cultural online communication.

In another paper from Latvia, Indra Odina, Yelena Doroshenko and Anna Stavicka analyse trends in terminology in the face of the surge of ICT in society and education. It is apparent that the pressures of globalisation work towards the consolidation of the English language as the lingua franca for science and technology as well as many other fields. Both specialists working in the field of ICT and terminologists do not appear to be indifferent to the invasion of English, as English ICT terms incorporated into Latvian frequently displace already available native equivalents. The authors of the article claim that one of the possibilities to change the situation is to raise awareness of educators and students of the importance of consistency in the use of professional terminology with the aim to facilitate the successful promotion of standard usage at tertiary level.

Naomi Boakye and Lynne Southey of South Africa consider their local environment of the University of Pretoria to investigate trends and realities in reading by students enrolled at tertiary level. The specific foci are student attitude and motivation in reading, the context being socio-affective factors and personal background. The process involves the use of a survey prepared by Grabe and Stoller, who resided and researched in South Africa in 2001. Following the completion of the survey by tertiary students from a range of backgrounds, the authors analysed the results to discover significant (and predictable?) discrepancies in the reading behaviour and competence of individuals with a key differentiating factor being language background: English, Afrikaans, Indigenous South African, or other. This, we may have foreseen, has an impact on attitude, motivation, engagement, practice and competence in reading. What is different here is that we have a specific and different context – and we have educationally sound results.

The focus of Marija Drazdauskiene is on moderation in approach as student achievement is retained as the primary goal of student learning and teaching. The context is teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) at the tertiary level with diachronic comparisons made in methodology and environments: (1) the former outlining contrasts between traditional approaches in Eastern Europe in and before the 1980s and the current flavour of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL); and (2) the latter reflecting the exponential evolution and infusion of technologies available, as Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) metamorphoses into configurations of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT). Although the teaching environment may be at university level, Drazdauskiene explores beyond this precinct to observe research on the use of CLIL and CALL/ICT at other levels of learning (in the classroom). Using an informed and balanced perspective, the author reports on probing and revealing results.

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Tatiana KONEVA *

Methods of Natural Language Assimilation in the Ecces Situation

It should be remembered that the population of our planet constitutes a huge hypersystem where elements and parts are constantly mixing and interchanging. People exist in the enormous world of constant change where different tendencies in science, language and culture appear every day. Sometimes we cannot even imagine the ability we possess to create new technologies and a means of existence. Some researchers suggest that all mankind should become a great hypersystem in future. The unique ability to absorb, to perceive every smallest change in its development strikes the imagination.

This leads to the areal expansion in consequence with ethnogenes flashes appearing sporadically. These flashes cannot be explained by social development. Thus, it turns out that the ecces concept includes the so-called stimulus micromutations. They break natural changes in the course of the power level connected with the appearance of a new ethnic group. Ecces should be neither strong nor weak. Its first type can deform behavioural stereotypes and thus anatomical and physiological features in a person. Weak ecces cannot even touch the geographical, social and physiological background that reflects outlines of a new mental arrangement. The reason for such an ecces or a flash can be the factor "X". For its regeneration a newly appeared population should be responsible for overtensions. They are either in nature transformation or in migrations. These two peculiarities form the "sought-for" factor "X". The factor "X" is projected into the sphere of human psyche and forms new cryptograms – texts with hidden sense. They define images of people's consciousness. The cryptograms are performed as methods of language assimilation and can be used in culture learning and language teaching as well.

In fact, we have moved so far away in different ways developing our society in all possible spheres of human activity. Today we face another reality created by people in the process of self-mastering and life-bettering. It is the reality of our achievements in science, language, communication, medicine, computing and electronics. To control the majority of innovations, people have established new rules which find their way in the ecces. The ecces situation takes place when a new item appears. This item can cause the appearance of a certain group of people who are capable of controlling the development of their ecces. Let's give a very simple example! With the era of mobile phones and other electronic devices the society had to form a group of new specialists aware of all the peculi-

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arities of their work sphere. Thus, new specialists presented their own terminology, language to decode the information, items which then became cryptograms in people's minds. Today, every person uses a mobile phone and computer language. So we can speak about a new ethnic group – mobile phone and electronic users.

Strong ecces causes micromutations leading to the appearance of a new ethnic group, deforms behavioural stereotypes and forms a certain mental arrangement of reality facts. It was said that cryptograms can be used as ways of language and culture learning because they fix the information of a definite language usage in the form of texts with hidden sense. Here we should explain that there are two realities: a human world and a technical world being constantly modified by people. The thing is that we view the human world through the prism of the technical world. People have already overcome the transformation of their mentality and today we belong to two worlds. We can prove this fact viewing the English literature of the twentieth century as we tried to use the theory of the ecces situation in the analysis of feature texts. It can be suggested that in literature we face the code of our history fixed by the language. As a matter of fact, certain texts reflected this or that historical situation caused by some ecces situation in the twentieth century. Thus we can treat literature as a bundle of cryptograms of all important facts, events, characters that form the basis of human mentality.

Modern English feature texts constitute a special group of the English literature of the twentieth century. We suppose that all texts can be classified according to certain characteristics of a given period of time. Thus, we distinguish five groups of feature texts.

English feature texts of the third person (1900s-1920s) present a new way of interpretation of reality. These texts reflect the peculiarities of the epistemic situation at the beginning of the century when Norris, Lawrence, Huxley, Greene, Forster, Joyce, Conrad, Woolf, Eliot, Dreiser, Scott Fitzgerald, Steinbeck and Hemingway tried to depict the man who was struggling for the right to be the man. So, the contents of the texts, events, facts are seen with a person's eyes.

English feature symbol-texts (1930s-1940s) are the texts that form the nucleus of the literature and depend on social factors. These texts reveal historical events that influenced the process of history. They constitute the so-called collective memory of people. This period of time is characterised by increases in the economy, wars, the Great Depression that caused further development of mankind. Novels by Aldridge, Woolf, Huxley, Orwell, Greene, Waugh, Steinbeck, Wright, Hemingway, Mitchell, Glasgow, du Maurier and Warren show patriotism and the human soul performing the image of a struggler.

English feature concept-texts (1950s-1960s) have a special model. It is based on the move from reality to a certain world model a person builds in his imagination. Thus, reality and the ideological model conflict. Different concepts such as love, life, war, death are thought over and presented from the point of the main character's view. The character views them through the retrospect of history. Concept texts manifest the character through his experience. Novelists Greene, Murdoch, Powell, Lessing, White, Lee, Singer, Updike, Pynchon,

Salinger, Heller, Jones, Kingsley, Wouk, McCullers, Bellow and Truman describe how people changed the conception of their existence, rebuilt and reconstruct the world.

English feature discourse texts (1970s-1980s) formulate the possible ways of the development of discourse. These ways are represented by some principles. We believe that the cycle principle and the principle of associative links can be pointed out. The first one allows the reader to decode the contents of the text according to some cycles which provide the integrity of the novel. They are closely connected and give an opportunity to face the past and the present at the same time. All characters find themselves in different parts of the course of time. To understand the connection of all stages of the text, authors use the principle of associative links which are created with the help of syntactical constructions. They compress the volume of the information given in the text. Novels written by N Gordimer, V S Naipaul, S Rushdie, D Mortman, A Hailey, S King, A Walker, S Bellow, T Morrison and C Falconer reveal the peculiarities of this time period.

The last group in our classification is formed by *English feature epistemic texts (1990-the end of the 20th century*). Their epistemic value is characterised by the fact that epistemic texts transfer real impressions a person gets in the process of world cognition. Novels by Grisham, Falconer, King, Bellow, Morrison and Sinclair show the link between past and present moments. Epistemic text assumes the atmosphere of the past moment thus becoming a part of reality represented by objects, people's actions. A person experiences the text in some epistemic situation. These texts are characterised by criminal terminology. We offer a certain narrative scheme of the analysis that consists of: (1) the concept – episteme; (2) a dominating theme; (3) grammar links; (4) items of a logical component; (5) narrative structures providing the functioning of the text in a certain epistemic situation; and (6) items of the world epistemic picture.

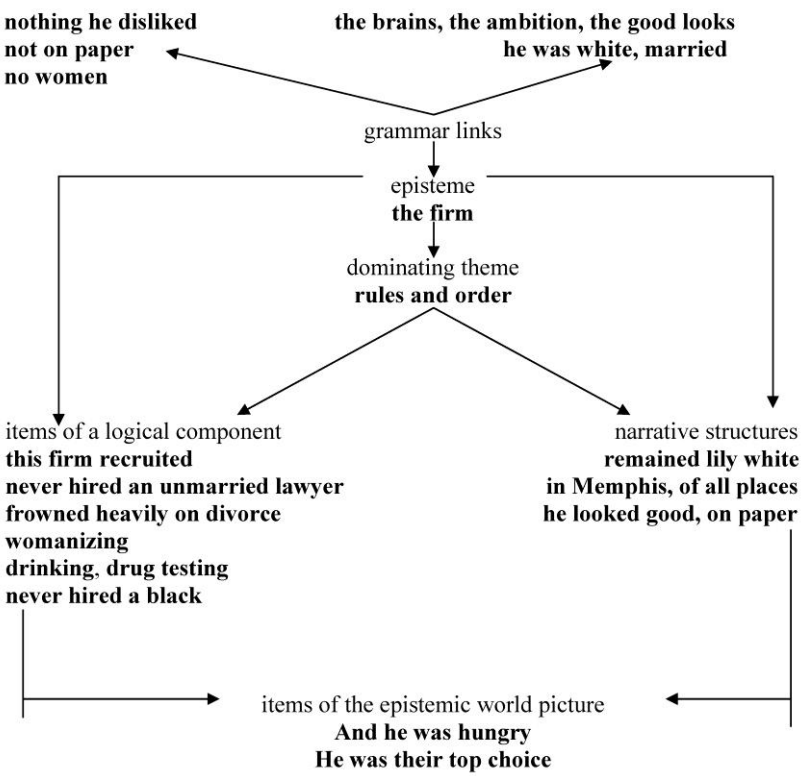
The novel by Grisham, *The Firm*[1], serves as an example and depicts the life of a lawyer who works in a firm that has a criminal past:

"The senior partner studied the resumé for the hundredth time and again found *nothing he disliked* about Mitchell Y McDeere, at least *not on paper*. He had *the brains, the ambition***,** *the good looks. And he was hungry*; with his background, he had to be. He was *married*, and that was mandatory. The firm had *never hired an unmarried lawyer*, and it *frowned heavily on divorce*, as well as *womanizing* and *drinking. Drug testing* was in the contract. He had a degree in accounting, passed the CPA exam the first time he took it and wanted to be a tax lawyer, which of course was a requirement with a tax firm. *He was white*, and the firm had *never hired a black*. They managed this by being secretive and clubbish and *never* soliciting job applications. Other firms solicited, and hired blacks. *This firm recruited*, and *remained lily white*. Plus, the firm was *in Memphis, of all places*, and the top blacks wanted New York or Washington or Chicago. McDeere was a male, and there were *no women* in the firm. That mistake had been made in the mid-seventies when they recruited the number one grad from Harvard, who happened to be a she and a wizard at taxation. She lasted four turbulent years and was killed in a car

[1] Grisham, J. 1993, *The Firm*, New York: Express Publishing House.

wreck. *He looked good, on paper. He was their top choice*"[2] (Grisham 1993: 3).

In the centre of the text there is an episteme *the firm* through which basic features of characters are revealed. *The Firm* is presented as a special item that defines the building of a cognitive reality. There is no direct agent, he is denoted by different grammar and lexical characteristics: "*the brains, the ambition, the good looks, he was white, married*". The dominating themes are *rules and order* defined by the episteme. They are explained by various negative constructions: "*nothing he disliked, no women, not on a paper*". The items of the logical component are expressed by enumerating. They possess the notion of 'order': "*this firm recruited, never hired an unmarried lawyer, frowned heavily on divorce, womanizing, drinking, drug testing, never hired a black*". Such an exact succession of rules is defined as the syntactical organisation of the text: simple sentences, the connector'and', the use of mathematical item 'plus' that emphasises the description of the person. Thus the reader perceives the character of the novel positively: *he was their top choice*. The author uses a metaphorical nomination of characters: *and he was hungry*, thus creating a psychological basis of text organisation. It allows us to speak about a peculiar epistemic situation that exists at a certain period of time and defines mentality reflected in the literature.



[2] Grisham, J., 1993, *The Firm*, p. 3.

Kata EKLICS *

Discourse Strategies in Hungarian Political Interviews

1 Introduction

The study aims at the analysis of broadcast political interviews focusing on female and male interviewing strategies, recorded from the Hungarian ATV "Straight Talk" program. Political interviews have been investigated since the 1980s and are viewed as special situations where partners of symbolic and real power relations have a discourse. The parameters of talk (length, theme) are defined by the presenter, who can favour cooperative or competitive discourse patterns in governing the discussion. The cooperative discourse strategies mostly characterise the female-led interview, while the competitive style is more masculine according to previous research. The main purpose of this study is to reveal the dominating discursive norms in broadcast political interviews in Hungary, a country which is still considered a chauvinist society based on the theory of Hofstede[1]. Analysis of speech acts, verbal communication and description of female and male stereotypes is also included.

The female interviewer investigated is Olga Kálmán, who is not only a presenter of the program, but also a news director. As a substitute for her we can see Péter Németh - a male interviewer – on the screen. So, the program is the same, the only factor of change is the gender and personality of the interviewer. The programs with Olga Kálmán were recorded last October. The length of talks is usually 8-10 minutes, though sometimes 15-17 minute discussions might occur. Two distinctive genres may be observed: political and non-political or expert interviews, and the analysed conversations include both. The partners of the presenter are in all cases male. They are Péter Szíjjártó, the spokesman of FIDESZ (Alliance of Young Democrats), József Sipos the MSZP (Hungarian Social Party) member of the Socio-political Department and Tamás Kovács, Head Attorney.

The programs led by Péter Németh were recorded in early summer 2007. His partners are also men according to the principles of the study. They are Zsolt Nyitrai, a member of FIDESZ, Péter Kiss the Chancellery Minister and Imre Repa, a member of the State Reform Committee and the Director of Kaposvár Hospital.

The content-based comparison of the style of political interviewing involves: speech acts, turn-taking, cooperative coefficient and interruptions. Among the factors influencing the choice of discourse strategies of the interviewers,

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[1] Hofstede, G. & Hofstede, G. 2004, *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind: Intercultural Cooperation and Its Importance for Survival*, New York: McGraw-Hill.

gender, age and power distance relations may be observed. They play a role in setting the tone as well as controlling the questioning. The social structures serve as frames for the interview situation, and the earlier mentioned masculine society – i.e., the social, economic and political power positions are mostly held by men – also affects the conversational styles.

The analysis applies the results of Walsh's study[2], "Gender and the Genre of the Broadcast Political Interview", where the interviewing styles of a female and a male presenter are compared. I also rely on Mullany's work[3], "Linguistic Politeness and Sex Differences in BBC Radio 4 Broadcast Interviews".

Walsh claims that the program "Today" has privileged a masculine style of political interviewing and marginalised the female voice. The aggressive, combative tone became a norm of the program and it is characterised by entrapment questions, that seek to drive interviewees into a corner. It could originate from traditional gender roles and unequal rights.

The linguistic studies of the 1970s-1980s found that female speakers prefer cooperative conversational strategies and are more polite than men. Opposing that, males used a competitive talking style. The political interviews – favouring men – can be seen as competitive events while the expert interviews set the cooperative scene.

Interruptions are the most often used tools of the competitive conversational strategy; they indicate the fight for control. There may be a difference in attempted interruptions and their success rate, though attempts most often succeed in the Hungarian context. The British studies suggest that the unsuccessful interruption attempts are less threatening as the potential interrupter realises the Face Threatening Act[4] and withdraws. It can also mean, however, that the potential interrupter does not have enough power to succeed and take over the speech.

Earlier simultaneous talk and interruptions were analysed as opposing and competitive strategy elements[5], however, Edelsky[6] argues that simultaneous talk may function as cooperative linguistic behaviour too, where both speakers can speak at the same time to create their common ground. Media interviews should be distinguished here. To facilitate the understanding of the audience, the principle of Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson 'one speaker at a time' can be expected. Short overlaps, simultaneous talk still occur. They either support or threaten the face needs of the partner. The context and the length of the speech might indicate which of the two is activated.

For most male interviewers the purpose of the conversation is to elicit information but their female counterparts pay

[2] Walsh, C. 2006, Gender and the Genre of the Broadcast Political Interview. In Baxter, J. (ed.), *Researching the Female Voice in Public Contexts,* Pallgrave: Macmillan, pp. 121-138.

[3] Mullany, L. 1999, Linguistic Politeness and Sex Differences in BBC Radio 4 Broadcast Interviews. In *Leeds Working Papers in Linguistics and Phonetics*, 7, pp.119-145.

[4] Goffman, E. 1955, On Face – Work: An Analysis of Ritual Elements in Social Interaction. In: Wardhaugh, R (2005): *Szociolingvisztika*, (Budapest: Osiris Kiadó), p. 266.

[5] Sacks, H., Schegloff, E., & Jefferson, G. 1974, A Simplest Systematics for the Organisation of Turn-taking for Conversation, *Language*, 50, pp. 696-735.

[6] Edelsky, C. 1981, Who's Got the Floor? *Language in Society*, 10, pp. 383-421.

the most attention to their partners' face needs and tend to be as supportive as possible with regard to previous theories. There is a characteristic difference between the British interviewer, Sue MacGregor, and the Hungarian Olga Kálmán in terms of cooperation. Our female interviewer applies a more combative style than her British colleague. In Mullany's work, similarly, there has been a significant increase in the attempts of interruption made by female interviewers when having a male partner, but the attempts and the success rates show considerable difference – i.e., female attempts, 36.2%, success 13%. In the case of the Hungarian Olga Kálmán, we hardly ever see unsuccessful attempts.

2 Straight Talk

Olga Kálmán has a special interviewing style in which the female voice applies a rather masculine conversational strategy. Her comforting, supporting tone may turn smoothly into a confident, assertive, sometimes aggressive, style. With the aim to elicit information she appears to consciously choose the appropriate strategy to suit the communicative style and power position of her partners. She insists on receiving a response either with more direct questions, repetitions or hidden questions in the form of statements.

In the style of Péter Németh, feminine and masculine traits may also be noticed. His requests for information are put forward in different ways; at first like sharing information, later with more direct questions. His supportive tone helps theme evolution. Though his conversational speed is slow and he seems to be constrained, the use of entrapment questions can be noticed in his strategy: " I won't let you, I won't release you out of this question." The male interviewer is more straightforward in his criticism, affording himself open remarks about the government party. It must be deliberate, as the Hungarian ATV is known as a left-wing channel; the interviewer tries to prevent bias and applies a neutral, sometimes bantering style: " Excuse me for saying so, but it is not sure that you are always right"

Péter Németh's conversation with the oppositional party's MP shows a classic example of a power/relation based discourse. The male interviewer positions himself under the partner's power, his tone of greeting the FIDESZ member implies subordination, though the partner is also male and even younger than Péter Németh. The choice of strategy cannot be incidental, he supports the partner's face needs, emphasises his competency, thus hoping to convince the opposition's voters that this program does not serve any political powers. Very rare application of face threatening acts may be noted. He makes a single salty remark before saying good-bye to the interviewee with regard to the oppositional party's financial background: "I see, you know what to do with the government's budget, most probably with yours as well."

3 Comparisons

3.1 Cooperative coefficient

The concept introduced by Huszár[7] indicates the willingness of the partners to cooperate during a conversation. In an average interview situation the interviewer speaks less than the partner. The

[7] Huszár Á. 1994, Az együttérzés beszédaktusai, *Studia Nova*, I. pp. 99-109.

Cooperative Coefficient

	Government party partner	Oppositional party partner	Expert partner
Female interviewer	1.7	2.08	1.68
Male interviewer	3.09	2.1	2.2

more words the interviewee uses, the higher the coefficient. In their study Huszár and Batár[8] analysed interviews of the program called "Napkelte" (Sunrise) on Hungarian TV channel 1 and found that the cooperative coefficient is 1.3 in the interviews led by István Verebes. The coefficient is usually between the values of 1.5-2.5 in political conversations.

The values of the analysed "Straight Talk" interviews demonstrate that the female presenter appears to use a competitive discourse strategy while her male colleague rather applies a cooperative interviewing style. In the case of the opposition party conversations there is only a slight difference in the values of the cooperative coefficient. In spite of it, the female interviewer seems to have a real viewpoint fight with her partner. The male presenter is more supportive and seldom tries to hold the conversational floor for long.

The male interviewer's conversation with the government party politician provides a remarkably high coefficient, most probably due to the partner's similar attitude to the interview and the context.

3.2 Turn-taking, Words/Turns

Turn is an important concept of speech acts. It means that for a certain period one person alone holds the conversational floor and primarily behaves as a speaker while the other acts as a listener, rarely contributing to support, encourage and providing feedback[9].

The number of turns can represent whether a person holds the conversational floor with a lengthy response or the interviewer and the interviewee combat each other to take over the floor with short statements, questions. Utterances can certainly be supportive as well.

Turn-taking, Words/Turns

	Government Party partner		Oppositional Party partner		Expert partner	
	turns	words/turns	turns	words/turns	turns	words/turns
Female interviewer	60	22	102	14	30	44
Male interviewer	74	35	40	22	33	34

[8] Huszár Á. & Batár L. 2006, Hogyan fojtsuk bele partnerünkbe a szót avagy párbeszédirányítási stratégiák a közszolgálati televízió egyik szombati műsorában, *Élet és Irodalom* L/25, 4,8 június 30.

[9] Beattie, G. 1982, Turn-taking and Interruption in Political Interviews: Margaret Thatcher and Jim Callaghan Compared and Contrasted, *Semiotica,* 39-1/2, Amsterdam: Mouton Publishers, pp. 93-114.

The number of turns in the non-political or expert interviews is lower in both cases than in the political ones. They mostly aim at information flow rather than combating. The number of words/turns in the female-led interview seems to be higher as the social and power distance between Olga Kálmán and her partner is bigger. Péter Németh is closer to his partner in age, it is a male/male dyad, so cooperation develops from both sides.

The conversations with the opposition politicians should be discussed here in more detail. The most turns of Olga Kálmán and Péter Szíjjártó are accompanied by the lowest number of words/turns. What can it mean? A possible explanation is the preliminaries. The discourse would not have included more than 60 turns according to the interviewer's intention, if Péter Szíjjártó had not requested extra opportunities to share more information. His comments are far too contrastive with the presenter's point of view thus she cannot stand making her salty remarks, even metalinguistic evaluations. They more often try to take over the conversational floor from each other than in any other recorded interviews. The extreme number of turns suggests a 'popping tennis game', so a competitive discourse evolves. Masculine traits predominate in their conversation.

The conversation of Péter Németh and Zsolt Nyitrai is moderate. Forty turns are associated with 22 words/turns. Shorter statements/turns may be noted. This male-led interview contains the lowest number of words/turns. Earlier it was mentioned that Péter Németh intends to be polite and avoid making face-threatening acts, yet we can hear inconvenient questions due to his wish to keep control.

The discourses with the government party politicians significantly differ in context. The female interviewer discusses a case of 'information slip out' with the 'culprit', the male presenter leads a conversation with a politician to be promoted about his future responsibilities and opposition suppositions. Péter Németh gives a chance for his conversational partner to make his claims and talk about his ambitions; undoubtedly they build the common ground. The interviewer's attempts to control the interview situation is made clear as it was stated before, but not in a very confrontational style. This latter situation is non-problematic while the former provides an opportunity to the interviewer to banter about the mistakes and so she does. Her tone suggests irony.

3.3 Interruptions

Interruptions are utterances that signal a battle to control the conversational floor. They are mostly considered masculine competitive discourse strategy elements, but the recorded Hungarian interviews do not confirm the traditional theories.

The female interviewer's interruption attempts show a considerable increase compared to her male colleague. While the British studies revealed that the interruption attempts were highest in the male/male dyads, the interruptions of the Hungarian interviewers illustrate a rather contrastive result. The female presenter represents a combative type in political conversation based on the analysed interviews. However, the lowest number of interruptions can be observed in the female/male non-political/expert interview. Here the partner's position,

Interruptions

	Government Party partner		Oppositional Party partner		Expert partner	
	a	b	a	b	a	b
Female interviewer	19	11	30	26	3	4
Male interviewer	6	6	7	5	8	5

age and the topic determine the conversational style of Olga Kálmán and the 'female voice' characterises the co-operative strategy. So, the gender role played is a question of choice, it can be female or male, sometimes both in the same interview. It is a continuous construction. Also a notable finding is the similar interruption rate in the male/male conversations. The mature male substitute interviewer's interpretation of his job could be a reason for that.

4 Conclusion

The writer of this study does not intend to overemphasise the competitive discourse strategy of Hungarian female interviewers, as this paper only analyses the interviewing style of one female presenter compared to her male colleague, though aims at drawing attention to the application of different discourse strategies and the possible causes of their choice. Adjusting to the interviewee the interviewer has to identify the frames of the situation, reading the verbal and non-verbal signs of the actual partner. The social structures (masculine/feminine societies), power (high rank positions), age, gender and political identity roles of the conversational partners considerably influence the chosen interviewing style, which can be rather confrontational or the opposite, cooperative. Personality traits also determine the style and determine who will hold the conversational floor and control the information flow. This study investigated two types of media discourse, the competitive and the cooperative. As a result it could be claimed that both types were applied by the interviewers, and the analysed female interviewer would more often use competitive discourse elements than her male colleague. Whether the audience is manipulated by the discourse strategy of the presenter can be a question of future study.

Iwona DRONIA *

Political Correctness in the Educational Context: the Analysis of the Language Used towards Special Education Needs Learners

"Language is a tool available to us, of enormous power and potential beauty, but it is neither exclusive nor comprehensive. The job of education is to show children its strengths, certainly, but not to neglect its weaknesses"[1].

The idea of Good English and Political Correctness has been recognised by both teachers in the English-speaking countries and teachers of English as a second language. The concept of being 'socially acceptable' necessitated great changes in the presentation of usage in textbooks but also in the classroom. Educators are aware of the inevitability of speaking, addressing, describing and approaching all the learners in a polite and non-offensive way. Fontana[2] believes that the teacher's role is quite demanding as she or he has to not only teach how to use language but also help children to think critically about it. Additionally, as he claims, children "need help in identifying the misuse of language by people in responsible positions. They need help in sorting out the meaning – or the absence of meaning – in the utterances of others". Following this concept one can come to the conclusion that the teacher's role can also be understood as implementation of good manners, code of conduct and especially, using politically correct, appropriate and definite language. Pooley[3] defines this task in the following way:

"(…) this differentiation of language usage, a fundamental law of language, should be our first consideration in the study of 'correct' English and in the presentation of English usage in the classroom"; (…) in discarding an absolute right and wrong for a relative standard of appropriateness and social acceptability, we shall have to determine the areas or levels of language usage, to define and illustrate them, and to apply them as standards for the written and spoken English in the schools".

Doyle[4] thoroughly discusses the problem of politically incorrect (especially sexist) language and its influence on children's education. The author provides us with many examples of recent laws and guidelines aiming at combating this

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[1] Fontana, D. 1995, *Psychology for Teachers.* (Third Edition), (New York: Palgrave), p. 86.

[2] *op. cit*., p. 85.

[3] Pooley, R. 1946, The Definition and Determination of 'Correct' English from Teaching English Usage. In Goshgarian, G. (ed.) *Exploring Language.* (Second Edition), (Boston, Toronto: Little, Brown and Company), pp. 12-15.

[4] Doyle, M. 1995 http://education.guardian.co.uk/egweekly/story/01775128,00.html., pp. 98-99.

problem. The writer enumerates The National Union of Teachers (NUT), National Association of Teachers in Further and Higher Education (NATFHE), and the Association of University Teachers (AUT) as the organisations that have produced guidelines specifically covering non-sexist language. *Towards Equality*, written by the NUT assistant secretary for equal opportunity and produced by ETUCE, a Europe-wide federation of teacher unions, urges every educational organisation to develop a policy of equal opportunity, beginning with a statement of intent covering all aspects of the curriculum, including "measures to combat sex stereotyping including the provision of non-sexist books and teaching materials, [and] the use of non-sexist language and images"[5]. Writing for the *Guardian*, Beadle[6] also stresses the importance of teaching children about political correctness – "Not teaching them that it is right or wrong – it's not a teacher's job to draw the conclusions – but that it exists". Hence, teachers should be prepared to introduce political correctness in the classroom. The author claims that the callous word causes more lasting damage as "words can hurt like hell". Moreover, Beadle states that it is possible to teach the existence of a more considerate version of expression in a disinterested manner, raising it as a possibility to consider, at the same time as satirising its extremities. This argument can be supported with the fact that:

"kids love being asked to define their own politically correct expressions, and respond with glee to describing a baldy as being follically challenged and a porker as calorifically enhanced. Study of this subject causes them to investigate the intrinsic morality of their own language, and to see how this may have changed over the years. It also politicises. A black girl who comes to the realisation that standard English is the language of a white male orthodoxy is a girl who may well be motivated to do something about this in her own life".

The American media have recently drawn their attention to a trend in education that has covered most of the issues. This trend is Political Correctness (PC) understood as a synonymous expression to multiculturalism. Closson[7] describes this process in the following way: "…Textbooks are being written and courses changed to promote multiculturalism at the expense of teaching about Western Civilization. Professors are unable to teach their courses or participate in the academic enterprise because their views fail to conform to the new guardians of culture. What is most appalling is the attempt to remove the freedom of speech from students who fail to conform to the correct position on a broad spectrum of topics…".

It seems that the situation has gone out of control, many universities (Berkeley, Mount Holyoke, and the University of Wisconsin) force their students to take part in the ethnic studies course whereas the one in Western Civilisation (e.g., American history) is not required. As D'Souza[8] writes, "any behaviour, verbal or physical, that stigmatises or victimises an individual on the basis of race, eth-

[5] Doyle, M. 1995, *op. cit*., p. 99.

[6] Beadle, P. 2006, Mind your language and know what it means. In *The Guardian Unlimited,* 16 May, 2006; available from http://education.guardian.co.uk/egweekly/story/01775128,00.html, on 22.08.2006.

[7] Closson, D. 2007, Politically Correct Education. The Power of Political Correctness; available from http://www.leaderu.com/orgs/probe/docs/pc-educ.html on 07.06.2007.

[8] D'Souza, D. 1991, *Illiberal Education: The Politics of Race and Sex on Campus,* (New York: Macmillan Inc./The Free Press), p. 142.

nicity, religion, sex, sexual orientation, creed, national origin, ancestry, age, marital status, handicap, or Vietnam-era veteran status" is defined as punishable. Ravitch[9] is also of the opinion that in the eyes of PC, "most classical literature is unacceptable when judged by the new rules governing references to gender, ethnicity, age, disability…it is a process that drains literature of its life and blood, converts it into dreary reading materials and grinds reading material into pabulum".

Unfortunately, it seems that Political Correctness (at least, in the USA) is nowadays interpreted only from the perspective of multiculturalism and thus does not focus much on the language itself. Apart from an article focusing on a problem of stereotyping exceptional people through the use of proverbs[10] to the best of my knowledge, not many analyses are devoted to the study of the language used while addressing or describing mentally or physically challenged people.

The category of Special Education Needs (SEN) can be described as a term corresponding to the learners who represent certain mental, emotional or physical impairment and consequently can not make use of the 'normal' (understood as traditional) schooling. Some of them attend individual tuition (this system of teaching is popular in Poland and the UK) others belong to, so called "integrative" or "mainstream" classes, where the education is provided to both – 'healthy' children and those with special needs), or special schools treating only slightly or severely mentally retarded students. These learners create a big Special Needs Minority that has to be tackled appropriately, both in terms of social behaviour and language used towards them. Unfortunately this particular minority has been experiencing lots of criticism, mock, ridicule, irony and maliciousness. The society despises everyone that is even slightly different and stands out from the average, and the yardstick, ironically, is defined by the 'normal' majority. This supercilious attitude is expressed not only in the behaviour (e.g., making faces while talking to them, showing offensive gestures) but also in the language.

According to Germain[11], the trend to use invectives towards SEN members has become a very significant problem in the UK. This type of bullying towards people who have a disability is known as 'disabilist bullying'. The Education and Skills Committee passed two recommendations about this type of bullying:

- all schools' anti-bullying policies must address disabilist bullying
- the Government must produce guidance on disabilist bullying.

Various organisations, such as Mencap or the United Nations Convention on Disability Rights have been fighting to promote and protect full human rights for the world's 650 million disabled people so that they can take part fully in society and prejudice against disabled people will not be so prevalent[12].

The intention of this article is also to display various expressions used towards

[9] Ravitch, D. 2003, *The Language Police: How Pressure Groups Restrict What Students Learn*. New York: Knopf. Cited in www.mackinac.org.

[10] Omotosho, J. *Stereotyping exceptional persons through the use of proverbs: implications for counseling*. www.ijeunilorin.net/dec1993/STEREOTYPING%20EXCEPTIONAL%20PERSONS.pdf; available on 18.07.2007.

[11] Germain, R. 2007, Politics Page UK, *British Journal of Special Education*, 34:3, pp. 180-181.

[12] *Ibidem*, p. 181.

EXAMPLE	USED ABOUT	REFERENCE
their career have such a *meandering course*	ADD/ADHD	Flanagan and Strong, 2005, book cover
willful children	ADD/ADHD	Flanagan and Strong, 2005:17
big-picture people	ADD/ADHD	Flanagan and Strong, 2005:34
driven by a motor (being always on the go)	ADD/ADHD	Flanagan and Strong, 2005:36
misunderstood kids	ADD/ADHD	Waterhouse, 2003
the children who walk in the shadows	autism	Brown in Waterhouse, 2000:326
aurally challenged	deaf	Rees, 1995:3
buddy system	dyspraxia	Waterhouse, 2003
exceptional and special learners	mentally handicapped; SEN learners	Rees, 1995:93
mentally confused	mentally ill	Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 2003
uniquely abled	mentally retarded	Rees, 1995:138
university challenged	mentally retarded	Rees, 1995:138
physiologically disenfranchised	physically handicapped	Rees, 1995:114-115
students who have diverse learning needs	SEN learners	Smyth, B., 2005
requiring education tailored for their needs	SEN learners	www.marvelwood.org.
under-performing pupils	SEN learners	www.tes.co.uk
exceptional families with exceptional kids	sensory processing disorder	www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov

Table 1: Least Frequent Examples of Terminology Used towards SEN Students

Special Education Needs learners. These phrases have either "caught my eye or ear"[13] and were collected during the period of 2003–2008. The table presents some of the examples used towards SEN learners.

The most polite and euphemistic expressions displayed in the table include *big-picture people, willful children, exceptional learners, uniquely abled* or *misunderstood kids*. Others may evoke confusion (*physiologically disfranchised, driven by a motor*) or even surprise (i.e., *have no useful hearing, university challenged, requiring education tailored for their needs*). But all of the above examples are politically correct and inoffensive and may have been coined by people who either experience the problem of being 'different' themselves (like Flanagan and Strong, both being the adults with ADHD) or are tolerant and careful as to

[13] Sinclair, J. 1991, *Corpus, Concordance, Collocation*, (Oxford: Oxford University Press), p. 25.

which language should be used while describing Special Education Needs students.

The examples of politically incorrect phrases can be divided into a few categories. The first group of expressions used to be employed in the past but nowadays should rather be avoided as their connotations are no longer positive. One should enumerate here such terminology as *disabled, (physically) handicapped* and *'cap in hand', mentally/physically retarded, deaf* and its diminutive form '*deafies', stone deaf, out and out blind, cripple* and *crips, physically different, invalid* and *(physically) abnormal.* Rees[14] questions the correctness of some currently appropriate terms (e.g., *learning difficulties*[15]) referring to the educational context and provides us with the opinion of Steven Billington's, Mencap's director of marketing and appeals, who claims that : "It is only a matter of time before even the most right-on expression becomes a term of abuse. It has been the same since people talked about village idiots, and "learning difficulties" is no exception. Children are already calling each other *LDs* as an insult". This opinion can partly account for the fact why certain (previously accepted) terms are no longer in usage, i.e., *backwards, mentally deficient, educationally/academically subnormal*[16]. Surprisingly enough, the group concerned prefers still to be called in a (contemporary) inappropriate way. Lord Rix, Mencap's chairperson expresses this attitude as follows: "Learning difficulties" is a misnomer. It implies that mental handicap is all a matter of education …My child [born mentally handicapped] is 40 and to describe her as having a learning difficulty is a travesty of the truth"[17].

The second group of constructions denotes certain problems that may be interpreted as deterring people from leading normal lives and having a detrimental effect on them. It encompasses such vocabulary as: *afflicted by, suffering from (e.g., mental alienation), confined to* e.g.*, a wheelchair, wheelchair-bound, touched by, crippled by, stricken by* or *a sufferer/victim of …*[18]. These phrases are objected to by both – people who are disabled and those concerned with looking after them. Another category refers to inappropriate medical terms that used to be implemented while describing SEN students. One could distinguish here such terms as: *mongolism, mongol, imbecile, paralytic, cretin, LDs* (used as an insult), *defective, deformed, mad, crazy, insane, abnormal, spastic, mentally deranged/disordered/disturbed/impaired, lunatic (asylum)* or *extreme behaviour disorders*. As has been already stated, the term *Down's syndrome* has been introduced into the usage at the expense of *mongolism* as it caused certain racial uneasiness and was hurtful to many parents[19]. The author traces the origin of this word and states that *mongolism* was first characterised before 1900 and defined by *The Oxford English Dictionary* (Second Edition) as "*Congenital form of mental deficiency…marked by numerous signs, including short stature, short thick hands*

[14] Rees, N. 1995, *The Politically Correct Phrasebook. What they say you can and cannot say in the 1990s*, (London: Bloomsbury), p. 94.

[15] The term *learning difficulties* was first introduced in 1976 at the time of the Committee of Enquiry into the Education of Handicapped Children of Young People (Rees, N. *op. cit*., p. 233).

[16] Holder, R. 2003, *Oxford Dictionary of Euphemisms*, (New York: Oxford University Press), p. 2.

[17] *The Independent*, 20 July 1992. This opinion is also shared by Australian teachers, the informants participating in my research. Some of these respondents notice that a vast group of differently-abled (usually physically disfranchised) students tend to joke about themselves and not treat their disability in a very serious way.

[18] Rees, N. 1995, *op. cit.,* pp. 36, 43.

[19] *Ibidem*, p. 36.

and feet, a large tongue, a flat face with features somewhat similar to those of Mongolians…". As this definition clearly indicates where offence might lie, the change of name was just a matter of time. It was inspired by a conscious campaign and since 1961 people with this condition have been referred to as *with Down's syndrome, Down's syndrome patients* or *Down's people*. This term is also an example of a phrase incorporating a word *syndrome* being used to avoid a taboo word. The stigma can be hence circumvented by naming the affliction after the English physician John Down. Holder[20] (quoting Winchester, 1998) is also of the opinion that in the same way one may prefer not to talk about other illnesses, e.g., schizophrenia: "(…) to rid the ailment of unpleasant associations, there are now moves to have it called Kraepelin's syndrome". Pyles and Algeo[21] provide another example of the above-mentioned strategy. *Leprosy*, because of repulsive connotations, has been changed into 'the colorless' *Hansen's disease*.

Another very vivid example of completely outrageous language used towards ADD is provided by Holder[22] who defines Attention Deficit Disorder as "idleness or stupidity". Moreover, the very same syndrome is widely described by Theroux[23], who claims that ADD is "a medical condition which can also be used to avoid condemning a child as being stupid, idle, or naughty"[24]. The above mentioned examples are to be found in the *Oxford Dictionary of Euphemisms*. This, in turn, can imply that ADD is only a euphemistic, more polite form of something that 'less politically correct' people would call stupidity! The same dictionary defines *developmental classes* as associated with ignorance, idleness, or the lack of ability. "Educational jargon, as in the *developmental class* for the unruly or stupid, and the *developmental course*, which used to be called *cramming*". *Remedial classes* or *help* is understood here as " [the one] applicable to the dull, the lazy, and the badly taught". *Less academic* children are "stupid or unteachable" whereas *maladjusted* – naughty or ill-disciplined.

The biggest group of expressions unfortunately comprises foul and extremely coarse language. People who are not academically gifted, have low IQs or represent special needs are referred to as, e.g., *freak, vegetable, stupid, brain-dead* (used about Down's syndrome)*, funny (in the head), funny farm, wacky* or *wacko, bats, nuts, retard, moron, jerk, loon, luny, flawed, crack-brained, scatter-brained, shatter-brained, head-case, nutcase, bonkers, unhinged, nincompoop, certifiable, halfwit, nitwit, fuckwit* or *fuckhead*, *demented, flake, fruitcake, gaga, madman, madwoman, nutty, psycho, psychopath, schizo, troppo, unbalanced* and *wreck*. The overwhelming plethora of such expressions seems to be almost never ending as only one resource, namely the *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (*CALD*) provides eighty-four matches (the majority of which are impolite ones) to the term 'mentally ill' and one hundred and fifty four to the word 'stupid'. Manser[25] traces the origin of insults and states that some of them (*nitwit, freak*) were used in the 1910s, others such as *jerk, birdbrain, cretin, shithead* appeared in the 1930s and

[20] Holder, 2003, *op. cit*.

[21] Pyles, T., & Algeo, J. 1964, [1982]. *The Origins and Development of the English Language*, (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.), p. 248.

[22] Holder, R. 2003, *op. cit*., p. 15.

[23] Theroux, P. 1993, *Millroy the Magician*. New York: Ballantine Books.

[24] Cited in Holder, R. 2003, *op. cit*., p. 15.

[25] Manser, M. 2007, *Buttering Parsnips, Twocking Chavs. The Secret Life of the English Language*, (London: Weidenfeld & Nicolson), p. 110.

EXAMPLES:	USED ABOUT
mADDening child	ADD
people who run into difficulties	ADD, ADHD,
another new bandwagon	ADD/ADHD
thrill-seeking people	ADHD
moral defectiveness	ADHD
little monsters	ADHD children
constant failure child	learning disabilities
less fortunate students	SEN learners
less favoured students	SEN learners
unfortunate children	SEN learners

Table 2: The Most Offensive Language Used towards SEN Students

1940s. Phrases of relatively modern origin comprise *nutcake* and *retard* (1960s), *goonhead* (1980s) or *twathead* (2000s).

The last two categories concentrate on the idiomatic expressions and similes and brand-new, newly-coined metaphors used to describe someone's intellectual potential. *CALD* provides us with many options, e.g., the synonyms of a term *mentally ill* and *unhinged*. One can distinguish here the examples that are used humorously (e.g., *unhinged, Dutchman*), others are informal or idiomatic (e.g., *certifiable, have a screw lose*). The majority though, are derogatory, offensive and vulgar, e.g., anything qualified as being *Dutch* is considered bogus or inferior[26]. Hence using the word *Dutchman*, may therefore be considered as doubly politically incorrect.

The last enumerated category is composed of newly-coined and relatively rare expressions that have appeared in print towards SEN learners. Some of the examples are very ironic and used offensively although their previous connotation was not as negative i.e., *a bandwagon* – is defined as "an activity, group, movement, etc. that has become successful or fashionable and so attracts many new people"[27]. Referring to ADD or ADHD as *another new bandwagon* may imply that these syndromes have become attached to learners in a kind of fashion-like way, to make 'the bearers' more popular and attractive among their peers.

The term *mADDening child* makes use of an expression 'to go mad' (meaning to become crazy) and 'to drive somebody mad' and implies that an ADD child can have a devastating influence (or even maddening effect) on his or her caretaker. Strong & Flanagan[28] provide us with the example of *moral defectiveness* claiming that this term was created to place the blame on the child and the parents. The authors also postulate that "people with ADHD can have problems with empathy and with following rules, so they may act in ways that other people see as immoral or amoral". This concept,

[26] Holder, R. 2003, *op. cit*., p. 119.

[27] Woodford, K., et al. (eds.). 2003, *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary*. Version 1.0 on CD-Rom based on the printed edition of *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary*. Copenhagen: Cambridge University Press.

[28] Strong, J., & Flanagan, M. 2005, *AD/HD For Dummies*, (Indianapolis: Wiley Publishing, Inc.), p. 18.

however, is still recognised as a kind of stereotype. The worst terminology and most churlish language used towards SEN learners are *unfortunate children, less favoured students* or *constant failure individuals*. The last expression suggests that people with learning disabilities do not stand a chance for a good future and are in a way, doomed to failure. Such a negative and pessimistic label can deprive them of any hope for a better life.

Some examples of politically incorrect terminology are slightly old-fashioned and obsolete and have already been replaced by something newer e.g. *village idiot, unsalted* (of unsound mind) or *devil's mark* are no longer attached towards less intelligent people. Other expressions describe different stages of a mental illness, its beginning or a very severe condition (*lose your mind, be losing it*, *be not (quite) right in the head, lose your marbles*) and exhibit different levels of formality ranging from *demented* and *gaga* (both of which are very informal) and *fruitcake* (a slang expression) to *to be of unsound mind*, being an example of a formal and legal terminology.

All in all, it has to be stated that some expressions are definitely more commonly used than others. **Table 3** illustrates the most frequently adopted examples.

One should draw attention to and advocate the usage of such expressions as *person/people with* … as they above all, highlight the person hidden behind the handicap.

Bugajski[29] is of the opinion that "prescriptivism basically rejects the idea of a 'norm', treating it as a dynamic, internally differentiated phenomenon that reflects developmental mechanisms of a language and its evolutionary tendencies". This interpretation, and particularly the assumption that a language is always dynamic and does not require any norms, is very useful while presenting the collected material and examples of proper (or improper) terminology used towards SEN learners. Linguistics, being the showpiece of humanistic science, requires active and fastidious participation from con-

MOST POPULAR EXPRESSIONS
DIFFERENTLY **ABLED**
UNIQUELY **ABLED**/ OTHERLY **ABLED**
PHYSICALLY/MENTALLY **CHALLENGED**
INCONVENIENCED
DISFRANCHISED (E.G. PHYSICALLY, MENTALLY)
LEARNING DIFFICULTIES (LD)
REPRESENTING SPECIAL EDUCATION NEEDS (**SEN STUDENTS**)
SYNDROME
IMPAIRED (VISUALLY IMPAIRED)
HARD OF (SEEING)
HARD OF HEARING
HAVING PROBLEMS /DIFFICULTIES WITH
PERSON WITH
PEOPLE WITH DIFFERING ABILITIES
RETARDED IN ACHIEVEMENT
MIXED ABILITY CLASSES / REMEDIAL CLASSES/WORK/ SUPPORT CLASSES
STUDY CENTER /ACADEMIC WORKSHOP
DISABLED PEOPLE/ **PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES**
GOOD/POOR/WEAK AT
RETARDED; PHYSICALLY IMPAIRED

Table 3: The Most Popular Phrases Used about SEN Learners

[29] Bugajski, M. 2006, *Język w Komunikowaniu*. Warszawa, (Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN), p. 24.

scious users and the protection of a language. Consequently, a person using vulgar, offensive and coarse expressions towards e.g., less gifted learners may 'contaminate' the language and introduce negative habits. Such behaviour is also contradictory to the idea of 'culture of language' and the popularisation of only positive and polite standards. Bugajski[30] expresses his opinion about the language of communication and states that one should be concerned with the kind of language one produces during any social interaction. Language users should interpret the facts from a socio-cultural angle as our output can influence and shape reality. One should transmit and popularise the knowledge that aims to raise the linguistic, cultural and moral standards of a society. This knowledge should, therefore, be applicable to the evaluation of social phenomena, and especially language.

Speakers of a language possess a great 'creative power' to shape it and consequently the way they speak (whether it is sufficiently polite and inoffensive) may contribute to the condition of the current form of the language. Hence one of the main goals of education should be to advocate the idea of Good English understood as SEN learners-friendly language.

[30] *Ibidem*, pp. 9-10.

Zigrida VINČELA *

Cross-cultural Online Communication: from Interactional to Transactional Writing

1 Introduction

The choice of lexicogrammatical features in a particular writing depends on the communicative context that can range from interactional to transactional situations. Non-native students, however, tend to be less sensitive to the variation of linguistic features expected by interactional/transactional characteristics of a text[1]. The acquisition of this sensitivity is important for the students of FML (Faculty of Modern languages) of the University of Latvia, as their needs[2] range from the English language teaching to various target groups to translation of texts of different disciplines and genres, which requires language use variation that cut across these genres. The multi-purpose needs of the students of FML can be addressed through involving them in writing activities that range from transactional to interactional written communication, because they must practise writing in a range of genres to capture the language use variation. One of the ways to provide such practice is the application of technology-enhanced, cross-cultural writing activities by placing students in contact with an authentic audience and authentic target language exposure. In order to meet the needs of the students of FML, they were provided with the possibility to participate in the project envisaging online cross-cultural communication with the students of Mars Hill College (USA). The goal of the present paper, therefore, is to outline the structure and aims of the cross-cultural writing sessions and explore the lexical complexity and the variation of personal pronouns in the texts developed by the students of the University of Latvia. Moreover, a subsidiary goal is the evaluation of the usefulness of the activity in the light of its cross-cultural potential from these students' perspectives.

2 Theoretical Background

The assumption that written communication ranges from transactional to interactional texts has been considered by linguists over the past decades. Brown

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[1] Shaw, P., Ting-Kun Liu, E. 1998, What Develops in the Development of Second-language Writing? *Applied Linguistics*, 19:2, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

[2] Kramiņa, I. 2000, *Linguo-didactic Theories underlying Multi-purpose Language Acquisition*. Riga: ELPA.

and Jule[3], like Bühler[4], Jakobson[5] and Halliday[6], have summarised language functions in two groups: transactional functions that "serve in the expression of content" and interactional, "involved in expressing social relations and personal attitudes". They emphasise that writing is primarily transactional, whereas speech interactional. This approach, which is shared by other linguists[7], brings out the peculiarities of spoken/written communication and leads to a more complex perception of the language use variation across spoken/written or orality/literacy continua. Accordingly, Hatch[8], Street[9] and other researchers conclude that particular written texts can share the same lexicogrammatical features, which are characteristic of spoken language. The overlapping of the lexicogrammatical features along the written/spoken or orality/literacy continuum has been thoroughly investigated by Biber[10], who has proved that "there is no linguistic or situational characterization of speech and writing that is true of all spoken and written genres". These findings show that linguistic features in written texts can overlap and cut across the orality/literacy continuum, hence interactional/transactional divide of language functions. Moreover, with the advent of computer networks, written communication situations tend to diversify. Callot & Belmore[11] have explored the language use variation in bulletin-board messages according to Biber's multidimensional approach. They have found that variation of linguistic features in these messages correlates with the linguistic characteristics of public interviews, personal and professional letters, which means that bulletin-board messages tend to combine interactional and transactional functions. The diversity of variation across the orality/literacy continuum in different Internet situations has been analysed by Crystal[12], Murray[13] and Herring[14], who conclude that the Inter-

[3] Brown, G., & Yule, G. 1983, *Discourse Analysis*, (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press), p. 1.

[4] Bühler, K. 1999, Sprachtheorie. Die Darstellungsfunktion der Sprache. Mit einem Geleitwort von Friedrich Kainz, Ungekutter Neudr. der Ausg. Jena, Fisher, 1933, 3. Aufl. Stuttgart: Lucius & Lucius.

[5] Jakobson, R. 1960, Linguistics and Poetics. In: Sebeok, T. (ed.), *Style in Language*, (Cambridge, MA: MIT-Press), pp. 350-377.

[6] Halliday, M. 1970, Language Structure and Language Function. In: Lyons, J. (ed.) *New Horizons in Linguistics*. Harmandsworth: Penguin.

[7] Crystal, D. 1995, *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; Halliday, M. 1995, *Spoken and Written Language*. Burwood: Deakin University Press; Nunan, D. 1993, *Introducing Discourse Analysis*. London: Penguin English; Tannen, D. 1982, Oral and Literate Strategies in Spoken and Written Narratives, *Language,* 58, pp. 1-21.

[8] Hatch, E. 1992, *Discourse and Language Education*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

[9] Street, B. 1995, *Social Literacies*. Harlow: Longman.

[10] Biber, D. 1988, *Variation across Speech and Writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[11] Collot, M., & Belmore, N. 1996, Electronic Language: A New Variety of English. In Herring, S. (ed.), *Computer-mediated Communication: Linguistic, Social, and Cross-cultural Perspectives*, Amsterdam/ Philadelphia: John Benjamins, pp. 13-28.

[12] Crystal, D. 2001, *Language and the Internet*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[13] Murray, D. 1996, Communicating for Life: The Social Dimensions of Computer-mediated Communication, *Applied Linguistics Forum*, 16:2, pp. 1-2; 7-9; Murray, D. 2000, Protean Communication: The Language of Computer-mediated Communication, *TESOL Quarterly*, 34, pp. 397-421.

[14] Herring, S. (ed.) 1996, *Computer-mediated Communication: Linguistic, Social and Cross-cultural Perspectives*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins; Herring, S. 2001, Computer-mediated Discourse. In: Schiffrin, D., Tannen, D., & Hamilton, H. (eds.), *The Handbook of Discourse Analysis,* (Malden, MA: Blackwell), pp. 612-634.

net situations incorporate the linguistic features expressing interactional and transactional functions. Such diversity, as Kern[15] asserts, prompts that advanced level students must analyse situational factors in order to understand the register pertinent in the variation of linguistic features in different genres.

The topicality of the contextualisation of linguistic features in technology-based writing correlates with the assumption[16] that language learning potential is an essential quality of technology-enhanced activities. Accordingly, this potential has been made obvious by researchers who have investigated technology-based activities aiming at students' contextualisation of written communication. Davis & Thiede[17], who have explored lexical and syntactical complexity in students' asynchronous discussion postings, conclude that the examined EFL students' electronic conference messages demonstrate the advancement of students' language learning as well as their adjustment to the communicative situation. Biesenbach-Lucas & Weasenforth[18] have focused on the research of students' contextualisation shift in their email-based and word-processed academic essays. They point out that the frequency rates of linguistic features in email-based essays show that the writers have tended to express their stance more overtly than the writers of word-processed essays, which indicates the contextualisation shift. However, Kern & Warschauer[19] conclude that more recent research on technology-based communication tends to expand the language learning contexts to intercultural learning. The present study, therefore, addresses the involvement of the students of FML of the University of Latvia in authentic, cross-cultural writing sessions that aim at the development of three electronic text-types (biographies, online discussion, informative texts) requiring a shift from interactional to transactional writing.

3 Cross-cultural writing sessions

Cross-cultural writing sessions brought together the students of Mars Hill College and the students of the FML of the University of Latvia. Four writing sessions were enabled by Mars Hill College on a Blackboard-based online course (Figure 1). The first session was a trial run aimed at the piloting of writing session stages. The smooth flow of the trial run inspired the integration of the cross-cultural communication in the respective courses of both institutions during three subsequent years: 2003, 2004 and 2005. The collaborative writing sessions at the FML of the University of Latvia were integrated into the course *English Academic Writing*.

The longitudinal cross-cultural writing sessions that included all the previously

[15] Kern, R. 2006, Perspectives on Technology in Learning and Teaching, *TESOL Quarterly,* 40:1, pp. 183-210.

[16] Chapelle, C. 2001, *Computer Applications in Second Language Acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; Chapelle, C. 2002, Computer-assisted Language Learning. In: *The Oxford Handbook of Applied Linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

[17] Davis, B., & Thiede, R. 2000, Writing into Change: Style Shift in Asynchronous Electronic Discourse. In: Warschauer, M., & Kern, R. (eds.), *Network-based Language Teaching*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[18] Biesenbach-Lucas, S., & Weasenforth, D. 2001, E-mail and Word Processing in the ESL Classroom: How the Medium Affects the Message, *Language, Learning and Technology,* 5, pp. 133-165.

[19] Kern, W., & Warschauer, M. 2004, Crossing Frontiers: New Directions in Online Pedagogy and Research, *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 24, pp. 243-260.

considered activities, covered nine weeks within the 16-weeks course of *English Academic Writing*. The activities of cross-cultural sessions were integrated within weekly 90-minute classes, and alternated with the regular *English Academic Writing* course activities. Accordingly, only three of the 90-minutes classes were fully devoted to the cross-cultural activity.

The goal of cross-cultural writing sessions was two-fold. One of the goals, cultural enrichment, was shared by both institutions: Mars Hill College and the University of Latvia. The other goal was specific for each of the two participating institutions. The specific goal of FML of the University of Latvia was writing skills development, namely, the contextualisation of language variations in the three text-types developed during cross-cultural writing sessions.

The scenario of writing sessions (Table 1) comprised three stages: pre-activities, writing activities and post-activities. The pre-activities and post-activities were specific for each of the institutions and aimed at smooth integration of the cross-cultural writing into the respective courses of both institutions.

During cross-cultural writing activities, the students collaborated in small groups of four or three. The themes of each cross-cultural writing session were discussed with the students chosen by them.

Trial run: Mars Hill College/University of Latvia; traditions, food;
Session 1: traditions, pop-music, leisure time activities; academic community;
tourist attractions, contrasts of where we live;
Session 2: academic community, leisure time, family, music;
Session 3: sport, political system, gender roles, family.

During cross-cultural writing activities each small group from one institution, which worked at a particular theme, collaborated with the thematically corresponding group from the other institution.

Cross-cultural writing activities included the following sub-activities (see Table 1):

1. Weeks 2 and 3 were devoted to individual development of biographies and posting of the biographies in the site of the Course Documents created to host the students' biographies from both institutions who worked on the same theme.

2. Week 4 envisaged reading of the biographies of the students from the other institution who had initially chosen the same theme; and starting cross-cultural online discussion via Discussion Board among the small collaborative groups of the students from both institutions who shared the same theme. The discussion focused on the students' interests set out in the biographies as well as the theme that the groups from both institutions had chosen. The online messages were collaboratively brainstormed, and therefore represented the ideas and the gathered information of the participants of the whole small group from the respective institution.

3. Weeks 5 and 6 included collaborative work within the thematic group of the students from each of the two institutions and the development of the text for the informative presentation on the theme that they had chosen; posting of the presentation in the course documents created for hosting of the presen-

tations and biographies of the students from both institutions who worked on the same theme. The writing process of the informative text overlapped with the online discussion via Discussion Board that had started after the posting of the biographies and continued until the closing of the cross-cultural writing session.

4. Weeks 7 and 8 were devoted to the reading of the informative presentations developed by the students from the other institution who had worked on the related theme. Online discussion focused on the issues provoked by the presentation.

4 Results and Discussion

The three types of electronic texts (informative texts, discussion postings and biographies) developed by 44 students of the University of Latvia were compiled in a mini-corpus (38,935 words) in order to explore the students contextualisation of communicative situations by the identification of the overall lexical complexity in these texts. The lexical complexity was explored with the help of *WordSmith Tools*[20], namely, *Wordlist* and *Concordance* functions.

The overall lexical complexity was investigated by the identification of exploring type/token ratio (TTR) and personal pronoun variations in the electronic texts. TTRs are defined as the total number of unique words, or types, divided by the total number of words, or tokens. According to linguists' findings[21], TTR varies in different text-types, thus indicating the writer's lexical complexity: a higher type-token ratio indicates that a text has greater lexical complexity, or in other words, has a greater lexical range. TTR also varies depending on the length of the text: longer texts have more repeated words and consequently lower TTR. In order to compare TTR across the three previously mentioned text types the ratio was standardised according to 1000-word samples.

The frequency of the personal pronouns was identified with the help of *Wordlist* and *Concordance*. In order to represent comparable frequency, the raw totals of personal pronouns were normalised to a text length of 1000 words, namely, indicating how many of the respective pronouns would occur if the text had been 1000 words long. This enables the characterisation of each text-type.

The purpose of the first cross-cultural writing activity, biographies, was to introduce oneself to a comparatively narrow audience – to the students of both institutions who had chosen to work on the same theme. Therefore this writing functioned as the opener of the subsequent cross-cultural communication. Consequently, according to TTR and personal pronoun variation (Table 2), the students had contextualised these texts as personal letters.

TTR in biographies (38.2) is considerably higher than TTR in face-to-face conversation (30.0) according to LSWE (Longman Spoken and Written English Corpus) Corpus 1000-word samples as presented by Biber et.al.[22] in *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English (LGSPE)*. This prompts that the stu-

[20] Scott, M. 1996, *WordSmith Tools*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

[21] Biber, D. 1988, *Variation across Speech and Writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conrad, S., & Finegan, E. 2004, (eds.), *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*. (Fourth reprint), London: Longman.

[22] Biber, D., et al. 2004, *op cit*.

dents have attempted to vary lexis in order to transmit in their biographies the information about their interests and hobbies associated with various events, places, activities and people. On the other hand, the presumed thematic variation in biographies might have been shown by a more versatile lexical variation range. The closer exploration of the wordlist of biographies reveals that statistically the most prominent lexical word in them is the mental verb *like* "to find sb/sth pleasant, attractive or satisfactory" that expresses the attitudes as well as the first person pronouns *I* (which ranks the first in the frequency list) as well as *me, my*. It implies, according to Chafe[23], that the students have extensively discussed their mental processes, attitudes towards places, things, events as well as shown their ego involvement, interpersonal focus and generally involved style in these texts. The number of the second person pronouns in comparison with the first person pronouns is comparatively insignificant, which indicates a low degree of involvement with the presumable addressee[24]. Accordingly, the students' biographies comprise two functions: emotive (communication of the inner states and emotions of the addresser) and referential (carrying information by description of persons, things and events).

The purpose of the second cross-cultural activity, asynchronous discussion was online interaction in order to learn more about the interests and the hobbies of the students from the other institution (Mars Hill College) who had chosen to work at the same theme as well as obtain more detailed, culturally specific information about the chosen theme.

Traditionally, lexical complexity in asynchronous discussion (or online conferences) is compared by researchers with the complexity in face-to-face conversation and show that text-based computer-mediated communication (CMC) is lexically more complex than face-to-face conversation[25]. The comparison of TTR rate in the students' discussion postings with the TTR rate in face-to-face communication in *LGSPE*[26] shows that with respect to TTR, students' asynchronous discussion tends to be closer to academic texts than face-to-face discussion. However, the discussion postings contain a considerable number of the first and second person pronouns (Table 2). Thus, the first and second person pronouns in discussion postings are predominantly used for direct reference, as well as in some instances to emphasise the inner states and attitudes. First and second person pronouns, referring to the speaker and the addressee, are very common in interaction because the participants are in immediate contact.

Such TTR and the choice of the personal pronouns in online discussions show the multifunctional character of the students' postings. On the one hand, their purpose, as it is seen from the example, has been to maintain the social relationships (phatic function), but on the other hand the purpose has also been to transmit

[23] Chafe, W. 1985, Linguistic Differences Produced by Differences between Speaking and Writing. In: Olson, D., Torrance, N., & and Hidyard, A. (eds.), *Literature, Language, and Learning: the Nature and Consequences of Reading and Writing*, (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press), pp. 105-123.

[24] *Ibidem*.

[25] Warschauer, M. 1996, Comparing Face-to-face and Electronic Communication in the Second Language Classroom, *CALICO Journal*, 13, pp. 7-26; Crystal, D. 2001, *op. cit*.; Fitze, M. 2006, Discourse and Participation in ESL Face-to face and Written Electronic Conferences, *Language Learning and Technology*. 10:1, pp. 67-86.

[26] Biber, D., et al., 2004, *op. cit*.

information (referential function). The information transmission of online discussion postings was favoured by the following circumstances: the delayed nature of the discussion postings, the considerable difference in time zones, as well as the collaborative brainstorming that preceded the posting of the online messages. The discussion posting texts, therefore, show a variation from interactional to transactional writing.

Example

Hi! We were glad to receive a message and question from you. Primary education (9 grades) is obligatory. Secondary education depends on the choice of a person. People are not required to graduate high school (or in Latvia it's called secondary school), but it's important if they want to have a good job and career. There's a great choice of tertiary institutions in our country. A good education is what companies look for when they seek employees.

The purpose of the third activity of cross-cultural writing, informative texts, was the collaborative development of a text for the thematic presentation. The presentations were envisaged for posting in course documents, so that the students who had chosen to develop thematically related presentations from both institutions could view them. Moreover, the presentations were meant for preserving in course documents to use as material for future cross-cultural writing sessions. Accordingly, the presumable audience was comparatively vaster and the developed text more permanent than biographies and discussion postings.

TTR in the informative texts (42.9) correlates with the ratio (41.0) in academic prose in 1000–word samples of *LSWE* Corpus as presented by Biber et.al.[27]. The frequencies of the personal pronouns in the informative texts are comparatively insignificant. Thus the texts contain comparatively insignificant numbers of the first and second person pronouns. In addition, these pronouns are found in the quotations of the interviews that are incorporated in these texts. The number of the plural first person pronouns (*we*, *us*) slightly overweighs their singular counterparts. These pronouns are used in the introductory and concluding paragraphs of the informative texts in order to convey or summarise the overall purpose of the text. Accordingly, the students have contextualised the presentation texts as the informative texts that aim to convey specific information on a particular topic (referential function). As according to the cross-cultural project scenario, the presentations were meant as input material for the subsequent cross-cultural writing sessions, the students have rightly perceived these texts as comparatively permanent with the presumably wide audience, which might be considerably distant from them as writers. It means that these texts exhibit the lexical complexity that is required to transmit information on a particular theme and the students have managed to display considerable lexical diversity within the theme on which they worked. Therefore these texts are predominantly transactional.

Apart from the exploration of students' lexical variation pointing to the contextualisation of the three cross-cultural communication situations, their overall attitude towards these writing activities was explored during the follow-up re-

[27] *Ibidem.*

flection on the insights. The students were encouraged to reflect and rate the usefulness of the activity from the perspective of its cross-cultural enrichment according to a five-point usefulness scale. Accordingly, 66% of the students rated these cross-cultural writing sessions as useful or very useful and only 34% of the students as neutral. Moreover, none of the students has indicated a negative attitude towards these cross-cultural writing sessions. The students' overall positive attitude as well as their attempts to correlate the language use according to the communicative purpose of a particular instance of written communication brings out the usefulness of this authentic cross-cultural communication.

5 Conclusions

The analysis of students' writings of three cross-cultural communication sessions as well as the overall attitude of the students allows us to draw two conclusions regarding the educational and cross-cultural potential of this technology-based activity:

1. Cross-cultural writing activities enabled the students to become involved in authentic written communication with an authentic audience thus gaining cross-cultural enrichment. The students' overall positive attitude to the cross-cultural writing shows that they are motivated to take up such cross-cultural experiences within the *Academic Writing Course*. Therefore, the course can be enriched by authentic cross-cultural writing.

2. The lexical complexity and the variation of the personal pronouns across the three text-types show that the students have practised the contextualisation of lexical diversity according to the communicative functions of the three instances of written communication, and experience contexts embedded in transactional and interactional writing that correlates with the students' needs.

The obtained results show that it is important to proceed with the implementation of such cross-cultural writing activities and exploration of the functionally significant lexicogrammatical features in students' electronic texts as well as take up the comparative investigation of the texts developed by the students of the University o Latvia and Mars Hill College.

Acknowledgements

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Appendices

Figure 1: Staff information on Blackboard-based course hosting cross-cultural writing sessions

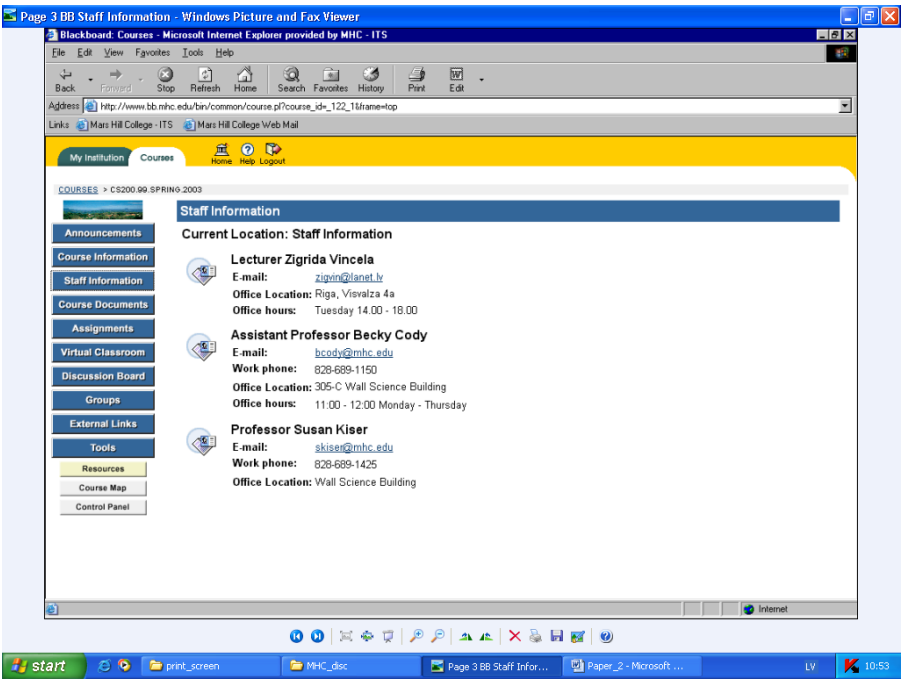

Table 1: Stages, Activities and Schedule of Cross-cultural Writing Sessions

Stages	Writing activities	Schedule
Stage 1: pre-activities	Discussion of the goals, exploration of Mars Hill College web site and the outcomes of the previous sessions, brainstorming for biographies.	Week 1: 90 minutes
Stage 2: activities	Writing process of the biographies	Week 2: 60 minutes followed up by individual writing process
	Writing process of the biographies, posting of the biographies	Week 3: 60 minutes followed up by the final refinement of the drafts
	Reading of the biographies of Mars Hill College students, starting collaborative online discussion, collaborative brainstorming for the informative text	Week 4: 90 minutes followed up by collaborative brainstorming and online discussion
	Collaborative work at the expository text, asynchronous online discussion	Week 5: 90 minutes

	Collaborative editing, arrangement of the text in the presentation, asynchronous online discussion	Week6: 45 minutes
	Reading of the presentations of the Mars Hill College students, asynchronous online discussion	Week 7: 30 minutes
	Collaborative asynchronous online discussion	Week 8: 30 minutes
Stage 3: follow-up activities	Reflection on the insights gained during the cross-cultural session.	Week 9: 90 minutes

Table 2: Normalised Type/token Ratio and Frequency of the Personal Pronouns per 1000 Words

TTR and Personal Pronouns	**Informative Texts**	**Online Discussion Postings**	**Biographies**
Number of the tokens/words	7176	12712	19047
Type/token ratio	42.9	38.5	38.2
I, my, me	3	50	89
we, us, our	6	71	9
you, your	3	28	6
he, she, her, him, his	3	2	7
they, them, their	6	5	5
Total (pronouns)	21	156	116

Naomi BOAKYE *
Lynne SOUTHEY *

The Influence of Socio-affective Factors on Students' Reading Ability

1 Introduction

Students' reading abilities have been explored from various angles. Linguistic and cognitive processes including word recognition, syntactic processes, vocabulary, fluency, and inferencing skills involving interactive use of background knowledge, meta-cognitive knowledge, reading strategies, and discourse organisation have been researched extensively, mainly in first language contexts[1].

However, the socio-affective factors that influence students' reading comprehension abilities have not been much explored. Students' motivations, attitudes towards reading, and self-image as readers have not received in-depth research in either first language (L1) or second language (L2) contexts, even less so in L2 contexts. Yet these socio-affective factors have been known to influence reading just as the linguistic and cognitive processing factors do[2]. For instance, students' motivations and attitudes influence their willingness to participate in reading classes and related activities, which ultimately affect the success of their reading development. Students with low motivation do less reading, encounter difficulty in text comprehension, use ineffective strategies and have poor reading ability[3]. The need to research the influence of affective factors on reading comprehension is therefore essential, particularly in the case of L2 readers, as they bring different attitudes to reading and possess differing motivations for reading, which, according to Grabe and Stoller[4], are linked to students' previous experiences with reading, such as their exposure to people who read and their perceptions about the usefulness of reading.

This study investigates the socio-affective factors of motivation, attitude and self-efficacy using the categories given above. These three affective factors were selected for investigation due to their strong influence on reading comprehension[5] and their relatedness to the categories listed by Grabe and Stoller[6]. The

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[1] Grabe, W. & Stoller, F. 2002, *Teaching and Researching Reading,* (Harlow, Essex: Pearson Education), p. 57.; Alderson, 2000, *Assessing Reading,* (New York: CUP), p. 41; Anderson, N. 1999, *Exploring Second Language Reading: Issues and Strategies.* Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

[2] Grabe, W., & Stoller, F. 2002, *op cit.,* p. 19; Verhoeven, L., & Snow, C. 2001, *Literacy and Motivation: Reading Engagement in Individuals and Groups,* (Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers), p. 2.

[3] Grabe, W., & Stoller, F. 2002, *op cit.*; Alderson, N. 2000, *op. cit.*

[4] *op. cit*., p 242.

[5] Guthrie, J., & Wigfield, A. 2000, Engagement and Motivation in Reading. In Kamil, M., Mosenthal, P., Pearson, P., & Barr, R. (eds.) *Handbook of Reading Research,* 111, pp. 403-420.

[6] *op. cit*.

group used for the study consisted of first year students who were enrolled for the elective Academic Reading course at the University of Pretoria. The results of the investigation are discussed and suggestions are made for improving the reading program and learning materials currently in use.

The objectives of the research were therefore primarily to:

1 explore students' reading background in relation to socio-affective factors;
2 investigate students' experiences of reading in relation to both English L1 and L2 speakers; and
3 suggest possible changes that might be useful in developing students' reading comprehension ability based on the results of objectives one and two.

The larger objective is to contribute to research data on socio-affective factors and reading comprehension.

First, we discuss the influence of socio-affective factors on reading comprehension and academic achievement. Then we consider the concept of engagement as a way of addressing any negative influence that socio-affective factors may have on students' reading abilities. The responses to the questionnaire are analysed and recommendations made.

2 Factors Influencing Reading Comprehension

2.1 Motivation/attitude/self-efficacy in Reading Comprehension

Reading motivation, defined as the individual's personal goals, values, and beliefs with regard to the topics, processes and outcomes of reading[7] and reading amount (the frequency of reading) have been known to correlate with each other. Wigfield and Guthrie[8] report on a correlation between reading amount and several aspects of motivation, including curiosity, involvement, challenge, recognition and competence. Their study shows that highly motivated students tend to increase their reading amount and therefore the length of time they spend reading. A further study by Guthrie et al.[9] considered extrinsic motivation (recognition and competence) and intrinsic motivation (enjoyment and involvement) separately with reading amount, and confirm the correlation between motivation and reading amount. Motivation and reading amount both influence text comprehension or reading comprehension. Text comprehension is defined by Guthrie et al.[10] as "the capacity of the learner to construct new knowledge or information from written texts". Highly motivated students spend more time reading, and frequent reading increases conceptual understanding of texts, which contributes to reading achievement[11]. Specifically, students who read daily for enjoyment have higher reading achievement levels than those who indicate reading only yearly or never[12]. From

[7] Guthrie, J., & Wigfield, A. 2000, *op. cit*., p. 405.
[8] *Ibidem*.
[9] Guthrie, J., Wigfield, A., Metsala, J., & Cox, K. 1999, Motivational and Cognitive Predictors of Text Comprehension and Reading Amount, *Scientific Studies of Reading,* 3:3, pp. 231-256.
[10] *op. cit*., p. 232.
[11] Stanovich, K., & Cunningham, A. 1993, Where Does Knowledge Come from? Specific Associations between Print Exposure and Information Acquisition, *Journal of Educational Psychology,* 85:2, pp 211-229; Grabe, W., & Stoller, F. 2002, *op. cit*.; Guthrie, J., Wigfield, A., Metsala, J., & Cox, K. 1999, *op. cit*.
[12] Guthrie, J., et al. 1999, *op. cit*.

their study, Guthrie et al.[13] state categorically that text comprehension develops from reading amount. Anderson et al.[14] also reported on a study showing that reading amount indicates the level of text comprehension.

With regard to the benefit of frequent reading of different text types, Guthrie et al.[15] write "controlling for the contribution of past achievement and prior knowledge to passage comprehension, reading amount added significantly to the predictability of conceptual learning from multiple texts". In other words, reading amount correlates with text comprehension across text types and genres[16]. Gottfried[17] reports significant correlation for reading amount, academic intrinsic motivation and text comprehension using students' self reports, which to him were more predictive than grades or test scores. Our present study therefore focuses on self-report using questionnaires.

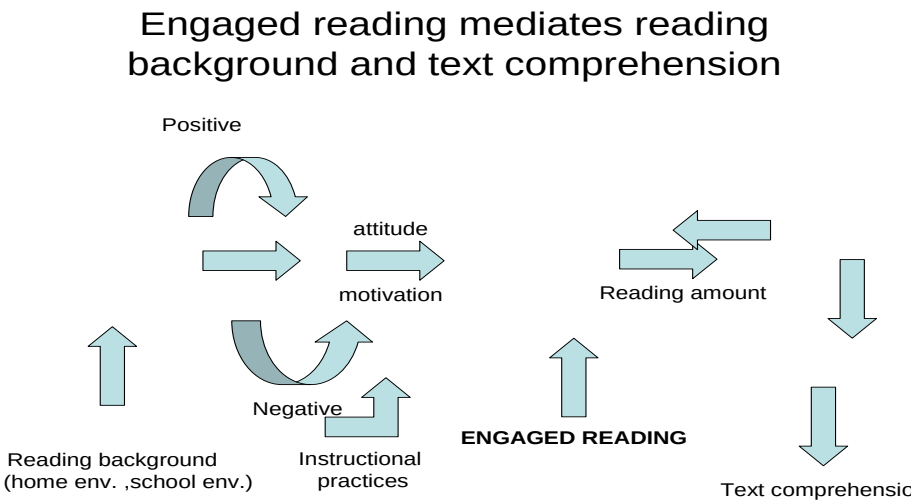
Attitude refers to a student's liking for a task. A student with a high motivation for reading will have a positive attitude towards reading[18]. A positive attitude is usually shaped by students' educational background, and it influences their self-esteem and willingness to persist under challenging reading situations[19]. An added aspect of motivation is self-efficacy, defined by Bandura (1986) and adopted by Schunk and Rice[20] as "people's judgments of their capabilities to organise and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances". When applied to reading it has been shown that having positive self-efficacy, that is, holding the idea that one is able to read and comprehend texts, even difficult texts, is closely linked to motivation[21]. Obviously, students who do not feel that their reading ability is adequate for understanding complex texts, will not be motivated to read, and so their reading ability will not improve.

2.2 Engagement as a Factor in Reading Comprehension

Although motivation, attitude and self-efficacy contribute to reading amount and invariably, to text comprehension, engagement in reading has been propounded to be the link between these factors and reading achievement. That is, not only is the amount (frequency) of reading important but so too is the involvement in the reading, the focus on the text to obtain meaning, what Guthrie and Wigfield[22] refer to as *engagement*. Engaged reading demands the coordination of the cognitive (conceptual application), social (community of literacy) and motivational (enjoyment and involvement) aspects of reading. When all three dimensions are in play, engagement occurs and reading achievement is obtained. When students read actively and frequently; and are involved with text to obtain meaning, cognitive abilities are

[13] Guthrie, J., et al. 1999, *op. cit*., p. 232.
[14] Anderson, R., Wilson, P., & Fielding, L. 1988, Growth in Reading and how Children Spend their Time outside of school. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 23, pp. 285-303.
[15] Guthrie, J., et al. 1999. *op. cit*., p. 243.
[16] Guthrie, J., et al. 1999, *op. cit*.; Anderson, R., Wilson, P., & Fielding, L. 1988, *op. cit.;* Gottfried, A. 1990, Academic Intrinsic Motivation in Young Elementary School Children, *Journal of Educational Psychology,* 82, pp. 525-538.
[17] Gottfried, A. 1990, *op. cit*.
[18] Guthrie, J., & Wigfield, A. 2000, *op. cit*., p. 407.
[19] Grabe, W., & Stoller, F. 2002, *op cit.,* p. 56.
[20] Schunk, D., & Rice, M. 1993, Strategy Fading and Progress Feedback: Effects on Self-efficacy and Comprehension among Students Receiving Remedial Reading Services, *Journal of Special Education,* 27, pp. 257-276.
[21] Guthrie, J., et al. 1999, *op. cit*., p. 236.
[22] Guthrie, J., & Wigfield, A. 2000, *op. cit*., p. 403.

Figure 1



enhanced and their text comprehension improves. Thus engaged reading is strongly associated with reading achievement[23]. Engaged readers discuss ideas and interpretation of texts with peers, have a high interest in reading, transfer interest to a variety of genres, obtain valued learning outcomes, select appropriate strategies to obtain conceptual understanding, and have intrinsic motivation (interest and enjoyment). On the other hand, disengaged readers are inactive and passive, they tend to avoid reading, minimise effort in reading, are not absorbed in literature during free time, and rarely enjoy reading[24]. These features of engaged and disengaged readers as outlined by Guthrie and Wigfield have implications for improving reading comprehension. Engaged reading should therefore be an area of focus in developing students' literacy levels, in order to overcome any deficiencies in reading skills. This means that reading instruction needs to include strategies to develop engaged reading in students, especially in L2 contexts, where reading comprehension is poor.

A factor worth noting is that engaged reading can even substitute for literacy levels not obtained in formal schooling[25]. Its importance is therefore further evident in its compensation for low income and low education in family background. Although students from high income and high education families have easy access to books and are more likely to become engaged readers and high achievers, students from low income and low education background can obtain high achievement if they become engaged readers. Thus, motivating students to become engaged readers can help to improve their reading ability, regardless of their social and educational background. The following model explains the relationship/the link between socio-affective factors, engagement and reading comprehension (**Figure 1**).

[23] *Ibidem*.

[24] Guthrie, J., & Wigfield, A. 2000, *op. cit.*, p. 407.

[25] Guthrie, J., & Wigfield, A. 2000, *op. cit.*, p. 404.

Thus, the factors here worth exploring are motivation, attitude, self-efficacy, reading amount, and engagement. To investigate our students' profile and find out our students' position with regard to these socio-affective factors, a study was conducted using a questionnaire adapted from Grabe and Stoller[26]. As students' motivation, attitude and self-efficacy were linked to the categories outlined by Grabe and Stoller[27], we analysed the data using these categories and related each question to the corresponding socio-affective factor. Students' responses in relation to their previous experiences to reading, exposure to print (reading amount) and to people who read, and their perceptions about the usefulness of reading showed their level of motivation and the kind of attitude they have towards reading. Our aim was to use the information to understand the students' affective position towards reading. We also wanted to find out which areas needed to be reviewed regarding instruction, teaching and study materials, and the reading program as a whole.

3 The Study

The questions we posed were:

- do students have a rich literacy background (a strength) or poor literacy background (a weakness)?
- do the L1 and L2 English speakers within our group of students differ in motivation, attitude, self-efficacy, literacy background, reading engagement and, if so, how?
- are there any differences in students' motivation, attitude, and self-efficacy in relation to gender? This last question was included because we were interested in finding out whether there is a relationship between gender and the socio-affective factors that influence reading.
- based on the results of the above, is there a need to revise the current Academic Reading program and in which direction?

3.1 Method, Procedure, Respondents

Data were collected via a questionnaire adapted from Grabe and Stoller[28] (see Appendix). The responses were on a scale of 1 to 4: 1 for *always*, 2 for *yes,* 3 for *no* and 4 for *never*. The questions were grouped under: previous experiences in reading, exposure to print and to people who read, and perceptions about the usefulness of reading. These, according to Grabe and Stoller[29], are linked to the socio-affective factors of motivation, attitude, self-efficacy and socio-economic background.

Respondents were first-year students taking the elective Academic Reading course. These are students who have passed the Academic Literacy test and are therefore perceived to be academically literate. The course is offered in the first term of the academic year and the questionnaire was instituted during that period. Students had therefore not had much exposure to academic reading in their various courses when the questionnaire was administered. Whatever reading background information they presented was therefore mainly from their previous school and home experience.

4 Findings

The responses were considered on three levels. First, students' reading backgrounds were analysed as strengths or weaknesses. Secondly, responses were analysed in relation to English as a first

[26] *op.cit.*
[27] *op. cit.*, p. 243.
[28] *op. cit*.
[29] *op. cit.*, p. 243.

or second language of the students. Thirdly, the responses were analysed in terms of gender.

4.1 Strengths and Weaknesses

The responses were analysed in terms of students' strengths and weaknesses in relation to the socio-affective factors relating to reading background. The responses from the questionnaire were grouped from the highest to the lowest mean. A low mean, below two, indicated that students responded positively with *yes* or *always*. A high mean, above two, indicated negative responses, that is, *no* and *never*, indicating that the situation either rarely existed or was absent.

The three questions that had the lowest mean responses were questions 5, 15, and 21. Responses to these questions were mainly *yes* or *always*. The mean for question 21 ("Reading well will help with studies") was 1.21, with a standard deviation of 0.41. Since this question relates to motivation and attitude[30], one could conclude that students have a positive attitude towards reading and are instrumentally motivated. Question 15 ("I can learn a lot from reading") shows a very strong positive attitude towards reading. Question 5 ("There have always been books in my family home") also had a low mean of 1.47. Although the question did not require students to state the language in which the books were written, nor the kinds of books they were, students stated that they had books available at home. If one can assume that this meant reading had taken place, whether in English or another language, then a certain level of reading fluency could be predicted. Research indicates that L1 reading abilities can be carried over to L2 reading, but of course this is only possible if there is enough competence in the L2. In other words, a language threshold[31] should be achieved to make transfer possible. If this is the situation with our students, then the positive responses to Question 5 are encouraging. However, it may not be so, and having books around may not have led to students reading, which, unfortunately, was the case in our study. Responses to Question 8 ("I read one novel each week/month") showed that students had not read much (**Table 1** and **Table 2**).

The questions with the highest mean were Questions 13, 8 and 10, indicating that students responded negatively. The standard deviations were also high, indicating a wider variation in student responses. This means that student responses were spread along the continuum of one to four, and did not converge on any particular level. This scenario also shows that students varied greatly in their reading background with regard to these questions. This may be the result of the multicultural composition of the group, as well as the different educational background of students – former model C schools, private schools and public schools.

Of the 21 questions, Question 13 ("My friends and I discuss books that we read") had the highest mean and the highest standard deviation, pointing to the fact that the responses to this question were mostly negative and varied greatly. Since this question relates to what Guthrie et al.[32] refer to as engagement in reading, the negative responses are therefore a cause for concern.

[30] *op. cit.*

[31] Grabe, W., & Stoller, F. 2002, *op. cit.*; Alderson, 2000, *op. cit.*; August, G. 2006, *op. cit.*

[32] Guthrie, J., et al. 1999, *op. cit.*

Table 1: Strengths

Number	Question	Mean	Std Dev.	%Y	%N
5	There have always been books in my family's home	1. 47	0.65	93	7
21	Reading well will help me with my studies	1. 21	0. 41	100	0
15	I can learn a lot from my reading	1.28	0.47	99	1

Table 2: Weaknesses

Number	Question	Mean	Std Dev.	% Positive	% Negative
8	I read one novel each week/month	2.67	1.07	38	61
13	My friends and I discuss books that we read	2.73	1.10	37	63
10	My siblings read a lot	2. 37	1.02	50	50

Also of concern is the amount of reading students do. Question 8 ("I read one novel each week/month") had a high mean (2.67), indicating that very few students read for pleasure outside of schoolwork. And yet this is the kind of reading that instills the intrinsic motivation which is vital for reading comprehension[33]. It is interesting that students have a positive attitude, shown in responses to Question 15, and are instrumentally motivated (Question 21), but are lacking in activities that contribute to intrinsic motivation (Question 8).

The question that shows the third lowest interaction with reading is Question 10 ("My siblings read a lot"). The mean is relatively high (2.37) and the standard deviation indicates a wider variation in student responses. This question refers to student exposure to print and to people who read and therefore relates to their literacy background. So do Questions 9 ("My parents read a lot"), 11 ("I know people who can help me with my reading") and 12 ("My friends like reading"). Although the means of Questions 9 and 11 are below 2, they can be considered fairly high as they are very close to 2, that is, 1.95 for Question 9 and 1.98 for Question 11. When the means of the responses to these questions are considered, it is evident that students have a low literacy background. Responses to these questions, suggest that the reading experience students obtain from friends, parents, siblings, and others is very low. This would have a negative effect on their attitudes to reading[34], which could influence the amount of reading they do, and consequently the level of reading comprehension they achieve[35].

Responses to Questions 4 ("Members of my family used to read to me") and 6 ("My siblings read books") were mainly negative as shown by the high mean of 2.25 and standard deviation of 1.08 for Question 4. The responses to Questions 4 and 6 thus show that on the whole

[33] Guthrie, J., et al. 1999, *op. cit.*

[34] Grabe, W., & Stoller, F. 2002, *op. cit.*

[35] Guthrie, J., & Wigfield, A. 2000, *op. cit.*

Table 3: Literacy Background

Number	Question	Mean	Std Dev.	% Positive	% Negative
4	Family members read to me	2.25	1.08	57	43
9	My parents read a lot	1.95	0.95	68	32
10	My siblings read a lot	2.37	1.02	50	50
11	People can help me with reading	1.98	0.95	65	Uage. 35
12	My friend like reading	2.37	0.97	54	46

students do not have a solid reading background, and, as children, did not have much exposure to print outside of school. One wonders why they gave an overwhelmingly positive response as to the presence of books in the home (Question 5) and yet parents, siblings and the students themselves do not read much (**Table 3**).

4. 2 English First and Second Language Speakers

This analysis relates student reading background to their mother-tongue, and to English as a first or second / additional language. Of the 21 questions, only responses to Question 4 showed statistical significance, $p= 0.0027$, where $p< 0.05$. Responding to the question "Members of my family used to read to me", English first language speakers differed significantly from the Indigenous South African Languages (ISAL) mother-tongue speakers. The ISAL mother-tongue speakers had family members reading to them less often than the English mother-tongue speakers. A similar difference occurred between the ISAL group and the Afrikaans mother-tongue speakers. The Afrikaans group had a mean of 1.94, indicating that they were read to more often than the ISAL group, which had a mean of 2.69. There was not much difference between the English group and the Afrikaans group: a mean of 1.92 for English and 1.94 for Afrikaans. The 'Other' group was not taken into consideration here, as there were very few of them and included all other language groups, ranging from European to Asian to African.

Table 4: L1/L2 English Speakers Distribution to Question 4 ("Members of my family used to read to me")

Mother-tongue	Mean
English N = 37	1. 92
Afrikaans N= 35	1. 94
Indigenous SA N= 42	2. 69
Other N=14	2. 64

Responses to Questions 5 and 17 showed a tendency and were significant only at ten percent. P values were 0.0602 for Question 5 and 0.0729 for Question 17. Although the responses to Question 5 ("There have always been books in my family's home") were positive, there were salient differences among the different mother-tongue speakers. The English mother-tongue speakers mostly responded *always*, the Afrikaans and the South African languages groups responded mostly *yes*. The tendency towards differences in the responses to Question 17 ("I have favourite subjects

that I read about") was greater between the Afrikaans group and the African languages group. The ISAL group had favourite subjects they read about more than the Afrikaans group who probably read on various topics and subjects. The attitude of the ISAL group on subjects they read about has implications for reading engagement. Engaged readers read across genres, subjects and topics[36].

Table 5: Question 17 ("I have favourite subjects that I read about")

Mother-tongue	Mean
English	1.54
Afrikaans	1.86
ISAL	1.46

4. 3 Responses in Relation to Gender

Although the gender aspect was introduced purely for interest's sake, a number of interesting and significant results were obtained, which make the findings worth sharing. The results show that responses to several of the questions had a statistically significant association to the gender of the students. Question 1 ("I have always enjoyed reading"), a question that probed motivation in the form of interest and enjoyment in reading, was statistically significant in relation to gender, p= 0.0053. Females responded that they had always enjoyed reading whereas the males were not so positive: females 1.9 and males 2.8. This question is closely related to Question 20 ("I read for pleasure"). Pleasurable reading is important in promoting intrinsic motivation, an important factor for reading achievement[37]. Here, too, a statistically significant difference was recorded, p= 0.0002. The females read for pleasure more than did the males (females=1.5; males=2.23) (**Table 6**).

Responses to Question 3 ("When I was a child I was often taken to the library") were significant at ten percent, p=0.076. Responses show that girls had an earlier introduction to books than did boys. This may have led to the enjoyment in reading which the females have over the males (Question 1). The results point to the fact that early introduction to books instill pleasure and enjoyment in reading. Question 4 ("Members of my family used to read to me") was linked to Question 3 in relation to exposure to print. Responses are statistically significant. One could say that the females in this study have had a more frequent and earlier exposure to print than males. The results of Questions 3 and 4 are implied in Question 8 ("I read one novel every week/month"). As the females were taken to the library more often than the males, were read to more often, and consequently enjoyed reading more than the males did, it is obvious that they would read more. Responses to both Questions 12 ("My friends like reading") and 13 ("My friends and I discuss books that we read") showed a significant association with gender. Unlike the males, the females are surrounded by friends who read. This association relates to the level of interest, enjoyment and consequently motivation for reading (**Table 7**).

4. 4 Exposure to Texts

This analysis was done to find out if students read often, since frequent reading has implications for reading amount which consequently influences motivation and reading comprehension. Further questions in relation to Question 22 ("Do you read every day?") were questions to probe the type of genres stu-

[36] Guthrie, J., et al., 1999, *op. cit.,* p. 404.
[37] Guthrie, J., et al., 1999, *op. cit.*, p. x.

Table 6: Questions 1 and 20

Questions	Females			Males		
	% Positive	% Negative	Mean	% Positive	% Negative	Mean
1	84	16	1.9	55	45	2.8
20	88	12	1.5	59	41	2.23

Table 7: Female/Male Exposure to Print: Mean and P Values

Questions	Mean Females	Mean Males	P-values at P< 0.05
3	1.96	2.82	0.0001
4	2.08	2.65	0.0076
8	2.52	2.97	0.0161
12	2.15	2.80	0.0008
13	2.48	3.17	0.0007

dents read. Each of the six questions (22-27) was analysed statistically in relation to the mother tongue of students.

An analysis of Question 22 ("Do you read every day?") with the different mother-tongue groups showed that most students read every day. However, the analysis of responses to other questions showed that students have had little exposure to literature outside of school. This response on reading every day may mainly refer to the reading of academic texts for study purposes. Indeed, this seems to be the case as there was overwhelming response from all groups to the reading of text books (English 96%; Afrikaans 90%; ISAL 91%; other languages 100%). On whether students generally read every day, and not in relation to any specific genre, responses were statistically significant for those who did not read. Although most students responded that they read, 23% of the Afrikaans group and 29% of the ISAL group did not read every day, as compared to the English group that had 0% for those who did not read everyday.

Table 8: Question 22 ("Do you read every day?")

English L1 / L2	Yes	No
English L1	100%	0%
Afrikaans (English L2)	77%	23%
ISAL (English L2)	71%	29%

The differences between the English mother-tongue speakers and the English second language speakers were statistically significant, p=0.0187. This has implications for instruction and teaching material. Though the percentages for *no* are less than 50 in each group (Table 8), the fact that there are students who do not read indicates lack of interest, a negative attitude or even lack of motivation to read on the part of these students. The responses also showed varying motivations and attitudes among the second language speakers. Whereas 100% of the first language English speakers said they read every day, almost a third of the English Second Language groups (Afrikaans and ISAL) indicated that they do not read every day. This confirms Grabe and Stoller's[38] view that

[38] Grabe, W., & Stoller, F. 2002, *op. cit.*

second language readers have varying motivations and attitudes. The need to deal with students' socio-affective issues in relation to reading becomes overwhelmingly important. As far as the type of genre students read is concerned, there were no statistical differences in relation to students' mother tongue. However, the analysis of these different genres, in the form of newspaper, magazines and novels in relation to gender showed a number of statistically significant results.

5 Discussion

Since Question 13 relates to what Guthrie et al.[39] refer to as engagement in reading, the negative responses do not augur well for reading comprehension. Guthrie et al., expounding on engagement in reading, propose that students' reading achievement should be obtained on three dimensions – cognitive, social, and motivational. They state that the social dimension should include a community of literacy which calls for discussions with peers and friends on topics and subjects read. This social aspect is obviously lacking in students' reading contexts and should be developed. The significance of the community of literacy is that it promotes engagement, which is a vital ingredient in reading comprehension[40].

Responses to Question 8 show that most of the students do not read for pleasure. And yet the advantages of intrinsic motivation to promote reading amount and text comprehension cannot be over-emphasised. Given that students hardly ever read novels outside of school, the amount of reading they engage in is minimal and this may influence their text comprehension. Reading amount contributes to automaticity in word recognition, fluency in reading and overall reading comprehension[41].

The responses to Questions 9, 10, 11 and 12 are predominantly negative. These responses contradict the positive attitude portrayed in their responses to Questions 15, 7 and 21. It seems this positive attitude to reading does not translate into activity, perhaps because of the reading experiences of the people around them. This then could have led to the low reading amount reported in Question 8, which may have a reciprocal effect on motivation and text comprehension. The more extensive the reading, the higher the motivation. Likewise, high motivation leads to an increase in reading, which contributes to text comprehension. There is a need to increase students' reading amount by raising their level of motivation in order to promote text comprehension.

The responses to Questions 4 and 6 show that on the whole students do not have a solid reading background and, as children, did not have much exposure to print outside of school. One wonders why students gave positive responses to the presence of books in the home (Question 5), yet parents, siblings, and the students themselves do not read much. A further probe into the kinds of books in the home would be of interest, as the presence of books contradicts the fact that parents and siblings do not read a lot and that students were not taken to the library as children.

Responses to Questions 1 and 20 show that girls read more than boys. The un-

[39] Guthrie, J., et al., 1999, *op. cit.*
[40] *Ibidem.*
[41] Guthrie, J., et al., 1999, *op. cit.*; Guthrie, J., & Wigfield, A. 2000, *op. cit.*; Grabe, W., & Stoller, F. 2002, *op. cit.*

derlying variation may have been produced by the mother-tongue differences of the students, as the second language speakers showed wide variations in their attitudes and motivations to reading. Enjoyment and pleasure in reading relate to motivation, which has implications for reading achievement. Instruction and reading material should therefore be devised to promote these positive attitudes in students. Considering the benefits of the motivational implication of enjoyment in reading, reading amount, and consequently reading achievement, the absence or low levels of these aspects of reading in our male students needs to be addressed. Various ways to promote reading enjoyment among the males and to enhance this in the females need to be adopted in class, for example, more gender-mixed peer group discussions on texts should be facilitated in class and encouraged outside class.

Although many explanations could be offered for the less frequent reading of family members to the mother-tongue speakers of ISAL during their childhood, one explanation attached to this is cultural. Whereas the Afrikaans and English groups were exposed to the culture of reading in the home as children, many of the students in the ISAL group were not. The African society is fundamentally oral and parents would rather tell stories to children than read to them. This, of course, may have implications for student attitudes and motivations for reading. In addition, the responses of the South African language group show a higher standard deviation, indicating more variation in responses, in contrast to the English and Afrikaans groups which had similar responses. The variation in the ISAL group's responses could be attributed to the variation in their economic and educational background. Whereas students from the other two groups may share similar economic and educational backgrounds, students from the ISAL group may have very different backgrounds; from an affluent middle or upper class to a very low economic class. Those from the upper and middle class societies will probably be exposed to reading as much as the English and the Afrikaans groups, but those from a very low economic and educational background would be inclined towards more traditional African experiences of oracy. These varying experiences among the ISAL group may lead to varying attitudes and motivations towards reading.

The attitude of the ISAL group on subjects they read about has implications for reading engagement. Engaged readers read across genres, subjects and topics[42]. Since engagement in reading has benefits for reading achievement, students – specifically L2 students – have to be motivated to read on various subjects and topics in order to develop engagement in reading. Also, students' interest in reading on various topics and subjects needs to be developed in reading classes so that they do not have negative attitudes or become demotivated in reading academic texts which may not be on their favourite topics or subjects. In addition, students should be made aware of the benefits of extensive reading, as reading solely on favourite subjects reduces reading amount and consequently limits background knowledge.

5. 1 Summary

Although there are varying responses to questions relating students' reading background, on the whole: exposure to print is limited; literacy background is

[42] Guthrie, J., et al., 1999, *op. cit.*

poor; home environment has a negative influence; reading amount of family and friends is low; past reading experience is poor; perceptions about the usefulness of reading are positive.

Although students showed varying levels of socio-affective factors in reading, on the whole: motivation is high; attitude is positive; self-efficacy is high; but engagement is low; and a social dimension of reading is lacking.

Whereas students' motivation is high, exposure to print and reading amount, which both influence motivation, are low. Motivation is probably more instrumental than intrinsic. Although instrumental motivation (an extrinsic motivation) is beneficial, its effects are temporary. It is performance-oriented and therefore involves surface strategies, which are short-lived. Intrinsic motivation, on the other hand, involves learning goals, is long lasting, and commands the use of complex underlying strategies that are involved in reading comprehension. It is therefore necessary to structure reading programs and instructional activities to instill intrinsic motivation in students. As engagement in reading is low, students need to be trained in this aspect of reading in order for them to become fluent readers. Engaged readers can overcome obstacles and become fluent readers.

5. 2 Implications

The data analysis and the conclusions drawn have the following implications for our Academic Reading course. As a number of the students in this group do not often read outside school work, the study material should be structured to help students develop a reading habit. Extensive reading, book clubs and class libraries would be vigorously introduced. The following instructional practices in relation to Guthrie & Wigfield's[43] engagement model are proposed.

5.2.1 Motivation

The use of interesting texts that have personal significance for the students instills motivation[44]. A short questionnaire could be used to find out which texts interest students. Usually texts that are personally significant and easily comprehended will gain students' interest[45]. Advanced academic texts that are more challenging could be introduced systematically in subsequent sections of the course. If texts are too difficult to comprehend, students, especially L2 students, tend to adopt surface strategies such as guessing and memorising. If these texts are predominant, students become demotivated and lose interest in reading and in academic tasks[46].

5.2.2 Reading Amount/ Authentic Texts

The present workbook does not give students the opportunity to engage in frequent class reading. If reading amount has a reciprocal effect on motivation, and both influence reading comprehension, then the number of texts in the workbook needs to be increased and frequent reading encouraged. Texts should be appealing to students (i.e., personally significant from area of study and from area of interest). Texts should make connections between the academic curriculum and the personal experiences

[43] Guthrie, J., & Wigfield, A. 2000, *op. cit.*
[44] Guthrie, J., et al., 1999, *op. cit*; Grabe, W., & Stoller, F. 2002, *op. cit.*
[45] Guthrie, J., & Wigfield, A. 2000, *op. cit.*
[46] Grabe, W., & Stoller, F. 2002, *op. cit.*

of the students. They should be authentic, enjoyable and immediately interesting. Texts that are removed from the students' area of interest and real life experiences lower motivation.

5.2.3 Engaged Reading

The oral culture of most L2 speakers, which may have deprived them of early interactions with routinised forms and formats of literacy[47], is not entirely disadvantageous. This oral behaviour can be harnessed to promote a community of literacy where readers discuss texts they have read and interpret texts, to promote engaged reading[48] .

5.2.3 Autonomy Support

This relates to students being given choice and can be developed by asking students to write their own questions based on texts they have read. These activities give students some autonomy and ownership, which increase motivation and promote text comprehension[49].

5.2.4 Strategy Instruction

Strategy instruction in language learning and reading development has been supported by many researchers[50]. In order to develop reading skills, students should be taught the necessary strategies. Strategies, such as application of prior knowledge; identification of text structure and text organisation; identification of main ideas and supporting detail, increase comprehension[51]. These strategies can be taught through small group discussions, peer modeling, teacher modeling, and individual feedback on progress. Such reading instructions increase self-efficacy, which leads to high levels of motivation, and an enhanced reading ability[52].

5.2.5 Awareness/ Learning and Knowledge Goals

Students should be made aware of the learning goals so that they can focus on learning and not merely on test scores. Focus on learning goals, unlike performance goals which are scores-oriented and temporary, is long-lasting, creates ownership, produces engaged readers, and motivates students. Although we practise student-centred evaluation to a certain extent – for example, some of the assignments require students to assess their reading capabilities – other subjective student-centred tasks such as compiling portfolios of texts read, and formulating comprehension and critical analysis questions could be included.

Finally, the implementation of the above suggestions to increase motivation and self-efficacy in order to develop engaged readers and enhance students' reading ability is a process which would require dedication and patience from both instructors and students. An intervention program implementing the above activities to develop cognitive reading ability through the promotion of reading engagement is being introduced in the unit for Academic Literacy. The efficacy of the program will be reported in a subsequent article.

47 *Ibidem.*

48 Guthrie, J., & Wigfield, A. 2000, *op. cit.*

49 Guthrie, J., & Wigfield, A. 2000, *op. cit.*

50 Oxford, R. 1994, Language Learning Strategies. http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/oxford01.html [Accessesd 4 July 2007]; Brown, H. 1994, *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Inc.; Anderson, R. 1999, *op. cit.*; Dreyer, C., & Nel, C. 2003, Teaching Reading Strategies, *System*, 31:33, pp. 349-365.

51 Anderson, R. 1999, *op. cit.*

52 Guthrie, J., & Wigfield, A. 2000, *op. cit.*; Anderson, R. 1999, *op. cit.*

6 Conclusion

This paper has examined students' reading background in relation to socio-affective factors of motivation, attitude, self-efficacy, and engagement. It has shown that a large number of the students in this group have poor literacy background and lack the main ingredient – engaged reading – that is needed to develop reading comprehension. It has suggested some guidelines and instructional practices that would increase motivation, develop engaged reading and improve students' reading comprehension. It is hoped that it has in some way shed more light on students' reading backgrounds relating to their reading (in)ability and contributed to research on socio-affective factors and reading comprehension.

Appendix: Questionnaire on Students' Reading Background

Please respond to the following questions by circling the appropriate number. Please be completely honest, as the results are purely for research purposes.

Section A

	Always/yes		**No/Never**	
1. Think about your past experiences with reading.				
1. I have always enjoyed reading.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
2. I think I read well and with understanding.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
3. When I was a child I was often taken to the library.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
4. Members of my family used to read to me.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
5. There have always been books in my family's home.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
6. My siblings read books.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
7. I always believed that reading was a good thing to do.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
8. I read one novel each week/month.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
2. Think about people you know who read				
9. My parents read a lot	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
10. My siblings read a lot.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
11. I know people who can help me with my reading.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
12. My friends like reading.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
13. My friends and I discuss books that we read.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
14. I know people who read all kinds of texts.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
3. Think about reading. How useful is it?				
15. I can learn a lot from reading.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
16. I like to read books that make me think.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
17. I have favourite subjects that I like to read about.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
18. I read to learn new information about topics of interest.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
19. I like to read about new things.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
20. I read for pleasure.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
21. Reading well will help me with my studies.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**

Section B

22. Do you read every day? **What type of genre do you read?**	**Yes**	**No**
23. Newspapers		
24. Magazines		
25. Novels		
26. Textbooks		
27. Any other		

Place a cross over the answer that applies to you:

28**. Gender:** M F

29**. Matric English:** 1st lang 2nd lang

30. **Mother tongue:** English Afrikaans S African Other

Marija Liudvika DRAZDAUSKIENE*

Moderation for Achievement's Sake**

1 The Central Question and its Context

This paper questions the achievement of the unlimited exploiting of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) with learners of different age groups – young learners, teenagers and young adults. While the obvious merits of technology cannot be denied, the uncontrolled use not only of the web but also of "Learn English Kids" materials may miss the point. The problem might be summed up as the question of choice between uncritical compliance with the unregulated stream of technology and techniques, and a responsible judgment on motivated options when choosing from ways and means that are available in the field of teaching English as a foreign language today. The making of such a choice ultimately concerns the quality of language knowledge. It is related both to technology and methods. Therefore it is partly a question of culture in teaching. The focus will be on two topics: learning technologies and methodologies, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in the first instance, with only a mention of testing.

ICT has been chosen as the basic term because I had been familiar with and used different equipment, such as radio, a tape recorder and a computer with students of different age groups. The computer, though, has been the most used item of technology of late. Since it is the computer that is the most wanted tool these days, recently highlighted principles known from Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) merit attention.

2 A Personal Appreciation of the Electronic Resources in EFL

I have to acknowledge at the start that the computer is so productive and multifunctional a tool that its uses are positive even in unexpected issues. The computer is effective in learning English as a foreign language by its overall employment. Reviewing the elementary functions of the computer, one has to mention (1) the Internet, which provides the linguistic environment, offers passive participation and costs time, and (2) email, which is a way of communication in English, but it employs a trimmed and informal variety of this language. Not only is English speech specifically represented in writing in email communication but "new forms of spoken English in writing are being created"[1] and funny and daring representations of English speech are being

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[1] Carter, R., & McCarthy, M. 2006, *The Cambridge Grammar of English.* (Cambridge: CUP), pp. 239-240.

continually introduced. "Chat-room English" and even email English are quite specific and different from the regular social or academic varieties of this language. But CALL offers more than virtual communication. Numbers of excellent sites for the learners of English have been functional and many different courses and materials have been devised for the electronic medium. I should acknowledge and praise the "BBC Learning English" website, and the Teaching English materials on the British Council Learn English websites ("Learn English Central", "Learn English Kids", and "Teaching English"), as well as books and dictionaries provided with CDs. I can confirm that, at my level of knowledge, the language learning materials provided on the above mentioned sites are very satisfying and the result is most rewarding when I use them as a student. I can also confirm that the "Learn English Kids" site is very involving and well develops the initial and elementary language skills of young learners, while the "Learning English" and "Teaching English" sites are indispensable in teaching EFL to young adults.

3 Prospects with CALL from One Author's Point of View

However advanced the electronic technology is, the key word in a discussion of prospects for CALL is 'normalisation'[2]. It literally means that the use and possession of computers have yet to be accomplished. This article sums up well the technological rather than the verbal side of CALL. It is said in the article by Ioannou-Georgiou that the ideal future would be full and satisfying integration of the computer in the classroom. To achieve this goal, a number of conditions should be fulfilled: (1) there should be no shortage of computers and the related equipment; (2) appropriate and sufficient software should be provided; (3) easy access to technology is also very important; (4) the support to teachers and even overseeing of how computers are used in teaching by the administration or 'top-down' policy is required; (5) the technology should be integrated in the syllabus rather than added-on "whenever 'there is time"'; (6) teachers should be confident users of computers but language learning pedagogy should not be sacrificed; (7) the teachers should receive pedagogical support and technical support from the technical staff, who are to be "initiated into FL methodology", to save the teacher's time; (8) technology should be personalised, i.e., both learners and teachers should "feel comfortable and at ease with the tool"; (9) teachers should participate in decision-making about technology; (10) technology should yet develop further to provide, for instance, the equipment for interactive conversation sessions. Finally, the role of individual CALL professionals is to be kept up[3]. These guidelines are concrete and fairly simple but they show that CALL requires considerable investment. Immediate and sensitive questions in this context would be the following: What would be the expected result of the thorough implementation of the computer in the classroom? Would it pay? What would be the appreciated achievement in the broadest cultural context, in the history of foreign language teaching and in the life of the individual learner?

[2] Ioannou-Georgiou, S. 2006, The Future of CALL, *ELT Journal*, 60:4, (pp. 382-384), p. 382.

[3] *op. cit.*

4 A Practising Teacher's Remarks on CALL and Learners of Different Age Groups

My observation, which I can call classroom research, provides the following insights into results achieved by learners in the classroom equipped with technology both new and old. In my experience, **the computer** is very attractive to **young learners**, especially when their engagement with it is not limited. However, **young learners** tend to be engaged with the tasks which they like irrespective of their value in learning. For instance, girls of nine and ten years of age, in my experience, used to be very interested in the tasks required to make a dangerous animal[4], or to make a snowman[5], to dress a doll, or to print a copy of a scene from a story and colour it. These young learners thus practised the names of colours, parts of the body and names of clothes, but spend most of their time colouring rather than practising English with full intellectual engagement. These same young learners would listen to a song, *The Hungry Hippo*, and be bored, would listen to another song, *Santa, Santa, high in the sky*, and remain cool, and, finally, be too lazy to write a letter to Santa because they "don't believe Santa exists".

These young learners' engagement with on-line stories was very much the same. Their first story, *The Princess and the Dragon*[6], was a great success: the girls were interested, and focused in answering test questions. The next story, *The Haunted House*, held their attention for the thrill it gave, but yet another story, *The Dark, Dark Wood*, did not catch their attention. This was the result when the computer and online materials were used with the least interference of the teacher. It shows that the teacher's participation might be required, mainly because even the energetic girls were tongue-tied when asked to speak to the teacher focusing on objects in the room. My experience tells that this is a situation of striking the iron when it is hot. It is the teacher who can encourage the children's speech by patting them, asking to answer or to return the question and involve them in other ways. Left at where they end, on-line lessons provide raw material for the learners' mind through exposure to the language. It is the teacher who has to add up some sensible organisation to what is learnt and help the learner sense the pleasure of the result. This is, indeed, emphasised by experts in the field of the teaching of young learners (YLs). The optimal conditions for helping YLs to learn reviewed by Carol Read, for instance, include appropriate challenge, appropriate support, whole coherence and a sense of achievement among the total of twenty other features. This same author mentions a few rules which "provide an integrated framework for managing children positively and create a happy working environment". The rules include a limited number of prescriptions (related to learning), which and the reasons of which should be made clear to the learner, classroom routines, which should clarify expectations in language learning to the learner, generally implicit familiarisation of the young learner with his rights and responsibilities, and rewards, which reinforce appropriate behaviour of the learner and his success. Other authors (for example, Shelley Vernon) indicate the necessity of similar requirements when they describe prob-

[4] "Learn English Kids", 21 November 2008.
[5] "Learn English Kids", 12 December 2007.
[6] "Learn English Kids", 10-11 October 2007.

lems and peculiarities that YLs meet and expose[7].

Teenagers also tend to diverge from the straight path of learning to entertainment on the computer and gain some knowledge of English from the online lessons or the Internet the natural way. Very soon, though, this result becomes a messy and unstructured language matter. The learners tend to develop fixed pronunciation errors or unsettled pronunciation in all respects. Teenagers thus continue in ignorance of grammar and of the delicacy of vocabulary. This is again the natural way. If we consider that grammar and vocabulary come thus combined and unstructured when a child is learning his mother tongue[8], this can be sufficient but only for a limited period of time when a teenager is learning a foreign language. Very soon, this natural accumulation of the foreign language matter in the brain requires consolidation with the help of the teacher. As is known today, even formal descriptive grammar is required to improve the students' skill in expression, especially in formal contexts, and to enhance their awareness of the gap between the correct and incorrect forms[9]. The idea is to give shape and quality to the foreign language learnt.

Young adults, who, in my experience were university undergraduates and young teachers, appear to develop a guilty feeling not infrequently that the computer takes too much of their time. The more they are used to use the computer, the more time slips unnoticed. They become reluctant to browse the sites and gladly take the teacher's guidance among different tasks in, for example, "BBC Learning English". I personally appreciate very much the "BBC Learning English" materials, have used them as a student before using them in the classroom and have learnt a lot. But it takes time, even when it is time pleasantly spent.

Turning aside from the computer, I can also say that radio likewise appears to require prescription to young adults, while teenagers and young learners are not attracted to it. Television is a greater attraction, but I have no experience of its use in teaching. It is the tape recorder that, in my experience, has been very productive and the least distracting equipment. The methodology of the courses[10] may have had a role to play in my success with the tape recorder. I have also used it to record the learners to improve their pronunciation and have been more successful with it than with the computer so far because of the more primitive way of handling it. In this context, the warning of Ioanna-Georgiou of the necessity of perfect computer literacy and a sense of ownership for its success appears very real: "Learners and teachers should be comfortable and at ease with the tool"[11]. The question still remains: Does it pay? and What would be the value of the result with CALL in

[7] Teaching YLs, 2009, Teaching Young Learners – Introduction, *Teaching English*, British Council /BBC, http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/transform/teachers/specialist-areas/teaching-young; 15 March 2009.

[8] Halliday, M. 1975, *Learning How to Mean*. London: Arnold.

[9] Yule, G., 2009, *Reintroducing Grammar*. Oxford: Oxford UP; www.oup.com/elt-- 15 January 2009.

[10] *Target* by L. Alexander (London: Longman, 1972); *Realistic English* by B. Abbs, & V.Cook (London: OUP, 1970)*; Functions of English* by Leo Jones (Cambridge: CUP, 1980), to compare with, for example, *A Bridge to Spoken English* by Lidya Almazova (Moscow: Higher School, 1977), *Listen to This!* by Mary Underwood (Oxford: OUP, 1977), and others.

[11] Ioanna-Georgiou, S. 2006, *op cit.,* p. 3.

the broadest cultural context, in the life of an individual learner and in history?

Focusing on the computer, I can generalise to say that the computer provides exposure to English as a foreign language (in other than the social context), increases the random language matter in the student's mind, trains reactions and fosters boldness. But a slow child does not become quick owing to the use of the computer, while a quick child very soon becomes over-energetic with the same technology. Even with young adults, the computer leaves its peculiar imprint. Young adults pick and memorise the current English vocabulary (e.g., *Literary agents* ***divulge*** *what they're looking for in a manuscript. I really* ***do take exception to that****. The* ***butt*** *of many a joke*… etc) and the words of the day (e.g., *subprime, user friendly, going green, going digital*, etc) but they remain insensitive to the subtle shades of the meaning of the words, i.e., to their stylistic value, which is important in usage[12]. While at the computer, they have no social context and resource to learn that *divulge* is a formal verb which means "to give out information that is supposed to be secret", that *good riddance,* in *I wanted to say good riddance to 2008,* is a rude and familiar way of saying of being pleased that something (the year) is gone. Similarly, they remain ignorant of the fact that *sucked,* as in *2008 sucked*, is a slang word, which means very bad and that *travesty* is neutral but a little more sophisticated word than *parody*, as in *travesty of justice,* if they do not use a dictionary. At my level of knowledge, I can treat the computer as my subject because words tell me for which one I require a dictionary and which one may be formal or informal. It is not so with less experienced language learners. I would tend to reiterate what I have stated: the computer provides exposure to language and trains a reaction but it does not of its own provide a resource to the deep knowledge of English as a foreign language. A teacher's assistance remains required or the diligence of the student or both, and the student's natural drive to search books and dictionaries, which would be very welcome, if the quality of language knowledge matters.

For this same reason, learners of English as a foreign language enjoy and appreciate when they hear David Crystal and Gavin Dudeney – on the "BBC Learning English" website – finish off their brief stories of new words in English with a graceful flourish on their appropriateness[13]. These context-wise comments confirm that one's knowledge of the meaning of English words is not complete without their sociocultural senses, and that the Internet does not provide

[12] Cf. Harmer, J., 2006, *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. Longman: Pearson Education), pp. 24-27.

[13] Cf., David Crystal's finishing off remark on the meaning of the word *peeps*: "So the general usage is 'close pals', 'people you hang out with'. But it's definitely a young usage – I have got peeps, I suppose, but I've never, ever, referred to them as such" ("Keep your English Up to Date 3", "BBC Learning English, 2008" – 18 January 2008). Cf. also: Gavin Dudeney's comment on the "cavalier twisting of the English language" in his talk on the currency of the word *facebook*. It is assessed as "a pretty versatile word" and *linkedIn,* which is being adapted to current usage in its wake. Moreover, in his story of the word *newbie*, Dudeney points out that "in the derogatory context, you might find *n00b* to be more common". He finishes off this word's story with a very linguistically-minded comment: "A word from the wise – if you're a n00b, the best thing you can do is keep your head down and listen for a while. In that respect, online communities are no different from face-to-face ones. Learning the ropes is part of becoming a respected member." ("Keep Your English Up to Date 4", "BBC Learning English, 2008" – 13 September 2008).

them of its own. Technology of itself cannot make up for the social context.

5 Quality as a Means and as a Result in EFL with CALL

Taking the threads of this experience together, one has to say that, whatever the technology, there must be moments to pat, to pin-point, to sum up, to highlight and rehearse and to get a sense of fulfilment in a learning session. The teacher's assistance appears to be welcome because the teacher can organise what has been learnt into a micro-system for the learner and add social sense to his knowledge. For example, top steps in learning a foreign language known from the "BBC Learning English" make a point of highlighting what one intends to learn and of assessing what one has learnt. This is very important in learning and it makes sense. Any individual consciously learning a foreign language requires such summary steps and pauses and even more. Until the foreign language matter in the brain of the learner is not voluminous enough to acquire a system or contextual organisation, the interested learner tends to rehearse the complete inventory of items learnt per lesson or a day. If he manages to remember this body of verbal items learnt, it gives him satisfaction and further readiness to advance. It is obvious that self-training and polish in a social context are technology free and cannot be replaced. What is learnt with the assistance of technology may require a similar reinforcement with only less effort.

With reference to the computer (CALL), because it is the panacea of the day, one has to say the following. In all cases, with all age groups and in all respects, it is preferable and profitable to control the use of the computer – Ioannou-Georgiou has the term 'restricted CALL' – to use only well planned and studied courses and materials, and not to shun the teacher's assistance. What can be gained thus is achievement, pleasure and time. It is also the quality of language knowledge. This is a subject to which teachers of the post-war generation had been sensitive[14]. The concept of quality also applies to the electronic teaching resources. There is a very apt observation on how the quality of the source material and learning interact, in an article on electronic games and learning: (1) "to be effective, the design [of the games] must be top quality"; (2) "such games in the classroom can only be successful "when the curriculum into which the game is built is a good one"; (3) "Design is key. An effective design is complex." "Leaving [players] to float in rich experiences with no guidance only triggers the very real human penchant for finding creative but spurious patterns and generalisations. Players must be guided and supported by the knowledge built into the virtual characters and the weapons, equipment, and environments in the game"[15]. I would still tend to believe that the teacher's assistance when giving shape to and checks what the student has learnt with CALL is also a significant factor. After all, English as a foreign language will still be used at least to some extent in a social context, and human interference with the learner's knowledge must be a constructive rather than a destructive factor.

[14] Cf. Drazdauskiene, M. 2009, Intercultural Dialogue and the Quality of Language Knowledge, *HLT Journal*, 2, ISSN 1755-9715.

[15] Nikeditor, 2009, Tech & Learning. Game Plan, "Teaching English", British Council/BBC. http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/top-stories/game-plan, 10 March 2009.

A few questions still remain: Does it pay? Should it be globally implemented to the extinction of other technologies? Was the initiative, energy and money put into the installation of high-fi tape recorders in language laboratories in schools and universities effected with less enthusiasm some thirty or forty years ago? Technology is not a god or a magic wand. It is only a tool, which is attractive when it is new, but it grows old and is replaced by a newer one[16]. It seems, therefore, that quality criteria should apply not only to language knowledge but also to the thinking and activity of the educators as of the fund-raisers. The effect of the uncontrolled influence of the computer has already thrown some light on the positive results and dangers in foreign language learning and generalisations on this aspect of CALL will be proposed further in this paper.

6 The Question of a Potential Interdependence of CALL and CLIL

The view which governs the attitude to the computer and CALL may have intrinsic reasons of existence. I wonder whether CLIL may have had a role to play in the process. It was not born but gained popularity and attention at the Milan 2009 Conference[17]; it may be more closely interrelated than it would appear at first sight. If CLIL is defined as "a pedagogical approach with a dual focus, involving the integration of language study with the study of a subject domain as aims of instruction"[18], this approach seems to encourage the application of the functional-contextual method and even of the structural method, while not excluding the interactive techniques and the direct method with YLs. One can consider the advice of Shelley Vernon when she mentions the value and relevance of repetition and revision, of the expected recurrence of short phrases and formulae of politeness, of the uses of flashcards and different objects, of games and stories[19]. I have used all these resources with YLs and can confirm that they really contribute to the favourable conditions of learning, the positive result and the teacher's success. Insofar as methods are concerned, CLIL does take "into account standard good practice in education", but it also has unique teaching/learning strategies[20]. CLIL means tapping "into the innate language learning ability we all had as young children and adolescents" no less than creating "life experiences" for the student in the target language[21].

There is no reason to doubt the definition of CLIL, which is considered original by the authors quoted above[22], the more so that all other authors quoted in the present paper confirm their definition. But this definition yet offers no clues to the existence of a motivated relationship of CLIL with CALL. However, reflecting on the actual processes in language learning, its use, and in the implementation of their project, Greere and Rasanen raise the question of how close or how separated the goals for

[16] Cf. Harmer, J., *op. cit.*, pp. 145-150

[17] Innovations, 2009.

[18] Greere, A., & Rasanen, A. 2008, LANQUA. Subproject on Content and Language Integrated Learning. Year One Report. Redefining 'CLIL' – Towards Multilingual Competence; http://www.lanqua.eu/files/Year/Report_CLIL_ForUpload_WithoutAppendices_O.pdf- 7 Dec 2008, p. 4.

[19] *Teaching YLs*, 2009, *op. cit.*

[20] Mehisto, P., Marsh, D., & Frigols, M. 2008, *Uncovering CLIL*, (Oxford: Macmillan Education), p. 27.

[21] *op. cit.*, p. 32.

[22] Greere, A., & Rasanen, A. 2008, *op. cit.*

content learning and language learning may be. In contrast to language as a tool for interaction and strategic communication (i.e., to any user's concept) and to language as a subject and content to be taught and learnt (i.e., the concept of the teacher and the learner), they highlight language as "a tool and mediator for constructing knowledge and sharing one's expertise", which is the concept of an academic professional and is most relevant to CLIL. It is for CLIL in programs of higher education that this concept matters because the accumulation and construction of knowledge is essential at this level of education and because this issue is unthinkable without the "access to the language through which it can be expressed and shared with others"[23]. These authors argue that the role of language in construction, accumulation and sharing of knowledge becomes even more pronounced when CLIL is applied, "because knowledge construction is an interactive phenomenon". In other words, within the concept of CLIL, it is exigent that both an expert and an academic learn "the kind of language and communication competence which is integral to the academic field and profession in question"[24]. This permits the authors to identify competence with the proficient use of language in different contexts and to different audiences. They further conclude that "language learning in CLIL should be seen from its functional viewpoint", while CLIL "should be seen as a continuum of various pedagogical approaches which aim to facilitate learning"[25]. Nevertheless, the Finnish authors, Greere and Rasanen, retain the focus on the content taught in the target language throughout the review of their project. But their conclusions, which have just been quoted, create the grounds for reasoning on the question of how CALL may be functionally integrated in CLIL.

Since the focus in CLIL rests on the learning in different subject areas through the medium of a foreign language, the contact with the foreign language is an intrinsic condition in this approach. However, if the focus remains permanently fixed, different limitations restricting rather than extending the breadth of vision in foreign language learning develop. It is natural therefore for the teachers implementing CLIL to seek an extension of the learners' contact with the language in its different varieties. One can hardly have a more powerful tool than the computer today for this purpose. Thus, one might consider that relations between CLIL and CALL are not far to seek.

7 Features Defining CLIL with YLs

To restate the objectives of CLIL, I have referred to the most recent online materials. A review article in *Teaching English* on CLIL[26], states that "CLIL involves students learning subjects such as science or geography through the medium of a foreign language"[27]. This definition is simpler than that given in the LANQUA project[28] above, but they both agree. CLIL implementation and project work in schools encompass many criteria and the simple definition, which sees CLIL

[23] Greere, A., & Rasanen, A. 2008, *op. cit.*, p. 5.
[24] *loc. cit.*
[25] *loc. cit.;* Mehisto, P., Marsh, D., & Frigols, M. 2008, *op. cit.,* p. 27.

[26] Pickering, G. 2009, CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning), Teaching English, British Council/BBC; http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/transform/teachers/specialist-areas/clil - 29 January 2009.
[27] Pickering, G. 2009, *op. cit.*, p. 1.
[28] Greere, A., & Rasanen, A. 2008, *op. cit.*

as a way "to introduce children to content areas such as science or art, using a foreign language (in this case English) to teach all or part of the subject curriculum"[29], extends somewhat. One can compare other authors and find that "the essence of CLIL is integration", that learners acquire the knowledge of a new content in this approach and simultaneously advance in the foreign language in which the content is presented[30]. These authors make a mentioning of "the development of learning skills", which support "the achievement of content language goals" and is a third driver or an essential element in CLIL.

Learning with the implementation of CLIL has also been similarly described by different authors. The authors of *Uncovering CLIL* point out several factors related to psychology and culture that matter in and facilitate learning with CLIL. They mention: (1) a psychologically and physically safe environment; (2) a consistent use of one language; (3) the allowance for the use of the learner's first language at the beginning; (4) several conditions related to language and culture: slow and articulate speech, an appropriate level of language, facial expression and kinesics to reinforce meaning, and a resort to repetition; (5) the necessity to make the content and language learnt relevant and meaningful; (6) a desirable variety of language models; (7) ample opportunities to use the language; (8) the encouragement of communication as the basic stimulus; (9) opportunities to develop all four language skills – listening, speaking, reading and writing; (10) work to build equal status for language used in the school; (11) the setting of high but realistic expectations; and (12) ways of recognising the learner's effort and success[31]. I have had experience enough to confirm that these are absolutely essential conditions to success, although some of the factors mentioned are general in the psychology of language learning.

Other authors are more concrete in their concept of YLs learning with CLIL. As Lauder finds, projects in school and CLIL "have a number of things in common: they integrate language and skills, involve the use of functional language, shift away from the 'language-driven' approach and work with English in a realistic context, give children the opportunity to use English outside class and provide a variety of stimuli for different learning styles, learners and levels"[32]. The factors determining project work in school and the result multiply when the project has to be "carried out in **young learner** classes" as "class size, resources, the children's cognitive capacities and their language levels" have to be taken into consideration[33]. The mere point of interest in the topic chosen is very important for YLs and, moreover, it has to be age-appropriate. To comply with CLIL, project work with YLs may involve: (1) writing reports on such subjects as plants, animals, or historical figures, or completing webquests (=research projects); (2) data collection on the use of technology in homes or schools, topographical findings and representation (=investigation projects); (3) access to information through self-devised questionnaires and their summary

[29] Cf. Lauder, N., 2009, CLIL with Children. (In Gale, C., "Engage Learning"; http://find.galegroup.com/itx/start.do?prodId=AONE, 10 March 2009), p. 1.
[30] Mehisto, P., Marsh, D., & Frigols,, M. 2008, *op. cit.*, p. 11.
[31] Mehisto, P., Marsh, D., & Frigols, M. 2008, *op. cit.*, pp. 104-111.
[32] Lauder, N., 2009, *op. cit.*, p. 1.
[33] Lauder, N., 2009, *op. cit.*, pp. 1-2.

presentation (=surveys); and (4) the production of printed matter (posters, flyers and brochures) to disseminate information, and other tasks[34]. Lauder concludes that as "CLIL focuses on learning content in a foreign language, rather than on learning the language itself", projects like those enumerated above "lend themselves extremely well to implementing this approach". The aims and the tasks in project work with YLs related to CLIL seem to be clear and comprehensible. There is one point to be made and that is that all work even with YLs in this approach **resorts to some level of the foreign language knowledge of the learners.** I have not been familiar with any projects for YLs in CLIL, which would begin from a scratch in English as a foreign language, although different authors remark that "some initiatives already start at primary level", but go on to say that "the bulk of school-based CLIL programs focus on the (upper) secondary level, where it is appreciated as a new and additional way for language learners to practice"[35]. This is a point to make and to be considered further.

The numerous features of identity between project work with YLs and CLIL reviewed above still keep within the limits of the definition of CLIL. CLIL becomes a vaguer term when learning in the humanities and when English for Academic Purposes (EAP) is the objective. But this subject area still remains an object of study. However generally conceivable subjects in the humanities may be, their professional knowledge exceeds any utilitarian concept. Therefore, CLIL also makes sense in the humanities with young adults.

[34] Lauder, N., 2009, *op. cit*., p. 2.

[35] Smit, U., 2007, CLIL and Immersion Classrooms: Applied Linguistic Perspectives, *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 17:2, pp. 266-268.

8 A Case Study of CLIL with Young Adults before the Definition of this Approach

My experience in EFL for thirty years was at university while teaching style and language practice to university undergraduates majoring in the language and literature. Their target had been English for Academic Purposes (EAP). CLIL as a term had not been born. I would dare claim, though, that our pedagogical approach in the Department of English Philology at the University of Vilnius was what is acknowledged as CLIL today. The story of this teaching was as follows. Standard British English was the object of study and the language of instruction. The focus in the first year was on phonetics, while a broader language study was based on home reading. The usual practice shared by all teachers in the Department was exercising the prescribed lists of words and phrases to the prescribed volume of reading – works of classical British and American literature, as a rule. Extensive reading was the students' own concern and it had to be reviewed by the teacher only once a month. Much of the time in the first and second year at university was spent, therefore, on more or less formal language practice and simulated communication. The textbooks usually offered topically arranged texts from journalism and fiction supplemented with numerous exercises on the vocabulary and syntax of English.

In senior years, though, the question of the content of teaching in the program of English as a foreign language and literature was an area of concern for the teachers in the 1970s in Eastern Europe. The topically arranged material from journalism, newspapers and fiction in

textbooks was not a satisfactory resource. It was before the free book trade was launched in Eastern Europe. And even when it was launched, some textbooks were too expensive, while others offered materials for courses of indefinite volume in terms of time. The idea that had initiated the exploitation of professional literature in the program of English, literature and EAP was a plain imperative: "Give them something relevant to the language and literature to read first and then we can have discussion classes based on this." And so the students used to be given typed copies of articles on theme and ideas in literature, on point of view, on character and imagery and on other components of fiction and poetry. Articles from scholarly journals and textbooks[36] were used. The students were asked to study these texts and discuss their content in one class while using the vocabulary of the articles. Then they had to apply what they had learnt of imaginative literature in analytical consideration of concrete works in class. To make the content-based study of the making of imaginative literature more focused, foreign teachers of English as a foreign language published locally mini introductions to the discussion and analysis of literature[37]. Gradually, the collections of professionally written scholarly articles had come to be replaced by a thorough study of *The Order of Fiction* by Bloom[38], which resulted in the most exhaustive treatment of literature for the students in EFL at the University of Vilnius targeting EAP and was a success in discussion classes. The proficiency the students achieved showed that success was undeniable. They have kept acknowledging their achievement at more recent occasional meetings. However, this approach and aspect in teaching soon deteriorated in Eastern Europe in the 1980s. This is to say that it was not infrequently that the baby was thrown out together with the political water of the former system in this part of the world.

In this period of success and following it, I had quite an extraordinary experience with discussion classes in the guise of CLIL. I had chosen *The Best English* by Vallins[39] for discussion classes and had a difficulty to manage it. I had only two copies of the book – one for a group of twelve students and one for myself. The solution made was quite incredible. We had decided that the students would introduce and discuss a chapter a week from this book. The students would alternate and the book would circulate, but the remaining part of the group would vicariously 'read' the whole book if they were attentive and active in the weekly discussions. And so it went successfully and had an effect. The students learnt a lot of English and literature. This was an individual success and experience out of necessity but it also died out with the advance of political and economic changes in the late 1980s and early 1990s and with an avalanche of books.

There were other aspects of the study of English as a foreign language in the program of language and literature at the University of Vilnius. In listening comprehension classes, the students dis-

[36] Alexander, L. 1969, *Poetry and Prose Appreciation for Overseas Students*. London: Longman; Monfries, H. 1974, *An Introduction to Critical Appreciation for Foreign Learners*. London and Basingstoke: Macmillan Education Ltd.

[37] Cf. Drazdauskiene, M. 1975, *The Linguistic Anglysis of Poetry*. Vilnius: The University Rotary.

[38] Bloom, E. 1964, *The Order of Fiction*. New York: The Odyssey Press, Inc.

[39] Vallins, G. 1979, *The Best English*. London and Sydney: Pan Books.

cussed interviews in conversation with Graham Greene, Tom Stoppard, Arnold Wesker, Margaret Drabble, Alex Hailey, Kurt Vonnegut, Tennessee Williams[40] and other authors they had heard and deciphered themselves. In written practice classes, they had to present papers summarising analysis of concrete works they had done guided by the papers discussed in discussion classes. So broad a background of reading, listening and discussion on different topics of language and literature was a solid foundation for the development of the knowledge of language and literature in EFL done in the guise of what we know today as CLIL. The identity of our practice with this pedagogical approach was also confirmed by the fact that foreign students in EFL based their language study on scholarly literature in the humanities and had ample opportunities to use English, especially in discussion classes of the professional literature and in their written papers. It is true, the question of classroom English arose time and again for foreigners teaching English as a foreign language at the University of Vilnius in this case and it was resolved with the help of a few resource books available. It appears that CLIL classroom discourse or classroom talk has remained a research question for teachers today in the area of applied linguistics[41]. I can appreciate the significance of this aspect of knowledge of English as a foreign language, especially that classroom talk shapes and influences the students' commonly used language and leaves an imprint on their English for life.

Although **the evaluation** of the achievement in learning English as a foreign language by the university undergraduates in our case with the implemented early CLIL was mostly based on introspection, it was an assessment of four teachers experienced with the practice and of a few outsiders. University undergraduates of those years had been so advanced in English and in language and literature studies that they could competently discuss questions of the sense of literature and of language matters not only in regular classes but also at examinations. The students' knowledge, reasoning and the ability to express it in acceptable English used to be rated excellent and fair. The teachers used to acknowledge it as an achievement in EFL and the students' further success in their careers confirmed their fair assessment on graduation. Although I appreciate CLIL retrospectively, this approach is productive because it intensely combines a double focus – language in the field of communication and communication in the language both of which are practised in most natural conditions. But, it has to be emphasised that the teacher was an active participant in this practice in the guise of CLIL, while the students' achievement owed much to the social environment and sharing in the classroom. Minding the limited opportunities of communication in the 1970s and the 1980s, the result was obvious. It was the result of what we know today as CLIL.

9 CLIL and the Role of Reading

There is one principle to be learnt from the experience described: it is the use and uses of imaginative literature and its relevance not only to EAP but also to ESP. The integration of English and American literature in the university program of EFL and EAP was very tight in my experience and profitable. The relevance of imaginative literature to ESP

[40] *Tapes for Readers*, Washington, D.C.
[41] Cf. Smit, 2007, *op. cit.*

and CLIL in schools and its uses have also to be emphasised. Although my familiarity with ESP has been limited to only one year of practice and to my experience in the role of an observer, as well as to two years with teaching YLs and teenagers, I have had an impression that imaginative literature is often underrated in ESP and this attracts little attention because of the shortage of time. This was not the case in my experience in the humanities described above. The use of professional literature in the field of learning English as a foreign language, i.e., ESP of sorts when CLIL is applied, is undeniable. This approach shortens the road to knowledge. However, if the resource is exceptionally professional literature in English, a considerable one-sidedness develops in such learning and it becomes difficult to achieve proficiency in English as a foreign language. But the point of reading has been taken into consideration in contemporary literature on CLIL[42].

Following the publication of *Language, Context and Text* by Halliday and Hasan[43], nobody can deny the role of context in understanding and in language learning. Professional literature that is in the focus of CLIL provides the context, but this context is narrow. In using a foreign language, one requires a broad context in which one tests mentally the acceptability of words and phrases, the grammatical correctness of utterances and the meaning of the speech one reads or hears. The native speaker has the privilege of drawing this contextual knowledge from daily life and the innumerable routine contexts. And even so, the native speaker who is a good reader is a more refined user of the language than otherwise. The foreigner's resource in this respect is basically imaginative literature. Professional literature may be his subject and routine need, but it is only imaginative literature that can provide a broader and sophisticated context to the foreigner's use of English as a foreign language. It also elevates the student's knowledge of the English vocabulary. I dare say CLIL would result in imperfect achievement if imaginative literature were ignored in learning English as a foreign language. Although this is an independent topic, it is relevant to highlight its significance in the present context.

10 CLIL and Young Learners

I have so far said little of CLIL in teaching English as a foreign language to young learners mainly because this is a specific area and this pedagogical approach is specifically adapted in it. In an overview of CLIL published on *Teaching English/British Council/BBC*[44], one finds a statement which explains the essence of CLIL with respect to young learners. It says that when a subject is taught in the target language, tasks "are designed to allow students… to learn to use the new language as they learn the new subject content". To enhance the students' access to the content, "CLIL materials are often characterised by lots of visual support for meaning". Since this observation recurs in several authors who wrote about YLs and CLIL, I can confidently add the evidence of my own experience. The choice of language exercised depends on the demands of the subject.

[42] Cf. Mehisto, P., Marsh, D., & Frigols, M. 2008, *op. cit.*, pp. 206-208.

[43] Halliday, M., & Hasan, R. 1990, *Language, Context and Text*. Oxford: OUP.

[44] Pickering, 2009, *op. cit.*

11 A Success Case with YLs and CLIL

One of the best case studies and experiences in teaching YLs while employing CLIL known to me is from the article "CLIL, of course!"[45] published in 2008 in *English Teaching Professional*. It reports on the experience of a British teacher with learners of English (aged 8-17) who "have been coming to the UK for English language courses". The author had been familiar with the application of coursebook materials based on "a traditional grammatical syllabus". He could therefore highlight and appreciate the merits of CLIL, which was the approach behind "tailor-made courses for groups from individual countries or schools" and the focus in which was "on specific subject areas and themes"[46]. These courses would "run for any length of time from a week upwards and take any number of children from 10 to 60".

On consulting the group leader who was a class teacher, themes and their volume used to be designed in accord with the goal of the courses described above. A recent experience of Milne was connected with the themes "Water, the Victorians, Life in Britain, Genetics and the Environment". Activities and excursions were arranged for the learners to learn the language in the field and to give them "a reason for visiting somewhere". This involved a preparation stage "for and follow-up on academic excursions" to enrich "the outcome on courses with a special focus". The outcome itself "could be a presentation in (the) form the groups (chose): powerpoint, video, poster-presentation, illustrated talk, etc"[47].

The case in point described in this article has been the theme of water. In the case reported, a group spent two weeks on "water as their main theme". The start was a questionnaire which asked the learners "to brainstorm all the times they used water during the day". The learners also kept a diary and compared their entries in the two records. The topic was extended to consider and compare "the use of water in less developed countries" and in individual homes. Conservation of water was a major question and covered the saving of water on a daily basis. An accompanying activity was the design of posters and TV advertisements "imploring people to save water". This went parallel to compiling "information about water on an 'interesting fact sheet'"[48], on which the learners recorded the amount of water in the human body, its amount required for a cow to produces one litre of milk, an idea of what may be done with water consumption in the desert, and figures showing "how many people die of water-borne diseases each year"[49].

The theme took the learners to "a separate project on the Thames". They studied the role of the river in the initial growth of London, its turn "into a virtual sewer in the 1860s" and the modern sewerage system. One more development of the theme was an art project centred on "how the Thames has been portrayed over the centuries by artists as different as Canaletto and Monet". The learners participated in a project of their own artistic representation of the Thames "during an academic visit to London". They considered a potential

[45] Milne, B. 2008, CLIL, of course! *English Teaching Professional*; www.etprofessional.com
[46] *Ibidem*, p. 22.
[47] *Ibidem*, p. 23.
[48] *Ibidem*, p. 23.
[49] *Ibidem*, p. 23

disaster of the flooding of the Thames for London. Activities based on the topic of the Victorians included a study of the British Empire in the nineteenth century and was compared with the present. Child labour and its impact was also studied within this historical framework. The learners' study further included a section on diet, a Victorian fashion show and a Victorian dinner. Visits to the major museums completed their study[50].

Milne states in conclusion that YLs in this case had come "with a better command of English than in the past" and the requirement of "the necessary level of language to cope with the demands of the subject learning through English" in a CLIL approach to syllabus design was successfully met. The children's motivation was clearly heightened by the content they were studying and this was appreciated. It helped them overcome language difficulties. Another factor which facilitated learning and reduced difficulties was that "many themes could be adapted to the level of the student", while the theme of water was ideal for any level. Thus CLIL had been appreciated as a motivating resource, which was appropriate "to the level of intellectual development of the individual"[51]. One cannot help saying that the case described by Milne was clearly a very profitable and enjoyable case of an active learning of English as a foreign language. But this was a case of foreign language learning which involved mature YLs who had had the basic knowledge of English. I shall return to this point further on in this paper.

12 A Case of Failure with YLs and CLIL

I have been familiar with a case of immersion, which I would call, *an imitation of CLIL* in teaching young learners and should like to reflect on its limited success and popularity. The case in which immersion was applied was a course of English as a foreign language to young learners (about 8-10 years of age) in a large classroom in which the learners were taught English in the target language. They had a textbook with an audio cassette, the teacher spoke only English to them and assigned tasks based on mechanical reproduction (chants, little verses, fragments of conversation, etc). In such cases when English is taught as a subject in the target language, the textbook usually employs topically arranged material. Topically arranged material covers a broad spectrum of the spheres of daily life and familiarises the students with essential activities in them. For example, the students learn about a person, family relations, their routine engagements, meals and hobbies when they focus on the topic of the family. Similarly, they learn of buildings and other objects in an urban area, of streets and elements of architecture, of a history of places of interest, of means of travel, theatres, museums and other places of entertainment when they focus on the topic of the town. This method of material presentation has a history and had been known in textbooks of English throughout the twentieth century[52]. The learning material thus presented familiarises the students with their usual environment, ordinary activities and engagements and focus on the language of general cur-

[50] *Ibidem*, p. 23.
[51] *Ibidem*, p. 23.
[52] Cf. textbooks by Berlitz and other authors.

rency. What they learn in such courses is what is known as general knowledge and common literary language. This is not CLIL in the true sense of the word. It is an imitation of CLIL but since it had been practised for long years, gave results, used to be used even in adult courses[53] and has analogies with CLIL, its principles might be considered. The principal merit of topical teaching is contextualised knowledge and language. Contextualised learning is part of learning LSP and is essential in understanding and memorising what is learnt. Common literary language that is learnt in this case is universally required. It is this language that is missing when imaginative literature is ignored in LSP.

The case of immersion as a form of CLIL, which is my case study, employed English both as the target language and the language of learning. The teacher spoke only English and had come from an English speaking community in the USA. This teaching was a total failure. The children learnt to repeat parrot-like a few chants and a few utterances from the audio course, but the classes and the knowledge gained was chaos. The problem was that the teacher introduced neither the course nor her method. She simply gave out the books to the audio-lingual course and told the children to listen in and learn. The lively children managed to grasp the utterances and phrases that recurred in the course and the frequent words. But the slow children were lost altogether. Finally, the parents revolted and made the teacher change the textbook and take up an ordinary course of English as a foreign language based on an illustrated textbook and an elementary grammar supplied with material in the native language of the students. The task and goal had been overtly defined as those in teaching English as a foreign language. And so a resort to the native language of the students became obligatory. Teaching English as a foreign language the ordinary way by resorting to translation, the same teacher improved her success with the same pupils. This issue compels a professional observer to draw some conclusions. This experience with young learners who could not come to grips with English as a foreign language through immersion and imperfect methodology, suggests that **CLIL should be reasonably applied to different age groups and the teacher has to take the language status into consideration**. English as a foreign language happens to be too difficult a task to cope with for young learners when CLIL or its imitation is employed as a pedagogical approach right from zero language knowledge. Both the pupils' minimal life experience and the status of English as a foreign language seem to work together to hamper the success of CLIL. This approach may be more successfully employed with maturing or mature students rather than with young learners. My experience, however, forewarns of hoping for too much with respect to immersion as a variety of CLIL even with young adults in foreign language learning.

13 A Case of Failure with a Young Adult and CLIL

In this case I can report the experience of a university student in her late teens who had been placed in conditions in which she had to copy texts in a foreign language, this having been a task in part-time employment. The student used to

[53] Cf. Golovchinskaya, L. 1975-1978, *Speak Good English: Practical Aid in Oral Speech*. Moscow: Higher School. (First year, 1975; Third year, 1977; Fourth year, 1978).

spend three to four hours every other day typing texts in German, while she studied English at a university in Eastern Europe. The person was neither dull nor lazy, but she had no knowledge of German whatsoever and the language had no extra appeal. All she learnt in this engagement, which lasted four years, was the visual ability to grasp German words correctly and correctly reproduce them mechanically on a manual typewriter. There might have remained some very vague and weak impression of this language but it was so ephemeral that when the student had to pass an examination in German as a second foreign language in the subsequent two years, she took to studying it as an entirely unknown language. In this context, one involuntarily remembers the experience of English and French classics who acquired their individual style by copying model texts of their great predecessors. These cases must have been successful because it was the model authors in the native language of the writers in question. In those cases when a foreign language played a role in the development of the style of an author, the author had to have had the basic knowledge of the foreign language and/or had to have taken delight in it for aesthetic or other reasons.

14 Conclusions

The evidence coming from the authors on YLs, CALL, CLIL and learning techniques referred to above, as well as my personal experience in EFL teaching and foreign language learning permit a few generalisations.

1. However powerful a technology **the computer** is, it should be employed with reason and be a subject rather than a king in foreign language learning. First, **high quality technology** demands equally **high employment**: insofar as computers are concerned, both the teacher and the learner have to be literate and comfortable with the tool. Second, only high quality materials and preferably reliable websites should be employed in teaching EFL, not excluding the teacher's personal assistance. This increases the price but ensures the quality of the result. Third, **'restricted CALL'** might mean **moderation** and be the optimum version of the employment of the computer in EFL to save time, to facilitate achievement and to ensure the quality of language knowledge.

2. **The quality of language knowledge** features in the works of known authors and in the talks of representatives of the European Commission on Multilingualism and Translation. This is a sensitive question, especially when persons in authority admit that "language standards are falling". But this situation is credible without the influence of the computer itself. The piecemeal intake of the English language owing to the Internet connectivity, the deterioration of levels of usage, social mobility and limited contexts of usage have fixed many a student's functional language style at the point of low colloquial. Like any language, the English language has not become simpler in its essentials and learning a foreign language involves more responsibilities than learning a native language. Although it is assumed that CLIL aims "to partially replicate the conditions in which infants are exposed when learning their first language" and "to tap into the innate language learning ability we all had as children and adolescents"[54], this can never happen. There may be analogies in methods and learn-

[54] Mehisto, P., Marsh, D., & Frigols, M. 2008, *op. cit.*, pp. 26, 32.

ing techniques applicable both to second and foreign language learning for an advanced or at least an intermediate learner of the foreign language. No such analogy applies, however, in foreign language learning. That is why CLIL may be ineffective, as my examples have shown, that is why learners may fail altogether. **CLIL has to be employed accurately, adjusting it** to the category of the learners, to the status of the language and to the aims set in particular programs, and **moderation** would not be a false concept here, either. I believe that "'When [CLIL] works, it works extraordinarily well, but it is actually quite difficult to do well'"[55].

3. Insofar as **CLIL** is concerned, it is not likely to be an effective approach in **foreign language learning**, with young learners. When it is a case of a foreign language, the learner has to have "skills… developed sufficiently to allow for basic communication"[56]. But even so, immersion is not likely to work effectively for a foreign language. Native British speakers, who taught English in Eastern Europe in the early 1980s, had familiarised their students with the browsing technique or the varied and temporary exposure to EFL in its printed and sometimes in otherwise recorded forms in one session. The students used to freely browse through books and journals, read something of interest cursorily and in snatches and discuss anything to their liking with the native speaker who was present. This is an important piece of evidence: the sessions were brief, the student was advanced or intermediate and the native speaker was present. There was ample opportunity to ask, to discuss, and to question, and there was a person who could respond. The conditions were socially extended and therefore favourable for the learning of **the foreign language**.

4. My familiarity with the employment of CLIL in contemporary conditions make me think of one more drawback of this approach. When CLIL is employed in EFL in secondary schools, learners, who are speakers of minority languages, happen to switch to **the first language jargon**, partly for fun and partly because they are relaxed as citizens of "the global village" but mostly because they have memorised a few recurrent words of English. This is not praiseworthy. However one may dislike purists, it is a pity when a language has to suffer on the tongue of a crude speaker. The three authors referred to above have made a point of the necessity to "work systematically to build equal status for languages used in the school"[57]. This is not always happily achieved, however, and a world language happens to pollute a minority language.

5. **The learner's responsibilities** are greater with a foreign language because he may not only fail to communicate successfully but he can also offend gravely if he is not at least polite or correct enough. Simultaneously, the resources of the English language have not diminished while social conditions have become impoverished in globalisation and with the Internet connection. It suffices to familiarise oneself with *The Cambridge Grammar of English*[58] to realise that the colloquial trend, which began in the middle of the twentieth century, has not simplified the English language:

[55] Lauder, N. 2008, *op. cit*., p. 1.
[56] Mehisto, P., Marsh, D., & Frigols, M. 2008, *op. cit*., p. 10.
[57] Mehisto, P., Marsh, D., & Frigols, M. 2008, *op. cit*., p. 108.
[58] Carter, R., & McCarthy, M. 2006, *op. cit*.

insofar as the descriptive data of English are concerned, the grammar of modern English has become a very chaotic universe even to the advanced student to say nothing of a beginner or an intermediate student. A year of regular classes does not suffice to internalise the information on the grammar of modern English today. Moreover, a year does not equip a student in EFL to communicate efficiently in formal contexts. It is not for nothing that Yule has written an article, *Reintroducing Grammar*[59], which explains why instruction in formal grammar is required if the student is to communicate effectively in different contexts, to be able to differentiate between correct and incorrect forms and to be cultured. Finally, there is the question of "elegant variations" in the English language noted by Fowler in his *Dictionary of Modern English Usage*, and "the most delicate grammar", which would be word meaning and collocations in Halliday's concept. Anyone might wish to be familiar with them as with all nuances of meaning that matter in a hierarchical society – anyone who cares not to be the one "who is not to the manner born… (and) to whom the English distinctions mean nothing"[60].

6. Given the unregulated use of the computer**, students** both young and mature become relaxed, bold and inaccurate. These features tend to give negative rather than positive effects in the use of any language but, most significantly, in the use of a foreign language. This point alone makes one consider moderation in the use of the computer. Knowing that instruction in formal grammar as well as correction and discipline in writing come to be required at advanced levels of usage, we have another point for moderation and many-sidedness in language learning rather than relying on the computer alone. It is easy to sound reactionary when one tends to treat with reserve the equipment which is praised in all quarters. But I have given my reasons. The computer does not change the character of the learner language-wise nor does it provide for the social context. It is a machine and has all the limitations of technology compared with man and society. What I would add to CALL in EFL would be some ways of **heightening the appeal of language** rather than using the buzz word, **motivation.** If successful, this might have an effect on the learner's choice of the first and the second foreign language, on success in learning and on the result.

Moreover, the features just enumerated that contemporary learners develop only too readily influence **assessment**. If the teacher is not required to guarantee unconditional success in the communication of the learner in the foreign language on pain of death, **evaluation** of the learner's knowledge is not a problem. Content validity and the focus on the essential are the obligatory criteria, while achievement has to come with continuous interest in language matters and actual usage. However, modern learners have set such a great store about their own psychological comfort, stress-free instruction and tests and children's rights that the teacher has to carry out **policies in teaching rather than assess the achievement**, negotiate with the student over a mark rather than examine him. I studied literary English of the best authors and learned this language with considerable resort to its passive knowledge. It took me several months of casual meetings with native speakers in a foreign environment to take over the

[59] Yule, G. 2009, *op. cit.*
[60] H. Fowler. 1963, *A Dictionary of Modern English Usage*, (Oxford: Clarendon Press), p. 526.

pattern and idiom of spoken English, but I have lived all my life aspiring to master the mystery and sublimity of the foreign language. My children learned EFL from Oxford and Cambridge courses offering realistic English in its academically trimmed variety and, happily, have retained a sense of acceptability in language. My grandchildren peck at the raw body of the Internet English in a globalised world, are bold to the point of rudeness and remain semi-literate even when they pass their examinations. It is **the new culture** which pressurises the teachers in EFL to accept the conditions of the ignorant. **Moderation** has to be a conclusion once again, moderation in the public's pressure on the teacher has to be the key word.

7. **The danger** with modern learning techniques (learner-based classroom teaching in 1981, enquiry-based learning in 2007, learner autonomy in 2009, etc), with methods and incentives is that they aim at and create a mass of messy language matter in the learner's mind and around him. It is supposedly a favourable result because it is reminiscent of the natural first language learning and because of it supposedly means the intensified contact of the learner with genuine usage. However, genuine usage in English in the globalised world is not what genuine usage is in the native environment for the British and Americans. Whether they remember the ineffective scholastic methods or not, many teachers seem to appreciate the accumulation of language matter in the mind as a virtue in itself. But it is not the natural learning of the first language, nor is it learning in a disciplined way. What is worst of all is that if this process is hailed uncritically, it involves **a moment of risk for school to have its role deteriorated**. I am aware of this especially through the unbridled enthusiasm of the now relaxed and autonomous language learners. But this is a doubtful development. School has to take responsibility and achieve the learner's awareness of language, his sensitivity to its kind and his respect for the foreign language. There must be a difference in learning EFL through an individual initiative with no particular purpose in mind and learning it in school where standards are set, tests conducted and results assessed. School has to take responsibility or else become an extra institution to waste the money and human resources, which might be an unwanted issue in the energy sensitive world.

Tony KOLB, Jessie O'SULLIVAN and Cathy WU *

ICT[1] in the LOTE[2] Classroom

Mater Christi College is a Catholic girls' secondary school. It was established in its present location overlooking Belgrave (Victoria, Australia) in 1963. Though originally conceived as a small school, rapid population growth in Melbourne's eastern suburbs and its reputation for excellence has seen Mater Christi grow far beyond that envisioned by its founders. Today the College enrolment exceeds 1,000 students and includes students from several Asia-Pacific countries. In a caring atmosphere of Christian love and understanding, which encourages excellence in all things, the College provides educational programs relevant to the individual needs of its students.

In Year 7, all students study both French and Chinese and then specialise in one or the other in Year 8. In 2009, while the 2010 timetabling process was well underway, a potential issue emerged. Among the various constraints that acted on the College timetable, were the allocation of Year 8 students to their chosen Language Other Than English (LOTE) and the creation of core groups. In fact, a student's LOTE had a significant bearing on which core group she entered. Our 2010 numbers dictated an odd number of core groups, but an equal split of students selecting Chinese and French.

An additional piece to the Year 8 LOTE puzzle was the full implementation of the International Baccalaureate (IBO) Middle Years Program (MYP) from Year 7 to Year 10. One of the requirements of the MYP is that all students study a LOTE; the IBO refers to this as Language B, while Language A is the student's mother tongue.

The compulsory inclusion of LOTE from Year 7 to Year 10 placed a further onus on the College to ensure it offered an authentic learning experience for all students. In previous years, students could discontinue LOTE after Year 8 and, generally speaking, the students who continued with LOTE were already intrinsically motivated.

In 2008, Mater Christi College employed two young, highly motivated and talented LOTE teachers: Jessie O'Sullivan taught French and Cathy Wu, Chinese. Both teachers had quickly demonstrated their ability to engage students, and a preparedness to try new initiatives. In light of all these factors, the following course of action was undertaken.

Seven core groups of approximately 24-26 Year 8 students were established. Three core groups consisted of students learning Chinese, three core groups consisted of students undertaking French, and one core group consisted of half-French and half-Chinese. As with all core groups, the half-French half-Chinese core group would remain together for subjects such as Humanities, English

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and Religious Education, however, when this core group had LOTE, the class would split in two. Cathy and Jess were asked to take these two small LOTE classes. However, there was an expectation that both teachers implement at least one significant teaching initiative and continue to develop this initiative throughout the year. It was anticipated that insights gained during 2010 could be applied on a broader scale in following years.

The initiatives, their implementation and evaluation were carried out in close liaison with the Director of Curriculum, Tony Kolb. A summary from each teacher follows and offers a successful model for others who may experience similar challenges.

1 Chinese (Cathy Wu)

2009 was an exciting year for me. Apart from having more involvement in school activities, I also very much enjoyed teaching three of the Year 7 classes and a Year 8 class. The keenness to learn Chinese among the Year 7 students was quite encouraging.

However, I was frustrated that these students had very limited exposure to an authentic Chinese environment as part of their learning. Their language learning was confined to a classroom environment. Without a meaningful context for language learning, there was a danger that students would quickly lose interest and motivation. With many parents expressing their desire for their daughters to continue to learn Chinese, I saw an exciting opportunity ahead.

The thought of establishing a learning partnership with a Chinese school had been on my mind for a while, but I had doubts about how feasible this might be. I first mentioned my proposal to the Director of Curriculum (Tony Kolb) of Mater Christi College towards the end of 2009. It occurred to me that the ideal school to approach as a partner would be the one where I taught in China. Tony was very supportive about the idea and its implementation. We discussed how we were going to carry out the linking up plan and with whom we should talk.

A series of emails and teleconferences between the two schools followed. A partnership was formally ratified early in 2010 when several teachers and students from Mater Christi visited our new sister school in Suzhou.

Facilitating communication between the students of two schools (in two different countries, with two very different cultures) would require proper computer facilities and appropriate software. While there is a multitude of online communication tools available, such as MSN and Skype, our main concern was to find a communication tool that was safe and conducive to educational use. After some investigation it was decided to trial Tokbox, an online communication tool created for communication, education and conference purposes.

I first trialled Tokbox internally with my Year 8 students. Except for a slight voice delay, the communication tool worked well. I then planned to assist the school in China in setting up Tokbox during our College's visit to the country in March.

Before setting off for China, we organised the agenda with the Suzhou No.1 Junior Secondary School, which included a formal induction of students from both schools, a student 'buddy' program, the signing of a Memorandum of Understanding, a tour around the school, and some activities for students. We also planned to conduct a trial Tokbox call from Suzhou to our school with a staff member at Mater Christi College standing by to test its usability. This trial was doubly successful, as not only did it

show that communication between the two schools was possible, it also allowed us to carefully guide our Chinese partners through the process.

The visit to the Suzhou school in April was one of the highlights of the trip. We received a very warm welcome and everything went smoothly and according to plan. Each of our students was grouped with a buddy and many tried hard to communicate using their Chinese language skills during activities. Some of them made friends with their buddies, and promised to keep in touch via email.

The possibility of having one-on-one communication between the students from both schools in the near future was very promising. We kept in touch with the No. 1 Junior Secondary School when we returned to Melbourne. My Year 8 class was very much looking forward to forming a bond with their Chinese peers. Some of the students had already received warm emails from students in China by the time we returned to Australia. Although their language skills were still fundamental, our students replied in Chinese and were very keen to write as much as possible.

The first formal link-up between the students of the two schools had mixed success. Technical issues prevented a seamless audiovisual link, however, the process itself generated a lot of interest and enthusiasm amongst the students in both schools. We hope that further experiences through this program will continue to provide the students with real and authentic language learning experiences.

2 French (Jessie O'Sullivan)

At the end of 2009, I was approached by the Director of Curriculum at Mater Christi College who outlined the teaching challenge as a condition of my taking this small LOTE class. My initial response to the idea was to implement some strategies that further motivated and engaged students in the study of French language and that also fostered an increase of communicative activities within the classroom, thereby making oral communication in the LOTE central to student learning.

Retaining student interest, motivation and engagement in the LOTE and particularly upholding its relevance to the students in Years 8 & 9 can be quite challenging. While use of technology had been accessible and implemented in previous years – largely as a research tool for assignments, presentations and revision via the use of online language programs – these rarely retained students' interest for an extended period of time, and frequently became fairly repetitive.

In addition to this, I witnessed minimal student engagement in LOTE *outside* the classroom environment. The idea of creating an online space that could be accessed from home, such as a Wikispace, presented some interesting solutions.

2.1 Implementation of a Wikispace 2010

My first task was to familiarise myself with some of Wikispaces' basic applications and possibilities. I then created a space entitled *MaterFrancais2010*. This wiki is a private one, accessible only to the class members and me as Content Manager.

The fact that this space was designed and reserved *only* for this class heightened its significance to the students. They could feel that it was their *own* to a certain extent. The ONE condition attached to this space was: NO ENGLISH allowed. So all pages, including my instructions were in the LOTE (French). This has not been an issue *at all* (although, early in

the term one girl wrote a response in English, which just happened to *mysteriously* disappear!).

The initial set-up of the wiki was relatively easy and user-friendly, but it took some initial trialling on my behalf and several lessons to coordinate student membership to the wiki. Interestingly, I found students just as reluctant and tentative with the wiki as I was initially. Gradually we became more confident with its basic tools and functions through experimentation and sharing feedback and observations – we were all learners here.

I designed a welcome page in French and created a personal profile page, serving to model language in the LOTE to speak about one's personal world and I also incorporated photographs. Students then created their own personal profile page. They found this activity engaging and furthermore, they were able to use the modelled language, not only from my personal page, but importantly from *each other's*. I felt that this process encouraged cooperative learning, and students could share new language in the LOTE that they came across on each other's pages.

Another use I implemented was the '*What did you do during the holidays?*' page. This was a swift homework task that reinforced the use of the past tense. I modelled a sentence of my holidays and included a holiday picture from France, to which the students added their own sentences. This was a very efficient way to monitor whether students completed 'homework' as such. My aim is to eventually increase this kind of interaction with the wiki… whereby students take the initiative to add language.

The wiki did raise student interest when it was first introduced, but I have found that the space needs to be constantly used both in and outside class, in order to retain student interest, and to build student confidence in use of the wiki. Students have not yet taken the initiative to add independently to the wiki in the LOTE.

2.2 Variation in Uses for Student Learning

An additional use of ICT included the use of embedded worksheets and PowerPoints. Inserting documents, audio files and presentations available for students to upload from the wiki is a practical way of minimising distribution of worksheets in class and getting students onto individual work. Students have found this engaging and it allows them to move through exercises at their own pace; for example, they can consult a PowerPoint of the lesson over and over again if necessary to understand a task or language feature, such as grammar. The incorporation of sound files has been particularly successful, whereby students are able to access the files, download them and practise pronunciation/answers for oral tasks. A possible variation for oral tasks would be for students to record themselves in the LOTE and to upload it on the wiki as an assessment task. This could minimise the anxiety involved in traditional class presentations. Having headphones with microphones would be needed here, and I have yet to find a way to do this in class.

2.3 Observations

While obvious benefits include accessibility from home and the possibility to upload and embed a variety of links and resources to maintain student interest, an unexpected dimension of the wiki presented itself: monitoring student use.

This created an effective means of monitoring the students' contribution to the wiki and homework could be more interesting for students via use of the wiki, which in turn could be easily monitored.

Furthermore, students have expressed an interest in the possibilities of using such a space as a learning tool. My general assumption was that the students already knew how to use a Wikispace and that they would be keen to assist and offer their own ideas for its effective use. In fact, it was the opposite; they were unfamiliar overall with the application and initially reluctant. Students have at times asked whether the Wikispace would be a continuous aspect of French throughout the year. They were intrigued, but a little perplexed as to how to use it. Wiki has certainly generated curiosity and has students thinking, but the challenge I am currently confronting is to determine how to find ways to retain its interest.

Despite the students' initial curiosity to use the space from home, regular use of the wiki has to be reinforced continuously, as it easily becomes redundant. It is admittedly very time-consuming to prepare new online activities frequently to keep the space "fresh" and interesting, particularly when encountering system limitations of available software, such as loading up large audio files. A further time-consuming aspect is becoming familiar with the wiki's possibilities. You need ample time to experiment with its various functions in order to use it more creatively.

In conclusion, implementation of Wikispace in a learning environment did present new possibilities in the LOTE classroom, generating initial interest and ideas in students. However, it is important that the wiki is constantly updated so that it remains a live space; for example, regular, new and changing content, communication/networking with other students to heighten experience of and exposure to authentic language from both the LOTE community and learners of the LOTE. For this to happen, one could suggest that this space be shared by either several classes, or become an opportunity for team teaching where the responsibility of adding to and updating the space is not the task of only one teacher.

3 Conclusion

The traditional landscape of the school is rapidly changing, as student learning increasingly draws on resources well outside the college boundaries, or to state it differently, the college boundaries are expanding to global proportions. In addition to these broadening horizons, the concept of the school day is taking a new shape. Communication between students at Mater Christi College and Suzhou are not limited to the hours of 9am to 3pm, nor is student and teacher contribution to the French Wikispace.

While a number of issues have been identified from this trial, two of the most significant have been that developments in ICT have opened a wide range of valuable opportunities, and schools must work hard to maximise the use of these opportunities in order to provide authentic learning experiences to their students.

Terry Lamb *

Reconceptualising Intercultural Education: A Model from Language Education

> "'Utopian realism'...is the characteristic outlook of a critical theory without guarantees. 'Realism' because such a critical theory, such a radical politics, has to grasp actual social processes to suggest ideas and strategies which have some purchase; 'utopianism' because in a social universe more and more pervaded by social reflexivity, in which possible futures are constantly not just balanced against the present but actively help constitute it, models of what could be the case can directly affect what becomes the case."[1]

1 Introduction

The nineteenth and twentieth centuries have given us as much terror as we can take. We have paid a high enough price for the nostalgia of the whole and the one, for the reconciliation of the concept and the sensible, of the transparent and communicable experience. Under the general demand for slackening and appeasement, we can hear the mutterings of the desire for a return to terror, for the realisation of the fantasy to seize reality. The answer is: Let us wage war on totality; let us be witnesses to the unrepresentable; let us activate the differences and save the honour of the name[2].

Today, education is set in a rapidly changing context. There is much talk of the demand for a numerate and literate citizenship and an increased awareness of the issues of equity and inclusion. Moreover schooling and educational research are being held to be more accountable for their effects. Much educational research has moved to appeal to notions of the 'social' and the 'cultural' to address increasingly visible problems in teaching and learning and to account for the failure of education to produce these numerate and literate citizens. However, I am concerned that the complexity of working with the terms 'social' and 'cultural' is not always acknowledged. As we move into the realm of the social we must be aware that we encounter society as organised, ordered communities and must work with sociology and cultural

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[1] Giddens, A. 1994, *Beyond Left and Right - The Future of Radical Politics*, (Cambridge: Polity Press), p. 250.

[2] Lyotard, J. 1984, *The Postmodern Condition: A Report on Knowledge*. Manchester: Manchester University Press.

studies as ways of theorising the structure and functioning of human society together with its texts and artefacts.

We should remember that a vision of this broader role for education includes the preparation of students to "restructure the social systems in order to remove the barriers that women, minorities and others experience in their jobs and in the social institutions with which they interact"[3]. This offers a focus for educators interested in equity, equity here "construed as a check on whether or not the actions taken in teaching (...) students and the social arrangements resulting from these actions are just"[4].

A move in this direction will clearly challenge the social and cultural context within our classrooms. Indeed, with a pedagogical stance based on choice, collaboration and contextualised learning we begin to move towards the culture creating classroom suggested by Bruner[5]:

> It is not just that the child must make his knowledge his own, but that he must make it his own in a community of those who share his sense of belonging to a culture. It is this that leads me to emphasise not only discovery and invention but the importance of negotiating and sharing – in a word, of joint culture creating as an object of schooling and as an appropriate step en route to becoming a member of the adult society in which one lives out one's life.

Surely this is a step along the road to fighting the cultural selection which operates within many of our classrooms. Indeed, this cultural selection and a perceived cultural imperialism within our education systems have led many communities to challenge the education on offer within our schools. In the United Kingdom Saturday schools, complementary or supplementary schools, and community education schemes have been widespread in the Black and Asian communities in Britain as a means of combating inequalities within the state system. These alternatives can be seen as an example of the commitment by many communities to a socially just education for their children.

So the challenge for educators interested in redefining the experience of learning as an emancipatory experience and a way of empowering individuals to confront injustice is to locate the ways in which the curriculum and its assessment, pedagogy and social and cultural environment can be reconstructed.

My view of empowerment here is best described by Rappaport[6], who suggests that

> Empowerment needs to be based on divergent reasoning that encourages diversity through support of many different local groups rather than the large centralised social agencies and institutions which control resources, use convergent reasoning, and attempt to standardise the way people live their lives.

Educators interested in empowerment should perhaps avoid seeing themselves as experts who can 'solve' the problems of those with whom they work. An empowerment focus involves exploring ways in which we as educators disempower those who do not readily fit the models we devise. We can then work with those disempowered by education in collaboration, using the resources at our disposal to support and critique the needs of our communities, as defined within those communities.

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[3] *Ibidem.*

[4] *Ibidem.*

[5] Bruner, J. 1986, *Actual Minds, Possible Worlds*, (London: Harvard University Press), p. 127.

[6] Rappaport, J. 1981, In Praise of Paradox: a Social Policy of Empowerment over Prevention, (In *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 9), p. 19.

1.1 Defining Culture

Culture is an extremely difficult term to pin down. It is particularly difficult as learners in our schools are at a point of cultural transition, and in many ways operate at the intersection of several cultures, or indeed move between cultures depending on the context in which they find themselves. Learners in multi-ethnic schools illustrate this cultural transition with great clarity.

The work of the Birmingham University Centre for Contemporary Cultural Studies is possibly the most important work in the study of culture to emerge in the UK. Rather than work with a single idea of culture, they preferred to discuss sub-cultures, although their accounts of the origins of youth culture remained in a framework which had been expressed some years earlier:

> The 'culture' of a group or a class is the peculiar and distinctive 'way of life' which realises or objectifies group-life in meaningful shape and form... The 'culture' of a group or class, the meanings, values and ideas embodied in institutions, in social relations, in systems of beliefs, in 'mores' and customs in the uses of objects and material life. Culture is the distinctive shapes in which this material and social organisation of life expresses itself... Culture is the way the social relations of a group are structured and shaped: but it is also the way those shapes are experienced, understood and interpreted[7].

Such a definition could also be taken as adequate for a term such as ideology. Ideology is occasionally linked to common-sense views of the world, the underlying values through which we come to interpret our worlds. However there is a subtle difference. Eagleton[8] suggests that it consists of "the ideas and beliefs, which help legitimate the interests of a ruling group or class specifically by distortion and dissimulation". We can work with a separation of culture and ideology into culture being what learners bring with them to the classroom, values and ideas which are embedded in their individual life histories and which shape their often unconscious interpretation of this business of schooling. Ideology can be seen as the way in which institutions through their political interest distort and mould the cultures in order to reinforce and reinvent a conservative status quo, whilst appearing to behave in a common-sense way.

Ideology operates to make day-to-day processes appear natural, the only sensible or practical way to work[9]. These processes and structures are apparently not affected by teacher choices but somehow within the fabric of the school. Ideology can often be exposed when this common sense view of the world is challenged – occasionally by a view from outside the dominant culture. We use the word culture deliberately. For example, a teacher from Portugal once said that they could not operate a system where pupils were 'set' by 'ability' in Portugal. 'You forget', he said, 'we have had a revolution'. The people would not stand for a system which told them that some pupils were not capable of succeeding.

The following metaphors outline a developing view of identity and culture. Both of these terms must be seen as continually shifting and changing. Pupils in schools, as well as their teachers, are

[7] Sparks, C. 1996, Stuart Hall, Cultural Studies and Marxism. In Morley, D., & Kuan-Sing, C. 1996, *Stuart Hall: Critical Dialogues in Cultural Studies*, (London: Routledge Press), pp. 84-85.

[8] Eagleton, T. 1991, *Ideology*, (London: Verso Press), p. 30.

[9] Ernest, P. 1991, *The Philosophy of Mathematics Education*. London : Falmer Press.

engaged in culture creation and through this process identity creation.

- **Cultural Dominance**

The first view of the way in which the culture of the classroom or sub-cultures within classrooms can be viewed is that of a major planet with orbiting moons. The main planet (dominant culture) controls the journeys and development of the orbiting moons (sub-cultures outside the dominant culture). Neither the dominant culture nor the sub-cultures are required to change during the journey. However, the only way to gain access to the dominant culture is by a complete shift from the sub-culture to take on all the values of the dominant culture – a one-way journey from the moons to the planets. This model is one of exclusivity, dominance and disconnectedness.

- **Cultural Osmosis**

This model can be seen as a large oil bubble with smaller different oil bubbles circulating. Occasionally these bubbles come into contact for a moment. During this moment there may be mixing of a small amount of oil but the bubbles soon separate to continue in their own journeys. Here the dominant culture 'notices' difference and on occasions when contact between the dominant culture and a sub-culture is forced there may be minor shifts in the way the dominant culture operates. However, this shift also becomes the means by which the sub-culture is rejected as a whole. This model is one of selective integration whilst allowing the dominant culture to remain a controlling force. It is a model of weak connections.

- **The Cultural Web**

The last model is that of a spider's web. In this model no one part of the web can be seen as dominant. Depending on the part of the web we view we see a different construction of culture and a different centre of identity on which to concentrate. Thus, depending on the context in which we work, the 'culture' or the 'identity' on which we draw will be dominated by a range of influences with often diverse centres of influence. This model offers strength through diversity and is a model which offers communication, flexibility, connectedness and strength.

2 Reconceptualising Intercultural Education: A Model From Languages Education

The relationships between identity, culture and language are powerful ones indeed. Language has been described as a 'marker of identity'[10] and as a 'core value'[11], an integral part of identity and culture. Consequently, the languages curriculum is intimately connected to the concept of intercultural education as described above. Indeed, the presence of an increasing range of languages in the classroom is one of the most obvious manifestations of change and diversity.

[10] Grant, N. 1997, Some Problems of Identity and Education: a Comparative Examination of Multicultural Education, *Comparative Education*, 33:1, pp. 9-28.

[11] Smolicz, J. 1979, *Culture and Education in a Plural Society*. Canberra: Curriculum Development Centre, University of Adelaide; & Smolicz, J.1983, Multiculturalism and an Overarching Framework of Values: Educational Responses to Assimilation, Interaction and Separatism in Ethnically Plural Societies. Discussion paper delivered at the *Eleventh Conference of the Comparative Education Society of Europe*, Würzburg, Germany, 3-8 July 1983.

The UK, for example, is typical of many parts of Europe in its multilingualism. In London, for example, over 300 languages are in use by school-age children[12]. Furthermore, despite the belief of many that use of minority languages would disappear as the various communities became more 'integrated' into British society and as immigration slowed down, the number of languages spoken has continued to increase in recent decades. In 1989, for example, there were speakers of 184 different languages in London's schools.

So might a languages curriculum respond to such change[13]. Parallels can be drawn with the metaphors described above. In the first metaphor (cultural dominance), the major planet is the English language, orbited by other languages. The only way to gain access to this dominant force is by learning English and leaving behind the first language. In the curriculum this leads to a focus on teaching English as a second language, with no place for the other languages of the classroom.

The cultural osmosis metaphor can be understood as tolerance for other languages, but primarily outside the mainstream curriculum. Other languages of the community are confined to voluntary supplementary schools run in the evenings or on Saturday mornings. Occasionally they may be offered in the mainstream school, but only as an activity – curricular or extra-curricular – for speakers of these languages. The largest oil bubble – the English language as spoken by the monolingual majority – comes into occasional contact with other languages in the community, but remains unaffected by them.

The metaphor of the cultural web can be understood as a linguistically diverse society in which bi- or plurilingualism is perceived as a strength; here, languages other than the majority language are not just tolerated, but enjoyed. The beneficial aspects of bilingualism for the individual have been recognised by linguists for some time. As a meeting of UNESCO experts stated in 1980:

> …learning of a second language affects perceptual strategies and cognitive capacities of an individual in a positive way. Bilingualism is a psychological and individual phenomenon as well and in its functional dimension it is conducive to greater cognitive flexibility and linguistic sensitivity. It brings to an individual deeper social consciousness, greater cultural enrichment and better international understanding.[14]

For society as a whole, strength can also be seen in diversity and greater flexibility and adaptability. Clearly this will be reflected in the languages curriculum, indeed in the education system as a whole, with speakers of all languages being prepared for life in a range of linguistic settings both at home and abroad[15].

2.1 Languages and the Cultural Web

My work as a Head of Languages Faculty in a multilingual school for pupils aged 11 to 18 in London in the 1980s can be viewed as a response to the needs of the cultural web. Far removed from the traditional work undertaken within modern

[12] Baker, P., & Eversley, J. 2000, *Multilingual Capital*. London: Battlebridge.

[13] See Lamb, T. 2001, (Language Policy in Multilingual UK. In *Language Learning Journal*, 23, Summer, pp. 4-12), for a discussion of local language provision.

[14] UNESCO. 1980, *Meeting of Experts on Language Teaching in a Bi- or Plurilingual and Multicultural Environment, 19-23 December 1977: Academic Report,* (Paris: UNESCO), p. 6.

[15] Lamb, T. 1999, Responding to Cultural and Linguistic Diversity in the Primary School. In Bertaux, P., Garcier, F. & Kerviel, C. (eds.) 1999, *La Dimension Européenne dans l'enseignement: Enjeux, Réalités et Perspectives*, (Nancy: Presses Universitaires de Nancy), pp. 25-36.

language departments in UK schools, in which languages offered are usually restricted to French with possibly German or Spanish, curriculum planning was informed by the following principles[16]:

- The development of all children's linguistic potential is an issue for the school. The school should therefore as far as possible reflect the linguistic makeup of the school community, which means that languages taught (and used as a medium of communication) should not be restricted to the usual European languages but should include the languages of that community. As the Bullock Report[17] stated, "no child should be expected to cast off the language and culture of the home as he crosses the school threshold"[18];
- As everyone is part of a multilingual society, positive attitudes towards other languages should be fostered amongst monolingual teachers and pupils. No-one should be made to feel uncomfortable about using their own language;
- All pupils should be able to sample a range of languages and then choose whichever they feel to be most appropriate for their own needs. These languages should include languages of the community;
- Bi- and plurilingual pupils have expert knowledge and can thus easily be placed in the position of the teacher on occasions through the use of collaborative learning techniques;
- Bi- and plurilingual pupils need access to the whole curriculum rather than being withdrawn from certain subjects. However, this means that support with the development of English to speakers of other languages should be integrated into all subjects, and that all teachers should be trained in their role as teachers of English;
- Information about and experience of other languages should be supplemented by a more critical language awareness which explores the benefits of bi- and plurilingualism as well as the development of multilingual communities;
- New teaching and learning modes need to be explored in order to facilitate the learning of a wider range of languages and cater for individual and community needs. Self-access learning, distance learning, and flexible learning all represent a paradigm shift in pedagogy, and all require the development of learner autonomy, to enable learners to take control of their own learning[19];
- Activities should also encourage the development of autonomy in order to encourage learners to be "authors of their own worlds"[20], through transformation of rather than withdrawal from situations which potentially disenfranchise them[21].

[16] Lamb, T. 1992, The Promotion of Language Awareness across the Curriculum. *Language Awareness Newsletter*, 2:2 (Derby: National Consortium of Centres for Language Awareness), pp. 13-15.

[17] Committee of Inquiry into Reading and the Use of English. 1975, *A Language for Life, Report of the Committee of Inquiry appointed by the Secretary of State for Education and Science under the Chairmanship of Sir Alan Bullock*. London: HMSO.

[18] *op. cit.*, paragraph 20.5

[19] Lamb, T. 2007, Backward Planning for Lifelong Language Learning, *Lenguas en Aprendizaje Autodirigido* (Electronic journal of the Mediateca del CELE – UNAM (Mexico City); Lamb, T., & Reinders, H. 2005, Learner Independence in Language Teaching: A Concept of Change. In Cunningham, D., & Hatoss, A. (eds.) 2005, *An International Perspective on Language Policies, Practices and Proficiencies*. (Belgrave, Australia: FIPLV), pp. 225-239.

[20] Pennycook, A. 1997, Cultural Alternatives and Autonomy. In Benson, P., & Voller, P. (eds) *Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning,* (Harlow: Addison Wesley Longman), p. 35.

[21] Lamb, T. 2000, Finding a Voice – Learner Autonomy and Teacher Education in an Urban Context. In Sinclair, B., McGrath, I., & Lamb, T. (eds), *Learner Autonomy, Teacher Autonomy: Future*

The modern languages curriculum was therefore redesigned to introduce learners to a range of languages. All pupils began at the age of 11 with taster courses in four languages: French, German, Turkish and Greek; Turkish and Greek were the main community languages in the school, though altogether 40 languages were represented. After these tasters, which, because of restrictions brought about by the newly introduced National Curriculum, could only take place over a three-month period, pupils were able to choose which language they would continue with for the next five years. Although most children still chose French or German – mainly as a result of parental pressure due to perceptions of the vocational relevance of these two languages – some children did choose Turkish or Greek, and some of these children were from monolingual English-speaking backgrounds. For these children, learning a language which they could use on a daily basis appeared to make better sense than learning French or German, and the consequent perception of the value of language learning often led them to learning a second foreign language later in the school.

Since some of the above principles were whole-school issues affecting the whole curriculum and not just that of the Modern Languages Faculty, it was decided that a major aspect of the languages curriculum should be delivered as part of the Personal and Social Education (PSE) program. This part of the program, delivered by teachers from a range of different subject areas to all pupils in their first term in secondary school, was seen as an introduction to social justice issues to be followed up across the curriculum throughout their time in the school. At its heart lay the following aims:

- **To reveal to pupils the richness of linguistic variety** represented in the class, school and local area (i.e. London) by speakers of different mother tongues, and to develop an enjoyment of that variety without arousing feelings of antagonism or inferiority;
- **To foster better relations between all ethnic and linguistic groups** by raising pupils' (and teachers') awareness of the origins and characteristics of various languages and their place in the wider map of languages used in the world;
- **To challenge racism via direct experience of the languages of different cultures,** and of the cultural associations of words;
- **To give pupils the opportunity to empathise with people who are in the early stages of learning a language**.

Drawing on ideas prevalent in language awareness at that time[22], topics explored in these lessons included:

- **Languages of London:** Pupils were invited to share their own knowledge of different languages in order to raise awareness of the number of languages spoken in the school community. Students filled in language questionnaires and also took part in an activity in which they matched some of the languages of London with the name of the language in the original script. The original scripts were provided by pupils from the school.

Directions, (Harlow: Addison Wesley Longman). pp. 118-127; Lamb, T. 2000a, Reconceptualising Disaffection – Issues of Power, Voice and Learner Autonomy. In Walraven, G., Parsons, C., Van Veen, D., & Day, C. (eds) *Combating Social Exclusion through Education*, (Louvain, Belgium & Apeldoorn, Netherlands: Garant), pp. 99-115.

[22] Hawkins, E. 1987, *Awareness of Language: An Introduction* (revised edition). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

• **Greetings:** In this activity, pupils listened to a tape onto which had been recorded native speakers saying "Hello! My name is X and I am speaking Y". They had to guess which language it was and then select the correct written greeting from a series of cards. Bilingual pupils were invited to contribute further examples and to teach the greetings to the other pupils. The activity was followed up with further work on greetings, including gestures (shaking hands, kissing, bowing, touching the forehead, etc). The activity was intended to validate the pupils' linguistic expertise as well as to help pupils to empathise with people in the early stages of learning a language.

• **Languages of the World:** Pupils were invited to put a list of the twelve most widely spoken languages into order, according to numbers of native speakers in the world. They then plotted these onto maps of the world. This helped to dispel certain myths, for example, that English has the largest number of native speakers and that there is a language called 'Indian'.

• **Language Families:** This introduced the idea that there are families of languages. Working with the numbers one to ten in nine languages, pupils studied the similarities and differences between Indo-European and other language families, as well as the ways in which they have evolved over the centuries. In this way, pupils became aware that there are relationships between different languages.

• **Borrowed Words:** Pupils learned that languages are constantly influenced by one another by working out the origins of a range of words. This encouraged further curiosity about languages and acknowledged contributions made by different linguistic groups to scientific and cultural development.

• **Scripts:** A range of different alphabets and scripts was examined, with pupils decoding and copying examples. As with previous activities, pupils were encouraged to find further examples in their local area.

3 Conclusion

The intention here is not to offer a series of lesson plans. Rather, the hope is that I have offered a flavour of how the ideas of intercultural education we are working with transfer into classrooms. The modern languages curriculum – renamed *languages* curriculum in order to break down barriers between different categories of languages – was considered by the teachers involved in teaching the course as a resounding success. In particular, the language awareness element, taught by a range of teachers from a variety of subject backgrounds, offered an opportunity to provide education for multilingual settings not only to pupils but also to teachers. The fact that the pupils were used as a resource and that active learning methods were very carefully devised to be 'teacher-proof' – given that most of the teachers were not language specialists – meant that teachers could relax and enjoy themselves as they felt their own knowledge and awareness expanding. They also observed significant changes amongst the pupils. Monolingual English speakers found themselves with a linguistic deficit compared with the bilingual pupils, and consequently sought to find family connections with speakers of other languages – for example, "My uncle has a girlfriend who speaks Greek" – in order to be able to 'compete'. When offered the chance to choose their National Curriculum language on the basis of a series of (French, German, Greek, Turkish, and Urdu) lan-

guage tasters, a significant number chose the language of their friends, since it connected more closely with their own lives than the usual European languages. Bi- and plurilingual pupils moved from a position of denial with regards to their bi- or plurilingualism, to one in which they were ready to support their fellow pupils' learning of these languages. Their cries of "that's *my* language" contrasted remarkably with previous experiences in which they had not raised their hands to say that they were bilingual in response to teachers' questions.

Fired by their experiences, the teachers were keen to continue to meet as a group exploring ways in which the pupils' linguistic diversity could be incorporated into their own curricular areas. Moreover, the fact that, in the course of the language awareness module, languages had been discussed on an informal basis in the staffroom, meant that a larger group of teachers were interested enough to attend the initial voluntary meeting of the continuation working group – despite their usual objections to the large number of imposed meetings. As a result, the work was written into the Institutional Development Plan of the school, demonstrating the commitment of the senior staff to the work. The school thus developed a whole-school language policy, which addressed the issues of bilingualism, dialect, school ethos and the very important role of *all* teachers in language development. The hegemony of English as the sole vehicle for the development of literacy was challenged as the school recognised the existence of different *literacies*.

One of the major challenges of postmodern society is to allow for and encourage diversity – "otherness" – whilst acknowledging the desire for "communal identifications" in order to reduce the experience of "alienation"[23]. The ideas offered in this chapter see diversity within the classroom as a vital component of education. Diversity offers us all new ways of viewing the world and new ways of living in our worlds. Our own identities both as learners and as teachers are acknowledged in their complexity, and this complexity allows us to finally make sense of that common phrase 'achieving our potential'. There is immense potential in all of our schools. Through the ideas in this paper, it is hoped that teachers across subject disciplines can find ways of working together to fulfil this potential.

[23] See Wheeler, W. 1994, Nostalgia isn't Nasty: The Postmodernising of Parliamentary Democracy. In M. Perriman (ed.), *Altered States: Postmodernism, Politics, Culture*. London: Lawrence and Wishart.

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Language Planning and Proficiency in the Field of ICT[1] – the Case of Latvia –

1 Introduction

The dissemination of English as the lingua franca of ICT is often viewed as "the confluence of a number of political and economic forces during the last half of the 20th century"[2]. Neither standard-setters, nor specialists working in the field of ICT appear to be indifferent to the invasion of English in some areas. Professionals commonly accept this fact as a contemporary imperative indicating a perceived inadequacy of terminological resources in modern Latvian ICT areas, while terminologists may seek alternatives.

This research is part of a larger study examining a range of questions, which need to be addressed if future professionals are to benefit from a comprehensive and relevant curriculum, which pays special attention to professional discourse[3]. The article highlights the differences between the officially recognised terminology and the actual terms used in professional communication and suggests the context of an ESP course for ICT specialists for the promotion of public awareness of the importance of consistency in the use of specialist terminology. The data obtained in the studies[4] revealed that a certain number of the informants – first year students of the University of Latvia, Faculty of Education, Psychology and Art, IT Teacher Education Program – are ignorant of the official rules and have only a practical grasp of the professional terms, and no more than a vague idea of what these terms may denote[5].

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[1] Information and Communication Technologies.

[2] Ammon, U. 2001, *The Dominance of English as a Language of Science: Effects on Other Languages and Language Communities*, (Berlin/ New York: de Gruyter), p. 19.

[3] Stavicka, A. 2008, Word Formation Models in ICT Terminology. In: *Rakstu krājums XVII. Valoda dažādu kultūra knotestā*, (Daugavpils: Daugavpils Universitātes Akadēmiskais apgāds "Saule"), pp. 411-420; Stavicka, A. 2009, Raising Awareness of Standard Usage in the Context of ESP Course for ICT Specialists. In: *Applied Linguistics for Specialised Discourse*. Riga: Conference Proceedings. Nr. ISBN 978-9984-39-789-4; Stavicka, A. 2010, The Impact of Dominant Language Ideologies on Standard Terminology Usage in the Field of ICT. In: *Teacher of the 21st Century: Quality Education for Quality Teaching*. Riga: ATEE Spring University.

[4] *Ibidem.*

[5] *Ibidem.*

2 Language Planning and Proficiency

Standard-setting is one of the domains of language planning which is "any attempt by a government, etc., to favour one language, or one form of a language, over another. This includes… the official development of a standard form…"[6]. It usually faces resistance of at least some part of language users. In other words, the conflict between the officially promoted standard and actual usage is persistent in the life of any linguistic community at all times. This conflict and debates on the norms recognised by standard-setters are a manifestation of the inevitable strain between language and speech (in de Saussure's terms) or the system and its realisation (in terms of the Prague School), or language system and language use influenced by social and cultural contexts (in terms of systemic functional linguistics and discourse analysis).

The acuteness of this conflict, however, may vary depending on a number of factors, both linguistic and extra-linguistic.

In present-day Latvia, when language issues and standards of usage in particular are discussed, emotions often run high for several reasons:

- the Latvian language has a relatively recent history as a national literary language, and its development as the official state language was hindered by the destruction of the independence of Latvia in 1940-1990. Therefore, in the eye of the general public, politicians and academia, the idea of a "pure" national language is widely associated now with both political independence and ethnic identity;
- apart from the symbolic significance of Latvian as a national literary language, there is acute and down-to-earth awareness of the fact that in the modern world long-term development and survival prospects of any language depend heavily on whether it is capable of serving its speakers as a medium of communication in science and technology;
- the Latvian language is currently under pressure of both the Russian language widely used in the country – ethnic Latvians constitute about 59% of the population, the remaining 41% are mostly Russian-speaking[7] – and the pressure of English which is no longer geographically remote, for it is a powerful and influential vehicle of communication on a global scale, notably in both pop culture and in high-tech terminology.

Both pressures result in language interference at several language levels, including, for example, the increased amount of borrowings in terminology. The pressure of English is particularly obvious in ICT terminology, since ICT develops at a quick pace and most original terms are English. They are quickly acquired by members of this professional group and other computer users in Latvia. The adaptation of foreign terms to local needs produces local Latvian "computerese", many of them being "non-naturalised" borrowings.

Two factors at least put Latvian standard-setters at a disadvantage in the race against time. Firstly, in terms of language use, the ICT professional community is a group with fuzzy edges: the computer has become a household

[6] Matthews, P. 2005, *Oxford Concise Dictionary of Linguistics*, (Oxford: OUP), p. 199.

[7] https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/lg.html; [Accessed 1 September 2010].

gadget and ICT professional jargon is likely to be picked up by more people than, say, the jargon of jazz musicians or legalese.

According to the data of the Central Statistical Bureau of Latvia (CSB), based on a survey of 3,900 households throughout Latvia, almost six out of ten Latvian households have Internet access[8]. The Worldstats survey updated for 30 June 2010 states that 67.8 per cent of the population of Latvia use the Internet. Internet user growth in Latvia in 2000-2010 is estimated by the same source at 902.3 per cent[9].

Secondly, internet/computer users are a relatively young section of the population: according to the CSB survey, "…younger people are the most active users of the Internet. Almost all (96 percent) people aged 16-24 regularly use the Internet, while 85 percent of those aged 25-34 regularly use the medium. Regular Internet use is lowest, at 20 percent, among persons aged 55-74"[10]. Young people are more likely to use jargon as a fashionable and distinctive mark of belonging to a professional or age group, and they seem to be the majority of ICT terminology users.

Standard-setters simply cannot catch up with the unruly terminology growth and start "setting things right" when professional jargon may already be well rooted in specialists' milieux. Professional ICT discourse takes place mostly in the spoken mode and in the mode of electronic communication among insiders (including blogs and professional chats), both involving a highly informal setting, which have much in common. Participants have equal status, communication is face-to face or otherwise highly interactive, rapid feedback. In both situations "correctness" and compliance with the standards of usage (possibly even non-existent as yet) are not valued. Priority in exchange of messages in real time is given to speed and comprehensibility to immediate participants. In contrast, standard-setters usually communicate with the speakers/writers of Latvian mostly in the written mode, in a more formal setting determined by their role as prescriptivists, communication is not interactive, at least in the sense that feedback, if any, is delayed. Thus, in terms of register variables, the field (subject matter: ICT) is the same, while tenor (role relationships) and characteristics of mode (interpersonal distance, degree and quickness of feedback) differ.

Standardisation involves reaching a consensus among individual terminologists and standard-setting bodies, as well as, ideally, with the users, and getting normative editions published, which requires both time and adequate funding. The state of the art in Latvian terminology at large and the principles of its development were described in the publication, *The Principles of Formation of Latvian Terminology* in 2002 by Skujina[11].

An attempt at reaching a consensus specifically among ICT terminologists was made in 2003 when "ten guidelines" for the development of ICT terminology in Latvian were formulated, with the focus on the adaptation of borrowed terms to the Latvian language[12].

[8] http://latviansonline.com/news/article/6229/; Andris Straumanis *Survey: Six in 10 households in Latvia Have Internet Access*. 20 October 2009; [Accessed 1 September 2010].

[9] http://www.internetworldstats.com/europa.htm#lv; [Accessed 3 September 2010].

[10] http://latviansonline.com/news/article/6229/; [Accessed 5 September 2010].

[11] http://www.vvk.lv/?sadala=217) *The Principles of Formation of Latvian Terminology*; Skujiņa, V. *Latviešu terminoloģijas izstrādes principi*, 2002 [Accessed 7 September 2010].

[12] http://termini.lza.lv/term.php; J. Borzovs, J., & V. Feists, V. *Vārds apakškomisijai. Informācijas*

Most principles contain systematic requirements, stressing that new terms should fit into the system of the Latvian language at all language levels:

- **phonetic:** Principles 2,8,9 lay emphasis on "euphony", i.e., the adaptation of borrowings to Latvian phonetic observing "the balance between vowels and consonants", avoidance of sound combinations atypical of Latvian, avoidance of terms with too many syllables. It is admitted, however, that in professional usage euphony is not a priority;
- **morphological**: applicability of Latvian form-building and word-building models to new terms, taking into account the term's derivational potential (5);
- **lexical**: taking into account "analogous", "similar", already existing terms (5), avoidance of terms which through phonetic similarity create false semantic associations with other words in Latvian word-stock (6);
- **syntactic**: new terms should fit into existing collocation patterns (5)[13].

Several principles concern the ways of coining new terms: transliteration (*serveris, ploteris, ports*), transcription (*draiveris, fails*) and neologisms (*izvēlne, uzvedne*) are acceptable (Principles 1, 2, 4), but transcribed terms should be supplemented with synonymic equivalents of Latvian origin whenever possible (2) and priority should be given to terms of Latvian origin (7), while Principle 6 states that terms already in wide use should be preserved. Given the present-day situation in professional usage, Principles 6 and 7 are to some extent in conflict.

3 Background

The field of ICT is now seen as a particularly significant dimension of Latvian official state discourse. The physical sites of terminology research, development, maintenance, dissemination and use are increasingly expanding, although this transfer generally occurs more slowly than authorities tend to believe. In general, the terminology situation in Latvia is "characterized by terminology resource fragmentation across different institutions involved in term formation processes, as well as inconsistency and lack of coordination in terminology development."[14]. However, positive trends do exist. In Latvia, the multi-branch terminology is unified, coordinated and harmonised by the Terminology Commission of the Latvian Academy of Sciences (TC of LAS) established in 1919, which consists of 26 subject-field terminology sub-commissions, including the sub-commission on IT, telecommunications and electronics terminology. The terms approved by the Terminology Commission have the status of normative documents and are regarded as official ones[15]. The experts of the Terminology Commission and sub-commissions edit and expertise terms, translate terms and definitions. Main tasks of the TC of LAS are stated by the Regulations of the Cabinet of Ministers of Latvia. According to the Regulations, TC of LAS coordinates the development and takes care of the unity

tehnoloģijas un telekomunikācijas terminoloģijas apakškomisijas 10 principi. Terminoloģijas Jaunumi, 2003.) [Accessed 1 September 2010].

13 http://termini.lza.lv/index.php?category=15 Borzovs, J., & Feists, V. *Vārds apakškomisijai. Informācijas tehnoloģijas un telekomunikācijas terminoloģijas* [Accessed 10 September 2010].

14 Auksoriute, A., et al. 2006, *Towards Consolidation of European Terminology Resources (Experience and Recommendations from EuroTermBank Project)*, (EuroTermBank Consortium), p. 40.

15 *Ibidem*.

of the Latvian multi-branched terminology on the national level taking into account the requirements for the international harmonisation of terms[16].

Apart from the Terminology Commission, several other institutions are involved in terminology work:

(1) the State Language Commission (SLC), established on 16 January 2002, serves as the main institution determining the state language policy in Latvia. The primary goal for the State Language Commission is to identify strategic directions for language policy… The Commission also supervises the implementation of the State Language Policy Program, and it takes part in legislation drafting in the relevant area[17];

(2) the State Language Agency (SLA) established on 1 July 2009 – a government body under the Ministry of Education and Science. Its main tasks are consulting and promotion of Latvian as the state language; the Latvian Language Agency was established following the reorganisation of the State Language Agency and the National Agency for the Latvian Language Learning. The Latvian Language Agency is carrying out the official language policy formulated in *The Principles of the Official Language Policy for 2005-2014* and *The Official Language Policy Programme for 2006-2010*[18];

(3) the State Language Centre (SLC) – an institution under the Ministry of Justice. The purpose of the State Language Centre is the implementation of the state policy, performing supervision over the observance of regulative acts and control in the field of the state language use; the State Language Centre is a government authority supervised by the Ministry of Justice to implement the basic state budget program "Renewal and Preservation of the Functions of State Language" – to participate in the development of state language strategies and support policies, and development of the legal, normative and linguistic base of the Latvian language as the state language[19];

(4) the Latvian Language Institute (LLI) – a research institute under the authority of the University of Latvia (LU). A structural unit of the LLI is the Terminology Department;

(5) the Translation and Terminology Centre (TTC) established in 1997 by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Since 2005, TTC is under the Ministry of Education and Science. The aim of TTC is providing translations of documents of state and international organisations for the purposes of state administration and society, as well as submitting proposals for the development and standardisation of terminology;

(6) Latvian Standardisation Organisation "Latvijas Standarts" – founded in 1999, is the national standardisation body, and its main tasks are to provide information on standardisation, develop the national standards and maintain the register of adopted Latvian standards;

(7) Tilde, established in 1991, is a leading Baltic IT company specialising in language technologies, multilingual and

[16] http://www.eurotermbank.com/About.aspx; [Accessed 2 September 2010].

[17] http://www.president.lv/pk/content/?cat_id=8&lng=en; [Accessed 2 September 2010].

[18] http://latviesi.be/?ct=latvian_language_abroad; [Accessed 5 September 2010].

[19] Renewal and Preservation of the Functions of State Language" http://www.tm.gov.lv/en/ministrija/iestades/vvc.html; [Accessed 2 September 2010].

internet software and localisation. As a member of the Information Technology and Telecommunications Terminology Subcommittee of the TC of LAS, Tilde actively participates in the terminology development process[20].

The internet terminological database *AkadTerm*, an electronic database with search options in six languages, comprises 790,908 terms from various domains collected from 81 sources, one published in 1922, 29 in the period 1958-1989, 45 – in 1990-2009 and the date for six sources has not been indicated; six sources of 81 are related to IT, two of them published before 1990.

Despite the aforementioned positive trends, native Latvian terminology, greatly overloaded by the existence of competing and overlapping systems, only partially assimilates the specialist vocabulary of ICT professionals. Frequent code-switching and code-mixing in professional communication is observed among the informants – 100 future teachers of applied information technology from the Faculty of Education, Psychology and Art the University of Latvia. The article claims that inconsistency in the use of professional terminology may result not only in general communication problems, but also in specific perceptual differences in understanding the same concepts used within the discipline among the professionals. In brief, future professionals can process and distribute a limited amount of information.

4 Methods

The studies were conducted in the academic years 2007/2008, 2008/2009, 2009/2010 in the Faculty of Education Psychology and Art, Teacher Education Department (LU PPMF SIN) at the University of Latvia. The core database of the study, which explores the extent to which the terms of the Latvian official specialist ICT terminology are used, is 1000 ICT terms. The list of terms examined was culled from a number of written materials in the field of ICT, and it constitutes the core ICT discourse to be acquired during the four-semester ESP course for future teachers of applied information technology of LU PPMF SIN. The studies dealt with the word-lists collected from the study texts and distributed to the informants: 100 future teachers of applied information technology from the LU PPMF SIN.

To identify the problem, a 100 high-frequency ICT term word-list was compiled and distributed to the informants in September 2008, 2009 and 2010. The word-list reflects the study resources and schemes used within the ESP course for ICT specialists. To obtain the list of high frequency ICT terms, 1000 ICT terms culled from the written materials in the field of ICT constituting the core ICT discourse to be acquired during four semesters of English course (128 contact hours) for ICT specialists were typed into a word bank. For each term the frequency of its occurrence within the study materials was calculated (e.g., *computer* 695 times; *software* 235 times, etc.). The list was printed in descending order from high frequency to low frequency. The informants were asked to indicate whether they knew the meaning of an item by choosing one of three options: YES (*sure I know it*), NS (*not sure*) or NO (*I don't know it*). This is an adaptation of a technique developed and tested by Horst

[20] Auksoriute et al., 2006, *op. cit.*, p. 43.

and Meara[21]. At the second stage of the survey the requirement was to write down the native terms the informants use in everyday professional communication to convey the concepts. When they had difficulties in recalling the native equivalent for the English term, the informants were asked to provide their own definition of the concept in English/Latvian or to incorporate the term in a meaningful sentence.

5 Findings and Discussion

The results of the studies conducted in the academic years 2007/2008, 2008/2009, 2009/2010 at the University of Latvia reveal similar tendencies regarding the terms the informants use in everyday professional communication. The examples introduced below are chosen to illustrate the situation and can be grouped as follows:

(1) borrowings without concession to Latvian phonology, morphology and syntax (e.g., *applet* (sīklietotne), *avatar* (iemiesojums), *blog* (tīmekļa žurnāls, emuāri), *bug* (blakts), *site* (vietne), etc);
(2) borrowings adjusted to the word-building system of the Latvian language: debugēšana (debugging), sērfot (surf);
(3) transliteration (see Table 1);
(4) calques different from those introduced by standard-setters (see Table 2).

The examples presented here are at least partially illustrative of the specialist ICT language in use at present. Borrowing without any concessions to Latvian phonology and morphology is the process which incurs the greatest amount of criticism from terminological authorities. Instead of using the available Latvian terms or nativising the English ones, the informants often borrow English words without adjusting them to the word-building patterns of Latvian; their use depends on the mode and the tenor of the discourse. Other examples reveal the ICT specialists' tendency to use the transliterated form when introducing a concept – borrowed terms serve as a point of departure for word formation drawing on either purely imported stock or combining Latvian and foreign word-building and/or inflectional elements. A prominent group of such neologisms consists of lexical items formed with the help of affixation, by adding a prefix and/or a suffix to the existing root. Calques is a powerful means of enriching the ICT word stock that occurs when a host language takes a lexical item, commonly a metaphor, which has been coined in a donor language and translates it directly, as in *pele* (*mouse* in computing). Such items are extremely common and frequently not recognised by the informants as loans in any sense, as they are created from the indigenous language stock. Calques are often considered to be more in accordance with the Latvian language than borrowings. The results of the study show numerous cases where the official calques are different from those introduced by ICT specialists, which might be the result of the information and awareness deficit and/or lack of training.

As the findings of the study demonstrate, the actual terminological practice of ICT specialists does not always comply with the principles introduced by terminologists, which might be the result of some weaknesses in the current

[21] Horst, M., & Meara, P. 1999, Test of a Model for Predicting Second Language Lexical Growth through Reading, *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 56:2, pp. 308-328.

Latvian terminology landscape that are as follows: (1) lack of high quality resources; (2) insufficient distribution and re-utilisation of existing resources; (3) lack of uniform quality management, quality assurance and validation methodologies; (4) information and awareness deficit; (5) underfunding; (6) structural fragmentation and lack of co-operation; (7) or lack of training[22].

In Latvia, an indirect indication of the possible improvement of the present situation is supported by the fact that today the majority of the relevant professional-group is in tertiary education. It can be claimed that the context of an ESP course for ICT specialists is relevant for the promotion of the public awareness of the standard usage of both source language field terminology (English) and native professional ICT terminology (Latvian), as we believe that the knowledge of the native equivalent for the source language term facilitates the understanding of the concept. Though the rapid development of the field results in constant appearance of new concepts, which causes discrepancies between the officially recognised terms and the terms used in everyday professional communication, it is apparent that new concepts are built on prior knowledge. The problem, which all the other languages along with Latvian have to face, is the conflict between the two ideologies dominating in modern society – on the one hand, field specialists tend to accept the practical value of the use of English as the common language for the ICT field, conversely, the fundamental value of multilingualism as a fruitful resource for multi-perspective insight into the nature of the sphere should not be underestimated. Apparently, both models might have some advantages, thus, the proper balance for the practical implications of the two ideologies in the Latvian context should be found[23].

6 Conclusions

ICT terminology develops at a high speed and its standardisation is a daunting task, particularly in languages which have to translate, borrow and otherwise adapt English terms to the needs of local users, both professionals and non-professionals. Reaching a consensus between terminologists and specialists in the field is crucial, but technological progress makes it an ongoing process. Comprehensive terminology with a potential for sustainable growth is not only a feature of any highly developed national language, but also a tool providing the conceptual framework and therefore ensuring efficient communication within the ICT community and beyond. In this context, ICT terminological issues cannot be divorced from the problems faced by both ESP educators and students specialising in ICT.

The findings of the present study may have relevance to the educators who are concerned with educating future professionals in different spheres. The evidence suggests that inconsistency in the use of professional terminology results in misunderstanding of professional concepts. The need for the promotion of public awareness of standard usage requires further attention from educators and standard-setters.

[22] Valsts aģentūra (comp.). 2005, Situācijas *izpēte* (latviešu terminologijas izstrādes, saskaņošanas un *apstiprināšanas* jomā). Rīga: Tulkošanas un terminoloģijas centrs.

[23] Stavicka, A. 2008, 2009, 2010, *op. cit.*

Table 1: Standard and Use

English terms	**Officially recognised Latvian terms**	**Latvian terms in use**
antivirus program	pretvīrusu programma	antivīruss, antivīrusa programma
applet	sīklietotne	applets
assembler	asamblers	assembleris, asemblers
attachment	piesaistne	atačments, pievienotais fails, pievienojums, pielikums
authentication	autentificēšana	autentifikācija, pārbaude
backup copy	dublējumkopija	bekapa kopija, beckup kopija
browse	pārlūkot	pārlūkot, brauzēt, sērfot
browser	pārlūkprogramma, pārlūks	pārlūks, pārlūkprogramma, brauzeris
browsing	pārlūkošana	brauzēšana, pārlūkošana
bug	blakts	bug, bags, kļuda, gļuks
cartridge	kasetne	kārtridžs, kasetne
chat	tērzēšana	čats, sarunas
click	klikšķis	kliks
clip art	izgriezumkopa	klip ārts
clipping	izgriešana	klipēšana
cracker	kramplauzis	krakeris
debugger	atkļūdotājs	debugers
debugging	atkļūdošana	debugēšana
decompression	atspiešana	dekompresija
decipherment, decryption	atšifrēšana	dešifrēšana
defragmentation	defragmentēšana	defragmentācija
desktop	darbvirsma	desktops, darbvirsma
digital camera	ciparkamera	digitālā kamera, ciparu kamera
favorites	izlase	bukmārks, favorīti
file transfer	datnes pārsūtīšana	faila pārsūtīšana, failu pārraide
firewall	ugunsmūris	ugunsmūris, fairwols, firewalls
footer	kājene	fūteris
frame	kadrs	freims
hacker	urķis	hakeris

Table 2: Standard and Use 2[24]

English terms	Officially recognised terms	Latvian terms in use
access time	piekļuves laiks	pieejas laiks
address bus	adrešu kopne	adrešu šina
alignment	līdzināšana	novietojums
attachment	piesaistne	pievienojums
bug	blakts	kļūda
compatibility	saderība	savietojamība
data type	datu tips	datu veids
dial mode	iezvanrežīms	iezvanpieeja
file transfer	datnes pārsūtīšana	datnes pārraide
file name	datnes vārds	datnes nosaukums
frame	ietvars	rāmis
function key	funkcijas taustiņš	funkcijas poga
layout	izkārtojums	novietojums
malfunction	disfunkcija	kļūdaina darbošanās
merge	sapludināšana	savienošana, apvienošana
newsgroup	intereškopa	ziņu grupas
random access file	Brīvpiekļuves datne	brīvpieejas datne
raw data	jēldati	neapstrādāti dati
recovery program	atkopšanas programma	atjaunošanas programma
recycle bin	atkritne	miskaste
safety	nebīstamība	drošība
stylus	irbulis	pildspalva
unauthorized access	nesankcionētā piekļuve	neatļauta pieeja.
undo	atsaukt	atcelt
updating	atjaunināšana	atjaunošanās
video editing	videorediģēšana	videoapstrāde

[24] Stavicka, A. 2008, 2009, 2010, *op. cit*.