Voices of Creativity and Reason in English Language Teaching

Edited by

Christoph Haase

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Section 3: ELT Perspectives on Cultural and Literary Studies

PREFACE

The research papers collected in this volume underline the relevance of an empirical, data-based and scientifically informed approach to the teaching of a second or foreign language even though the projects and studies in the research papers attempt to carry out this task with very different means and theoretical underpinnings. This is evident especially in the different and versatile perspectives on academic issues in the linguistic and methodological sections of the volume. It is therefore impressive to attest that numerous researchers from diverse backgrounds achieve what seems to follow a coherent plan – to shed light on, investigate and consequently optimize their own teaching. As in previous volumes, the papers here are assembled according to their disciplinary categories of linguistics, methodology of teaching English and cultural as well as literary studies. True to the motto of the volume, the voices of creativity are raised loud and clear while all this is deeply driven by reason.

In the section on Applied Linguistics and English Language Teaching, Martha Lampropoulou investigates polysemy from a cognitive-linguistic vantage point and asks how polysemous words are presented in ELT textbooks, especially in the Greek educational context. Here, as well as in other contexts, vocabulary building is given a prominent role in language teaching and the author finds empirical support for the importance of raising students' awareness for polysemy. A syntactic topic is in the center of Zaal Kikvidze's study of word order as a socio-culturally relevant phenomenon which he traces in Georgian-English dictionaries, especially in the case of mixed-gender binomials. He shows that an ordering-constraint bias exists for the (Georgian) compilers of these dictionaries. Vi Thanh Son's corpus study looks at two seemingly synonymous adjectives and their use in different contexts and whether attributive or predicative patterns prevail. The attributive overuse is then mapped onto the teaching context of English as a second language to Vietnamese learners. A bridge to the literary section is provided by the contribution by authors Stanislava Kaiserová and Kateřina Šteklová. They attempt a linguistic/literary approach to concrete texts in which authors of other mother tongues adopted English as their primary medium of artistic expression. The researchers show in which ways these texts reflect the linguistically complex views of these multilingual authors in terms of "uniqueness within a society and within multiple

language communities" (ibid.). Another study on multilingual issues is presented by Hans Fonka who considers the intricate situation in Cameroon with two official languages (French and English) and a substantial number of local languages. He detects a -what he calls- 'parasitic' language use with Camfranglais, a mix of French and English and used as an exclusive code by younger speakers in this West-African country.

   The section on Approaches in English Language Teaching Methodology starts out with Tomáš Mach's contribution on teachers' concepts that are abundant among practitioners like the theory of multiple intelligences or the mindset theory. His survey shows that an uncritical and biased adoption of these constructs also in written works may foster conformism among teachers. More focused on the ability of students to apply genre knowledge to text production is Anežka Lengálová's examination of different university programmes to address the training of this ability. A more meta-approach is chosen in the contribution by Ludmila Faltýnková on design-based research (DBR) in teaching. Here, student satisfaction in ICT-enhanced learning situations was measured. Technology is also central to Marianthi Karatsiori's investigation of online-collaboration among peers in ELT who practice sharing ideas and joint development of materials. Interestingly, "As teachers begin to think more like researchers, they begin to lose their sense of isolation, to exchange and transform their knowledge, and to analyse how to improve their practice." (ibid.). Marianthi's approach is mirrored by Natalia Orlova's and Zuzana Knebortová's study of co-operative peer teaching in online WebQuests. They detect enhanced results in learning when information is shared among peers who experienced the WebQuests as motivating and creatively stimulating. And even more technologically enhanced learning is suggested by Jana Bekešová and Iveta Romanová in their look at the smartphone app 'Speedy English Grammar' and subsequent testing with groups of students. Eric Koenig and Katherine Guertler define areas of application of creativity in their chapter; visual design, content selection, and media are three areas they shed light on in order to show what a powerful tool creativity in lesson design can be. The multiple problems involved in teaching languages to pupils with autistic spectrum disorder (ASD) are addressed in Beata Jelínková's study of 51 ASD test subjects and 59 neurotypical subjects, both groups between 10 to 15 years of age. The data shows many similarities but also the expected difference in the 'speaking in English' section which was more enjoyed by the neurotypical students. The final text in the methodology section is by Michal Pištora, Olga Vraštilová, Pavla Machová, and Jan Suk and concerns the different perspectives novice teachers have on the teaching practicum. While they detect an overall positive attitude of students to the practicum,

they also address the need for more practical applications over the curriculum.

The final section is devoted to cultural and literary studies. It starts with an extensive and highly unusual study by Mary Ellen Toffle, Massimo Mucciardi, Lazgin Barany, Maher Al Issa, and Emanuela Raimondi. In part based on field research under challenging conditions, the research paper details the effects of ELT on internally displaced Yazidi children in northern Iraq. Data was obtained from interviews conducted in camps for displaced persons. Preliminary results show that learning a foreign language can help build resilience among refugees who frequently suffer from PTSD and other adverse effects of their situation. David Livingstone looks at anthems in the wider sense (including official ceremonial songs) in order to assess their relevance for teaching English. He concludes that they enhance the educational experience and initiate helpful discussions among adult learners. Finally, Zinaida Chemodurova explores intertextuality in postmodernist fiction, especially games. She identifies three types, metafictional games, games of revision, and transworld identity games and shows that they are a significant part of postmodernist stylistic analysis. The volume concludes with Christoph Haase's review of a number of semantics textbooks and their usability in the linguistics curriculum.

We hope that the constant refinement of research methods and the proliferation of new topics in the field of ELT is visible through the pages of this volume. Its goal is to attest to the large-scale cross-fertilization between linguistics, teaching methodology, and cultural and literary studies.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

SECTION 1:

APPLIED LINGUISTICS AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

Polysemy And Vocabulary Building in ELT

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This paper explores how polysemy is usually introduced in an English teaching classroom at a B1 level according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), adopting a Cognitive Linguistics point of view. Since vocabulary plays a fundamental role in language learning, the way the meanings of polysemous words are presented, and how these meanings are to be distinguished, is crucial for vocabulary building. In order to attest how polysemous words are exemplified in English textbooks, an empirical research will be carried out based on two indicative textbooks used in English Language Teaching (ELT), especially in the Greek educational context, namely, Access 3 (coursebook) and Connect B1 (for students- revised version). Polysemous words are recorded, analysed and juxtaposed in terms of: a) their network of meanings and how this is presented in the coursebook and b) the examples being provided. An aspect that will also be examined is whether these coursebooks point out any relation between the senses, meaning that certain senses usually arise due to metaphoric or metonymic extensions (Panther & Thornburg, 2009). In Cognitive Linguistics, polysemy is regarded as a categorising phenomenon, that is, related meanings revolve around a prototype and maintain family resemblance relations to one another (Cuykens & Zawada, 2001). Overall, the paper attempts to determine whether additional semantic information is included in coursebooks; information that would foster students' vocabulary skills.

Introduction

In order to explore the way polysemy is usually introduced in English coursebooks of B1 level according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) in a Greek context (i.e. Greek students

who learn Greek as a second or foreign language) and how specific polysemous words are exemplified in English textbooks, the Cognitive Linguistics framework will be adopted along with semantic and morphological principles. The main objective of this study is to underline the importance of raising students' awareness of the notion of polysemy and the existence of a structure and family resemblance among senses (Cuykens & Zawada, 2001), since the latter help students to retain the words and use them effectively. Overall, the paper supports that the explicit teaching of polysemous words through a cognitive approach can be seen as a process to obtain, to retrieve and to use words (Schmitt, 1997), and generally, as a language leaning strategy. According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), language learning strategies are mental processes that help learners to internalise and store new information.

Vocabulary building

Vocabulary building in ELT is considered a significant aspect of language learning. One way to enhance vocabulary building is by clearly outlining the way meaning is created. This can be achieved by showing how meanings are interrelated, or by means of different tasks where students can make mappings that can help them recall the various meanings. Such tasks may involve concrete means such as the use of pictorial schemata (Lindstromberg 1985) or dictionaries, or learning techniques such as decomposing words into prefixes, suffixes and roots (Pittman 2003). Hence students, by being able to use a considerable amount of vocabulary, will be confident in language production. Sonbul and Schmitt (2010) claim that direct instruction is significantly effective in facilitating form recall.

The importance of explicit vocabulary teaching is also stressed by Cameron (2001, p. 6), who indicates that children might not use vocabulary learning strategies on their own and, therefore, the teacher should direct their attention and assist them in order to understand new items and implement certain strategies. For instance, cognitive strategies could be consolidated such as spelling the words, keeping a notebook with word lists, repeating and rewriting the words for practice (Schmitt, 1997). On the other hand, rote memorisation of vocabulary has long been a common way for learners to retain lexical items. Rote memorisation is a strategy that is often employed by Greek learners of English, as well. In their research, Khoii and Sharififar (2013), compare rote memorisation and semantic mapping. Carrying out their empirical study with Chinese students who learn English as a foreign language, the outcome showed that semantic mapping can be as fruitful as rote memorisation, both functioning as vocabulary learning

approaches. In addition to rote memorisation which has been proved useful and effective, as in the Chinese ELT context, there are other means which can contribute to facilitating the acquisition and recall of vocabulary such as the use of flashcards, images and digital means -computers and tablets- with online applications. Despite the plethora of means that can ease the effort of the learner to recall lexical items, what raises questions in the Greek ELT context is the degree of the explicit teaching of cognitive and metacognitive strategies; to put it differently, whether students are aware of how they can adopt a systematic method to study new vocabulary.

The present paper, leaning towards this direction, treats vocabulary building as an important component in language learning and aims at fostering metacognitive awareness of how polysemy works and how students could master with ease the additional meanings that certain words bear. It is assumed that raising awareness of the notion of polysemy can lead to the reinforcement of mnemonic associations, something that will make students recall vocabulary more effectively. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) underline the importance of learning processes to encompass explicit teaching methodologies, which, in turn, could foster the acquisition of metacognitive knowledge, especially, when presenting new learning activities. Encouraging learners to acknowledge polysemous words and to create links and associations will enrich their knowledge of vocabulary. More specifically, this paper suggests that learners should be presented with vocabulary learning strategies, and be taught how to build vocabulary by means of exemplifying polysemy when presenting new polysemous vocabulary items.

It should be noted that there are also other factors that influence second language vocabulary learning, such as maturational constraints, frequency, attention, previous language background, and order of acquisition (Oxford and Scarcella, 1994). However, these will not be analysed since the subject matter is to present a systematic cognitive approach to polysemous words.

Polysemy

According to Tuggy (2003, p. 342-343), when discussing polysemy the following facts should be taken into consideration:

Polysemy is rampant

Polysemous meanings are separate but intricately related

The links among the meanings are reasonable.

Not all reasonable links can be obtained, however. There are holes in the patterns.

The reasonableness of the links helps a person learn the system but does not mean that one can predict it and need not learn it.

Context is the key to letting the meanings function separately and the means of establishing them in the first place, but…

Context cannot be used to explain the meanings away.

One can eliminate these meanings on the basis of their relationships to each other or to context.

Within the Cognitive Linguistics framework, polysemous words are considered to be natural categories of semantically motivated senses, with the more basic sense lying in the centre and the extended meanings radiating towards the periphery (Lakoff, 1987; Evans and Green, 2006). Tuggy (2006) brings forth differentiated viewpoints on polysemy. According to Deane (1988), polysemy is placed between total semantic identity and total semantic distinctness. However, as Hartmann (1983) notes, there are cases where it is difficult to decide whether or not two clearly related meanings associated with the same phonological form are to be listed as a single entry in the dictionary. It should be noted that homonymy and polysemy are two different notions. An example with unrelated senses is the word *bank*. The distinct meanings are presented as sub-entries. For instance:

1) bank

1. an organisation where people and businesses can invest or borrow money, exchange it for foreign money, etc., or a building where these services are offered:

The big banks have been accused of exploiting small firms

2. sloping raised land, especially along the sides of a river:

By the time we reached the opposite bank, the boat was sinking fast

3. a pile or mass of earth, clouds, etc.:

A dark bank of cloud loomed on the horizon

The noun *bank* is a relatively popular example in the bibliography [Tuggy (2006, p.168-169) also refers to it]. In fact, it is an example that would be placed at the end point of homonymy within the polysemy and homonymy spectrum. Based on Cowie (1982, p.51):

Polysemous words can differ considerably according to the degree of relatedness and difference which their meanings display ..., homonymy (total distinctness of the meaning of identical forms) is properly seen as the end-point of the continuum.

However, there are cases such as the verb *strike*, where in some subcases the semantic connection is apparent:

2) strike

to refuse to continue working because of an argument with an employer about working conditions, pay levels, or job losses:

Democratisation has brought workers the right to strike and join a trade union.

to cause a person or place to suffer severely from the effects of something very unpleasant that happens suddenly:

I have a life insurance policy that will take care of my family if disaster strikes.

to hit or attack someone or something forcefully or violently:

Her car went out of control and struck an oncoming vehicle.

to kick a football, especially hard so that it travels a long distance:

Beckham struck the ball with precision.

if you strike a match, you cause it to burn by rubbing it against a hard, rough surface:

She struck a match and lit another cigarette.

to remove something officially from a document:

Please strike my name from your mailing list immediately.

to discover a supply of oil, gas, or gold underground:

The first person to strike oil in the US was Edwin Laurentine Drake.

In contrast, while the verb *paint* is used in different situations, they all have something in common: they all involve applying a coloured substance to a surface. A structure such as ***she is painting (it)*** can conventionally be used to refer to an indefinitely large number of situations (Tuggy, 2006, p. 169):

she is painting (it)

painting a portrait in oils on canvas

painting a landscape with watercolours on paper

(iii) painting the interior wall and floor of a house

painting a mural on the exterior wall of a public building

painting a car with an air gun

applying make-up to the face

[…]

Even if the additional meanings are distinct or "unrelated" and accidentally coded by the same phonological form (Evans and Tyler, 2004, p. 152), the network of meanings can be presented in English language learners and explained by providing examples. Within the communicative language framework, dictionary or thesaurus definitions can be discussed in the classroom. There is a need to emphasise semantic value, be it a case of homonymy or polysemy, and to all the multiple precise or imprecise meanings.

Focusing on polysemy, the tutor can also boost the recall of collocations, since one of the collocation components could be interpreted differently depending on the context. In other words, collocations are also polysemous. Learners need to know the meaning(s) of the component words, and then string them together. For instance, the adjective *fierce* can be used in different contexts. Hence, in the phrase *fierce tiger*, it bears the meaning of "hostile or aggressive in temperament", whereas in the phrases *fierce argument* and *fierce pain* it bears the meanings "marked by unrestrained zeal or vehemence" and "extremely vexatious, disappointing, or intense", respectively.

As Macis and Schmitt (2017) note, the learner may come across figurative collocations with idiomatic meanings which are not derivable from the component words (i.e. *hot ticket*) or duplex collocations, which are polysemous, having both literal and figurative meanings (i.e. *top drawer* versus *top-drawer car*). As Boer (2000) supports, it is important to teach figurative collocations in order to improve learners' retention of vocabulary.

Evaluation of the layout and interpretation of polysemous lexical items

In this section, questions concerning the way coursebooks treat polysemy will be addressed; that is, whether additional semantic information is included, such as analogies between different senses of words, or explicit

information for any figurative senses that would foster students' vocabulary skills. For this reason, indicative examples from two coursebooks used in English language teaching (ELT) will be presented. The textbooks, namely, *Access 3 (coursebook)* and *Connect B1 (for students - revised version),* are employed in private foreign language education in Greece, in particular in English language teaching, and will be examined in terms of layout. More specifically, the way meanings are presented and the makeup of the networks of meanings will be considered. For this reason, a number of polysemous words were recorded, analysed, and juxtaposed. In addition to this, their layout will be discussed.

The educational context

The two textbooks comply with an upper intermediate level in English. At a B1 to a B2 level, the learner is considered to be independent. Based on the official CEFR level descriptor, a B1 level means that the learner will be able to communicate sufficiently in English, that is, describe, discuss, reason and argue about familiar everyday topics and everyday situations. At this level, figurative language and idiomatic expressions are frequently encountered by the learner. The degree of interaction is expected to be fluent and spontaneous, and the disclosure of information over a wide range of topics, explaining the advantages and the disadvantages. At this level, the teaching hours of English in private language centres in Greece are four hours per week on average.

Moreover, at this level the vocabulary is important and it could function as an indicator of knowledge. Milton and Alexiou (2009) state that vocabulary can be an indicator of knowledge and attainment, rather than an absolute determiner of these things. As learners get better in the language, moving upwards through the CEFR levels, they tend to know progressively more vocabulary. There is a relationship between these two variables; the bigger the vocabulary size, the greater the knowledge. Milton and Alexiou (2009) also claim that it is informational to incorporate vocabulary knowledge measures into the CEFR. Meara and Jones's Eurocentre Vocabulary Size Test (1990) estimate that a learner with a vocabulary of 2000 words has double the knowledge of a learner with a vocabulary of 1000 words. As can be seen in the following table, vocabulary size estimates consort with each of the CEFR levels. As per the table, it is also apparent that the threshold level word size (B1) is considerably larger than A2.

Table 1. EFL vocabulary size and the CEFR among learners in Greece (Milton & Alexiou, 2009, p. 200)

CEF level	*XLex*	Mean	Max.	Min.	*SD*	*n*
A1	<1500-	1477.27	2100	150	580.37	22
A2	1500-2500	2156.81	3250	700	664.45	22
B1	2750-3250	3263.63	4000	2750	434.79	11
B2	3250-3750	3304.54	4350	2550	666.5	11
C1	3750-4500	3690.9	4300	2650	471.07	11
C2	4500-5000	4068.18	4500	3700	261.02	11

Results

Both textbooks promote a communicative approach, in that they provide input which students have to process and contemplate their answers. They are illustrated with distinct colours and elaborately format the target lexical items with metalinguistic descriptions and relevant examples. The target group is young learners or adolescents, who are native speakers of Greek and learning English as a foreign/second language. However, even if they engage students in form-focused exercises (Long and Robinson, 1998), they do not present vocabulary explicitly; they do not emphasise the way in which meanings are connected.

Access 3 is suitable for learners who study English at a pre-intermediate to intermediate level. The textbook consists of ten modules, and is designed to be covered in 80 hours. Every theme is based on various everyday situations involving realistic authentic dialogues. There are also writing, listening, and speaking activities, songs, games, and research sections (writing projects), accompanied by self-check sections.

Similarly, *Connect B1* prepares students for an intermediate and upper-intermediate level. The topics address adolescents and concern everyday activities and authentic situations. The writers have included word-building tasks, and given emphasis to pre-teaching vocabulary warm-up exercises. The students' book also includes review sections and re-creative tasks such as the Fun Magazine pages.

Both textbooks endorse a focus on form and implicit and explicit teaching since there is a balance between interactive tasks and contextualisation, and tables with analytic information over the function and the semantics of certain lexical item i.e. collocations. For instance, in *Access 3* there are 'spidergrams', diagrams with lines and circles that due to their schematicity help students to remember the different uses of the words or collocations:

Figure 1. Spidergram of *carry* (*Access 3*, Unit 6, p. 65)

have with you
carry money

lift and take
carry a bag

carry

(+on) continue
carry on speaking

(for vehicle, ships, planes)
planes carry passengers
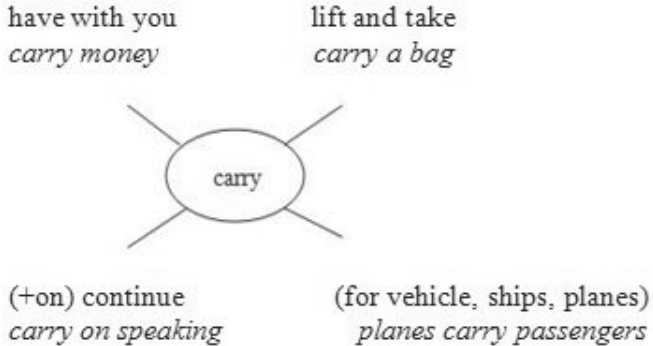
Figure 2. Spidergram of *break* (*Access 3*, Unit 7, p. 77)

disobey
a rule/ the law

separate into pieces
a glass

break

not do what promised
a promise

stop
for lunch
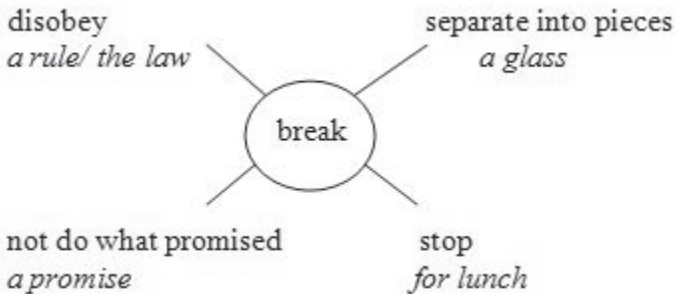
Apart from the spidergrams, the fill-in-the-gap and the matching vocabulary activities, there are no exercises that present or exemplify polysemous words, or else, they do not provide all, but only the most frequent meanings.

In *Connect B1*, there are no spidergrams, yet there are specific vocabulary building exercises. Learners come across: i) exercises that ask the learner to detect synonyms or expressions from the text, ii) multiple choice exercises where the learner has to choose the right collocation e.g. People brush their teeth as part of their daily *variety/ routine* and iii) derivation exercises where the learner has to form the verb and the adjective from a noun or vice versa e.g. impression (n), impress (v), impressive (adj). At the end of the vocabulary section, the learner can find information

concerning certain morphological processes e.g. the fact that the suffix *–ion* signals the formation of a noun.

In the *Companion* of *Connect B1*, instead of spidergrams, there are a number of tables under the title 'special point' where polysemy is elucidated. For instance, the polysemy of *poor* is manifested in such a table. Three meanings of *poor* are provided: i) μέτριος (=mediocre) e.g. *Isabelle wants to o the marathon, even though she's quite a poor runner* ii) φτωχός, αυτός που δεν έχει καθόλου χρήματα (= penniless) e.g. *The family was very poor and didn't own a car* iii) καημένος (=unfortunate, pitiable) e.g. *Poor Ben! He's broken his leg.* However, there is no explanation as to whether there is a structure among these senses.

From a technical point of view, both textbooks use pictures, colours, and a special font (colours and bold letters) to underline the lexical items introduced in each unit. Despite the well-structured exercises and layout, the semantic information of polysemous items is limited.

Introducing polysemy

Despite the plethora and diversity of word building exercises, the function of polysemy is undervalued, since there are many cases of polysemous words or phrases in both textbooks that are not sufficiently specified. In *Access 3*, for example, the words *heavy* and *crawl* are not delineated in terms of meaning. The adjective *heavy* in *Unit 1* bears the meaning of "a lot of". Nevertheless, the book could use a spidergram adding the meanings of "fatty" as in *heavy cream* and the meaning of "important, prominent" as in *heavy-duty lawyers*. A schematic network of meanings could also be applied to *crawl*, which could show how meanings result, something that could function as a mnemonic technique. The explicit vocabulary instruction could be supported by the usage of a thesaurus. For instance, for the verb *crawl* (*Access 3*, Unit 4) a number of different meanings are reported in COBUILD, some of them metaphorical in nature (c, d and e):

crawl (v) = a) when you crawl, you move forward on your hands and knees

b) when an insect crawls somewhere, it moves there quite slowly

c) if someone or something crawls somewhere, they move or progress slowly or with great difficulty

d) if you say that a place is crawling with people or animals, you are emphasising that is full of them

e) if something makes your skin crawl or makes your flesh crawl, it makes you feel horrified or revolted.

In this way, students can enrich the network of meanings of each item and make out their different uses. They can acknowledge both literal and figurative meanings, and will thus build confidence in their writing ability. As mentioned earlier, at a B1 towards a B2 level the amount of vocabulary is crucial; it is defining for the language level proficiency.

Similarly, in *Connect B1*, there is no additional meaning provided for many polysemous words, such as the following items:

degree (n) = βαθμός θερμοκρασίας (measurement of temperature)

Water freezes at 0 degrees centigrade.

figure (n) = μορφή, προσωπικότητα (type of person)

Bill Gates is an important figure.

The aforementioned examples could also be 'refined' by providing additional meanings, both literal and figurative: *degree* also carries the meaning of "academic qualification" (i.e. *university degree*), of "extent" (i.e. *to what degree*) and "small amount of" (i.e. *a degree of hope*). By the same token, *figure* could also involve the senses of "calculations" (i.e. *significant figures calculator*) and "body figure" (i.e. *a beautiful figure*). Tuggy notes that such elaborations (or subcases in a schematic network) should not be ignored due to their degree of salience (2006, p. 173). Therefore, a conceptual approach to meaning could be adopted. Raising metacognitive knowledge on how polysemy works will improve students' style of expression.

Conclusion

The present paper examines the importance of introducing polysemy in ELT at an intermediate level. Based on a Cognitive Linguistics approach, it is supported that students' vocabulary skills will expand if they become familiar with polysemy and activities which would make polysemy a key feature. Moreover, reviewing certain indicative textbooks which are used in the Greek educational context, it is revealed that there are limited exercises which make learners of English aware of the different degree of adjacency between meanings of polysemous words and collocations. Examining *Access 3* and *Connect B1*, it was found that neither coursebook stresses or exemplifies the polysemy of words or collocations. Thus, it is supported that vocabulary should be deliberately targeted for instruction and a variety of

awareness raising exercises should be incorporated in textbooks, so that polysemous words can be taught strategically. Exercises on polysemous words and collocations will ensure a deeper processing of the words (according to the students' level), which would help learners to understand, assimilate and recall not only the literal, but also the metaphorical, senses of the polysemous words in focus. Overall, it can be concluded that focusing on polysemy will improve students' language proficiency.

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Word Order as a Language-
and Culture-Specific Phenomenon:
Data from a Georgian-English
Dictionary

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This paper provides a discussion of Georgian and English mixed-gender binomials as both language- and culture-specific phenomena. In order to highlight associated subtleties, they are made subject to contrastive analysis. For this purpose, relevant data are retrieved and examined from a bilingual (Georgian-English) dictionary. Georgian mixed-gender asyndetic binomials occur as individual words (copulative compounds), are irreversible and mostly female-preferential while English mixed-gender syndetic binomials are constructions, linked by means of the conjunction *and*, and mostly male-preferential. Hence, it has been established that the English translations keep preponderances peculiar to present-day usage in the English language, even if their Georgian counterparts display the reverse ordering pattern. Dictionaries with these kinds of representations may have positive implications for the study and teaching/learning of gender-related aspects of language.

Introduction

Whenever word order is concerned either in a single language or across various idioms, normally, it is a purely structural linguistic problem; however, when we address word order in binomials (whether reversible or not), it is no longer just a morpho-syntactic phenomenon but rather a socio-culturally relevant one as well. This is particularly true of mixed-gender binomials with either male-first or female-first preponderance. In such cases, it is closely associated with power relationships between genders in society in their making and remaking. "Crucially, first mentioned elements

in binomials are considered more important or of higher status" (Gabriel et al., 2018, p. 848). Hence, in addressing mixed-gender binomials, the present paper will have to deal with both language- and culture-specific features. In order to highlight the subtleties associated with the phenomenon in point, a contrastive analysis will be conducted. For this purpose, relevant data from a bilingual (Georgian-English) dictionary will be examined.

Initially, the terms and notions used in the present paper must be clearly defined. First is the term 'binomial', which was introduced into linguistics by Y. Malkiel (1959, p. 113), who defined it as "the sequence of two words pertaining to the same form-class, placed on an identical level of syntactic hierarchy, and ordinarily connected by some kind of lexical link." In addition, his following suggestion is accepted without hesitation (Malkiel, 1959, p. 114):

> In dealing with binomials it is helpful to agree on a set of abbreviatory symbols. Let A stand for the first and B for the second member [...] and *l* for the link which, we recall, is not under all circumstances equally essential.

Later in the paper he specifies that the formula A+*l*+B is "occasionally reducible to AB, plain juxtaposition" (op. cit., p. 134). This is a significant clause with respect to the fact that a prototypical mixed-gender binomial in present-day Georgian predominantly occurs as AB, that is, a dvandva compound (a.k.a. coordinating compound, copulative compound, co-compound); hence, following Malkiel, it can be described as a coordinating sequence of two words pertaining to the same form-class and connected without any lexical link; in other words, it is an asyndetic (conjunctionless) binomial.

As long as relative [ir]reversibility of binomials, particularly that of mixed-gender ones, is viewed both as reflecting and affecting the gender order in a respective community, one may also consider the label POCs (short for Preferred Order Constructions); according to P. A. Reich (2005, p. 303), they:

> are (usually) two or more words connected by a coordinated conjunction, usually *and*. They are in preferred order if one of the two possible orders predominates; that is, one of the two words is in first position for more than the other.

This approach will allow the author to assume changeability of order preferences in individual binomials caused by various factors, both linguistic and extra-linguistic.

In this paper, the label 'mixed-gender binomial' (throughout his article, H. Motschenbacher (2013) uses 'mixed-gender binomials' and 'mixed-sex binomials' alternatively) is used to refer to personal binomials within which

one conjunct refers to a female person and another to a male, such as *bride and groom*.

Thus, as the present paper aims to study Georgian (AB) and English (A+*l*+B) mixed-gender binomials in contrast, I chose *A Comprehensive Georgian-English Dictionary* (Rayfield et al., 2006) as a reliable source for mining of both language- and culture-specific data. The goals of this paper are, firstly, to extract all Georgian mixed-gender binomials which occur as headwords in the *Dictionary*, secondly, to observe the ordering of conjuncts, and, thirdly, to discuss how they are translated into English with all of the possible consequent implications.

Mixed-gender binomials in English

Gender is one of the most abundantly represented socio-cultural categories in language, facilitating generation of a number of respective stereotypes; hence, gender-related linguistic phenomena occur both as effects and affects. Ordering priorities in English mixed-gender binomials have been no exception: male-first word order in most of them has been traditionally regarded both as reflecting and enhancing actual or presumed gendered hierarchies in society. Even back in the 16th century, the English diplomat and rhetorician Thomas Wilson (1560, p. 167) offered a pioneering passage on how priorities were to be arranged in the language:

> Some will set the Carte before the horse, as thus, My mother and my father are both at home, as though the good man of the house did weare no breches, or that the graie Mare were the better Horse. And what though it often so happeneth (God wot the more pitty) yet in speaking at the least, let us keepe a naturall order, and set the man before a woman for maners sake.

This is a fairly good illustration of how the male-first word order is prescribed as a reflection of hierarchies in the real world. Although various authors, both early and contemporary, consider male-preferential mixed-gender binomials in English either as an effect of or affect on how its speakers think and behave, plenty of them refer to prescriptive efforts as, for instance, Miller and Swift (2001, p. 117) put it:

> People come up with all sorts of reasons why in word pairs males almost always come first: *men and women, male and female, his and hers, boys and girls, guys and dolls*, etc. Some linguists theorize that it is easier to say a single-syllable word like *men* than a two-syllable word like *women*, and that we tend to put the single syllable first as a result. Another theory is that the order has something to do with prosodic patterns: since "men and women" and "male and female" scan as two trochees, they trip more lightly off the tongue than they would if reversed to scan as a trochee and an iamb. Neither

theory accounts for *husbands and wives* or such other familiar phrases as *coffee and cake, needle and thread, hammer and tongs, father and sons*, or—to get to the roots of the matter—*Adam and Eve*. It seems clear that the convention of male precedence in English followed the same pattern as the arrogation to males of the Old English word *man* and the grammarians' pronouncement that *he* is generic.

When referring to various authors' acknowledgements of prescriptive efforts, it is meant that some of them (for instance, Miller and Swift, 2001) recognise the currently conventionalised word order having come down as a result of certain prescriptive endeavors in the past. Therefore, others, also acknowledging their effectiveness, set forth another wave of normalising and reformist steps in the language in order to remove linguistic sexist bias, as appears in the following (Hardman, 1999, p. 1):

> I want to suggest that we should say "women and men" until the whole social/cultural world changes such that it doesn't matter anymore. I say that *only* by saying "women and men" do we today have any chance of equality on both sides of that little conjunction "and." Let me tell you why […] In English order matters. Therefore, what comes first is seen as first in the metaphorical sense – better, higher ranked. So in the phrase "men and women" women do indeed come second […] Therefore, in the usual order, "men and women," women not only come second but are perceived as an additional appendage of the first, as part of the derivation that the root carries with it. In the phrase "women and men," on the other hand, because "women" comes first, women are *perceived*.

Surprisingly, Hardman does not refer to the female-first binomials like *ladies and gentlemen*, *bride and groom*, *mother and father*, etc. to support and enhance her own arguments, particularly with respect to *ladies and gentlemen* which is a bright example of the order reversal (based on corpus studies, it took place between 1705-1800 (Mollin, 2013; Hegarty, 2014)); it is notable, but not the only example of this kind. Moreover, the aforementioned and other corpus studies of English mixed-gender binomials have shown that they are hardly irreversible. This is why it would be more reasonable to refer to them as Preferred Order Constructions (POCs) as well, at least sometimes, because the male-first ordering pattern is predominant but not ubiquitous in present-day English. It also should be borne in mind that long-lasting societal stereotypes may produce specific language usage patterns which in turn contribute to the sustaining of these stereotypes. This is true for both English and Georgian mixed-gender binomials.

Mixed-gender binomials in Georgian

Georgian mixed-gender asyndetic binomials

In order to present a fully-fledged picture of Georgian mixed-gender binomials, the diachronic pathways of their modification should be observed. In Old Georgian, they typically occurred as A+*l*+B (as well as B+*l*+A) and were reversible (actually, A+*l*+B was the frequency pattern for respective POCs), whereas, in Modern Georgian, they occur as A+B and are irreversible. In Old Georgian, male-first order of constituents was predominant, likely owing to the Judeo-Christian tradition assuming the superiority of men over women, and, thereafter, the word order was its reflection (Kikvidze, 2001, p. 211; Kikvidze, 2002, p. 186). Thus, the formula for gender-marked binomials in Old Georgian was the following: A+*l*+B, where A=M[ale] and B=F[emale]; notably, similarly to present-day English, the male-first order was predominant but not ubiquitous.

Later, owing to the prevalence of enclitic processes in the historical development of the Georgian language, the link was dropped between natural coordinands and they turned into constituents of dvandva (copulative, coordinative, co-) compounds. The process of transformation can be expressed in the following way: A+*l*+B > A+B (the sequence A+*l*+B can be "reducible to AB" (Malkiel 1959: 134)):

Old Georgian

kmar-i da col-i

husband.NOM and wife.NOM

'husband and wife'

Modern Georgian

col—kmar-i

wife—husband.NOM

lit. 'wife and husband' It is necessary to make a few comments here. In Old Georgian, a mixed-gender binomial consisted of two words, linked by means of a coordinating conjunction, and they took on inflections individually. Linked by a hyphen in original Georgian spelling, its Modern Georgian counterpart consists of stems (Georgian has stem-based morphology), and occurs as an individual word taking on single final inflection. That is why they can be searched in a dictionary; they

are individual lexemes and usually appear as headwords of corresponding entries.

It should be emphasised that it is due to their asyndetic linkage that Modern Georgian mixed-gender binomials are irreversible.

Mixed-gender binomials in a bilingual dictionary

As I already noted, Georgian mixed-gender binomials are single words, and, hence, dictionaries can be searched for them as headwords; since Georgian ones predominantly display the female-first order pattern and English ones represent male-first order more prominently, a bilingual (Georgian-English, and not English-Georgian) dictionary may provide noteworthy language- and gender-specific data. For the purpose of contrastive study, *A Comprehensive Georgian-English Dictionary* (Rayfield et al., 2006) is selected; this choice is based on the fact that its editors and compilers, either native Georgian or native English speakers, are fluent in both languages, and, furthermore, the final product of their endeavors is a highly representative and well-compiled lexicographic resource; thus, the dictionary is a rather reliable source.

The query yielded twenty Georgian mixed-gender asyndetic binomials appearing as headwords in related entries. Table 1 displays their transcribed versions, accompanied by glosses and translations from the dictionary (Rayfield et al., 2006):

Table 1. Georgian irreversible binomials

No	Mixed-gender binomial	Gloss	Translation as in (Rayfield et al., 2006)
1	gogo—bič'-eb-i	girl—boy.PL.NOM	girls and boys (p. 431)
2	da—ʒma-Ø	brother—sister.NOM	brother and sister; sibling(s) (p. 598)
3	dedaber—mamaber-i	old woman—old man.NOM	old man and old woman; elderly couple (p. 614)
4	dedal—mamal-i	female—male-NOM	male and female (p. 614)
5	ded—mama-Ø	mother—father.NOM	mother and father (p. 615)
6	dedobil—mamobili-i	foster mother—foster father.NOM	foster parents (p. 615)

7	dedul—mamul-i	maternal bequest—paternal bequest.NOM	heirlooms, parent's heritage (p. 615)
8	dobil—ʒmobili-i	girl/woman like a sister—boy/man like a brother.NOM	people who are like brother and sister (*to sb*) (p. 623)
9	k'ac—dedak'ac-i	man—woman.NOM	man and woman (p. 792)
10	mama—deda-Ø	father—mother.NOM	parents (p. 848)
11	mepe—dedopal-i	king—queen.NOM	**1** king and queen; **2** bride and groom (p. 872)
12	mepe—p'at'arʒal-i	groom—bride.NOM	bride and groom (p. 872)
13	siʒe—p'at'arʒal-i	groom—bride.NOM	bride and groom (p. 1166)
14	kal—važ-i	girl—boy.NOM	boy and girl (p. 1274)
15	kal-ian—k'ac-ian-ad	woman.with—man.with.ADV	everyone, man or woman (p. 1274)
16	kal—siʒe-Ø	daughter—son-in-law.NOM	daughter and son-in-law (p. 1274)
17	kal-q'rma-Ø	girl—boy.NOM	boy and girl (p. 1274)
18	kmar—col-i	husband—wife.NOM	husband and wife, married couple (p. 1284)
19	col-ian—kmr-ian-ad	wife.with—husband.with.ADV	husband and wife together (p. 1536)
20	col—kmar-i	Wife—husband.NOM	husband and wife (p. 1536)

As can be seen, the majority of the listed gender-marked (mixed-gender) binomials are female-preferential, specifically, 14 (70%) items; the remaining six (30%) are male-preferential. It should be noted that one of the latter belongs to Old Georgian: (10) mama—deda-Ø [father—mother.NOM 'parents'] (it is adequately tagged in the dictionary: *OG* (Rayfield et al., 2006, p. 848)); another one (18) kmar—col-i [husband—wife.NOM 'husband and wife'] is an occasional coinage; and, finally, three of them are synonyms: (11) mepe—dedopal-i [king—queen.NOM 'king and queen; bride and groom'], (12) mepe—p'at'arʒal-i [groom—bride.NOM 'bride and groom']; (13) siʒe—p'at'arʒal-i [groom—bride.NOM 'bride and groom']. Moreover, there are some mixed-gender, female-preferential binomials in Georgian which do not appear in the dictionary; e.g.

(21) biʒa—bicola-Ø

uncle—uncle's wife.NOM

uncle (by blood) and his wife

(22) dedamtil—mamamtil-i

(woman's) mother-in-law—(woman's) father-in-law.NOM

(woman's) mother-in-law and (woman's) father-in-law

(23) sidedr—simamri-i

(man's) mother-in-law—(man's) father-in-law.NOM

(man's) mother-in-law and (man's) father-in-law

Hence, the actual ratio of female-preferential dvandvas in Modern Georgian is much higher.

Now we have to take a look at how these mixed-gender binomials are translated into English, paying attention to the order of constituent stems. The female-preferential items will first be explored:

Table 2. Female-preferential binomials

No	Mixed-gender binomial	Gloss	Translation as in (Rayfield et al., 2006)
1	gogo—bič'-eb-i	girl—boy.PL.NOM	girls and boys (p. 431)
2	da—ʒma-Ø	brother—sister.NOM	brother and sister; sibling(s) (p. 598)
3	dedaber—mamaber-i	old woman—old man.NOM	old man and old woman; elderly couple (p. 614)
4	dedal—mamal-i	female—male-NOM	male and female (p. 614)
5	ded—mama-Ø	mother—father.NOM	mother and father (p. 615)
6	dedobil—mamobili-i	foster mother—foster father.NOM	foster parents (p. 615)
7	dedul—mamul-i	maternal bequest—paternal bequest.NOM	heirlooms, parent's heritage (p. 615)
8	dobil—ʒmobili-i	girl/woman like a sister—boy/man like a brother.NOM	people who are like brother and sister (*to sb*) (p. 623)
14	kal—važ-i	girl—boy.NOM	boy and girl (p. 1274)

15	kal-ian—k'ac-ian-ad	woman.with—man.with.ADV	everyone, man or woman (p. 1274)
16	kal—siʒe-Ø	daughter—son-in-law.NOM	daughter and son-in-law (p. 1274)
17	kal-q'rma-Ø	girl—boy.NOM	boy and girl (p. 1274)
19	col-ian—kmr-ian-ad	wife.with—husband.with.ADV	husband and wife together (p. 1536)
20	col—kmar-i	wife—husband.NOM	husband and wife (p. 1536)

Only three of them are translated into English as female-preferential binomials:

gogo—bič'-eb-i

girl—boy.PL.NOM

girls and boys

(5) ded—mama-Ø

mother—father.NOM

mother and father

(16) kal—siʒe-Ø

daughter—son-in-law.NOM

daughter and son-in-law

Two of them are translated in generic, that is, non-gender-specific, terms:

(6) dedobil—mamobili-i

foster mother—foster father.NOM

foster parents

(7) dedul—mamul-i

maternal bequest—paternal bequest.NOM

heirlooms, parent's heritage

The rest of them, that is, nine items, are translated as male-preferential binomials:

da—ʒma-Ø

sister—brother.NOM

brother and sister, sibling(s)

dedaber—mamaber-i

old woman—old man.NOM

old man and old woman, elderly couple

dedal—mamal-i

female—male.NOM

male and female

(8) dobil—ʒmobili-i

girl/woman like a sister—boy/man like a brother.NOM

people who are like brother and sister (*to sb*)

(14) kal—važ-i

girl—boy.NOM

boy and girl

(15) kal-ian—k'ac-ian-ad

woman.with—man.with.ADV

everyone, man or woman

(17) kal—q'rma-Ø

girl—boy.NOM

boy and girl

(19) col-ian—kmr-ian-ad

wife.with—husband.with.ADV

husband and wife together

(20) col—kmar-i

wife and husband.NOM

husband and wife

Among the three Georgian female-preferential items maintaining the gender-specific order in their English translations ((1), (5), (16)), one ((5)

ded—mama-Ø 'mother and father') is the easiest to explain; according to corpus-based studies, the variant *mother and father* is favored today while *father and mother* is contemporarily less favored (Motschenbacher, 2013, p. 223; Mollin, 2014, pp. 131-132; Kesebir, 2017, p. 59). As for (16) (*kal—siʒe-Ø* 'daughter and son-in-law'), these conjuncts rarely occur within a natural coordination pattern in English; hence, it is the compilers' decision to provide an analytic translation.

It is more difficult to explain why (1) (*gogo—bič'-eb-i*) is translated as 'girls and boys', as neither of the aforementioned causes can apply to this instance; however, one may consider the following circumstance: a number of gender-marked binomials "support the hypothesis of the feminist movement impacting on [ir]reversibility scores. Both *boy and girl* and *boys and girls* have complex non-linear histories, but both show abrupt and significant unfreezing trends from the 1970s (*boys and girls*) respectively 1980s (*boy and girl*) on" (Mollin, 2014, p. 162).

The fact that (6) and (7) are translated in generic, that is, non-gender-specific, terms can be accounted for by the circumstance that these conjuncts hardly occur within a natural coordination pattern in English; however, in this case the compilers did not provide analytic translations, but rather found generic equivalents to be more appropriate.

Finally, there are nine Georgian mixed-gender dvandvas with female-first preponderance: (1), (2), (3), (8), (14), (15), (17), (19), (20), which are translated into English as male-first binomials. This is in no way surprising if we consider the ratios in the orderings of pertaining conjuncts in contemporary English: they are overwhelmingly male-preferential (Reich, 2005; Motschenbacher, 2013; Mollin, 2014; Hegarty, 2014; Kesebir, 2017).

Now mixed-gender binomials with male-first preponderance should be discussed, which – as has already been noted – are relatively few in Modern Georgian.

Table 3. Male-preferential binomials

No	Mixed-gender binomial	Gloss	Translation as in (Rayfield et al., 2006)
9	k'ac—dedak'ac-i	man—woman.NOM	man and woman (p. 792)
10	mama—deda-Ø	father—mother.NOM	parents (p. 848)
11	mepe—dedopal-i	king—queen.NOM	**1** king and queen; **2** bride and groom (p. 872)

12	mepe— p'at'arʒal-i	groom— bride.NOM	bride and groom (p. 872)
13	siʒe— p'at'arʒal-i	groom— bride.NOM	bride and groom (p. 1166)
18	kmar—col-i	husband— wife.NOM	husband and wife, married couple (p. 1284)

Only one item is translated in a generic term:

(10) mama—deda-Ø

mother—father.NOM

parents

Two of them are translated as male-preferential binomials:

(9) k'ac—dedak'ac-i

man—woman.NOM

man and woman

(18) kmar—col-i

husband—wife.NOM

husband and wife

Two items are translated as female-preferential binomials:

(12) mepe—p'at'arʒal-i

groom—bride.NOM

bride and groom

(13) siʒe—p'at'arʒal-i

groom—bride.NOM

bride and groom

Finally, a very illustrative entry will be focused upon; it is illustrative because the Georgian binomial in point has two meanings and, hence, two translations are provided. Notably, in translation, the former appears as a male-preferential binomial and the latter as female-preferential:

(11) mepe—dedopal-i

king—queen.NOM

1 king and queen

2 bride and groom

This category is the most illustrative of the tendency that, in translations, the Dictionary (Rayfield at al., 2006) maintains the ordering patterns prevalent in contemporary English. As for the valid ordering patterns, they are vividly demonstrated in various corpus-based studies. For instance, based on frequency queries in BNC, Mollin (2014) provides the following irreversibility scores: *mother and father* – 63.38 (p. 236), *man and woman* – 95.92 (p. 229), *husband and wife* – 97.83 (p. 227), *bride and groom* – 100.00 (p. 225), *king and queen* – 100.00 (p. 224). Thus, the Georgian mixed-gender asyndetic binomials (dvandvas) are accompanied not just by their English translations but, in addition, it is possible to view how the English equivalents, appearing as coordinating conjuncts linked by means of the conjunction *and*, are structured and ordered in accordance with gendered preponderance prevalent in actual usage.

Conclusion

The aim of this present paper was to mine *A Comprehensive Georgian-English Dictionary* (Rayfield et al., 2006) for Georgian mixed-gender (gender-marked) asyndetic binomials and for their English translations. It is due to the fact that in Modern Georgian they appear asyndetically, that is, as co-compounds (dvandva, copulative, coordinating compounds), that they can be easily searched for in Georgian dictionaries, including bilingual ones.

Another aim of the paper was not to address ordering constraints in Georgian and English mixed-gender binomials, but rather to examine how the compilers treated the existing ordering preferences in translation. This is particularly significant with respect to the fact that Georgian mixed-gender asyndetic binomials are irreversible and mostly female-preferential, while English mixed-gender syndetic binomials are POCs (Preferred Order Constructions) and mostly male-preferential. As a result, it has been established that the English translations retain preponderances peculiar to present-day usage in the English language, even if their Georgian counterparts display the reverse ordering pattern. Thus, with respect to how consistently the Georgian and English mixed-gender binomials are represented in *A Comprehensive Georgian-English Dictionary* (Rayfield et al., 2006), it can therefore be stated that the dictionary in question provides

rather adequate information on the language- and culture-specific phenomena in point. Hence, as a reliable source for such kind of information it, and generally all other dictionaries with similar representations, may have positive implications for the study and teaching/learning of gender-related aspects of language, particularly in terms of recent tendencies and endeavors for the promotion of gender neutrality in English, involving some aspects associated with word order.

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A Corpus-Based Analysis of Seemingly Synonymous Adjectives (*Small* and *Little*)

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This small-scale corpus-based pilot study investigates the use of the seemingly synonymous words 'little' and 'small'. The aim is to better understand the actual usages of these two words in order for second language (L2) learners and teachers of English to know to use the two words appropriately in different contexts. These words are studied in the written and spoken corpora derived from the BNC (British National Corpus). In the written corpus, two registers of academic prose and fiction are investigated separately. To determine whether there is any difference between their patterns of use, corpus-based lexico-grammatical analyses are performed. The frequency lists of all words are studied to find the number of their occurrences in each corpus and register separately. The collocation lists are observed for the most frequently recurring right collocates of each word, and finally, the concordance lists provide us with information about the attributive and predicative patterns of use that can be found for each word. The investigation shows that there are certain distinct patterns which are used by these seemingly-synonymous words. *Small* and *little* refer to the physical size of objects, but *little* has a wider range of use in which it identifies the characteristics of described objects. *Small* as an attributive adjective tends to co-occur with nouns identifying quantities to refer to amounts and proportions, while the use of *little* in an attributive position tends to be associated with abstract nouns to show their amounts ('not much'). Both of them are used more in an attributive position than in a predictive position. Better understanding the distinction of expressing these two synonymous words will facilitate English learning and teaching as a second language (and foreign language) for different L1 learners (e.g. Vietnamese learners).

Introduction

To be successful in second language (L2) learning, it is important that students know how to use words appropriately. However, if L2 learners are only given the rules of certain words or grammar points, they might simply learn the words by heart but not the usage. In addition, L2 teachers also need exemplifiers to observe and analyse how the language is being used. This relates to the way of teaching to help students understand how to use certain words appropriately. In this case, corpora can provide L2 teachers with the texts to observe lexical information and structures in authentic contexts.

For L2 English learners whose mother tongue (L1) is Vietnamese, it can be challenging; as Vietnamese expressions do not have English equivalents and vice versa, such as near synonymy. Near synonymy is defined as nearly "semantic closeness" (Cruise. A. 2004:156), as near synonymous words share the core meaning but they may vary in "grammatical or collocational constraints" (Inkpen, D. & Hirst, G. 2006: 223). Actually, "partial synonymy defines sets of near-synonyms" and "words are partially synonymous if they are suitable in one or more but not all of their readings" (Geeraerts, D. 2010:84-85).

There is no distinction between the words *small* and *little* in Vietnamese, with both translating to nhỏ. Knowledge of such semantic phenomena is vital, especially in lexical and grammatical choices. Knowing about a word's most common collocates helps one to make a correct decision on its various contextual uses. Collocation "is the tendency of words to keep company with each other" (Halliday, M.A.K, et al. 2004: 11). This study aims to investigate the use of the near-synonymous adjectives *small* and *little*, to uncover the systematic differences in their grammatical and lexical associations and their patterns of use. This will facilitate L2 English learning and teaching when expressing *small* and *little* in English appropriately.

Background

Characteristics of the adjectives, *small* and *little* in English

Small and *little* are "central adjectives". "Central adjectives are defined by their morphological, syntactic and semantic characteristics" (Biber, D. et al. 1999:505). *Small* and *little* are descriptive in meaning, typically denoting size (Biber, D. et al. 1995 and Huddleston*, R. & G. K. Pullum 2005). They are gradable in meaning in which they can "denote degrees of a given quality", as in *very small* and *very little*. They are used in both attributive and predicative positions. Attributive adjectives precede the head of the

nouns as in 1a, 1b. Predicative adjectives can be both "subject predicative following a copular verb" as in 2a and 2b, and "object predicative" (Biber, D. et al. 1999:505) as in 2c - "There is co-reference between direct object and object complement" (Quirk, R et al. 1972: 247)

1a. He had brought in a **small** bottle of liquid (Fiction)

1b. There **is little** reason to doubt them (Academic prose)

2a. Obviously if the group **is small**, its chances of success may be badly damaged by one individual not joining (Academic prose)

2b. You know more songs at your age than what I ever knew when **I was little** (Conversation)

2c. We'd have other ones as well but just to show this particular example just to keep it small I'll **make it small.** (Conversation)

Additionally, *small* is inflected morphologically as in *small, smaller, smallest*, but this is not the case for *little*. This is summarised in Table 1, below.

Table 1. Defined characteristics of the near- synonymous adjectives (Based on the framework of Biber, D. et al. 1999:507)

Near-synonymous adjectives	Morphol. inflection	Attributive role	Predicative role	Descr. meaning	Gradable
Small	+	+	+	+	+
Little	-	+	+	+	+

Hypotheses

Considering the frequencies and the collocations of *small* and *little*, *little* refers to the physical size of things while the adjective *small*, on the other hand, refers to amounts or quantities of something.

The two adjectives are used more in the attributive position than in the predicative position, and they have lexico-grammatical differences in their contextual preferences in the two positions.

Collocation and concordances provide L2 teachers in Vietnam with authentic samples in order to observe how the near-synonymous adjectives are being used, and hence enhance L2 teaching and learning.

Methods

The corpus in this study is taken from the BNC (British National Corpus) which is a 100-million-word corpus of British English. The adjectives (*small* and *little*) are studied and compared in both the written and spoken domains. In order to have a more detailed comparison for the use of adjectives, two registers are chosen for the written domain, which are academic prose and fiction. Academic prose includes engineering, humanities, law, medicine, natural science, and social science, which altogether are 15,331,668 words. The fiction part includes drama, poetry and prose which altogether are 15,909,312 words. Therefore, the whole written corpus includes 31,240,980 words. The spoken corpus is not specified into different sub-registers because it is compared with the whole written corpus. The spoken corpus, as a whole, includes 9,963,663 words.

The first quantitative analysis conducted is frequency analysis, which determines the number of occurrences of each adjective in each register and domain.

One pattern which can be inferred from studying the adjectives "*little*" and "*small*", in both written and spoken corpus, is 'attributive' vs 'predicative' positions. This is also frequency analysis, which determines the occurrences of *small* and *little* that are tagged as attributive and predicative adjectives. The investigation of these lexico-grammatical associations requires the incorporation of both "automatic and human analytical techniques" (Biber, D et al. 1998: 87) to omit the non-adjectival patterns. In this study, I simply construct queries to tag *small* and *little* as attributive (adjective + noun) and predicative adjectives (noun phrase + copula verb + adjective) across registers. I also examine the sample concordance lists with a KWIC (key word in context) of the two adjectives carefully and identify them as attributive and predicative. The KWIC file is "an efficient way to check the accuracy of the tagging because both the tag and the context are easy to see" (Biber, D et al. 1998:87). The concordance lists which are investigated in this study are taken randomly. However, with the "automatic tagger" and human analyses of the large corpus in this study, I cannot completely omit the examples which cannot be tagged as attributive or predicative. It cannot reach 100 percent accuracy but, to some extent, it does not affect the results to a significant extent.

Analyses and Results

The corpus is accessed and searched via the BNC in which one can search concordance, collocation, and word frequency. Raw counts can be

misleading, as there are different numbers of words, usages and texts across the registers, so computing "normed rates of occurrence" is necessary – "that is, the rate at which a feature occurs in a fixed amount of text" (Biber, D. & Conrad, S. 2009: 62).

"Normed rate = (raw count/total word count) * the fixed amount of text" (one-million words)

Table 2. Frequency of the adjectives in each sub-corpus

Sub-Corpus	*Small*		*Little*	
	Raw count	Normed count	Raw count	Normed count
Academic prose	6,754	440.53	5,859	382.15
Fiction	8,878	558.04	14,637	920.03
Written	15,632	500.36	20,496	656.06
Spoken	2,268	227.63	7,831	785.96

Normed counts show the frequency of *small* and *little* per one-million words.

Table 3. Frequency of *small* and *little* as attributive and predicative adjectives in each sub-corpus

Sub-Corpus	Attributive		Predicative	
	Raw count	Normed count	Raw count	Normed count
Academic prose				
Small	5,528	360	172	11.2
Little	3,054	199	33	2.1
Fiction				
small	6,386	401	139	8.7
Little	11,033	693	67	4.2
Written				
Small	11,914	381	311	9.9
Little	14,087	450	100	3.2
Spoken				
Small	1,761	176	32	3.2
Little	6,205	622	29	2.9

Figure 1. Distribution of attributive and predicative adjectives (small and little) across the registers
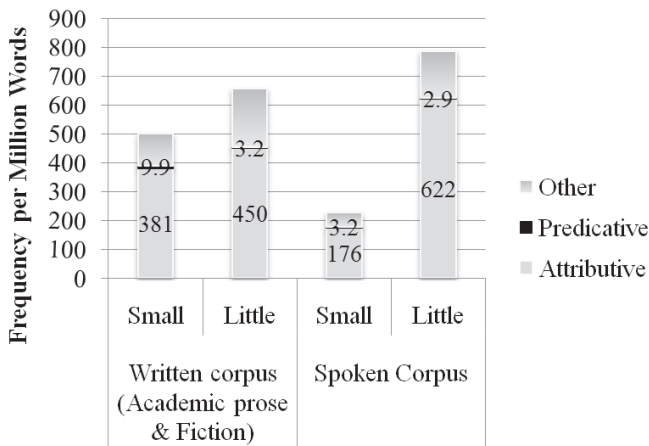

Table 2 presents the frequency of two studied adjectives (*small*/*little*) in the combined written. It is clear that the combined written corpus shows *little* to be the most common adjective (656.06 per million), followed by *small* (with frequency of 500.36 per million). In the fiction register, *little* has the highest frequency (920.03 per million), followed by *small* (with a frequency of 558.04). In academic prose, *small* (440.54 per million) appears more often than *little* (382.15 per million). In the spoken corpus, *little* has the highest frequency (785.96 per million), followed by *small* (227.63 per million). Between *small* and *little* in both the combined written and spoken corpus, *little* is the most commonly used per million.

Table 3 presents the normed frequency of *small* and *little* in attributive and predicative positions per million, and Figure 1 shows the distribution of attributive and predicative adjectives across the registers. It is obvious that *small* and *little* are used much more in the attributive pattern of use than the predicative in both domains. This shows "the heavy reliance on noun phrases to present information" (Biber, D et al. 1999: 506). In the combined written corpus, out of 785.96 - the normed frequency of *little* per million, 622 are considered attributive, while only 2.9 are considered predicative. Studying the adjective *small*, it can be observed that out of the frequency of 227.63 per million, 176 are considered attributive while only 3.2 are used as a predicative adjective. The same is also true of the spoken corpus. *Little* has the highest frequency (out of 785.96 per million, 622 are attributive

while only 2.9 are predicative), followed by *small* (out of 227.63 instances per million, 176 are considered attributive while only 3.2 are used as a predicative adjective). As we can see, the frequency difference between predicative and attributive positions for *small* and *little* is very large.

To see clearly why there are differences, we can compare the common collocations of the two adjectives. Collocates give insight into the meaning and usage of the adjectives.

The collocation lists here are observed in order to find the lexical associations to be different for *small* and *little*. At the same time, the grammatical association patterns for *small* and *little* interacting with the collocation associations and the concordances are observed to get the lexical meaning for the two adjectives in the attributive and predicative positions.

Small and *little* in the combined written corpus

Considering the frequencies and the correct collocations of each adjective, it can be observed that *small* as an attributive adjective tends to occur before concrete nouns to describe them. It has many common collocations in fiction that refer to the physical size of objects, such as *girl, boy, man, woman, house, car, room, village, garden, trees*. In addition, *small* is used with other descriptive adjectives such as *dark, blue, brown* and others like *fat, thin, old, modern, young,* and *old*. Considering the concordances of these pairings, it can be concluded that they, as well, refer to the physical size of objects. For example:

3. With panels of glass this size in such a **small room** there are bound to be problems.

She stepped forward and discovered, sitting at a desk which stood the right way up, a **small** dark **man**.

A **small** dark-haired **girl** -- she looked very much like you, actually -- was admitted during that Friday evening, after I went off duty…

On his left was a **small**, plump **girl** with round brown eyes which she blinked rapidly, as if smoke from the fire made them smart….

…and then of another, until there were footsteps and a **small** thin **man** hurried in, pushing back the strands of hair which had plastered themselves across his forehead. "Sorry, sorry to be late."

… Mungo found himself in a **small,** wild **garden** with a rickety greenhouse whose roof was as green as pond-slime.

At the bridge Moran and Rose changed to their own **small** blue **car** and the uncle drove the children home…

She told him to stop just after they had passed a **small**, modern **house** with a Mini Clubman parked in the drive.

He put one hand in his jacket pocket, and as he did so his bow tie lit up; the **small red stones** were really lights.

Additionally, *small* as an attributive adjective is used to show the quantity or amount of something, especially in academic prose. The top ten right collocations of *small* in academic prose include *number, group, proportion, amount, numbers*, etc.

4. imposed in situations where they do not apply or where they apply only to a **small number** of individuals within a group.

He gazed at the women, and the **small group** of people who had been in the tent when the councillor actually collapsed.

British health spending of 6 per cent of GDP is a **smaller proportion** than most other Western states.

For example, special needs teachers increasingly are working alongside their colleagues in ordinary classrooms, not just with a **small group** of children with special needs but with all children.

….an electric typewriter for the transfer of **small quantities** of data, a display unit for graphical presentation of results, and ….

Moreover, *small enough* is used in both registers to refer to the physical size of an object, as in the following examples. The normalised frequency of *small enough* in the written domain is 2.02 per million words.

5. ACA we have now developed the UOS sleeve sensor so that it is **small enough** for use in children

This procedure can be rigorously justified, but roughly speaking the linear flow in B is justified for B **small enough**,

Chewing on a lump of gristle in an effort to render it **small enough** to pass through her swollen throat, Evelyn thought back over her first meeting with Biff Thacker.

"…But where can we find a boat that's **small enough**?" "Leave that to me," she replied, and called for her workmen. She ordered them to make a tiny boat with sails.

Then she took something from the pocket of her one-piece. Something **small enough** to fold inside her palm.

Considering the frequencies and the right collocations of *little* as an attributive adjective, it can be observed that *little* also tends to occur before concrete nouns to describe them. Although the use of little in fiction is somehow the same as *small* when talking about size, they both have common words as their right collocates such as *girl, man, boy, room, house*. However, there are times when only *small* would be appropriate to refer to physical size of an object while *little* is more about age and can, in addition, be used to identify characteristics of the described noun. For example:

Little in reference to age

6. You may be a dragon, but I am a child. I am just a **little girl**, I haven't even started my periods yet and little girls can tantrum louder and then can sulk deeper than anything else in the universe.

Do you know, three times a week a nurse comes, and helps me to bathe myself! I don't mind; it is rather like being a **little girl** again.

On their way across the churchyard Mrs Hollidaye pointed down to something on the ground. "That's my baby, there," she said. "Oh, yes, I had some fine sons. But this one was my **little girl**. She lived six hours. Such a fleeting while."

Once upon a time, when Daddy was a **little boy**, he used to wake in the night and cry.

Little identifies the objects' characteristics: In this case, *little* is often used with another adjective (ex. *poor, stupid*, etc.) to express an emotion.

7. Help the **little girl** out of her coat. Poor child, looks more dead than alive.

"…. Poor **little boy**. I will love him, Lily, like this," and Pen gave her a strangling hug so that she gasped and laughed and begged to be released.

"What's happy about it, you stupid **little man**!" she cried. "Don't you realise that it's the last Christmas most of you in here are ever likely to see?" "Wasn't that a terrible thing to say to anyone?"

The **little man** giggled in pleasurable anticipation and drew his knife as if across Trent's throat. "I leave his body, big cat eat him." Louis indicated his approval with a slight wave of his handkerchief.

That poor **little man**, what's he called? The one who's supposed to have shot that Englishman? He doesn't look capable of harming a fly;

In academic prose, *little* as an attributive adjective is also used to refer to quantities or amounts, especially for uncountables and a few countables, while *small* needs to go together with nouns indicating quantities (as in Table 4). For example:

8. This calculation may look cumbersome, but it takes very **little time** and provides record storage positions very effectively.

…he would throw in a sensible remark about the funding of the National Health Service, or the **small amount of time** GPs can offer patients

….there is **little information** about the pathophysiology of diarrhoea because of chronic radiation enteritis.

On the other hand, on a computer screen you can only see a **small amount of information** at any given time, whereas with index cards you can lay them out across a table or on the floor for an overview.

Table 4. Ten most common right collocates of small and little in the academic prose from the BNC (normalised frequency per million words)

Little		*Small*	
Right collocate	Freq. per million	Right collocate	Freq. per million
doubt	10.83	number	19.24
evidence	10.04	group	12.20
attention	6.0	proportion	9.13
difference	4.37	groups	7.24
time	4.04	numbers	5.09
use	3.59	minority	4.57
effect	3.26	scale	4.24
impact	3.20	part	4.11
interest	3.13	amount	4.04
difficulty	3.07	amounts	3.33

Little as a predicative adjective is very rare in the combined written corpus. Only the phrase *was/were little* is common, which can be seen in the concordance list of fiction domain which shows the age of the persons being described (2.3 times per million)

9. I used to play hide and seek in them when I **was little**, with me Dad. Some of them don't have a doorway. (Fiction)

"There was a woman lived in Hall cottages when you girls **were little,"** said Mrs Newman, "used to feed her family on cat food"

Small and *little* in the combined written corpus

Regarding the spoken corpus, the use of predicative *small* is similar to that of the written corpus in which it refers to the physical size of the described nouns. *Small enough* in the spoken domain is not as common as in the written domain. The normalised frequency of *small enough* in the spoken domain is 0.80 per million words. It occurs 12.2 times less than its occurrence in the written domain, but it also refers to physical size.

10. …and she's, she's really quite **small**, cos Mike isn't… yeah, very tall.

Auntie? Oh, auntie was only **small**, similar to Eric. Well, about the same size as Nan, really.

…..And you don't need transport cos the village is *small* **enough**.

Meanwhile, there is only one occurrence of *little* as a predicative adjective that refers to the relative size of a person, as in:

11. Yeah. I used to love driving that around, it was that long, me sat behind the wheel I looked like a dot in that! Made me **look little**!

The attributive use of *little* refers more to age and characteristic identification that convey an emotional factor, as follows:

12. …. Mm. A woman and her **little** girl, a tiny little girl, about four I should think

I with integrity can offer to any parents who come to me with a, a, a lovely **little** baby in their arms saying to me …….

He goes I swing him round, his head goes I say dance with mum. Poor **little** devil. I drag him round. I'd dance with my dog but he's so bloody heavy though.

Little in 12a is more about the age of the girl. *Little* in 12b can indicate both the age and size of the baby, but it carries an emotional factor with *lovely.* Additionally, *little* in 12c seems to transfer another signal - pity with *poor.*

Considering the attributive adjective *little*, *little bit* is a pair which has 1,374 occurrences in spoken corpus which refers to the amount of something, as in the following examples (13). Meanwhile, *small* is used in spoken domain to refer to the amount or quantity of something, but the top-most collocates are *numbers, scale, extent, amount, proportion, amounts*, etc., which is similar to the written domain.

13. … ***Little bit*** further. ***Little bit*** further. Yes, it's not very far

… That just puts it a ***little bit*** in context!

… be able to get some money from my parents a ***little bit***. Mm!...

…Yes they're gonna have a ***little bit*** of a problem Leicester.

… rather than actually talking about too much and then a ***little bit*** of action later…

Discussion and Conclusion

Near-synonymous adjectives are not totally similar in their meaning when their actual patterns of use are analysed empirically. This small corpus-based lexico-grammatical study, as a pilot study about *little* and *small*, shows that these two adjectives are used more in the attributive position than in the predicative position. *Small* tends to characterise the physical size of an object, while *little* identifies a characteristic of the noun being described. The corpus-based analysis used here has shown each adjective's own preferred collocates and different senses across the combined written corpus (fiction and academic prose) and spoken corpus.

Investigating the collocation lists interacting with attributive and predicative positions, the sample concordances of each adjective, one can infer that *small* refers to the physical size of things. In both domains, *small enough* – which is one of the most common collocate pairs for *small* as a predicative adjective – refers to the amount or size of something. The attributive use of *small* co-occurs in both domains with nouns identifying quantities that compose a class of collocation referring to amount or proportion. *Little* is also used to refer to the size of concrete nouns, but it has a wider range of meanings, ranging from indicating the age to identifying characteristics of the described objects when it is used with other adjectives to transfer some emotional factors. In the attributive position, *little* provides a description for "an identifying characteristic" of the nouns rather than to identify the "smallness" of the objects being described, which is a typical meaning for *small* in a predicative position (Biber, D. et al. 1998: 93-94). *Little* as an attributive adjective is also used to show amounts,

typically for abstract nouns to mean 'not much' as in *little doubt, little hope, little attention* and in the collocation *little bit*. That is why the frequency of *little* is more than *small* across registers, but *little* in a predicative position is very rare in comparison with *small* as a predicative adjective referring to physical size.

Knowing about the use of near-synonyms is helpful for both learners and teachers in a way that they can understand how words are actually used, in addition to their simple meanings. "This was a useful start to get the teachers to think about a word not in isolation but in terms of their semantic preferences" (Sinclair, J. 2004:46). In the context of second language teaching in Vietnam, it is important that L2 teachers try to help students to understand the meaning and the syntax of words not only isolation, but also in whole sentences with context. When they understand what sense *small and little* make in different situations and their different patterns of use, they will have fewer problems expressing something *small* or *little* appropriately.

However, as this investigation is a pilot study, it only touches the tip of the iceberg and cannot cover all aspects of the near-synonymous adjectives. It mainly shows how corpus-based lexico-grammatical study works in order to observe and analyse the different patterns of use and lexical meanings of *small* and *little*. As such, deeper investigations should be made on a larger scale.

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Nomads between Languages and Literatures

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This joint article focuses on the phenomenon of adopting a foreign language as the primary language for a writer's artistic expression (e.g. Samuel Beckett, Joseph Conrad, Ota Filip), and studies the incentives of the artist's literary code-switch. The writings of Czech-born authors choosing English as their means of literary creativity are considered, and individual reasons to opt for a non-mother tongue as a writer's literary language are studied. Aspects of literary theory concerned (multilingualism, self-translation) are discussed, along with literary and linguistic text analysis. The 20th century as well as contemporary writers (e.g. Ivan Blatný, Josef Škvorecký, Jan Křesadlo, and Jaroslav Kalfař) are viewed in the socio-historical context that has shaped their work. Linguistic analysis of lexis and grammatical structure seeks the interrelation of the Czech and English languages in the analysed texts of Josef Škvorecký and Jaroslav Kalfař.

Introduction

The matter of "nomads between languages and literatures" introduces the topic of emigration from the perspective of the individual's selection of an art language which does not correspond with the artist's mother tongue. We will also focus on categorising some aspects of emigration literature that have thus far eluded firm literary theory. The topic of emigration literature is one where both literary theory and linguistic analysis may overlap, as will be shown later in the text. Being a *nomad* suggests being in between one's

homeland together with one's mother tongue **and** the newly-acquired language / the new culture.

Exile literature has been vastly described in terms of its "produces", yet the volatile principles of the switch of one's literary language have remained unclear in many cases - partly also due to the fact that an exile's choice of a non-mother tongue as the language of their writing has deep psychological, socio-linguistic, cultural, and personal motivations.

The paper introduces literary theory that supports the context of exile literature, with examples mainly from authors of Czech origins.

The metaphor of "nomads between languages and literatures" has been borrowed from Ota Filip (2012), a Czech and German writer of the twentieth and twenty-first centuries, who found himself a nomad between cultures and tongues. However, his perspective is one of a writer, and suggests multiple ways of interpretation; Bartoš's view is more explicit: exile is a diaspora (in Hvížďala, 2013) and literary theory offers a more objective description of the authors in exile as "bi-cultural writers" (Cornejo, 2010).

The 20th century Czech exiles include three major periods of European and Czechoslovak history: the occupation of Czechoslovakia by Nazi Germany in 1939, and the period prior to the establishment of Protectorate of Bohemia and Moravia, the political changes of February 1948 when the democratic president Edvard Beneš resigned and the communist president Klement Gottwald took over and began the persecution of anti-communists within Czechoslovakia, along with the events of August 1968, when the Prague Spring was cut short by decisions formed in the Soviet Union. As suggested by many Czech intellectuals (Kroutvor, 1990; Tigrid, 1990), each wave of emigration had its own specifics and "behaviour" – the 1948 exiles hoped their time abroad would be limited, and the country would soon return to Masaryk's democracy, unlike the exiles after 1968 - who knew the post-war political changes in the country were irreversible; the differences in expectations were at the root of fatal misunderstandings between the 1948 and 1968 waves and their non-existing cooperation abroad. The reasons of emigration have been categorised into groups of "moral or political" (with exiles, among others, Jiří Kolář, Milan Kundera, Karel Kryl, Josef Škvorecký, Ivan Blatný, Ota Filip) "forced" (Jiří Gruša, Pavel Kohout, Vlastimil Třešňák), economic (including individuals expecting to live a life of more luxury and comfort than would ever be offered in a socialist country - and our paper will not cover the exiles belonging to the respective group), and "natural" – reasons for emigration that are very individual and not politically or economically motivated – and the classification applies with Jaroslav Kalfař, whose writing in the English language has received high critical acclaim despite the fact that his mother tongue is not English but

Czech. As will be shown further in the text, his English writing consists of many a Czech word, and thus represents a writer's signature.

After November 1989 (the so-called Velvet Revolution, which brought democracy to the country with Václav Havel as the newly-elected president of Czechoslovakia and later the president of the Czech Republic/Czechia) many exiles opted to return to their motherland – and the theory offers the term re-emigration (which is not a core focus of our survey).

It should be noted that emigration statistics between the years 1968 and 1989 remain unclear (Vaculík, 2002).

Well-known writers known for the change of the language of their literature are many: Josif Brodskij, Vladimir Nabokov, Samuel Beckett, Jack Kerouac, Joseph Conrad, Ingeborg Bachmann, and many more, with a variety of motivations for their code-switch.

Within the Czech writing culture, there are authors who succeeded in changing their language of writing, but at the same time many authors never adopted a foreign language (which they often mastered) as the language of their art, or suffered from the loss of their readers (Ivan Binar, Karol Sidon, Viktor Fischl, Jaroslav Vejvoda, Jan Beneš, Karel Kryl, Karel Michal); with some having had rather tragic biographies due to their choice to flee their country.

To give examples of names of success within an adopted language, we may list the following writers: Jiří Gruša, Ota Filip, Milan Kundera, Libuše Moníková, Ivan Blatný, Josef Škvorecký, Gabriel Laub, Jaroslav Rudiš, and Jaroslav Kalfař, with each name representing an individual mixture of motivations, languages, and approaches to code-switching. Needless to say, writers are often in a complicated position when their works of art are to be translated "back" to their own mother tongue – Jiří Gruša was so critical of his works' translations that the only way for him was to start a new translation, eventually leading to him re-writing the text (considering the different audiences, environment, and atmosphere of the new culture); Jaroslav Rudiš, known in German-speaking countries through the translations of his work into German along with his authentic writing in German, takes the problem more as one of time management than philosophy of translation. Following his emigration, Milan Kundera stopped writing fiction in Czech, leading to the writer's purist attitude to his works being translated into Czech, therefore his works are not translated from French into Czech by either a translator or the author, producing another spectrum of problems, such as Czech fan (and therefore illegal) translations of the writer's texts due to an interest in the world-famous writer who chose to "turn his back" on the readers of his own nation and mother tongue. Josef Škvorecký continued writing in Czech as well as beginning to create in the

newly-acquired language (English), but also updated his Czech writing so that the Czech of his writing requires either a good grasp of the English language on the part of the reader, or an added glossary – excerpts of which will be shown later in the paper.

The practice of writers translating their own works is labelled self-translation. Many modern writers shared their beliefs concerning self-translation – Beckett's attitude of adopting French as his literary language because it was not his mother tongue, therefore he could write more simply (Winkler, 2014), is among the most widely-quoted examples.

On Emigration

Kroutvor, the philosopher of Slavonic emigration, reckons the exile of the Slavs to be of an introvert type, with the individuals clashed by their hope to return to one's homeland (Kroutvor, 1990), showing the grave aspects of the permanent state of living in emigration. Jiří Gruša (2016) spoke with more imagery when seeing emigration as a "national down-heaval" – as the opposite to the 19th century turbulent fights for the survival of the Czech language, referred to as the national upheaval (in Czech the pair creates its antagonism in the phrases národní odrození – národní obrození). Gruša finds the once-won fight for the protection of the language culminating in its very opposite when Czech writers were driven out of their language and culture and into foreign cultures and languages. For Gruša, to continue writing in exile was the only way of survival, as he was not allowed to reenter the ČSSR after having spent a year touring universities in the US. Being a writer, Gruša also adopts the German term for an exile (German: staatenlos, to be translated into English as "stateless"), (Gruša and Dobiáš, 2004), stressing the fact that to lose a country doesn't allow one to settle in a different country easily, if at all.

Miňhová and Novotná (2000) include the term "uprooting" (vykořenění) in their chapter on emigration from a psychological point of view. The term used by psychology scholars was denounced, in jest, by Ota Filip who did not accept being seen as an uprooted person, mainly as he refused to be seen as a tree. It needs to be remembered that Ota Filip's lifetime included a span of opinions on emigration (in his own memoirs, essays, and fiction), being unable to state if the experience had been positive or negative.

Said (2002) studied emigration in the modern world, suggesting that emigration is the counterpoint of existence, yet he stresses its necessity and realises its antagonism. Further studies conducted by Bronfen and Neumeier (2014) conclude that emigration as such remains either a metaphor of a

writer's work, or that the works become biographical through the experience of exile.

Gruša (2016) finds that he was literally "sacked" from a language, and notes that while leaving a language is always a challenge, being "sacked" from a minor language is a disaster. Gruša's writing covered a wide range of genres: prose, poetry, drama, philosophy, journalism, political narrative, and diplomatic speeches, which later often became essays – and Gruša was the strongest in essays and philosophy when writing in Czech, whereas his prose and poetry came out most enchanting when he used German (Kliems, 2002), a foreign language he gained through studying (as opposed to a bilingual upbringing, typical for writers such as Filip and Moníková).

Multilingual writing

Emigration writing often consists of text chunks in different languages (xenisms) and many examples are to be found in Kalfař, Gruša, and Filip, but also Blatný, Rudiš, and others. Busch (2013) finds that insertion in different languages into the base text is a frequent, perhaps inseparable element of modern literature. Where modern literature is multilingual almost by nature, literature in exile is prone to include a clash of languages and cultures within one text.

Multilingual writings have attracted attention of literary theorists as well as linguists who could not help noticing language problems in the languages used to pepper the base text (see Hemingway's use of Spanish) and another problem has arisen: was the bastardised language intended or not?

> A literary text itself possesses parameters revealing the identity of the creative personality. In the format of their texts, multilingual authors mirror their linguistically complex views of their lives. The use of multiple languages reflects the phenomena of uniqueness of existence within a society and within multiple language communities, while the stylistic and linguistic variation might disclose profoundly different types of literary universes (Kuznetsova et al. 2016).

The following paragraphs shall focus on two texts written by a pair of remarkable authors of Czech origin: Jaroslav Kalfař and his novel *Spaceman of Bohemia* (2017), and Josef Škvorecký's *Trip do Česka* (1991). The linguistic analysis of their characteristic literary language unlocks only a subtle part of the vast field of linguistic varieties available to bilingual authors. The reader obtains a profoundly different linguistic experience, being absorbed into the texts of the two gifted authors.

The first of the authors chose to leave an imprint of the Czech language shining through his text written in English. In Spaceman of Bohemia (2017), Jaroslav Kalfař benefits from his bilingual background in a very appealing manner. The English-speaking reader is hooked on a bittersweet reminiscence of romantic Prague, and the Czech people with their experience of communist oppression.

Jaroslav Kalfař, born in 1989 in former Czechoslovakia, moved to the USA at the age of 15, and at that time spoke no English. Kalfař graduated from the University of Central Florida and then went on to earn an MFA from New York University. His debut novel, Spaceman of Bohemia, a psychological sci-fi novel published in 2017, was well appreciated and praised. Kalfař wrote his novel in English, clearly targeting an English-speaking audience, but also making use of the Czech language in order to nestle the reader's experience into the multicultural paradigm.

Kalfař makes use of his bilingual identity to create a complex social linguistic picture within his text. The main character (Jan Procházka) relates himself to Czech realia, and his Czech origin defines the context of his past and future life. Kalfař uses Czech language to create an extra dimension of the main character's life, and shapes the reader's experience. The Czech language in his novel serves as a tool to achieve a well identifiable stylistically marked discourse utilising the language contrast. The bilingual character of Jaroslav Kalfař's Spaceman of Bohemia (2017) reveals itself on the level of nominal phrases (1) or scarce Czech sentences (2) used in the form of direct speech, while the structure of English remains untouched and the two languages are clearly kept apart.

1. Doktor Kuřák, Petřín hill, Škoda

2. I practiced my greetings: "ahoj lásko, …čau beruško..."

As mentioned above, Czech and English are used within the structure of nominal phrases combining a proper noun and a common noun. Kalfař uses Czech modifiers while the heads, the core parts of the phrases, remain English; thus, the phrase is clearly understandable to the English-speaking reader.
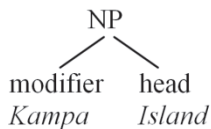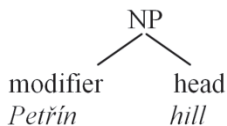
The author aims to ensure the English reader's understanding - compare the original proper nouns: Vrch Petřín, Ostrov Kampa.

The approach of Kalfař may be summarised as: *English first!* Original names are often abandoned in favour of an equivalent well known to the English speaking audience. *(compare: Wenceslas Square:* the original *Václavské náměstí*). Nevertheless he makes one exception in the case of The Charles University, mentioned in the text as *Univerzita Karlova*.

Kalfař (2017) uses Czech proper nouns. The spaceman's shuttle is named after a Czech medieval martyr: Jan Hus (Jan Hus 1), the main character remembers his favourite Prague landmark, "Petřín". It is the use of the Czech graphemes that creates the essence of authentic "Czechness". Kalfař keeps typical Czech diacritical marks /ˇ/and /´/ in Czech proper names (3). The use of the softening mark /ˇ/ is even more compelling as the author's own surname is pronounced with the thrilled alveolar "soft" consonant -*ř* typical in the Czech language.

3. Škoda, Hanuš, Mládek, Dr. Kuřák, Jan Procházka

Kalfař strategically aims his text at the English-speaking reader who is hooked on the strange essence of authentic "Czechness". Nevertheless, the realia are explained in order to keep the reader well informed (4).

4. Tatranka (a typical Czech sweet chocolate-coated waffle)

The Czech translation by Veronika Volhejnová (2017) abandons the unique contrast of the two languages presented in the original text by Jaroslav Kalfař (2017). It is understandable, but the loss of the second linguistic and cultural dimension results in a missing quality of a specific kind; the use of stylistically marked lexical items or a regional variant of the Czech language might have served as a tool with which to achieve this.

The second of the authors presented in these short linguistic notes is Josef Škvorecký - a remarkable writer, who spent most of his productive life in exile in Canada. Škvorecký published numerous novels, collections of detective stories, and wrote for film and television. His linguistic geniality was proven by his academic career. Škvorecký taught creative writing at the Department of English at the University of Toronto, and was appointed Professor Emeritus of English and film.

Škvorecký, in his outstanding text **Trip do Česka** (written in 1982, published in freed Czechoslovakia in 1991), united Czech and English, integrating the two languages into a stylistic masterpiece. The new language reflects the mind of a genius who perfectly mastered both language codes. Škvorecký clearly aims his text at Czech readers. The main character of the text and the narrator is a young man raised in bilingual conditions in a family of Czech emigrants in the USA. He narrates the text in clumsy, broken

Czech full of English-based borrowings inflected in the format of Czech language grammar.

Škvorecký (1991), a master of both Czech and English, coins the two languages and creates a masterpiece aimed at Czech readers hungry for all of that shiny Western world represented mainly by the English language. Škvorecký offers a specific blended discourse full of lexical play and humour. English and Czech mingle within the core of the language structures. Comprehension of the text presupposes the willingness of the reader to join in the game, while Škvorecký offers a concise dictionary accompanying the text as its appendix, called "*Amerikánsko-českoslovesník pro čtenáře ignorantní angličtiny"* (Americo-Czech dictionary for readers of ignorant English). The humour is achieved through the perfect-seeming, yet in reality very clumsy, transformation of English to colloquial Czech.

Grammar-based humour can be classified into several categories:

a) Tense and aspect:

"Jak jsem byl už několik časů říkající". The awkward translation of English mirrors the use of English tense and aspect – compare with the correct version: Jak jsem o tom již několikrát vyprávěl, translated into English: As I was already talking about it several times. The use of English tense and aspect is reflected in the literal translation into Czech, and the resulting structures may be classified as highly erroneous but still understandable to the Czech reader.

b) English nouns inflected through Czech declension:

Škvorecký utilises English words in the format of Czech inflection. Czech orthography is also blended with English spelling rules. The following examples clearly show Czech declension applied to English words spelled according to Czech orthography. English nouns enriched with Czech endings gain gender, number, and case meaning.

"Mnoho obrazů sajntů" - masculine, plural, genitive (many pictures of saints)

"Utekl od své wajfky" - feminine, singular, genitive (he ran away from his wife)

"Řekla kazina" - feminine, singular, nominative (the cousin said)

"Kvantity piva z botlí" - neutral, plural, genitive (quantities of bottled beer)

"Síťové begy" - feminine, plural, nominative (net bags)

"Trpěl diarejí" - feminine, singular, instrumental (suffered from diarrhoea)

"Ze svého plejtu" - masculine, singular, genitive (from his plate)

c) English verbs woven into Czech conjugation.

"Služko, jeloval oficír" - past tense, singular, masculine (he yelled)

"Dědeček se pečlivě rozhlédl a pak zawhisproval" - past tense, singular, masculine (he whispered)

d) Lexical humour present in the literal, awkward translation from English to Czech:

"Neviděl jsem vodu pít takovou cestou." - I had not seen anyone drink in such a way.

"Řídili jsme k domu na vesnice čtverci." - We were driving towards the house in the village square.

"Sirotek od věku osm" - An orphan from the age of eight.

"Šla přes mě šílená. Jednoduše se mnou spadla do lásky." - She went crazy about me. She simply fell in love with me.

"…a zatwistovala dnem" - and she twisted her bottom.

e) Škvorecký creates phonological humour using the sound structure of English words transcribed via Czech graphemes.

subžekt - subject

frýzer - freezer

tývý - TV

branš - brunch

poup John Paul II - pope

sejl - sale

Lívajsky - Levis jeans

šůr - sure

džadž - judge

e) Finally, the Czech language is also made a source of lexical humour. The main character's dubious mastery of Czech is reflected in frequent mistakes based on:

1 Phonology: přectavoval (verb) - the erroneous form reflects child-like pronunciation of the verb představoval.

2 Neologisms: tentvoj/tentvojovi (noun) - original version of the demonstrative and possessive pronoun: ten tvůj, obviously resulting from the ellipsis based on the noun phrase: ten tvůj chlap/muž, very frequently shortened only to "ten tvůj", functioning as a noun in colloquial Czech.

3 Erroneous forms of Czech words: vlastnitel prasové farmy (owner of a pig farm), the correct form of which would be: vlastník prasečí farmy.

Škvorecký (1991) approached the language codes with humour and wisdom. A parallel might be seen between *Trip do Česka* and *The Education of Hyman Kaplan* by Leo Rosten, published under the pseudonym Leonard Q. Ross (1968). The wordplay offers kind and witty joy presented in the mingling of language codes.

Both of the above discussed texts written by Czech authors are characterised by different approaches to the use of multiple languages, and their authors (Kalfař and Škvorecký) represent unique literary formats. The stylistic and linguistic variation between the texts reveals extensive choice in representing the Czech language, and its imprint on the resulting text.

Conclusion

The article focused on "nomads between languages and literatures" and introduced the topic of emigration from the perspective of the individual's selection of an art language which does not correspond with the artist's mother tongue, as well as on the phenomenon of adopting a foreign language as the primary language for a writer's artistic expression. The writings of Czech-born authors choosing English as their means of literary creativity were discussed, together with individual reasons to opt for a non-mother tongue as a writer's literary language. Aspects of literary theory were explored, along with literary and linguistic text analysis of lexis and grammatical structure. The interrelation of Czech and English languages in the texts of Josef Škvorecký and Jaroslav Kalfař was briefly analysed.

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Parasitic Language and Language Abuse: The Case of Camfranglais in Cameroon

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It is not a new phenomenon that in a multilingual community like Cameroon, social contacts are bound to give rise to new language varieties. This paper looks at Camfranglais- basically a mixture of the two official languages, English and French and some Cameroonian local languages and Cameroon Pidgincreole, which has come to spice the speech of some young Cameroonians. This paper looks at this interesting language that owes its existence largely to the English and French lexis as an exclusive code devised consciously by these users as an in-group language. 120 youths, 60 Anglophones and 60 Francophones aged about 15 to 25, were used for this study. These were a mixture of university and secondary school students in Yaounde. Interviews were conducted to find out whether or not speakers of Camfranglais observe its influence on their use or English and French. More than 70% of Camfranglais speakers claim that it makes it difficult for them to learn English and French. If the speakers' claim is valid, what makes them keep speaking a language that is affecting them? This exploratory study attempts an answer to this question and also recommends that intentional motivational measures should be put in place to encourage the learning of English and French without necessarily compromising the use of Camfranglais as it is a sociolinguistic aspect that has come to stay.

Introduction

This study is an exploratory research that seeks to gain more inside into the language that has come to swell up the number of languages that give Cameroon the appellation a multilingual state. It seeks to find out whether or not the use of Camfranglais by young Cameroonians has any effect on

their mastery and use of the two official languages to which it partly owes it being. It further examines Camfranglais in the light of Christiansen and Kirby's (2003, P. 4) view that "in some important sense, all languages are equal".

Camfranglais is basically a language for fun, as it users manipulate the donor languages without respecting most of their grammatical rules, and then discuss issues of interest pertaining to young people. This study agrees with Mbangwana (2006, P. 225) that "slanguage", as he calls it, permits young Cameroonians to be creative; it praises the stylish innovative use of this language, but raises fear about its users, the majority of whom have high knowledge only of one of the source languages (English or French). This observation makes this study question whether Camfranglais may not simply be another hindrance to the learning of English and French, according to the opinion of those who see Cameroon Pidgincreole as a problem. If Cameroon Pidgincreole English, which has existed in Cameroon for over five hundred years, is still considered a "bad" form of language by some Cameroonians – as reported by Fonka (2019, 2014a & 2014b), Awah (2007), Tchoungui (1977) – this new mishmash of languages is likely to exacerbate the problems purported to have been caused by Cameroon Pidgincreole. This language builds itself by making use among others, of the so-called bad language of Pidgincreole. Biahé (2017, P. 39) buttresses this when he says "outre les emprunts au français et à l'anglais caractéristiques de ces parlers, le Camfranglais tire ses ressources linguistiques du pidgin-English camerounais, des langues camerounaises…" (beside the borrowings from French and English that characterise this language, Camfranglais gets its linguistics resources from Cameroon Pidgin English, Cameroonian languages…").

Background

Although Camfranglais has been given various appellations by different scholars, its definition points to the fact that it is spoken in many cities of Cameroon by many young people. Echu (2006) defines Camfranglais as "a mixture of French, English and indigenous languages, it is a secret code for intragroup communication while remaining virtually incomprehensible to non-speakers". This idea is further pointed out by Carole de Feral (n.d.), though she looks at this slang exceptionally as a Francophone variety. She remarks that:

le camfranglais est un 'parler jeune' pratiqué par les Francophones

the camfranglais is a speech youth used by the francophone

Camerounais en milieu urbain, dans un pays ou les deux langues officielles,

Cameroonians in setting urbans, in a country of the two language officials

l'anglais et le français, se superposent à près de 280 languesethniques et

English and the French, be superimposed to near of 280 languages ethnic and

au pidgin – english.

on pidgin English.

(Camfranglais is a youthful form of speech practised by Francophone Cameroonians in urban centres, in a country where the two official languages, English and French, are combined with about 280 ethnic languages and pidgin English.)

The exact origin of this relexified French, as Schröder (2007) calls it, seems somewhat unclear to researchers, because there is no particular or important occasion which provoked the emergence of this jargon. This point is further highlighted by Schroeder (2007), who posits that the origins of this language are as difficult to determine as its exact number of speakers is difficult to estimate.

 However, Kouega (2003, P. 511) points out that:

Camfranglais is a term that was coined by Professor Ze Amvela (1989) to differentiate between a new speech form that was developing in Cameroon and what was then known as Franglais, the unconscious transference of English items into French – including code mixing and code switching – by bilinguals in Canada and France.

 What we should note here is that the transmission of English items into French in Cameroon is not unconscious, as highlighted in the citation above about the case of Canada and France. This paper does not in any way claim that this youthful jargon is bad because it has no origin. I do not look at language from the origin but rather, I support Malinowsky's (1935) assertion that the main function of language is to express thought, not to duplicate processes, but to play an active pragmatic part in human behaviour. This, nevertheless, still places a responsibility on this work to determine whether this language, in expressing its thought, is not in one way or another taking precedent over one of the official languages. Moreover, it is good to know how important some of these new languages are, especially those which do not meet the needs of all age groups in a society – such as

Camfranglais – as existing languages which cut across all age groups could suffer from their implantation in the linguistic landscape. This is only acceptable when we agree with Calvet (1998, P. 44) that all languages are equal, since they all descend from the pre-Babel language. He further argues that "even if some are 'more equal than others' this superiority does not come from the languages themselves but from their speakers, who have been able to improve them". This is supported by Mpoche (2006, P. 153), who states that "every language irrespective of its status, serves a bridge, a uniting force and instrument of interaction and identity among its speakers". Moreover, Wigwe (1990, P. 11) is of the opinion that no human language is known to have been unresourceful as to be incapable of expressing the thought and feelings of its users. Camfranglais actually fulfils the thoughts and feelings of its users wherever it is used in Cameroon. The users of this variety seem to enjoy it more than the official languages that are bound by ready-made rules which render innovation difficult.

The population of Camfranglais users is bound to increase as the years go by because, as Mbangwana (2006) points out, it is used for fun and youths are very comfortable with it. There is of course a justifiable reason for the existence of this language attached to the expression of thought, feeling, or identity because not all of its speakers speak CPc which performs the same role. Whether or not the mixture in this language can be considered language abuse depends on what the term language abuse means. This leads us to define some terms which will be used frequently in this paper.

Understanding Key Words

I will attempt to provide a definition of language abuse, parasitic varieties, and Camfranglais; three key terms used in this paper.

Language Abuse

The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English defines 'abuse' as 'wrong use'. Language abuse therefore is the wrong use of language. The languages we consider as being abused in this paper are English and French, the official languages of Cameroon. Words and expressions in these languages have been indiscriminately plugged and merged in a disorderly manner by some Cameroonian youths, most of whom come from the French-speaking part of the country. A kind of mixture is formed, which is difficult to refer to as code switching or code mixing. Code switching, according to Gumperz (1982, P. 59), is "the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different

grammatical systems or subsystems". This can take place in such as a manner that one person speaks in a different code and the response comes in another code. Code-mixing, meanwhile, occurs when a second language term is interposed into an utterance which remains in a first language. Some authors use the term code-mixing to refer to all intrasentential switches, recognising that the codes both occur in a single sentence frame (Downs 1998, P. 86). Though speakers of Camfranglais have some identical characteristics with those of code-switchers and code-mixers, having different bilingual proficiency in the two codes, switching only occurs where languages structurally overlap. As for Camfranglais, the words taken from English and French cannot also be considered borrowed, because they are not taken into another language, but are rather used as a language. This is surely the kind of mixture that led researchers to give it a blended name –Camfranglais; which can be literally translated as Cameroon French English. Language abuse, in my own point of view, is the situation whereby a well-organised language or languages are arbitrarily mixed for any communicative reason, or just for the fun of it. This paper does not in any way claim that borrowing from one language and applying it to another automatically results in language abuse.

Parasitic Varieties

A parasitic variety of a language can be defined as a language which depends on other languages or varieties for its lexicon. Any parasite that lives on an animal or plant owes its existence to the existence of the plant or animal. A parasitic variety of a language also depends on the lifespan of the language or the languages from which it gets its vocabulary. There are, however, some parasitic varieties of language which may continue to survive even when the main providers no longer exist. This is when they must have taken enough from the source(s) to enable them to evolve independently. This is the case of fully developed Pidgins like Cameroon Pidgincreole, also one of the sources from which Camfranglais enriches itself. These languages are like parasitic plants whose roots do not only end on the main plant, but parasites that grow on the stem and can manage to send their roots to the ground. In such cases, the death of the main provider may not always lead to the death of the parasite.

Camfranglais

Camfranglais, as Carole de Feral (n.d.) puts it, is "parler jeune", translated into English as "youthful speech". If the term Camfranglais is an

appropriate appellation for this variety, it means that it is a blend (Mbangwana 2006), meaning Cameroon, French-English variety. If it is a youthful variety, it is certainly a variety for Cameroonian youths. The question one cannot answer for sure is what percentage of Cameroonian youths really speak, or even know about the existence of, this variety in Cameroon. Again, one would like to know what percentage of youths claim that Camfranglais is their variety. According to Kouega (2003, P. 511-512), this language is actually spoken by "secondary school pupils when they want to freely communicate among themselves in the presence of other members of the community without the latter being capable of making sense of the linguistic interaction going on". In addition to the above citation, from personal observation I have noticed that young men use this language not only with the intention of eliminating the rest of the community from their conversation, but for pride. Even amongst themselves, they use this language quite regularly. It is very interesting to note that when these school pupils get to maturity they may no longer speak Camfranglais. This claim is validated by what I got from my informants, some of whom told me they do not speak Camfranglais because they are mature. It is therefore a generational language where the gap in the generation of it speakers determine how well or how often the language is spoken. This is really to show that this is a language used for fun and at some point the users, though they may still like it, prefer not to use it any longer because their social activities have changed with age.

Using language for fun is an important function in any living language and in the community that uses it. This paper, however, notes that young Cameroonians who speak this language are aware of its possible consequence on their learning of the official languages. Since they can bring in some hit and miss words from both the English and the French languages, they deceive themselves into believing that they are bilingual, only to discover at the end that they need to start all over. It will be difficult for them to go back and start learning languages they would have learned easily if they were not deceived by youthful exuberance. This kind of situation is a general problem in many bilingual societies, as Coulmas (2005) points out. He says that, in a bilingual community, people are faced with the problem of which language to use. He posits that in most cases "the answer is not that they choose either one language or the other, but rather that they select now portions of one language and then of the other, alternating back and forth" Coulmas (2005, P. 109). The result of such admixture as he says has often been termed a deficient and bastardised blend, which is certainly not a language worthy of that name. He further asserts that speakers involved in such communication practices are forced to do so because their

command of the languages involved is limited. Chinglish, "English with Chinese characteristics" (Yajung 1995, P. 51) is another blend used by youths which looks like Camfranglais. Yajung (1995) quotes Abercrombie (1963) who holds that Chinglish is 'foreign', ill-formed or even erroneous, and not 'comfortably intelligible'. The contrast, however, is that while Camfranglais is looked upon in this paper as a drawback to the learning of English and French given its composition, Chinglish is a necessary stage on the way to learning English.

Methodology

This study started with an observation I made with regards to the speaking of Camfranglais in Cameroon, especially in French Cameroon where I reside. Though I could not say exactly what ages they were, I noted that this language is mostly spoken by youths and by the time they get older, they gradually opt out of the language or speak it less frequently. Anglophones who speak Camfranglais are actually those who are close to their Francophone counterparts and can speak French well. To get data for this paper, I interviewed 120 youths, 60 Anglophones, and 60 Francophones. This interview took place on the campus of the University of Yaounde and on the streets of Yaounde where youths and students from different secondary schools were sampled at random and interviewed. This was during closing hours when students were relaxed and could answer questions. Each informant answered about 10 questions, but only four of them are going to be analysed because the others were not substantive questions and will not affect the analysis in any way. Only youths were interviewed because they are the ones who mostly use this language. I took 60 from the university and 60 from secondary schools. The analysis, however, did not take into consideration this distinction because it was only meant to ensure that youths of all ages were represented.

Presentation and Analysis of Data

Awareness of the existence of Camfranglais

The first question I asked them was to find if they were aware of the existence of a language called Camfranglais. Most of them knew Franglais, but did not know that it could also be called Camfranglais. I therefore used the two terms interchangeably so as to increase the chances of my informants understanding the kind of language under discussion. They were expected to answer only with a 'yes' or 'no'. Of the 60 Francophones

interviewed 54 were aware of the existence of this variety, while 6 were not aware. This gives 90% for those who were aware and 10% for those who were not aware. For Anglophones, 38 of the 60 youths were aware while 22 were not aware. This gives 63.3% for awareness and 36.7% for unawareness. This is presented in the table below:

Table 1. Awareness of the existence of Camfranglais

	options	yes	no	total
Francophone	No interviewed	54	06	60
	percentage	90%	10%	100%
Anglophone	No interviewed	38	22	60
	percentage	63.3%	36.7%	100%

The above is proof enough that Camfranglais is a well-known variety among Cameroonian youths. We should, however, know that both Anglophones and Francophones interviewed in this study are in the Francophone part of the country. The results obtained here would probably not be the same if interviews are carried out in a purely Anglophone region. I must admit that this information is not a true representation of the whole nation because the data was collected in Yaounde, where French is the day-to-day language of communication; whereas it is not very common among young people, especially in the Anglophone part of the country where there is less interaction between Francophones and Anglophones. Most youths in the Anglophone zone, in the outskirts of towns, would certainly not know that there is a language called Camfranglais.

Ability to speak Camfranglais

The next thing I sought to know from my informants was whether they speak the language. The following results presented in the table were gathered.

Table 2. Ability to speak Camfranglais

	options	yes	no	total
Francophone	No interviewed	46	14	30
	percentage	76.7%	23.3%	100%
Anglophone	No interviewed	20	40	30
	percentage	33.3%	66.7%	100%

From Table 2, 46 Francophones, giving a percentage of 76.7 answered 'yes' while 14 informants, giving a percentage of 23.3 answered 'no'. For Anglophones, 20 answered 'yes' while 40 answered 'no' giving a percentage of 33.3 and 66.7 respectively.

It can therefore be seen that more Francophones speak this variety than Anglophones. This justifies some of the comments I have already made in my analysis. Both the Francophone and the Anglophone Cameroonian youths speak Camfranglais, but in different proportions.

Like and dislike for Camfranglais

I was also interested in knowing whether they like the language they speak. 30 Francophones said they like it, while 30 said they do not like it. This gives 50% for each answer. For Anglophones' response to the same question, 24 answered 'yes' while 36 answered 'no'. This gives 40% and 60%, respectively. This can be seen in the table below.

Table 3. Like and dislike for Camfranglais

	options	yes	no	total
Francophone	No interviewed	30	30	60
	percentage	50%	50%	100%
Anglophone	No interviewed	24	36	60
	percentage	40%	60%	100%

If a general analysis of all the 120 students interviewed is made, it will be discovered that most of them do not like it, as attested by 55%, while 45¨% like it. If one compares the number of youths who are aware that Camfranglais has a negative effect on them, one will see that more Francophones are aware than Anglophones. This, of course, is due to the fact that more Francophones speak this language than Anglophones in Yaoundé and also because most young Anglophones, who already have English as their first language, equally have some kind of comfortable mastery of French due to their association with their Francophone friends. The last thing, which is the central issue in this discussion, was to know whether they were aware of the destructive effects of this language on their ability to learn French and English, given that this variety comes from both of them.

Here, 52 of the 60 Francophones answered 'yes' and only 8 answered 'no'. This gives 86.7 % for 'yes' and 13.3% for 'no'. As concerns Anglophones, 42 answered 'yes' while 18 answered 'no'. This gives 70%

and 30%, respectively. The table below is an illustration of the above analysis.

Table 4. Knowledge about the influence of Camfranglais on English and French

	options	yes	no	total
Francophone	No interviewed	52	06	30
	percentage	83.3%	16.7%	100%
Anglophone	No interviewed	42	18	30
	percentage	70%	30%	100%

Table 4 shows that more than 70% of the youths, when combined, are aware of its possible influential potential. One Francophone secondary school student said he is now unable to speak pure French without mixing Camfranglais with it. He, however, showed his attachment to this language because it is the language of the day among youths. I think it is good to encourage the language, but it is better to let the users know that it may have some effect on their learning of English and French. Though this research did not carry out any grammatical study to ascertain the claimed influence, the fact the speakers are bold to affirm this is enough to give credibility to that aspect of this study.

As Fonka (2014; 2011) and Atechi (2011) argue for the defence of CPc not being responsible for the falling standard of English in Cameroon, researchers can clearly identify the rules governing the structure of Camfranglais so that it users can be conscious when speaking. Equally, the teaching of English and French should be intensified so that young Cameroonians who have fallen in love with Camfranglais, can understand the grammatical patterns of the former when speaking the latter.

As long as more Cameroonian youths are interested in Camfranglais without high mastery of English and French, their learning of these two official languages may not be very effective. This language is deep rooted in some young Cameroonians such that recommending that it should be stopped, which is not even a possible thing to do and not the mission of this paper, may as well mean recommending the death of the users of that language. I suggest that we educate youths to understand that although Camfranglais is like any other language and is useful for social interaction and fun, it may also be like a drug whose side effects are too great to be ignored. Camfranglais may not help them in their quest for official bilingualism, since some of them who speak it already feel that they are

bilingual. It is true that whether a language is written or unwritten, its disappearance is an irreversible loss of culture (Swaan 2004).

One cannot advise young Cameroonians who speak this language to follow the structures and the tenses of the source languages because the beauty and the ease with which they speak the language will be compromised. They should not be forced to stop using the language; rather, their attention should be drawn to its advantages and disadvantages for them to decide. According to a study on the lexical influence of Camfranglais on French, especially the use of verbs from Camfranglais found in French, Noel (2012, P. 1) says "Camfranglais is a short term alternative to using French verbs in the process of scholarly French acquisition". Given that it is always very difficult for the speakers of a language to say whether or not their language has any negative effect on them, especially when there is love for it, more studies of this nature should be carried out so that better ways of handling the situation could be devised.

To better understand whether or not Camfranglais has a negative or positive role to the play in the lives of its learners, it is important is examine some advantages and disadvantages.

Advantages

Fun

As an intragroup language, its functions are limited to satisfying the needs of the group members, which in this case is fun. This is because it is a language that comes not as a result of a need for a language of communication, but simply for fun. Echu (2006) holds that Camfranglais is used for a wide range of subjects such as love, food and entertainment, family affairs, school life, day-to- day issues, and sports discussions. From these functions enumerated, we can agree with Mbangwana (2006) that it is a language for fun. This function may be termed positive.

Encourages the Spirit of Creativity

Carving out a new language from existing ones needs great inspiration, because even if the words are not well structured as is the case in the source languages, their positions are correct to make the sentences understandable to the speakers of that language. For example, the sentence quelque part je mimba-ais qu'il allait recame (Somehow I knew that he was going to come back) (Feral, n.d.). The "recame" used in the above sentence is actually

supposed to be in the present simple, and not in the past simple. Since there are no specific binding roles that govern the formation of sentences in this language, many more Cameroonians invent their own sentences in relation to their ability in the different languages that are used in Camfranglais. Since roles sometime limit people's ability, because they can end only where the roles end, Camfranglais gives room to freedom of expression. This freedom makes users of the language formulate their sentences with words they know. This therefore means that the intelligibility of Camfranglais depends on the level at which both speakers understand the sources from where the mixtures are derived. A primary school speaker of Camfranglais will obviously be different from a university speaker, because their levels of language mastery are different and their abilities to mix the different languages are also different. This, of course, applies to all languages given that speakers of different levels speak differently and can easily be understood only by those at that level.

Disadvantages

Parasitic function

Parasites do not only rely on the main stock for sustenance, they equally possess the power to destroy the sources. When a parasite becomes too demanding for the source to provide for it, the parasite kills the source and dies with it since the latter cannot survive without the former. Camfranglais, like any other parasite that lives on plants and animals and is capable of eliminating them, is feeding heavily on French and English and other languages in Cameroon. The effect may not be felt collectively or immediately, but gradually, the individuals may be faced with the ugly reality later. This is because many young Cameroonians, as I indicated in the analysis of my data, claim that they find it difficult learning their official languages because of this new language. It should be noted that most speakers of this variety are not perfect bilinguals or even near bilinguals; they have a better command of only one of the languages. They surely came out with this variety to complement their inability to fit themselves within the bilingual context. However, this does not make them bilingual in any sense. These are the types of speakers Craig (1997, P. 259) points out that, although considered members of the linguistic community, their deviation from the linguistic norms of the community are considered as mistakes and they typically exhibit insecurity about their knowledge of the language.

An illusion of bilingualism

The ability to pass from French to English in some distorted words makes users feel that they have a mastery of the two superstrate languages. Since they can communicate freely among peers without hindrances, they become comfortable. This is just an illusion of bilingualism since they cannot demonstrate this knowledge in any formal situation.

An examination of the characteristics of Camfranglais will throw more light on this language that keeps attracting more youths.

Characteristics of Camfranglais

Borrowing, derivation, and clipping are among the characteristics of Camfranglais. Given that borrowing and derivation are clearer in this case than others, I will use only the two.

Borrowing

As Crystal (1997, P. 332) has noted, "in most languages, the vast majority of new words are in fact borrowings from other languages – though this term is not a very appropriate one, as new words are not given back at a later stage! Borrowing proceeds in all directions." In the same light, Hu (2004) indicates that borrowing between languages never ceases, and in the long run tends to be mutual. Borrowing is defined by Batibo (2005, P. 29) as "the adoption of a word from another language and adapting it to the phonological and morphological modes of the target language". This definition does not fit well in the type of borrowing that takes place in Camfranglais. What takes place in Camfranglais can rather be termed words transplant or word transfer, that is, the transfer of English and French words to a neutral ground and the formation of a kind of mixture which results to what may be considered the abuse of the donor languages. Even if this were to be termed borrowing, this would be excessive borrowing, the type Baron (1981, P. 1) warns about in relation to the English language's excessive borrowing from Latin and French. About English borrowing, he warns that "if borrowing was to continue at such a high pace, children will need dictionaries of Latin or French in order to understand their native speech". In the case of Cameroon, we cannot even be talking about the dictionary because the way the words and expressions are used shows that it is a kind of blend that taps from all languages existing in its environment and takes them to a neutral ground where no language existed before. If we take the

following example from Fosso (1999, P. 185), cited in Echu (2006), we will discover the magnitude of the kind of blend I am talking about.

-On tok que la wa qui long a côté de notre haus est au ngata

They say that the girl who lives at side of our house is in prison

- (It is said that the girl who lived close to our house has been imprisoned)

From the example above, we find that words like 'wa' and 'ngata' are not English words. Even words like 'tok' and 'haus', though having English pronunciation, are rather Pidgin English words. If Tchoungui's (1977) claim is true that Francophones do not tolerate English spoken by Anglophone Cameroonians, considering it Pidgin English, it is clear from that assertion that they consider Pidgin English a bad language that is not supposed to be spoken. If we agree with the above justification, it is somewhat disturbing that the same people she refers to, instead of trying to speak English, still indirectly speak the same Cameroon Pidgincreole found in Camfranglais. CPc is considered bad because so many Cameroonians blame it for their inability to learn the English language due to its heavy use of different languages, English and French included. By coming up with another language not different from CPc, not only the dreams of those who want to learn English will be thwarted but those who want to learn French. We are, however, not saying that only Francophones speak this variety, they simply make up the majority. Given that most of the speakers of this language are skilled only in one language, which is mostly French in our case, it does not solve the existing problem.

Derivation

Derivation is the process of adding affixes to or changing the shape of a base, thereby forming a word that may undergo further inflection or participate in different syntactic changes. Mbangwana (2002, P. 36) holds that "these affixes may either be prefixes or suffixes". As I have already pointed out, the formation process in Camfranglais is quite different to that of other languages I know; even pidgin.

i. Camfranglais: mon patère a tok qu'il ne want pas nous nier assemble

my father said he'll no want not us see together

(My father has said that he doesn't want to see us together.)

ii. Camfranglais: came. Un go le see. Je wanda pourquoi tu ne gri pas ce que j'ai see.

Come we go him see. I wonder why you no accept not the what I saw

(Come. Let us go and see it. I wonder why you don't accept what I saw.)

The Camfranglais sentence in (i) above indicates that there is a mixture of French, English, pidgin and Mboko (a language variety spoken and understood only by a few young people). "patère" and "nier" are the mboko or local language words; "tok" is a pidgin word; "want" is an English word while the rest of the words are from French. In (ii), "came" is the past tense of "come" in English. Here, it is used in a sentence that is predominantly the present. In the very sentence, the French past simple "J'ai" (I have), agrees only with a past tense, but it is used in this sentence with the infinitive "to see". Of course, the second sentence like the first has pidgin, French and English words all mixed.

What I know is that all languages depend on one another to grow in their lexis and this is done through well distinguished processes as the ones used here. This has to take into consideration the structure of the source language, the tense among others. Camfranglais in itself has no defined structure, since its users need only to have a bit of knowledge in the different languages to permit them to make their mixture. For the same reason, they do not respect any structure from the source language. This, however, is what makes it special and peculiar.

Conclusion

This paper set out to explore the use of Camfranglais by youths in Cameroon, with the intention of finding out whether it has any negative effect on their learning of English and French: the two official languages. It was noted that youths speak and admire this language because it gives them the pride in identifying themselves on a neutral ground since they can successfully oust the rest of the society from their discussion. Some, however, claim that it has a negative effect on them, as its influence is noticed in their learning of the two official languages. If the users of this language are aware of its interference, although interference is a normal phenomenon in a multilingual setting like Cameroon, they surely would want to control the rate of the interference. Since Camfranglais has gradually become part and parcel of their lives, awareness needs to be enforced so that they can visualise its direct consequences on the source languages they are out to learn, which they ironically distort consciously.

This paper is not in any way advocating for a ban on Camfranglais, because it is a sociolinguistic reality that has come to stay. Nevertheless, it is recommend that users should be guided, and the use of official languages be encouraged so that learners feel motivated and by so doing speak their Camfranglais but still master the two official languages. Speakers of this language should be aware that the language has an age range function, as speakers grow out of the language. Since it is not possible for them to speak without torturing French and English to their disadvantage, there is need to investigate more about its negative impact and communicate to young users, but allow them to make their own decision on its usage. My point of view on this issue may not be the best, because as Daoust (1997, p. 445) posits, "identifying problems and establishing goals is no small task and the end results do not always match the original plan". It is therefore my wish that this discovery will go a long way in the shaping of the sociolinguistic reality of Cameroon as to their perception and usage of Camfranglais. Camfranglais can truly be considered a parasite, as its existence depends on the other languages from which it takes all its lexicons. This type of high dependence and an uncontrolled exploration of the source languages leads to what this paper refers to as language abuse.

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SECTION 2:

APPROACHES IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODOLOGY

Coddling the Teacher's Mind: Educational Concepts We Want to Believe In

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A vast proportion of the practices widely adopted in ELT are ultimately derived from research. Most of these discoveries (e.g. the fact that language is better practised in meaningful contexts rather than in isolation) have solid scholarly support and have become a deeply entrenched part of the canon, and are thus often neither explicable nor challenged by practitioners. On the other hand, some seem to be living their own lives, so to speak. This study critically explores examples of psychological and educational concepts pervading the ELT industry that have not often been called into question, especially by teacher educators. Examples focused on and addressed in the talk are largely the theory of multiple intelligences (Gardner, 1983; 2000) and the mindset theory (Dweck, 2006; 2012). Besides a review of a battery of studies dealing with these concepts and their applicability in ELT, I will argue that one of the reasons for their ubiquity might likely be confirmation bias caused by the inherent egalitarian implications of the theories, which render them consonant with the dominant viewpoints of the ELT community. This way, the views run the risk of being uncritically embraced despite their possibly meretricious nature.

Introduction

My motivations behind embarking on this study closely mirror my roles in the TEFL industry over the years. As a student, teacher, teacher educator, and an academic, I believe it is this multiplicity of perspectives from which the following questions emerged: Why do a surprisingly high number of people talk about certain theories or concepts? Why even the new

teachers/teacher educators/academics? What evidence are these concepts based on? And finally, what makes a theoretical concept resonate?

To substantiate the validity of these concerns, a battery of studies dealing with two popular theories (Multiple Intelligences and Mindset Theory) was analysed using two relatively simple criteria to account for instances of bias on the authors' part. Finally, possible reasons for the bias are discussed and recommendations for reflective practice are suggested. In other words, rather than naively attempting to disprove the theories in question, this text should primarily serve as a reminder of one's susceptibility to research bias regardless of whether they are a teacher, teacher educator, or academic.

Literature review

Mindset Theory

Mindset theory was developed by Carol Dweck (2006; 2012), a professor of psychology at Stanford. Dweck conceptualises mindset as an individual's personal trait which has the potential to determine both failure and success. To be able to establish such a correlation, Dweck distinguishes between the so-called "fixed mindset" and "growth mindset". Based on Dweck's first book, and the fact all the tests to date created to ascertain which mindset one has are based only on a handful of questions, it seems that that mindset is a categorical rather than continuous variable. Mindsets are either fixed or open, with the former presented as undesirable and in need of an intervention, and the latter as a goal people should strive to achieve. In determining mindset, the question of malleability of intelligence is of central importance. The other identifying features of the two mindset categories thus seem to come about as a mere by-product of the answer to that question, although they are used in some tests as criteria of their own. The table below shows the basic features of both mindsets:

Table 1. Features of the two mindsets (based on Dweck, 2012)

Fixed mindset	Growth mindset
intelligence is static and innate	intelligence can be developed
avoid challenges	embrace challenges
give up easily	persist in the face of setbacks
see effort as fruitless or worse	see effort as the path to mastery
ignore useful negative feedback	learn from criticism
threatened by the success of others	find lessons and inspiration in the success of others

Despite its general appeal, the theory has been criticised on numerous grounds. First, the very notion of intelligence being malleable has been called into question. By no means is this to say that intelligence is a static construct, but to be adamant about its plasticity would be equally incorrect and absurd. As Barlow (2019) puts it:

> …any psychological perspective that ignores heritable individual differences ignores: (a) reality, (b) an exciting opportunity for vital scientific progress into understanding people, and (c) the beauty and intricacy of human diversity. (p. 68)

Furthermore, the degree to which intelligence can be influenced seems to be influenced (potentially among other factors) by age:

> …for intelligence, heritability increases linearly, from (approximately) 20% in infancy to 40% in adolescence, and to 60% in adulthood. Some evidence suggests that heritability might increase to as much as 80% in later adulthood… (Plomin & Deary, 2015, p. 99)

It follows from the above that Mindset theory offers its users a conceptual placebo; self-improvement can only be achieved if certain beliefs about intelligence are held.

Apart from theoretical inconsistencies, there are general disparities with regard to the practical applicability and effect of the mindset intervention. On one hand, there are studies reporting positive and encouraging results of mindset interventions, which are recommended as effective in the conclusions (recently, for example: Yeager and Dweck, 2012; Yeager, et al., 2016; Yeager, et al., 2019). On the other hand, there are studies whose results temper the high expectations. Sisk, Burgoyne, Sun, Butler, and Macnamara (2018) begin the discussion in their meta-analysis as follows:

> Some researchers have claimed that mind-set interventions can "lead to large gains in student achievement" and have "striking effects on educational achievement" (Yeager & Walton, 2011, pp. 267 and 268, respectively). Overall, our results do not support these claims. (p. 568)

They add, however, that "high-risk students and economically disadvantaged students may benefit from growth-mindset interventions . . . although these results should be interpreted with caution." (p. 568) Similarly, in their extensive review, Gorard, See, and Davies (2012) conclude that "[n]ot enough evidence was found in this review to suggest a causal link between attitudes to education and attainment or participation [with] the same [being] generally true for motivation.." (p. 8) Bahník and Vranka (2017) report the same findings for attainment and the likelihood of retaking a test in a larger sample of university students. Presently, the overall results

regarding the benefits of implementing a growth mindset seem inconclusive at best.

Theory of multiple intelligences

The theory of multiple intelligences (MI) was first introduced by Howard Gardner (1983) in his ever-popular *Frames of Mind*. A stark disciplinary divide nonetheless existed in the reception of the book. As Gardner himself notes, "[p]sychologists never liked my ideas. Educators found that it spoke to them, and I became a kind of modest celebrity in education." (Mineo, 2018) The crux of Gardner's theory is the proposal that intelligence is not unary but comprises various dimensions, whereby he posed a challenge to the traditional notion of general intelligence measurable with the well-known IQ tests. Initially, the concept encompassed seven different intelligences with the naturalistic being added later (see Figure 1). As far as the implications for teaching go, these are voiced in a fairly abstract fashion for the most part of Gardner's book. It is not until the very end, where in spite of certain reservations concerning the lack of research at the time, "expectations" are included:

> The intuitions that individuals have about particular domains may well help them in learning to program. Thus, an individual with a strong musical bent might best be introduced to programming by attempting to program a simple musical piece (or to master the use of a program that composes). An individual with strong spatial abilities might be initiated through some form of computer graphics—and he might also be aided in the task of programming through the use of a flow chart or some other spatial diagram. Personal intelligences can play important roles. The extensive planning of steps and goals carried out by the individual as he engages in programming relies on intrapersonal forms of thinking, even as the cooperation needed for carrying out a complex task or for learning new computational skills may rely on an individual's ability to work with a team. (Gardner, 1983, p. 409)

Figure 1. Gardner's eight domains of intelligence
(Source: Wikimedia Commons, 2015)

In a recent interview, when asked about the value of learning styles for teaching and how comparable these are to MI, Gardner claims that:

> [i]t certainly makes sense to have more than one way of teaching any topic or skill. But I do not agree that the teaching should be done by varying the sensory modality; rather it should be done in terms of the intelligences that the child has exhibited. There is no secret formula for determine the best way(s) to teach a child… (Gardner, 2019)

While being explicitly supportive of incorporating the intelligences into education and even envisaging how the marriage of the two could take place, in another interview, Gardner is somewhat dismissive of practices derived from his framework by educators:

> …many people in education have never read my work directly; they get information second[-]hand. When they get the idea that intelligence is

> pluralistic, that's fine. But when they go on to say that I have a specific education regimen, that's not legitimate. (Hunter, 2019)

Considering the above, it does not seem particularly surprising that Gardner's work on intelligence could have been misunderstood by educators and hence erroneously applied. It stands to reason that an adoption of any theoretical position (the pluralistic view of intelligence) would likely go hand in hand with an honest endeavour to somehow implement it. The next section addresses the question of whether such implementation would be sensible from the standpoint of traditional psychology.

The criticism of MI has centred on the dearth of empirical evidence that would lend the theory validity (Waterhouse, 2006; Hunt, 2011), especially among psychometricians and proponents of general intelligence. As a result, MI was even featured in *Urban Myths About Learning and Education* and *Great Myths of Education and Learning*. The respective extracts from the book shed some light on the gulf between Gardner's and his critics' perspectives on what constitutes empirical evidence:

> We are more inclined to regard multiple intelligences as a kind of philosophy rather than a proven theory. We refrain from calling it a myth, but it is a theory that has the potential to become a myth, if taken too seriously. (De Bruyckere, Kirschner, & Hulshof, 2015, p. 68)

> One particular difficulty is that Gardner has not articulated specific ways that each of the intelligences could be measured. He is unapologetic about this fact, stating that multiple intelligence theory is a work of "scientific synthesis" (Gardner, 2006b: 505) that does not lend itself to traditional testing, but is revised as new findings from various disciplines emerge (Gardner & Moran, 2006). This approach renders the theory somewhat immune to direct empirical evaluation. (Holmes, 2016, p. 123)

Armstrong's (2017) rebuttal of the argument essentially consists of claiming that Gardner's synthesis offers enough support for the theory by itself. Furthermore, he gives examples of successful implementations of the theory, and states that many strategies that MI recommends implementing have already been subject to rigorous quantitative analysis, adding that "to expect to quantitatively validate an entire theory of learning consisting of thousands of potential instructional strategies would be a foolish notion." (2017, p. 197) While this is certainly true, artificially propping a theory with concepts demonstrated to work does not lend more creditability to the said theory. Instead, one should seek to explore what added value, other than an umbrella term, the theory has. Additionally, owing to the rejection of the psychometric testing paradigm on MI proponents' part, the potential to evaluate the effects *a posteriori* is by default limited to (anecdotal) accounts of educators and self-assessment.

To conclude, if the well-established term "intelligence" is used, it seems naïve to expect the community that laid its foundations to remain unfazed when the term starts to be used differently and vastly different methods are employed to sustain that usage. Gardner himself is aware of the impact of the word choice:

> I have never been able to reconstruct when I made the fateful decision not to call these abilities, talents, or gifts, but rather to call them "intelligences." Because if I had called them anything else, I would not be well known in different corners of the world and journalists like you wouldn't come to interview me. (Mineo, 2018)

How sensible a decision this was probably remains to be seen, yet the degree of controversy it sparked, as well as the dent it made in education are undeniable, perhaps even despite Gardner's admittance "that the theory is no longer current" and he is "no longer wedded to the particular list of intelligences initially developed. (Gardner, 2016)

Research questions and method

In the previous section I showed that legitimate concern exists with respect to implementation of both theories into an educational context. Ideally, the lack of consensus pertaining to the viability of the theories would translate into objective reporting thereof in educational research. To determine whether this is the case, a battery of peer-reviewed publications was compiled and analysed. The writings were collected using Google Scholar with searches for "mindset theory", "growth mindset", and "multiple intelligences". Publications from 2009 onwards (the past ten years) were collected, with 39 (M=2015) and 31 (M=2013) for mindset theory and MI, respectively. This was primarily to exclude older works published at a time when criticism of the ideas in question was scarce; decrying their authors for its omission would thus verge on unfair. There were three inclusion criteria: citation of works by Dweck/Gardner, character of the publication, and the author's purported country of origin. The first ensured that the work indeed deals with one of the two theories. The second constrained the focus to their (mostly educational) applications, and as such allowed for the exclusion of works which investigated the theories themselves, or where the theories were only one of many options considered (meta-analytical studies). The third criterion was used to account for a number of perspectives and traditions. Also, the quality of the contributions from the non-Euro-American circle tended to be lower, so balance needed to be achieved.

To ascertain whether the reporting was fair, two questions were designed to objectify the criteria:

Does the author acknowledge at least one shortcoming of the concept?

Is there a bias when referring to the concept?

Clearly, the issue is not that the authors opted for the theory, but rather under what assumptions they did so. The first question thus simply tests authors' awareness of the theories and their limitations. The second question is, admittedly, more subjective in that a conscious decision had to be made with respect to what counts as bias or biased language. When answering this question, I thus decided to err on the side of caution and include only:

what I saw as examples of personal opinion sometimes blended with a modicum of evidence

reporting of evidence that went beyond the focus of the first question presented the theories in an unduly positive light.

Examples of a):

Recent scientific evidence demonstrates both the incredible potential of the brain to grow and change and the powerful impact of growth mindset messages upon students' attainment. (Boaler, 2013, p. 143)

Students must develop those psychological qualities of grit and tenacity and internalise a mindset that includes persevering, and universities are in a position to help. (Hochanadel & Finamore, 2015, p. 49) [mentioned after a summary of one of Dweck's studies]

Examples of b):

In order to help students learn and develop, teachers need to seriously take individual differences among their students into account. Campbell, Campbell, and Dickinson (1999) suggested that intelligences are means for problem-solving, learning, and creating that any learner can employ in class. (Liu & Chen, 2014, p. 3)

. . . traditional psychometric tests relied heavily on measuring just two aspects of human aptitude . . . and left out the bulk of mental, physical, and social ability . . . dissatisfaction with the shortcomings and inequities of traditional intelligence tests thought the three-quarter-century-old, statistical science behind traditional Intelligence-Quotient (I.Q.) testing narrow, biased, and even racist. They found in Gardner's aptitudes a way to appraise human ability more broadly, more practically, and more fairly . . . no separate discussion of play and

learning appears in Gardner's influential and widely admired Frames of Mind (1983). (Eberle, 2011, p. 20)

The reasons for the lapses above might vary. The authors may plainly lack the knowledge, although this would hardly be an excuse these days since the information is readily available. Also, they might be reluctant to weaken the foundations of their research by questioning the underlying theoretical framework. Alternatively, their bias is to blame, which is to be expected given the implications of the theories (see the discussion below).

Results and discussion

As can be seen in Table 2, the majority of studies failed to acknowledge at least one shortcoming of the theories. Results for the second question (Table 3) indicate that overt bias was relatively uncommon, yet still present.

Table 2. Results for question 1

	criticism	
	YES	NO
Mindset	2	37
Multiple Intelligences	7	23

Table 3. Results for question 2

	biased language	
	YES	NO
Mindset	5	34
Multiple Intelligences	8	24

This means that, in most cases, readers are presented with a distorted picture of the theories. Unless the readers are sceptical from the start, such practice significantly weakens the impetus for further research into the area; they are not even given the choice to critically observe, because the information is presented as fact. In publications containing overt bias, this effect was even strengthened. The theories were presented in a favourable light using only positive examples without much contextualisation, and some authors used positive adjectives to describe the two theories. In the case of MI, negatively loaded terms (*narrow*, *old-fashioned*, *unfair*) were sometimes used to talk about general intelligence.

There are several possible reasons for the lack of quality literature reviews. The sensationalist nature of publication certainly plays a role.

Significant, positive, and new results are prioritised over null-result or replication studies. Authors are aware of this, which inevitably results in a lot being published on one end, and not much on the other. As the time passes, the pool of literature on a topic is sampled for the most important sources, which become the canon. Apart from these "practical" reasons, the causes for the bias seem to be rooted in the wide appeal of the theories. Let us take a look at MI as a case in point. Hunt (2011) notes that "[t]he MI model is far more egalitarian than the g model" (p. 115). This is consistent with Holmes's (2016) view, according to which MI offered "a more inclusive view of education that validates alternative forms of intelligence to those currently recognised by psychology" (p. 120). Partly citing Lohman (2001), Holmes further states that "[t]he model became popular with both teachers and parents because it supported the assumption that 'all children are special'" (p. 120). Given that most teachers and academics lean left politically (Gross & Fosse, 2012; Verdant Labs, 2016), it is hardly surprising that these beliefs would resonate with the community. In their study on bias, Sherman and Cohen (2002) talk about:

> the desire to maintain the perceived worth and integrity of the self constitut[ing] a fundamental goal of the self-regulatory system. When presented with threatening information, people can satisfy this motivation directly: They can defensively neutralise the information, for example, by interpreting mixed evidence in a manner that supports preexisting beliefs or by dismissing attitude-disconfirming evidence (p. 120)

Jumping on the ideological bandwagon is therefore an acceptable and, to an extent, understandable course of action, which is further made easier by the lack of heterodoxy in academia (see e.g. Honeycutt and Freberg, 2017; Inbar and Lammers, 2012).

Conclusion

The study provides a small probe into the academic publishing in education. Motivated by my experience with students, teachers, and academics and their somewhat uncritical treatment of certain psychological constructs, the goal was to analyse whether this is also the case for written publications. The focus was narrowed to two controversial psychological theories: Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences and Dweck's mindset theory. Seventy studies in total were analysed via objective reporting. The vast majority of authors failed to provide an objective review of the theories, as they did not mention at least one source which took issue with said theories. While most employed only this strategy, thirteen studies used biased wording or referencing which presented the theories overly positively

(see the methodology section above for examples). This would very likely impact readers' own perception of the theories, which is especially problematic with educators or educators in training, who are generally less likely to be sceptical of academics. Reviewing literature this way encourages conformist attitudes among both academics and educators and virtually debilitates the critical thinking process in that it eliminates any incentive for it. Bearing in mind that the authors are all academics and should therefore be well-versed in work with sources and research of a topic, the results come as a bit of a shock; especially if one realises how accessible the information is.

The reasons behind the phenomenon are likely manifold. The nature of publishing – where novel and significant results and approaches are given priority – is conducive to authors trying new things simply for the sake of it. Due to the overwhelming proportion of emergent publications on this side, these stand a greater chance of becoming cited or influential. Finally, some other authors have already alluded to bias as an explanatory factor regarding the wide acceptance of the theories. This seems to be the case here as well – the authors want the theories to be true to the extent of sacrificing academic rigour. Moreover, the homogeneity of egalitarian attitudes in academia is even less likely to be catalytic to change in reporting of ideologically appealing concepts.

Although fostering heterodoxy in academia is a worthwhile objective of pursuit, it is too abstract a suggestion for this study to finish with. Instead, a number of simple recommendations are proposed. When reading research, it is important to be cognizant not only of what is in the text, but also of what is not. This entails healthy scepticism and questioning if there are any constraints from commercial interests to ideologies provided that the topic could be susceptible to being exploited on those grounds. An analogous approach applies to conducting research; thinking of one's own confirmation bias, asking whether all perspectives have been taken into consideration, and recognising one's authorial voice seem to be the basic prerequisites of objective and unbiased scholarship.

To end on a positive note, I include an example of what I consider closest to good practice. The following is an excerpt from Luo and Huang (2018). Although I personally disagree with their conclusion about MI, they include both perspectives on the issue, corroborate these with sources, and provide an explanation of why they follow one perspective:

> Multiple intelligences theory, however, is not without criticism. Some critics insist that MI theory includes what other theorists have traditionally defined as ability, aptitude, and talent as intelligences (e.g., bodily-kinesthetic or musical ability; Sternberg, 1991; Visser, Ashton, & Vernon, 2006). MI theory seems to underestimate the integral components of general intelligence

that regulate the functioning and development of different domains of intelligence (Demetriou & Raftopoulos, 2005; Demetriou, Spanoudis, & Mouyi, 2011). Facing the criticism, Gardner (2003) and Armstrong (2017) argue that MI theory challenges the sacrosanct nature of the traditional definition of intelligence as a singular phenomenon, which is too narrow to fully reflect the various ways in which people think and learn. [] MI theory is also based on empirical evidence, with hundreds of studies reviewed, supporting the actual intelligences identified and delineated from empirical findings (Davis, Christodoulou, Seider, & Gardner, 2011; Gardner, 1995, 2006).

Despite criticism of MI theory, its usefulness in education is important and influential. There is a large body of research as well as practices relevant to the use of MI theory in education. These studies focused on the applications of MI in student learning, such as . . . (p. 4)

It is examples like this which provide some hope for objectivity in academic research in education.

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Teaching PhD Students Interacting with the Scientific World

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International dimensions of doctoral studies require good communication skills in English from students, as they have to present their research results in a language understandable worldwide. Even if some of them have a good level of general English, they need to be trained in the language for specific purposes, i.e. in skills necessary for their scientific career. The students should be able to distinguish different styles of texts for various purposes, they should recognise various genres, and in active text production they should be able to write structured, coherent text, prepare and present a poster, deliver oral presentations in a formal style, and become skilled in socialising. An important factor is the application of all the skills in the individual student's area of research. Thus, the paper deals with aspects of the course offered to PhD students at Tomas Bata University in Zlín, where their language competence is one of the main priorities. The content of the course is based on the above requirements, so we deal with needs analysis, course design, skills developed in the course, and assessment of students' performance.

Introduction

The increasing competitiveness in the academic and scientific labour markets requires from the postgraduate students active participation in discussions in academic contexts of their discipline and fluent and spontaneous interaction with the members of their community. They must be able to prepare and deliver clear, logically organised presentations or arguments in a style appropriate to the purpose and given audience.

This is an indispensable skill which can be mastered in different ways. Students can either be trained in general language, mostly English, or in another language for specific purposes.

An important viewpoint is that language issues of non-native English speakers, which is the case of the vast majority of Czech PhD students, may present barriers on the way to success in the academic world. Thus, the overall progress of such doctoral students may be inhibited from the viewpoint of the students' ability to participate in publishing research findings, as well as in communication with English-speaking peers and research partners.

As a rule, doctoral students are not only expected to be involved in research, they are also required to (co-)author papers and make conference presentations. Thus, at many universities, they are obliged to publish their research results in international journals; in other words, they have to create "track record". This not only demonstrates their expertise in the given area, but they are also becoming members of the community, and know how to "play the game". Actually, the doctoral training process should necessarily contain aspects of socialisation (Pinheiroa, Melkersa and Youtie, 2014).

To monitor the present state, we have carried out a pilot investigation of information on the webpages of a number of universities, with some interesting results. At institutions abroad, students are mostly supposed to be on quite a high language level (international students are required to have a certificate or should be graduates from a programme taught in English) and they can then attend some courses in academic writing which are offered to all staff, not especially designed for novices.

Even at some foreign universities, a requirement for PhD students is "passing the exam in English", not taking into account the skills necessary for their further career (as seen in e.g. Ph.D. Foreign Language Requirements, 2019; Fulfilling the Graduate Foreign Language Requirement, 2019).

Thus, the purpose of this paper is to compare the approaches of universities to the education in foreign language communication at PhD student level, mainly at Czech universities.

Present situation in Czech universities

In most Czech universities, PhD students are required to master a language, usually English, with some features of academic language. For instance, at the Faculty of Mathematics and Physics, Charles University, the exam in English consists of a test of grammar and vocabulary, listening comprehension, summary of prepared texts, understanding specialised terms, reading, translation of a piece of text and discussion about it (English Examination Requirements for Doctoral Students, 2019).

Similarly, at the Faculty of Arts of the same university, the students submit texts prepared in advance, which are the basis of further discussion.

Another choice is to submit a language certificate and a short resume of dissertation, or, alternatively, they deliver a copy of a paper they have published in a reviewed journal, or bachelor/master thesis in a foreign language. No specialised courses for PhD students, at the exam no specific skill required (Obecné info, 2015). In the context of submitting a resume of dissertation, one can guess that this exam takes place nearly at the end of studies, when the dissertation is ready. However, this is not given on the webpage.

In both of the above cases, part of the exam can be replaced by a language certificate.

The Czech University of Life Sciences in Prague (Doktorandi FAPPZ I., 2019) requires at the exam the basic reading and translation of specialised text, summary of the text, grammar analysis, and a brief project of the dissertation with a pocket dictionary of specialised terms.

The website of the Czech Technical University in Prague (CTU) presents different requirements from individual faculties. At the Faculty of Civil Engineering, the only information available is "to pass the exam in English". Faculty of Electrical Engineering, CTU, has some language training finishing with an exam in English, or a language certificate on an appropriate level as another option. The exam includes discussion on a technical paper in English. A very similar system is presented by the Faculty of Biomedical Engineering (F7DCAJ - Angličtina pro doktorandy, 2019).

A little different is the Faculty of Transportation Sciences, which requires PhD students to master two languages on a certain level, where English is compulsory, the others being French, German, or Russian (Doktorské stadium, 2019). However, the two-semester course is only based on Cambridge English for Engineering, which does not cover the academic communication skills required of novice scientists.

At Brno University of Technology, in the Faculty of Electrical Engineering and Communication (Angličtina pro doktorandy, 2019) and the Faculty of Information Technology (English for PhD Students, 2019), in the frame of doctoral language preparation, various writing skills are trained and developed (taking notes, language tools for writing abstracts, reports, and articles) as well as the basics of delivering academic presentations (however, no such details can be found on the website). At the Faculty of Chemistry, in some PhD study programs, no language requirements are found. From the above given requirements and ways of testing the student's readiness to communicate in the international environment, we see the following traps: first, the young scientists do not commonly need to translate text; they need to understand and process the ideas in English, not switch from one language to another. Actually, the majority of researchers publish

in English, so what is the point in translating to one's mother tongue and then back to English? Moreover, translation is a specific field which requires specific skills, which are not taught in this type of study (with the obvious exception of philological programmes).

Second, texts prepared in advance can be of a very high level, as the student can use technical tools (in the better case) or people (in the worse case) to help. Then, the only ability tested at the exam is discussion of the text; and frankly, if a student submits a very good text, it is difficult for the teacher to fail them.

However, what is even more important, is that for their future careers students have to master more specific skills. They have to publish their research results in international journals, participate at conferences with their posters and oral presentations, and communicate with their peers and project partners, to name just the most important. In other words, they have to be familiar with different genres and aware of the audience they address, the purpose of communication, etc.

In the information found on the mentioned Czech faculties' webpages, they concentrate on the language, so the name of the subject is usually "English (for PhD students)". In our opinion, for PhD study the applicants should have an entrance level of upper intermediate (B2) and in specialised courses they should learn how to use it for given purposes. That is why at Tomas Bata University in Zlín we prioritise professional communication in the language, and this is also why in newly-accredited study programmes the courses are mostly called "(Technical) Communication in English".

Communication courses at Tomas Bata University

At Tomas Bata University in Zlín (TBU) we strive to combine both areas which overlap – the content and the language. What is quite specific at TBU among universities is that the university offers specialised communication courses for PhD students. Here, in accordance with Barnes and Austin (2009), students develop skills and "know-how" that enable them to not only function within the norms of their discipline, but also to learn the process of writing and submitting publishable research. As such, they develop multifaceted skills, combining the language and their technical knowledge. For the teachers of the course it means close cooperation with supervisors, and consequently a great demand for their orientation in specific vocabularies and customs in individual fields. As Reskin puts it, cooperation with supervisors seems to be an important factor of the students' quality and future success in publishing. This is in accordance with Lee and Kamler's opinion "… learning how to write and speak in discipline-specific

ways, how to formulate research questions, and how to effectively collaborate are greatly helped by publishing with advisors and supervisors" (Reskin, 1979).

To prepare doctoral students for their role in the community, the university offers courses based on academic writing and professional presentations, however, they include some more areas of common communication of young scientists. The courses are based on two principles: first, the approach is "learning by doing", i.e. students learn and practise how to proceed in individual communicative situations, second, the tasks for students are highly individualised, i.e. they are based on the student's topic of research. This "learning by doing" means combining language and content, and includes cooperation, collaboration, and team-teaching, as mentioned by Dudley-Evans and St. John' (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 2007).

Doctoral students at TBU belong to various study programmes, from Technology of Macromolecular Compounds, Food Technology, Tools and Processes, through Finance, Management and Economics, Multimedia and Design, Engineering Informatics, Automatic Control and Informatics, to Pedagogy. This broad scope requires from the teacher some knowledge of each of the discipline of his/her students. Fortunately, the combined education of some teachers both in the language and in the specific technical/art/ economic field (master, PhD, or even higher degree) qualifies them for this approach. On top of this, not only are they familiar with the topics, but also have some experience with the customs in the field; their papers can be found in Web of Knowledge records.

PhD students at TBU are trained in both written and oral communication. For the former, they are required to present their research results as accurately and professionally as possible, so in cooperation with the supervisor and under the guidance of the English teacher, they write clear and unambiguous scientific texts for potential publication in a suitable journal. In doing so, they practise the language and structural patterns learned in the course and obtained from their individual reading of authentic texts (well-written research papers on their topic), which are effective writing models for them.

Academic writing courses have become an essential part of many universities' programmes. As explained in Approaches to the Teaching of Academic Writing (2019), it is not only the transfer of skills concerning the language norms and conventions, it also has the dimension of content and other factors. These multiple objectives make the teaching of academic writing a demanding but worthy effort.

Besides written communication, great attention in teaching these students is also paid to fluent and natural speaking. The character of today's scientific work requires international cooperation, where the partners speak the same language, mostly English, in direct contact, be it face-to-face or via telephone. While in written communication accuracy is stressed, in speaking the focus is fluency. The organisation of courses at TBU also expects application of the knowledge obtained in the previous, writing course (considering different genres, purposes, audiences etc.).

The courses provide students with a weekly opportunity to practise the language and structural patterns in the frame of the genre, and with detailed individual feedback.

Courses content

Generally, the communication courses at TBU include both written and oral forms, as written above. As most of the students practised certain English skills for academic purposes earlier in their studies (listening to lectures, note taking, reading textbooks and research papers for their theses, writing essays), at this stage they deal with English for specific academic purposes, ESAP, and they acquire skills for their professional tasks. Generally, students practise both receptive skills (reading, listening) and productive skills (writing, speaking) for the situations they can come across.

Concerning the language issues, the courses deal with grammar commonly used for the given purpose/genre, meaning the revision of phenomena that are often used in a specific area of communication, or any time when mistakes appear.

The communication courses at most faculties of TBU are organised into two years; the first is basically devoted to academic writing, and the other to speaking. The concrete content is based on a needs analysis of the respective faculty. Actually, it is not completely fixed in all details, but develops in the frame of the aims. It means that teaching/learning is continuously assessed and slightly adapted depending on the students' actual level and possible new external requirements placed on PhD students.

In literature and online information, one can find that academic writing is often taught at secondary schools. Unfortunately, this is not the case in the Czech Republic. Before entering university, students know very little about the features of academic writing not only in English, but also in their mother tongue. That is why the first part of the English communication course is devoted to this issue.

However, before writing itself, students are trained in comprehensive and effective reading. In reading, the text can be taken as a linguistic object,

or as a vehicle of information, where extracting info from the text must be accurate and quick, not so much dealing with language details (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 2007). In our courses, the former is done in the activities at school, and the latter mainly as part of self-study outside the class. Mastery of reading also requires developing the major component skills, at this stage mainly the knowledge of vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension in communication.

Vocabulary knowledge is a primary factor for students' success. As the study fields at TBU are very diverse, the teacher requires a very careful choice of texts. Ideally, to cover all fields, for classroom activities the text is on a general academic topic with semi technical/academic vocabulary such as research, qualitative, quantitative, method, statistical treatment, function, measurement, sample, or test. The specific vocabulary is then studied individually at home by each of the students. In both types of reading tasks, it is very important to follow the context and pay attention to the multiple meanings of words, varied word forms, or collocations.

Another aspect, reading fluency, i.e. the ability to read accurately and quickly, is connected with the limitation of the human brain to carry out a number of cognitive processes at once. The reader's process of recognising words and sentences must be automatic so that they concentrate on the ideas and the relationship between them, not on individual words. This is reached by students' intensive practice. In the frame of this subfield, some of the issues are also the grammar required to identify the exact meaning of the text, structures commonly used in the area, meaning-form relationship, exact meaning in the context, and use of sentence connectors.

However, an essential element of teaching reading comprehension is to develop among students the ability of working independently, i.e. to use a range of strategies, such as rereading difficult parts of the text or mentally summarising the main ideas, as also given in Effective Reading Instruction (2019).

Regarding writing, the course is based on Academic Writing for Graduate Students (Swales and Feak, 2012). Thus, students first deal with general features of academic writing and specific types of texts, such as general – specific, problem – solution, process description, data commentary, or summary. Having mastered these basic writing skills, through individual tasks students continue to apply them in constructing a research paper based on their own work. From a style point of view, they are supported by the above mentioned textbook (Swales and Feak, 2012) and the content is regularly discussed with their supervisors. The students undergo the entire process of publishing, starting from selection of a suitable publisher/journal depending on the character of the research, through writing individual

sections in accordance with all the (potential) publisher requirements, to final polishing up and proofreading the text.

Each section is commented on by the teacher and then improved by the student. In line with Shih (1986), the content is evaluated and revised from the viewpoint of organisation, grammar, vocabulary, style, references and also the format.

When the paper is complete, it fulfils all the publisher's formal requirements and the content is approved by the supervisor (meaning the results are worth presenting), the paper is submitted for publication. This hands-on experience is valuable and substantially contributes to the student's self-esteem. Many of the students complete this cycle and their papers are published, which is not only a contribution to the University's scientific performance, but also highly motivating for the student.

As writing requires accuracy, the course also addresses the issue of grammar that appears in academic writing. Some important phenomena are verb tenses used in different sections of RP, voices, the use of modals to express uncertainty, hedging, distance, polite criticism to a peer, use of articles, nominalisation, etc. A big help to understanding and mastering the relevant grammar is reading good papers on the topic, which also helps students get oriented in the field customs and "culture" in general.

The second major component of the communication courses at TBU is preparation for international conferences, both in pre-conference activities (telephoning, emailing) and communication during the conference.

Systematic attention is paid to posters, whose importance and expansion is increasing. Students learn about basic principles of poster preparation and presentation. Training in these skills is not widespread at (not only) Czech universities. A similar offer can be found for instance at the University of Guelph (Spall, 2011), or a video course of the Second Faculty of Medicine, Charles University (Jak na dobrý poster, 2019), which, however, is only Mike Morrison's YouTube video.

As the basic strategy at TBU is "learning by doing", students go through the process of presenting their research results in the form of poster at a potential (or real) conference. They find a suitable conference, consider the section in which they could present, write a conference abstract, and when this fulfils the organisers' requirements (the abstract "is accepted" by the teacher), they construct a poster and present it in front of their peers, which also includes dealing with the audience's questions. Here, great attention is paid to the specific features of this genre, which are mainly graphical communication and moving audience. This influences the approach to both creation and presentation of the poster.

The largest part of the spoken communication course is devoted to oral presentations. Students practice different types of short presentations, like introducing themselves and their colleagues, describing an object or a process, or talking about a problem and its solution. In all the cases they apply principles of oral presentations – taking the audience into account, following the aim they want to reach, clear structure, less formal style, text flow (signposts), delivery, where direct contact with the audience gives the presenter a chance to transfer the information most effectively via reflecting their personality and appealing to emotions. Here, students also apply the knowledge of academic style acquired in the previous part of the course.

Then, more complex presentations on student's research topic follow, which are based on reading a minimum of 200 pages of text from the field. The same text is also used later in the exam, as will be described later. The purpose of reading the text is that students develop their technical vocabulary, so the text should be quite general in the given field, usually "An Introduction to …", "Essentials of …" or similar. Another reason for the choice of this type of text is that students in the class are from very different fields of science, and the presenter has to adapt the whole presentation to the knowledge of the audience. Another choice is to practise a real presentation for a conference for which the student is preparing. Getting feedback is valuable help to the student to improve the presentation, prepare for questions, and increase self-confidence.

Exam

The final complex exam in communication in English tests the main skills required from young scientists; i.e. those which have been developed and practiced in the courses. In the first part students deal with writing individual sections of a research paper, proving their knowledge of appropriate style, organisation of ideas, and also understanding their individual topic. The other, oral part, consists basically of preparation and delivery of an oral presentation, which is based again on the technical text (200 pgs.) mentioned above. In this part, students show how they are able to transform the formal printed word into a much more personal style of oral speech. This is also a chance for supervisors to see how their students are prepared for the role in the scientific community from the viewpoint of professional communication.

Conclusion

The potential success of a young scientist, in this case a PhD student, depends to some degree on their communication skills. This is true not only for Czech students. As there are no "academic English native speakers", these skills must be acquired, even by international doctoral students.

This requirement is strictly followed at TBU. All PhD students are trained for the situations they will experience in their future careers. In the applied social/genre approach (Approaches to the Teaching of Academic Writing, 2019), students practise the use of English in various academic and professional contexts.

A similar system and robust support of PhD students such as that at TBU can be found, for instance, in Imperial College London (Doctoral students, 2019), which offers courses in academic writing and technical speaking at different levels, including presentations and communication in the academic community. However, these courses are substantially shorter than those at TBU.

An indispensable part of the communication courses is providing students with ideas of being a member of the community, which means their socialisation, an idea which is also discussed by Nettles in Nettles and Millett (2006). The outcome of identifying with the community and a potential indicator of doctoral student academic socialisation may be the student's co-authorship/publication activities, both research papers and conference presentations.

The approach of TBU to teaching PhD students how to communicate in their field is justified every year, when some of these students' papers are accepted in respected journals, and their posters win competitions in poster sections at international conferences.

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Design-Based Research in Teaching ESP in Tertiary Education for Medical Professionals

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Design based research (DBR) is relatively new in comparison with other research methods, and despite its lack of awareness among student researchers it is claimed to be very beneficial to the process of teaching. It is considered the bridge between education theory and practice. DBR can be characterised as a research in which the design of educational materials, particularly learning activities, is a crucial part of the research. The design of the learning environment is verified via testing, the weak points are discovered and adjusted. The whole research is then provided through iterative cycles of testing and improving prototypes. The main objectives of this paper is to illustrate one cycle of DBR conducted within a tertiary school for medical professionals focusing on English for specific purposes (ESP). Based on the initial preliminary research, study materials will be created and exploited in teaching medical students. Thus, the first step of the DBR was to find out information concerning students' needs regarding ICT in education. A questionnaire, including seven items, was distributed via Google forms and in total 47 second-year students were asked to fill it in. The results showed that majority of the respondents would appreciate using digital materials presented via various platforms. Furthermore, they would widely use topic-related grammar and lexical exercises. On the other hand, students were not unitary regarding the way digital materials could be delivered. The authors will reflect these points in the next cycle of the DBR, in which a set of study materials will be subjected to evaluation.

Introduction

The necessity of specialised education of medical staff is indisputable. So is their need to be able to comprehend and communicate in English in the scope of their profession as they come into contact with foreign patients, participate in international conferences, or gain experience at schools or health care facilities abroad. Tertiary schools for medical staff in the Czech Republic focus on both general English and English for specific purposes in the specialised fields of medicine, such as nursing care, urgent medicine, dental hygiene, or pharmacy.

The downside is that very few study materials suitable for such education exist. As a result, teachers have to prepare their own study materials for their students, which can be extremely time consuming and challenging. Thus, there is an idea of preparing suitable materials for the ICT-enhanced ESP teaching and learning by exploiting digital materials in the blended learning model. Prior to presenting such materials there needs to be run an analysis In this paper there are going to be presented the results of a preliminary study conducted among medical students via a short survey collecting their needs concerning ESP study materials, possible forms, and content of the course.

As the whole research is drafted as DBR, data collected via this preliminary study (cycle 1) are going to be used as initial data for next stage of the research.

Design based research

History

Design-based research is probably the youngest form of pedagogical research, which already existed in a simplified form at the beginning of 20th century as a way of market research. However, at that time it was not applied as a scientific research method. John Chris Jones, Bruce Archer, and Herbert Simon (Plomp and Nieveen, 2007) are considered its pioneers, trying to restructure traditional research which simply collected data concerning the development of a product into research based on design and focusing on the clarification of the whole design process.

Jones and Archer (Plomp and Nieveen, 2007) were co-working engineers, who suggested adopting methods primarily used in other spheres in order to improve evaluation of design related problems and eventually bring more effective solutions. Nevertheless, they were aware, that without a theoretical base it would be impossible to integrate design into scientific methods.

Later, Herbert Simon in 1969 called for transformatting design into a scientific discipline. He founded interdisciplinary design research (IDR), which has spread significantly mainly within engineering, design, and technology since that time.

In the 1980s, Simon's work inspired the uprise of DBR in education. The vast majority of literature connected to the topic is related to the work of Ann Brown and Allan Collins (Anderson and Shattuck, 2012), who focused on the research and development of complex issues in authentic environments and in close cooperation with professionals. Design-based research does not have only one official name, as it is also referred to as design research or educational design research.

Design based research in education

DBR in education developed at the beginning of the 21st century as a practical research method aiming at crossing theoretical research and practical aspects of formal education. It has been gaining increasing popularity in the field of pedagogy since then. As Anderson and Shattuck (2012) describe, DBR can be defined by the following principles.

It takes place in real environment – in case of pedagogy research in educational process ensuring the research validity.

It focuses on the design and application of changes into the real process. Such adjustment or change should enable the transfer from experimental group to real environment, which should be beneficial according to Brown (1992).

It is characterised by close cooperation of the researcher, practitioner and an expert during all the research phases.

It uses a wide scale of methods, tools and research techniques. As Maxwell (2004) claims, it is natural for the researchers to use various methods in connection with the needs of the research.

It is characterised by multiple iterations evolving the research via repeated production, testing and follow-up adjustments. DBR is also defined as "research through mistakes" as its results are scarcely implemented as flawless. There is always enough space left for another DBR improving the outcomes of the previous one.

Characteristics

DBR in education is characterised as research in which designing new study materials or activities plays the most significant part, as it is literally interwoven with testing and evolving theories. The key characteristics of DBR is the fact, that the suggested designs can be adjusted during the process of empirical testing in case some of the ideas do not show the desired impact or outcome (Plomp and Nieveen, 2007).

When defining DBR as different from other scientific approaches, it is also necessary to focus on the role of hypotheses within the theoretical background. Hypotheses are used when new theories are developed or tested by scientists. They can be defined as assumptions arising from the developing theory which need to be verified. It implies formulating hypotheses in such way that their validity can be proved or disproved. Hypotheses are generally tested via experiments.

Natural sciences, which widely use DBR, however, do not always enable testing the hypothesis empirically within a short period of time. Thus, the researchers use so-called *mind experiments* which can illustrate possible outcomes and consequences of individual ideas (Trna, 2011). In the process of education DBR researchers apply the mind experiment in order to predict how students or teachers will respond to the presented tool, method or task based on both their theoretical and practical knowledge of the issue.

DBR can be defined as interventional and open research. Interventional research interferes with the natural process of education within its scope manipulating the conditions intentionally. Open research indicates little or no control over the collected data (Gavora, 2011). Moreover, this type of research links theory with practice, including the recurrent process of reflection.

Drawbacks

Low credibility caused by the researcher's involvement in the whole process of research design, development and implementation, can be seen as a drawback of DBR (Reeves, 2007). At the same time, this can be seen as benefit, when the researcher is also one of the tools of the research. However, there needs to be a balance between objectivity and involvement.

Moreover, DBR theories are often simpler in comparison with other research types, and are closely linked to the specific educational environment resulting in difficulty in generalisation.

Key concepts

To sum up DBR's key characteristics, it has its origins in engineering and its aim is to predict and define possible solutions. Furthermore, DBR enables new theories to arise in connection with education or tools designed to support this process. It focuses on education in its natural environment with repeating cycles of the study material improvement as its main principle. Individual cycles include phases of design, experiment and retrospective analysis, whose results become initial data for the next cycle. Researchers thus constantly improve both the study material and theories within the whole experiment. Miles and Huberman (1991) define three basic DBR phases:

Preparation and design

Prior to the research it is necessary to study relevant information regarding the related topic. Furthermore, it is advised to either collect or design a set of tasks to be discussed with experienced colleagues.

Educational experiments

In order to eliminate research and education separation, educational experiments are implemented into DBR. Moreover, these focus on the prototype of the study material, which needs to be tested by teachers and researchers.

Retrospective analysis

Such analysis describes and compares data obtained via the educational process comprising the use of the target study material helping to identify its disputable parts.

DBR hypotheses are generally modest as they are closely related to a specific area, such as a school subject. Nevertheless, they need to be general enough to be applicable in different environments, i.e. other school, other country. Bakker (2004) defines it as *transferability*.

The study

Research objective

The main aim of the preliminary study was to discover students' needs and preferences concerning digital study materials planned within ICT-enhanced education.

Settings and participants

This study was conducted at the Tertiary School for Medical Staff in Olomouc, Czech Republic, at the end of the summer semester 2018/2019. The 47 participants of the study were 2nd year students taking the compulsory course of ESP, including future certified lab technicians, pharmacy technicians, dental technicians, and nurses.

Table 1. Study participants

Medical specialisation	Amount of students (N)	Male students (N)
Lab technicians	12	3
Dental technicians	10	1
Pharmacy technicians	15	0
Nurses	10	0

Research method and results interpretation

The study employed a short questionnaire survey comprising seven compulsory multiple choice and open questions concerning ICT enhanced learning. All questions were asked in Czech to eliminate the possibility of misinterpretation. Table 2, below, shows all the questions and their classification.

Table 2. Questionnaire

Question	Question type
1. Would you use ICT-enhanced learning as a part of your English course?	Yes/No
2. Would you use such support as a part of other subjects as well?	Yes/No
3. If yes, in which?	Open
4. Which forms of ICT support would you prefer?	Multiple choice
5. What kind of feedback would you prefer?	Multiple choice
6. Which electronic devices do you prefer for self-study?	Multiple choice
7. Can you describe the ideal ICT support for your English course?	Open

Question 1 and 2 revealed that while 89.4% of respondents would consider ICT support as a useful part of their English course, only 55.3% would appreciate the same approach in other subjects.

Figure 1 illustrates that the most appreciated subjects supported by ICT would be anatomy, nursing care, chemistry, and pharmacology. Generally, these subjects are rated as the most difficult within the study plans. Other stated subjects are also of medical origin, including microbiology, pharmacognosy, etc.

Figure 1. Question 3

Pokud ano, tak ve kterých?
25 odpovědí
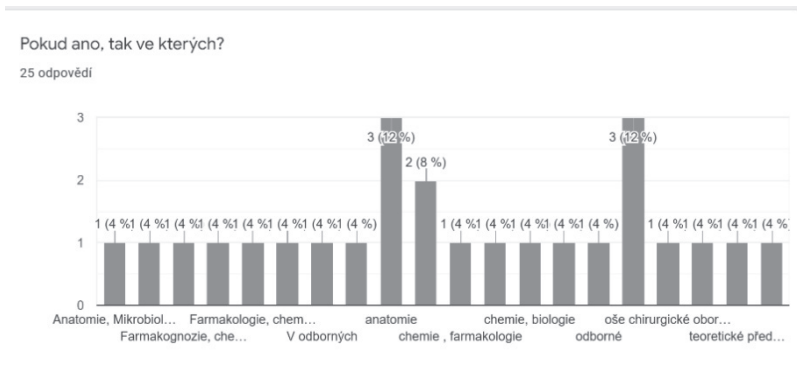
Vocabulary practice (63.8%) together with listening comprehension tasks (53.2%) online would be preferred the most, closely followed by medical articles with comprehension questions (46.8%) and vocabulary tests (44.7%). Moreover, around 36% of respondents would consider useful links to online sources providing information about related medical topics. A marginal number of students (2.1%) are fully satisfied with their current course delivery and are not in favor of any changes.

Question 5 revealed that 55.3% of respondents would prefer being given feedback by their teacher in comparison with 83% of students considering key to exercises sufficient. Only on average 4% of the students would like to consult their work personally with a teacher.

Figure 2. Question 6

Pro samostudium preferuji tato elektronická zařízení: (možno vybrat více možností)
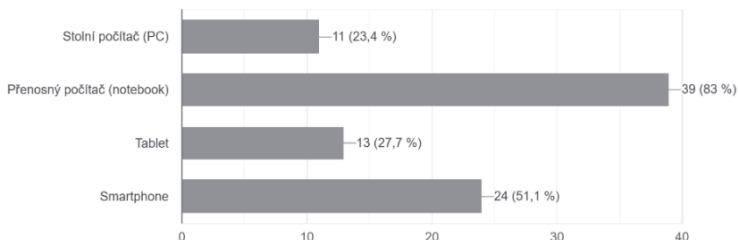
47 odpovědí

Figure 2 illustrates clearly that the majority of student respondents (83%) use laptops for their studies. Surprisingly, more than half of the students (51.1%) state that their smartphone is the main electronic device used in the learning process. Tablet PCs and desktops are used in about a quarter of instances.

When describing the ideal ICT-enhanced education, students' answers differ significantly. The reason might be that no options and clues were provided for this question in order not to affect the answers. Quite frequently, students expressed the need for online study materials accompanied by vocabulary and grammar exercises with unlimited access. E-learning courses including LMS Moodle were suggested in approximately the same number of instances as mobile applications. The majority of respondents would prefer a blog, website, or any online environment providing study materials related to all their study subjects.

Conclusion

In accordance with the presented preliminary study results, it can be concluded that ICT-enhanced learning would be widely appreciated among students. Not only would they acknowledge such an education delivery model within the ESP course, but they would also welcome the use of technologies in specialised subjects such as anatomy, pharmacology, and many others. Suggested forms of ICT support are study materials combined with various types of vocabulary, grammar, and comprehension exercises that would be compatible with all portable devices. Laptops, tablet PCs, and smartphones appeared to be the most common electronic tools used. Face-to-face consultations are outnumbered by online key to exercises, which are probably more easily accessible and more flexible for students.

Apparently, not all respondents are familiar with the various options ICT-enhanced learning can offer. Many of them view it only as an online storage of materials. On the other hand, tools such as LMS Moodle, e-learning, or mobile learning are familiar to many students.

To sum up, the preliminary study provided valuable data of students' preferences concerning ICT-enhanced education. They will be used as input for cycle 2 of the DBR, introducing a set of ICT-enhanced study materials. Its results will be processed and introduced as subject matter in a future paper.

Acknowledgments

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Online Collaborative Professional Development methods for integrating Pedagogically Meaningful Use of ICT in English Language Teaching

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This article focuses on peer online professional development methods for in-service English language teachers. In the digital era, teacher education is in constant change and online Collaborative Professional Development methods using social media, digital platforms, and tools can be a good way to create a community of practice where English teachers can engage in generating, sharing, and jointly developing digital learning content, new concepts, and models of teaching within an environment of trust. Online collaboration between peers and action can change the acquisition metaphor of learning into a knowledge-creation metaphor where teachers are the designers of the learning experiences they create for their students. Kagan (1992) supports that fellow teachers or peers can influence a teacher positively by successfully incorporating technology in their lessons. If the teachers witness a successful experience, they appear more likely to be convinced to try it themselves in their own classes. This might also support the position held by Griffin and Ohlsson (2001), that teachers who have the chance to work with "technology-oriented" colleagues might begin to incorporate the new instructional strategy as well, since a change or adaptation of beliefs is governed by peer pressure or motivational influences (Chamorro and Rey, 2013). The selected examples will demonstrate how English language teachers can take the role of a teacher-coach and actively engage other English language teachers in tech integration that is deeply embedded in subject matter, as opposed to offering stand-alone lessons on how to use technology. Padlet, Facebook groups, Voki, and Speechace will be liaised with concrete techniques of developing ICT and language skills. The

methods presented can be used to deliver refresher training, as well as to provide ongoing support and mentorship to hone and build English language skills.

Introduction

The rapid pace of technological innovation has emerged a plethora of digital tools that could be used to enrich non formal sessions of Teacher Professional Development (TPD) and educational practices. Teachers need not only to embrace this change, but also to be proactive in shaping this technology and disruption by integrating it into their practices. In practical terms, this means changing the acquisition metaphor of learning into a knowledge-creation metaphor, where teachers are the designers of the learning experiences they create for themselves and their students. It is about developing an open, inclusive, and adaptive system across and between teachers, a network where everyone can listen to one another and raise their points of view, a community of teachers that share their expertise, reshape current methodologies, reflect on the emerging ones, interpret the experiences of their colleagues, are transparent about their values and goals, reflect on their practices and never cease to learn. This adaptive system will be formed from bottom-up approaches initiated by teachers, since in-service English language teachers need differentiated support based on their interests and perceived needs, prior learning experiences and professional background. Central to professional development is the understanding and acceptance that each teacher has different needs, priorities, strengths, learning and professional goals. To this end, teachers should have the agency to set their own goals for their professional development schemes, create a reflective process during their journey to attain those goals, and be flexible enough to take their learning outside the confines of the traditional classroom and to adopt it to different student audiences. Having this perspective is crucial in designing learning opportunities for in-service English language teachers that provide flexibility and support to ensure mastery of the highest standards possible.

The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (2015) and Hattie (2013) state that effective professional development is positioned as close to practice as possible, and that research questions should be raised and outcomes tested in teachers' workplaces as a form of collaborative professional development. There is a contradiction between such claims and how we traditionally value research. Collaboration with teachers in research projects may have an impact on their practices and can, sometimes, be considered to be less scientific than a more objective standpoint that follows

traditional indicators of scientific quality. This review shows how professional development can inform practice-based research and can contribute with new knowledge on how to develop teaching and learning in the classroom.

Collaborative Professional Development and Communities of Practice (CoP)

There is a growing body of literature supporting the need for teachers to be engaged in collaborative working to build strong professional cultures of collaboration to develop a common purpose, to cope with uncertainty and reflect on their practices.

This collaborative, community-based scheme of TPD comes from the concept of Community of Practice. The concept of CoP was initially developed by Lave and Wenger (1991). Learning which takes place within a CoP can be explained by Vygotsky's (1978) theory of sociocultural learning. The sociocultural learning theory suggests that learning is not merely a cognitive process but also a social one and, in fact, it highlights the importance of social interactions in knowledge building. According to Sfard (1998), learning consists of two metaphors: acquisition and participation. The acquisition metaphor conveys the process of knowledge acquisition by the individual learner, while the participation metaphor means that cognition and knowing are distributed over individuals and their environments. Learning in a CoP comprises these two metaphors; yet, the emphasis of a CoP is on its social interaction. The social interaction characterises a community. Lave and Wenger (1991) use the term "situated learning" to explain that learning happens in context; in interaction with other community members. The idea of gaining value in education through becoming an element of a social group, however, was conceptualised by Dewey (1938).

In TPD, CoP is believed to stimulate the improvement of teachers' professional practice (Lieberman, 1996; Rényi, 1996). CoPs are groups of people who share a common concern or a passion for something they do, and learn from each other on matters of their practice (Wenger, McDermott, & Snyder, 2002). CoPs have three main components which distinguish them from other communities. These components are: (1) a shared domain, (2) community and (3) practice. Each member in a CoP has a commitment to the domain. The participants must be practitioners, not simply a group of people who are interested in the subject matter. They engage with each other and build relationships in shared activities using shared tools and environments. They help each other and share information within the

community. As practitioners, they learn together, develop common practices, and share repertoires of resources. These include stories, helpful tools, experiences, and ways of handling typical problems together.

Online Learning Community and TPD

Online Learning Community (OLC) is one of the community-oriented models introduced and investigated during the last two decades to tackle the challenges of TPD in the 21st century (Friesen & Clifford, 2003; Helleve, 2010; Ketelhut, McCloskey, Dede, Breit, & Whitehouse, 2006; Lock, 2006; Scott, 2003; Wenger et al., 2002). Windschitl (2002) views OLC as a viable means to cultivate sharing, provide sustainable support for teachers and an opportunity for teachers to reflect and examine their practice, which can lead to transformative professional development. OLC can also strengthen professional identity as part of a collective culture and values with members empowered by "a sense of camaraderie" (Hur & Brush, 2009) in a process of social transformation (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Fenwick, 2000).

Stahl (2000) considers that knowledge building is a key indicator for an online collaborative environment. The component of a network is essential to facilitate the social learning process (Tu & Corry, 2002), which means that through a community network, participants are encouraged to access, share information and ideas, and are motivated to construct knowledge easily. Salmon (2003, p.11) developed a model of online teaching and learning, which is appropriate for developing a community network. There are five stages, from the access and motivation to the development, which consist of several elements of e-moderation and technical support, as illustrated in Figure 1.

As highlighted by Lock (2006), online or virtual communities have the potential to facilitate teacher professional development, and once this is realised by teachers, they will develop new ideas of ongoing opportunities for professional development, within an online community of teachers either local or global that can be based on their needs and with the dynamic to share mutual goals and interests. A new learning culture is fostered which promotes the establishment of trust and intimacy, where teachers are encouraged to share their teaching experiences mediated through technology. Thus, teachers collaborate, mutually recognising the other members, reshaping their attitudes, infusing existing and generating new knowledge. They seek answers to real classroom problems and explore innovative practices, which are not externally mandated by authority figures (Hansman, 2008). Teachers' forums, blogs, social networking communities and Learning Management Systems (LMSs) can all be used for the aims of teacher

Figure 1. Gilly Salmon's Five Stage Model. Source:
https://www.gillysalmon.com/five-stage-model.html
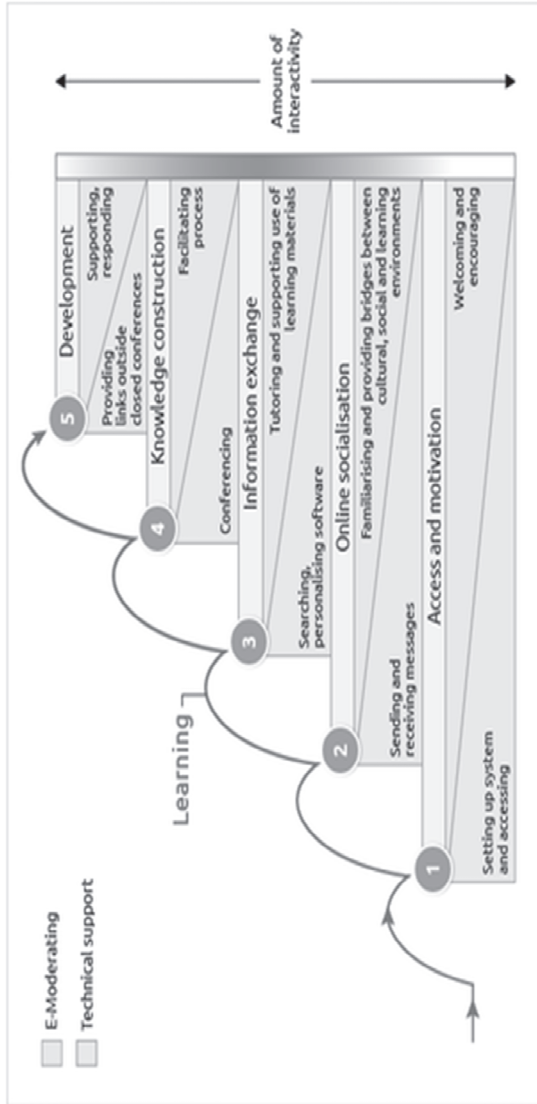
professional development, since they connect teachers, they provide a shared context and they stimulate participatory learning. Teachers participating in OLCs learn by doing, becoming and belonging as they do/experience something new by implementing a digital tool, they become more adept in linking technology with pedagogy and they belong in a team of peers where they can exchange ideas, worries and practices.

Existing TPD Practices for English Language Teachers in Greece

In an environment in which governments across the world make continuous investments into increasing the use of technology in education, teachers' TPD has become an important issue for all stakeholders (UNESCO, 2011). The value and significance of TPD becomes more obvious, especially when the low uptake of technology in educational systems across the world is taken into consideration and realise that the main reason for this outcome is teachers' (in)capacity to use it in teaching/learning processes (UNESCO, 2011). Thus, it can be understood that TPD is an essential factor which can aid the successful integration of technology into education.

Those who wish to become English language teachers in Greece follow a four-year bachelor's degree in "English language and literature" in two state universities; the National University of Athens and the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki. Holders of this bachelor degree can work in the public or private sector. Those wishing to work in publicly funded schools need to succeed in the competitive "ASEP" national exam. Newly appointed teachers in publicly-funded schools follow an inductive training which involves three phases and is organised by the Regional Centres for Teacher Education. Each of the two first phases lasts forty hours, and the third phase lasts twenty hours. The first phase includes the organisational aspects of education and methodology of teaching; during the second phase, newly-appointed teachers watch the didactic process that experienced teachers implement in an actual classroom. The third phase emphasises the study of successful and unsuccessful practices in the classroom. Once appointed and accredited a permanent tenure, teachers in public education receive their official in-service training (INSET) by school advisors who are experienced teachers with high academic and professional qualifications officially selected by the Ministry. There are 21 school advisors (who are currently named education coordinators of EFL teachers) in Greece, each of whom is responsible for the TPD of English teachers in a specific geographical region. The tendency in these 'one-day' or 'a few hours of training' sessions

is to rely heavily on traditional and transmission-based approaches, which have received strong criticism on the grounds that too much emphasis is placed on theory leaving barely any room for practice and, hence, not fostering teacher development. These training courses are not compulsory, and thus depend on the teachers' own eagerness to attend them. Trainer-centred methods through lectures, presentations and video projections are mostly used and teachers are usually treated as passive recipients rather that active agents in knowledge construction. Their only involvement is at the end of the seminars when there is usually some time for questions and discussion. However, by this time the teachers are mostly interested in getting their certificate of participation.

Despite reform efforts and ongoing calls for change, addressing the most significant challenges in the Greek school reality has been an elusive idea. EFL teachers face a wide range of levels daily within a class, with the situation becoming even worse because of the increasing number of children coming from ethnic minority groups indicating general problems of assimilation. Moreover, classrooms are over-crowded resulting in discomfort, inattention, difficulty in providing feedback and evaluation, and ineffective classroom management. Additionally, most pupils attend lessons in private afternoon language schools (known as frontistiria) (Sougari, 2006) which are highly esteemed by parents and pupils concerning their contribution in EFL learning with the ultimate aim to acquire language certificates. Thus, English in state schools is not always seen as a first-priority subject, causing inconvenience to most EFL school teachers.

English language teachers who work in the private sector have the opportunity to attend some training courses only if the owners of the language schools they work for are willing to organise training sessions. These training sessions can have various forms of TPD which include; workshops (including education conferences and seminars which could be as short as one hour) and cascade training (also referred to as the 'train the trainers model'; Lawless & Pellegrino, 2007; OECD, 2009). Moreover, publishing houses of English coursebooks usually organise teacher training courses or seminars which appeal to most of the teachers, and thus actually keep teachers up-to-date. The seminars, workshops, book exhibitions and any type of gatherings that usually take place, include mostly lectures on various issues (e.g. teaching methods, assessment, classroom management, ICT, students' evaluation) but no actual involvement of the participating teachers (Gyftopoulou 2010). Consequently, it seems that EFL teachers in Greece do not have many opportunities to participate in INSET courses which are trainee-oriented (Gyftopoulou 2010). Moreover, lack of systematic training and of a sense of belonging to a professional community

do not help EFL teachers respond to worries, exchange practices and ideas, and take ownership of their learning.

Most professional development activities in the 1980s and 1990s were based on one-shot workshops or short-term courses. Models of professional development activities across the world vary greatly, and even within the same country it is possible to notice variances. The way the needs of teachers are addressed vary across nations based on policies and institutional frameworks. However, such activities do have a common pattern; that is, they either involve top-down or bottom-up approaches. Approaches that are top-down, structured, and formal are generally developed by ministries of education or related national authorities. Often, these programs invoke negative feelings towards professional development as teachers' participation is mandated by the administration regardless of their needs or particular interests. Bottom-up professional development activities, on the other hand, tend to be less formal and take teachers' needs and interests into consideration. Furthermore, they are self-initiated and attendance in such courses is voluntary as teachers participate with a genuine intent to improve instructional practices and manage their own learning (Richards & Farrell, 2005). Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman & Yoon (2001) categorise two forms of professional development activities; traditional forms of activities and reform types of activities. The former is structured and takes place outside the classroom after school, on a weekend, or during the summer where an expert in the field disseminates information in full- or half-day activities, such as workshops, courses and conferences (Garet et al., 2001; Feiman-Nemser, 2001). There is growing interest in "reform" types of professional development, such as study groups or mentoring and coaching. In reform types of professional development teachers have the liberty to decide when and how to attend. Alike bottom-up approaches, reform types, especially with the support of modern technologies, allow teachers to make connections with their classroom teaching, and they may be easier to sustain over time. In addition, reform types of activities may be more responsive to how teachers learn and may have more influence on changing their teaching practice (Darling-Hammond, 1995, 2012; Hargreaves & Fullan, 1992; Little, 1993; Sparks & Loucks-Horsley, 1989). Furthermore, Darling-Hammond (1997) argues that these types of activities may be more responsive to teachers' needs and goals.

While the majority of professional development may have its value, the low uptake of technology in educational settings suggests that the provision of such professional development opportunities is not able to meet the changing nature of TPD. On the other hand, professional development

networks which can allow mentoring and informal dialogue (Lawless & Pellegrino, 2007; OECD, 2009) have been found to be ongoing and allowing follow-up and feedback opportunities (i.e. Meskill, Anthony, Hilliker-VanStrander, Tseng, & You, 2006) which can potentially meet the requirements of TPD, by creating links between theory and practice and bringing the practices and ideas of teachers in the forefront. Similarly, an online community of practice can allow the creation of such professional networks within online environments eliminating the boundaries of time and space and allowing learning anytime and anywhere.

In the following session, some "reform types", non-formal, bottom-up approaches of TPD taking place in OLCs will be discussed.

Online Collaborative Professional Development Methods in ELT: Methodology Explained via the 5-Stage Model

A key function of online collaborative professional development methods lies in encouraging teachers to participate and to take ownership of their professional development: providing tools and context-specific guidance for planning and implementing. In the early stages of their engagement with digital tools, teachers could benefit from work already done by others. This can be done by explaining the pedagogic significance of a tool and how it can be integrated in the classroom, providing concrete examples, learning patterns and methodologies that take the findings of research into pedagogy and Technology-Enhanced Learning, and distilling them into recommendations for effective practice. Teachers who wish to explore the use of Technology-Enhanced Learning can have access to what their peers have already done, some ideas to build on, and guidance from other teachers' experiences. Of course, such resources are limited, as not all teachers wish to open their classrooms and share with the rest of the community knowledge, practices of integrating digital tools, relating them to the pedagogy and to improving learners' engagement and language performance. To this end, this article presents two online collaborative professional development methods initiated by English language teachers-researchers for their peers.

The two online collaborative professional development methods that will be presented in this article share the following characteristics:

They were part of a master's dissertation

They share the three main components of a Community of Practice: a shared domain (that is non-native teachers of English teaching English

as a Second Language), (2) community (that is a community of teachers of ESL) and (3) practice (a digital tool to enrich their practices)

They implement Gilly Salmon's Five Stage Model depicted in figure 1

The researcher-teacher also assumed the role of a peer and a mentor, and acted as an e-moderator.

All participants had a shared pursuit for co-constructing knowledge by using a digital tool

All participants had the same ultimate goal, namely, to enrich their teaching practices with the use of technology that would be clearly linked with the development of language skills.

An Online Community for Improving Writing Skills via *Padlet* Addressed to Teachers of Private Language Schools in Greece

In her master's thesis "The Effectiveness of Padlet on the Development of EFL Learners' Writing Skills" (2018), Nikolina Makripodi engages 24 EFL teachers around Greece to integrate Padlet in their lessons for improving the writing skills of their learners. Padlet (www.padlet.com) is an online application which enables the creation of virtual 'walls' where learners can contribute by posting comments and uploading files in different format (videos, documents, photos, audio, web links). Considering the fact that the beneficial integration of online applications in foreign language (FL) teaching has been documented in many studies and has redefined writing as an e-communal act, this action research project engaged EFL teachers to explore the possible impact of Padlet, as a means of increasing learners' motivation, collaboration, and engagement in the writing process.

1st Stage: Access and Motivation

The researcher made an open call for participants in several Facebook groups for EFL teachers in Greece. She also contacted via email colleagues, classmates of the postgraduate course she was attending, and local associations of English teachers in Achaia. In addition, she encouraged all those that received her invitation to forward it to other EFL teachers that may be interested in participating in the research. In the open call, the researcher attached a letter explaining the research purposes and asked those interested in participating to devote at least two hours to developing writing skills with Padlet, a PowerPoint presentation explaining how Padlet works and how it can be useful for developing writing skills, and three suggested

writing lesson plans on Padlet created by the researcher accompanied by activities. The three Padlets (Padlet 1: Inviting e-pals to Patras, Padlet 2: Scary stories, Padlet 3: Environmental problems), if wanted, could be adapted to levels A2-C1 according to the CEFR. Furthermore, she encouraged the participants to share their thoughts and concerns about the implementation of Padlet and tried to mobilise their understanding about the possibilities Padlet offers to start to develop skills for themselves and their learners. 24 EFL teachers confirmed their willingness to participate in the research.

2nd, 3rd, 4th Stages: Online Socialisation - Information Exchange - Knowledge Construction

The implementation stage of the three Padlet writing lessons created by the researcher took place in the school year 2017-2018, from February to April. The researcher, following the preferences of the participant-teachers, created three communities, one on Facebook's instant messaging application Messenger, one on the Viber application, and one in Yahoo Groups. Each participant-teacher could choose the community they wished to join. In each of the three communities, the teachers exchanged ideas and the majority of them shared with their colleagues the Padlet they had created with their students or/and explained how they altered activities or created new ones. The three Padlet writing lessons served as a basis for each teacher, upon which the teacher with his/her learners could collaborate and design new material. The Padlet lessons dealt with topics that appear in most coursebooks which comply with the principles of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), and included a short video, images, vocabulary relevant to the topic, and stories. It has to be stressed that the created Padlet walls functioned mainly as examples so that the participating teachers along with the suggested lesson plans could be exposed to various ways of using Padlet. It was at the teachers' convenience to use one to three of the suggested lessons or depart from them totally and develop their own material in order to meet their learners' needs.

5th Stage: Development

All participants agreed that they learnt something from their involvement in the project. 23 EFL teachers introduced Padlet in their instruction for the first time, while 22 learnt about Padlet and the ways it can be used in EFL teaching for the first time. Padlet's collaborative nature is also confirmed by the participants' responses, as 19 teachers felt that Padlet assisted them

in designing collaborative web-based tasks, while 22 of them claimed that it could also help cooperation between classes and/or colleagues. Two (2) of them created their own lesson plans with Padlet, shared them with the community and expressed their will to guide new fellow teachers on the use of Padlet. Some comments from what teachers' learnt from their participation in this action research for developing writing skills with Padlet are listed below:

"Padlet can be used as a means of exchanging ideas and material between classes."

"It's a great tool to be used among teachers in order to exchange advice and tips."

"I found it a motivating tool for teenagers, as it can facilitate project-based learning."

"Padlet can be easily used as a board where students post their comments about the lessons e.g. what they liked and didn't like. In this way, teachers will be able to reflect on their lessons."

"I feel that Padlet can help the teacher assign pair/group work activities and set the learners in the center of the learning process."

"I think Padlet can be used as a means of feedback. Learners can discuss about the activities they enjoyed or didn't enjoy. In this way teacher can easily reflect on the lessons and adjust her teaching."

"I created a new Padlet so that colleagues can use it in their lessons."

"Padlet is a very useful collaborative tool which can be also used as a means of communication about pair and team work activities. I think it's and an ideal tool for projects."

"Introducing Padlet made me realise that I have to integrate technology in my lessons in order to see my students more willing towards the writing process."

"It helped me incorporate a tool I hadn't tried before in class."

"As a teacher I learned that I have to be constantly informed about educational technological tools and use them in my class. Also allowing students to browse the Internet to help them come up with more ideas and vocabulary."

"I thought that using technology in class would be time-consuming. On the contrary, I realised that students were more concentrated in class and willing to work together."

"Students have to be constantly motivated and web tool can greatly contribute. I really enjoyed taking part in this experiment as I believe that it

helped me improve my teaching and make it more interesting." (Makripodi 38, 40)

Overall, the participants enjoyed trying out Padlet. They felt more confident to experiment and adopt new techniques and remarked that they acted as facilitators; neither as spoon-feeding nor as error-spotter teachers, thus enriching their teaching practices. Participants esteemed that Padlet adoption in the EFL class encouraged their learners to perceive writing as a circular process by enabling them to experience the recursive nature of writing via brainstorming, collecting information, reviewing their notes, and getting peer feedback, before publishing their final products.

Improving EFL Learners' Pronunciation of English Language Through Online Digital Tools

In her master's thesis "Improving EFL Learners' Pronunciation of English Language Through Online Digital Tools" (2019), Zoe Samoulada engages 15 EFL teachers. The 15 EFL teachers were introduced to two online pronunciation tools – Voki and Speechace – and were asked to integrate them in their teaching sessions. The aim of the experiment was to investigate teachers' attitudes towards these online pronunciation tools and their integration into the EFL context, as a means of helping teachers in the way they teach pronunciation to their learners.

1st Stage: Access and Motivation

The researcher engages 15 EFL teachers: 12 from Greece, one from Hungary, one from the UK and one from Zimbabwe. 11 EFL teachers, including those from Hungary, the UK, and Zimbabwe were personal acquaintances of the researcher who were willing to participate in her research. The remaining three participants replied to an open call the researcher made to three Facebook groups (1. Teach English abroad with 61.760 members 2. TEFL, TESOL & English teachers: Resources and jobs with 112.302 members 3. Language teachers in Greece with 21.812 members) for EFL teachers. The first two groups were composed of English teachers working abroad, while the third group was composed of English teachers working in Greece. Despite the thousands of members in these groups, only two members of the foreign groups were willing to participate in the research and one from the Greek group. One participant was the researcher herself.

2nd, 3rd, 4th Stages: Online Socialisation - Information Exchange - Knowledge Construction

The application of the pronunciation tools was conducted in the academic year 2018-2019 from February to April. During this time, the researcher constantly contacted the participating teachers to clarify potential ambiguities and provide any help concerning the application of the pronunciation tools. Facebook was the main tool that the researcher used to communicate with the participating teachers. The teachers applied the tools both in their EFL classes at the language schools they had been working and the private courses they had been tutoring. The target groups that the tools were applied to were learners of English of different ages, specifically 8 to 16 years old.

All the instructors were introduced by the e-moderator to Voki and Speechace as two digital tools that could be integrated in their lessons to enhance the speaking skills of their students and in particular to improve their pronunciation. Voki is an effective means to teach speaking in oral descriptive text. It can assist both the teacher in monitoring the students' progress in learning, and the students in speaking properly without feeling nervous. Lastly, this tool can make the students' progress in speaking faster than speaking in front of the class, as learners can benefit from the feedback on their work from their peers and the teacher directly in their own Voki (Yona & Marlina, 2014). Voki has over 200 speaking characters that are used as teaching assistants, and with whom learners can create a variety of speaking and writing activities. The participant-teachers, with the guidance of the e-moderator, encouraged their students to create a dialogue, to work either in pairs or individually, to select a speaking character/avatar and to practice with the avatar the vocabulary they learnt during the lesson. Speechace evaluates and gives feedback on audio by providing concrete guidance on how a learner can improve the pronunciation of a sentence, word, syllable, or phoneme. It focuses on pronunciation training at a segment level and also includes pre-training tasks which are correlated with interactive phonemic charts, along with a depiction of descriptions of the articulatory features of the sounds of English language. This application provides recording facilities and diagnosis of learners' productions which can be compared with the targeted productions (Papadima-Sophocleous, Bradley & Thouësny, 2016). Speechace offers a variety of lessons, separated into units, topics and grammatical phenomena. The e-moderator guided the participant-teachers to enrich the coursebooks they used by linking them with the levels and lessons of the Speechace. Some common vocabulary was "giving directions", "travel dialogues", "shopping", "time".

It was practiced through relevant lessons in Speechace ("Lessons 28, 29, 34, 40, 46, 47, 48"- level 1) and the creation of relevant texts in Voki. The e-moderator guided participant teachers in ways to integrate Voki and Speechace in their practices in a way that responded to their learners needs and was aligned to the content of the coursebook or other material they used. Via the Facebook community, participant-teachers exchanged ideas and examples of good practice from their lessons, and they participated in discussions on ways to best exploit these tools either to improve their own efficiency when teaching pronunciation or the pronunciation of their learners.

5th Stage: Development

All participant teachers agreed that they learnt something from their involvement in the project. It was the first time for all participant teachers to be introduced to Voki and Speechace. As all of them were non-native teachers of English, they all confirmed that they gained confidence in the ways to teach pronunciation to their students and that these tools make teaching pronunciation more engaging and fun. They all stated that these tools helped them take ownership of the way they teach pronunciation to their learners. Some comments from what participant teachers' learnt from their participation in this action research are presented below:

> "I tend to strongly believe that ICT can actually be beneficial to learning English and assist teachers to conduct a more interesting and effective lesson which ensures that students do not get bored!"

> "…Apart from my learners, I should mention that the two pronunciation tools helped me see the teaching of pronunciation from another perspective. First of all, I didn't know of any pronunciation tool before using them and I used to teach pronunciation through the activities of the coursebook that most of the time are repetitive. I realised that they can be easily integrated in all levels and even in the smaller ones as a game…"

> "…Voki and Speechace are great tools and did help me as a teacher to motivate my students and make my lesson more effective and fun but in order to be fully confident, more training should be offered to teachers exclusively…"

> "…as an English teacher, I have always been interested in pronunciation teaching; but I tended to focus on more traditional methods such as drills. However, the latter's repetitive use had made my students bored and the teaching tools I found online did not seem to be effective, as the learners were not interested in them. This was not the case with Voki though. Voki's game-like environment not only attracted but also sustained my students'

interest and resulted in implicit learning. I enjoyed the tools very much…"
(Samoulada 2019, 119-120, 120, 121, 121)

Conclusion

These action research projects confirmed the viability of implementing an OLC to support non-formal, bottom-up TPD practices in Greece. The two examples evidenced that online communities can enable teachers to "transform research findings into practical action which has an immediate impact on classroom practice and pedagogy" (Armstrong & Curran, 2006, p. 337). When teachers and researchers collaborate closely on how best to introduce digital technologies into their daily teaching, their greater sense of control and ownership leads to a shift in the teachers' aspirations, as they go beyond their craft knowledge, "eager to find more formal, external warrants for their thinking and practice" (Triggs & John, 2004, p. 431). As teachers begin to think more like researchers, they begin to lose their sense of isolation, to exchange and transform their knowledge, and to analyse how to improve their practice (Laurillard, 2008).

In these two examples participant teachers were first introduced to digital tools (Padlet, Voki, and Speechace) and the ways they can improve EFL teaching practices with their implementation, linking, in this way, theory and practice. The researchers, who were peers and acted as e-moderators, provided some examples of how Padlet, Voki, and Speechace can be smoothly integrated and aligned with the content and learning objectives participant teachers had for their learners. In some cases, the participant teachers went a step further by improving the learning session examples and developing their own material and disseminating to other new comer teachers and taking the role of a mentor themselves. This iterative, emerged as a collaborative process supported by an online community, that could have many different facets (i.e. Viber, Facebook Messenger, Yahoo Groups, Padlet, emails, etc.) and schemes (researcher and all participants in the same online community, researcher with each participant, researcher participating within smaller different communities), is a bottom-up action research that can take many different forms and its strength may be multiplied as teachers act as researchers and practitioners by creating, reflecting upon and disseminating their own findings in a repetitive yet expanded loop of practice, reflection, adaptation, dissemination and further practice.

The challenge that remains is that when the one that orchestrates the OLC is a peer and the learning takes place outside (or beyond) formal TPD programmes and the collaborating partners are fellow teachers, there is a

lack of reward for sharing their practices, designs and ideas. Moreover, the motivation to share their designs is probably outweighed by the requirement to teach. In addition, peers working in different educational institutions may confront constraints when sharing their practices with other peers working in competitive institutions or they may not have embraced the idea of broadening their educational horizons and disseminating their knowledge. This may explain the relatively small number of participants in all projects.

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Creating WebQuests for Cooperative Peer Teaching - A Way to Foster Learners' Motivation

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Teachers from communities which, according to Kachru (1992), belong to an "expanding circle" (Kachru, 1992, p. 38) where English is taught as a foreign language (EFL) face numerous dilemmas, among which motivating learners takes a significant place. This paper reports on a classroom-based study conducted at a junior high school where English is studied as a foreign language. To maintain the motivation of EFL learners, the authors encouraged students in the 9th grade to cooperatively create their own WebQuests and later teach the WebQuests to their junior peers. Altogether, 63 students participated in the study. This article provides a detailed description of all stages of the study, i.e. completing a WebQuest designed by a teacher, students' cooperative WebQuest design followed by peer teaching, and a survey of participants' feedback. The received data indicate that cooperative WebQuest creation can foster learners' motivation in using English. Furthermore, teaching of these WebQuests to junior peers can also facilitate interaction in the target language and provide for an interesting and challenging environment in which to learn and advance in the study of English as a foreign language.

Introduction

High school professionals who teach English in an EFL context are well aware of how challenging it is to maintain the motivation of learners who, when compared to their peers studying English in an ESL context,

unfortunately cannot immediately use English as a lingua franca outside the classroom. While children in the Czech Republic compulsorily start learning a foreign language in the third grade, at some schools foreign language learning can start in the first or second grades of elementary school depending on the school resources and parents' preferences. Students continue learning it through both junior and senior high schools. Three months before the official ending of junior high school, students sit exams for the senior high schools of their choice. When students receive the results of the entrance exams and learn of their acceptance to a secondary school, they think that their immediate future is secured. Unfortunately, this belief negatively influences their attitude to studying and consequently leads to a drastic decrease of interest in the classes they still have to attend at junior high school in the remaining months. Discussions with colleagues from other junior high schools during seminars or educational meetings have led us to believe that this problem is not restricted to the context of a particular school, as many teachers share the same concerns about the decrease in motivation among junior high school leavers. In response to the problem, we started considering possible ways to enhance the motivation of our students, and the involvement of our students in cooperative peer teaching seemed an effective way of doing so.

This article aims to highlight how to foster junior-high school leavers' motivation in EFL classes by involving them in the teaching of their junior peers.

Theoretical Background

Cooperative Peer Teaching as the Rationale for Current Study

Learning outcomes are enhanced when learners are actively involved in processing, creating, and sharing information with others. Originally, the impetus to involve high school students in peer teaching came from the awareness that various forms of peer work, collaborative or cooperative learning, and teaching have been successfully used within the context of higher education.

Though the concepts of cooperative learning and collaborative learning have been actively used in literature, there is not much consensus on their definition. For example, Jacobs (as cited in Topping, Buchs, Duran & van Keer, 2017) use these terms synonymously, while Cuseo and Brody (cited ibid.) find differences in their characteristics.

Based on Topping, Buchs, Duran, and van Keer (2017), we understand cooperative learning as "an umbrella term useful for teachers willing to

structure mutual peer interactions in their formal learning in the classroom at primary and secondary schools as well as in higher education." (Topping et al., 2017, p. 5) Thus, cooperative learning presupposes students' interaction in pairs or small groups to achieve a particular learning goal, which may be realised through various forms, including peer tutoring, peer teaching, and peer learning.

Profound interest in peer teaching in university courses as the result of socio-psychological, pedagogical, economic, and political factors has been described by Goldschmid and Goldschmid (1976). Development of reciprocity and cooperation among students was also singled out as one of the seven principles for good practice in undergraduate education (Chickering & Gamson, 1987). When peer teaching, students assume active roles in the learning process. Thus, in higher education, the format of peer teaching may include the work done by teaching assistants, tutors, counsellors, partnerships, and workgroups (Whitman, 1988).

Benefits to both teachers and students as a result of cooperative teaching within the framework of three different courses have been demonstrated by Rubin and Hebert (1998). Kneen and Pattison (2012) have used reciprocal peer teaching for fostering classroom skills and for bolstering the confidence of student teachers. Peer teaching can be used to facilitate reflection of student teachers (Orlova, 2007).

Authors who have studied peer teaching within the elementary or high school context find the process beneficial for both sides from various perspectives. For example, Strom (1978) proves that junior peers profit from the fact that their peer teachers are closer in age to them and, thus, more empathetic to their junior peers. Peer teachers also develop their experience and personality while peer teaching.

Additionally, in the process of peer teaching, both sides – peer teachers as well as peer learners – must learn to cope with a new activity, which provides them with a good opportunity to use ESL in practice and develops their social skills (Johnson, 1988).

The idea of practicing all skills at a higher level of interaction during peer helping is discussed by Foster-Harrison (1995).

Topping (2005) claims that although peer learning has been widely adopted as a method, it still needs time to develop "a critical mass of teachers who support peer learning…" (Topping, 2005, p. 643)

Thus, we regard cooperative peer teaching carried out in small groups, where all participants share roles of teachers, as a highly beneficial process which may help to actively engage both sides (i.e. 'teachers' and 'students') in the learning process. For this purpose, WebQuests were used as a final outcome to be developed in small groups of learners in class.

WebQuests as Motivating Tasks

In order to maintain the motivation of learners, the tasks used in classes, according to Dörnyei (2001), have to be challenging and involve novelty, learners' fantasy, and personal elements.

From the perspective of the authors of this article, WebQuest can fully comply with these requirements. First developed by Bernie Dodge with Tom March in 1995, the WebQuest model has been incorporated into hundreds of educational courses around the world (Dodge, 2001). WebQuest is understood as "an inquiry-oriented activity in which some or all of the information that learners interact with comes from resources on the Internet" (Dodge, as cited in Kurt, 2009, p. 35).

Tom March, one of the originators of the technique, singles out the following benefits of WebQuests for learners:

> student motivation (facing authentic tasks, working with real resources, cooperating in a group, experiencing authentic assessment);
>
> thinking skills development (dealing with questions that involve higher level thinking);
>
> cooperative learning (taking a particular role within a group, contributing to the group's success). (March, 1998)

Within the framework of this study, WebQuests were cooperatively designed by junior-high school leavers for further teaching of these WebQuests to their junior peers in the 6th, 7th, and 8th grades. The results of the study were described by Knebortova (2019) in her master's thesis, written under the guidance of N. Orlova.

The Study

Our Context

Our study was conducted in an elementary and junior high school in Rovensko pod Troskami (Czech Republic). This is a small school attended by pupils from the first through to the ninth grade. In total, there are 15 teachers of various subjects and 160 pupils. According to the requirements of the Czech national curriculum, which are in tune with the language policy of the European Union, there are two foreign languages pupils have to learn while at school. The first foreign language can be started in the first to third grade, while the second foreign language is begun in the seventh and eighth grades according to the school's staff resources.

The Czech national curriculum recommends English as the first foreign language, and consequently English is statistically the most popular foreign language studied in Czech schools.

Participants

The participants were 63 junior high school students, from the age of 12 to 16 years old. 28 participants were female (44.4%), and 35 male (55.6%). They all started learning English in the third grade, at the age of 9-10 years old. The native language of sixty of the students is Czech; for two students, Ukrainian; and one student considers Moldovan their mother tongue. All participants were taught by the same teacher (i.e. Author 2). Institutional approval had been secured and informed consent was sought from the parents of all pupils. Table 1, below, presents the participants in terms of gender and years of studying English.

Table 1. Research participants

9th graders	15 pupils (9 girls and 6 boys) have been studying English for 7 years
8th graders	14 pupils (7 girls and 7 boys) have been studying English for 6 years
7th graders	14 pupils (2 girls and 12 boys) have been studying English for 5 years
6th graders	20 pupils (10 girls and 10 boys) have been studying English for 4 years

Activities / methodology and methods

The actual active research took place in May and June of the year 2018, at the end of the school year. This is the time when junior high school leavers receive the results from the secondary schools they applied to attend for further studies and, thus, their motivation to study in the final class of school is drastically decreased. The action research was organised in several stages over the course of one month. It is summarised in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Procedure of action research
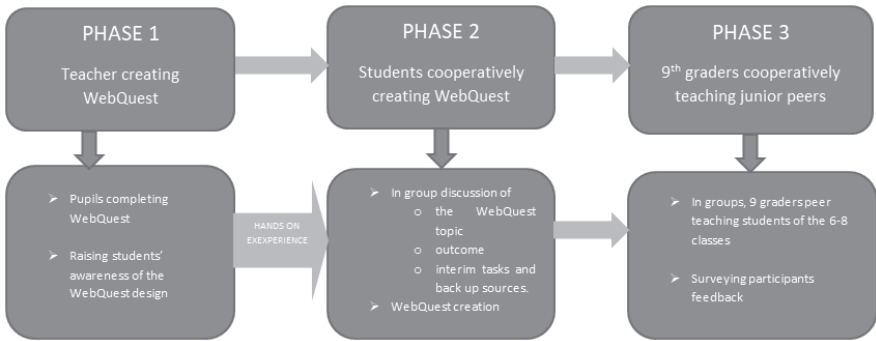
9th Graders Completing the WebQuest Created by the Teacher (Hands-on Experience)

In order to allow the 9th graders to have hands-on experience with WebQuests, the teacher created a WebQuest of her own. The topic of bullying was selected for the WebQuest, due to the fact that this obnoxious phenomenon may occur at schools and it is also highly discussed in Czech mass media. We assume that making students realise how harmful bullying can be to a human personality may serve as a good prevention strategy for this intolerable behavior. The site zunal.com was selected for the WebQuest design, as this platform efficiently describes the main steps necessary for WebQuest creation as well as navigating through the path to be followed while creating a WebQuest.

To conduct the WebQuest, students were split into four cooperative groups according to their own preference, with four students in each group. While following up all the steps required by the WebQuest, learners interacted mainly in English. This fact can be considered an achievement in itself, as it is quite challenging to motivate learners who share the same first language to use English in group discussions. As a follow up work, based on the information gained through the WebQuest, students made posters and presented them in class. The most challenging task required by the WebQuest completion was making up and acting out scenes to illustrate a particular kind of bullying. While the learners were initially shy to dramatise such scenes, later – supported by the teacher's approval – they completed the task successfully.

The topics for the scene selected by the groups were physical bullying, emotional bullying (selected by two groups), and cyberbullying, respectively.

Figure 2 is an example of a WebQuest designed by the teacher. For the full version, see: http://zunal.com/webquest.php?w=380223

Figure 2. Example from the WebQuest designed by the teacher

Raising Students' Awareness of the WebQuest's Design and Creation

The next stage of the study made it necessary to increase learners' awareness of the WebQuest design. When counselling learners on how to create WebQuests of their own, it is important that the teacher makes them think about:

the WebQuest topic

outcome

interim tasks and back up sources.

Since the WebQuests were designed within the framework of EFL classes, it was necessary to motivate the 9th graders to use various activities that would integrate the four skills, i.e. speaking, listening, reading and writing.

To motivate students to induce possible rules of the WebQuest design, the teacher suggested the following questions for brainstorming:

Was the WebQuest on the topic of "bullying" interesting for you? Why?

When fulfilling the WebQuest concerning bullying, were the materials necessary for the outcome included in the WebQuest?

In what language were those materials?

While fulfilling the WebQuest, did you practise reading? Listening? Writing? Speaking?

Before the 9th graders started brainstorming possible topics for WebQuests of their own, they were asked to select a class (from 5th to 8th) for which they would prepare their project. It was relatively easy to agree on the possible topics for the 7th and 8th grades, as the pupils are not so far from each other in terms of age, and they interact with these classes quite often. Agreeing on the topics for the 5th and 6th grades was more challenging. The final list of selected topics are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Topics selected by a particular grade

WebQuest topic	WebQuest final task	Grade
Paddington	Describe Paddington Bear	5
Sightseeing in Prague	Plan your sightseeing tour in Prague	6
Trip to England - Football	Find out all required information about stadiums and decide which stadium you would like to visit when going to England.	7
Trip to London	Plan your one-day trip to London	8

9th Graders Cooperatively Creating Their Own WebQuest in Small Groups

In order to achieve the final outcome – to design and create a WebQuest for a particular grade on the selected topic, 9th graders had to go through a ten-step project pattern, including, for example, gathering information, as well as compiling and analysing data and information (Alan & Stoller, 2005, p. 12).

Work on the creation of WebQuests was carried out during three successive lessons of English, which took place in a computer room equipped with 18 computers.

Various groups of 9th graders adopted different strategies while creating their own WebQuests. Students who immediately started creating the WebQuest online used the site zunal.com. While others first agreed on their roles within the group, each pupil was required to perform one of the following tasks:

surfing Internet sources,

looking for pictures/videos to be incorporated into the WebQuest,

formulating tasks,

accumulating materials for making the actual WebQuest.

When the WebQuests had almost been finished the teacher suggested not simply to place students' work anonymously on the ZUNAL site but for each group to assist their younger peers with the WebQuests. This news stirred enthusiasm in 9th graders to a higher level and some of them decided to modify their WebQuests to achieve better results.

An example of a WebQuest prepared by one group of 9th graders for 8th graders is shortly summed up in *Table 3* and it is illustrated in *Figure 3*. The grammar of the original is preserved. The other three WebQuests can be found on www.zunal.com.

Table 3. Example of WebQuest designed by the 9th graders

Introduction	The next year a trip to London is waiting for you. Your task is to schedule one day in London ...
Tasks	Find out all required information and plan your one-day trip to London
Process	You have two lesson for this WebQuest, let's start: Please, make pairs or groups of three (no more). In pair or group follow the instructions below: watch the short video about London discuss the interesting places which are in the film and decide which places would you like to see and visit read the text about places which you are interested in MAKE A POWER POINT PRESENTATION about places which you would like to visit (1slide = 1 place to visit) mention the location (where in London it is) mention the opening times mention the entrance prices give the reason why you have chosen that sight/place PRESENT YOUR GROUP PRESENTATION TO YOUR CLASSMATESS AND TO US GOOD LUCK ☺
Evaluation	The most important is the way of presenting your presentation and speaking performance.
Conclusion	At the end, pupils will have a useful material for their trip to London and will know more information about London and interesting places in London.

Figure 3. Example from a WebQuest designed by the 9th graders

9th Graders Cooperatively Teaching the WebQuests
to Junior Peers

After the WebQuests had been completed, it was necessary to prepare the 9th graders for assuming the roles of teachers while interacting with their junior peers. It was visible that these 'teachers' were eager to conduct interesting and engaging lessons based on the prepared WebQuests. With this in view, the teacher encouraged the 9th graders to brainstorm on possible activities before conducting the WebQuests and afterwards. All suggestions were fixed in a mind map. Finally, it was agreed that 9th graders would take the following steps while teaching their peers:

organising a warm-up activity

introducing the main task and procedures of the WebQuest

carrying out the WebQuest

evaluating their peers' work

concluding a session.

All sessions took place in classes equipped with OHP, and personal computers to enable the fulfilment of the tasks based on Internet searches. The length of the session was ninety minutes in each class.

When junior peers were working on the WebQuests, the senior ones monitored the work, walking through the class, checking comprehension of the tasks, and offering their help. Peer teachers also watched the timing of the session and informed peer learners about the necessity of finishing their work on WebQuest in due time.

Furthermore, peer teachers listened carefully to their peer learners' presentations of the outcomes of their cooperative work, supporting their comments with personal experience. In addition to these comments, they praised all groups for working hard and for fulfilling the interim tasks of the assignment.

All sessions were conducted in a positive atmosphere and it was visible that both sides enjoyed interacting with each other. It is necessary to note that presentations as well as senior peers' comments were made in English which can be regarded as a success in itself, as encouraging pupils to predominantly use the target language while interacting during a class is a challenging task in any EFL context. Considering this phenomenon, we came to the conclusion that senior peers genuinely liked to maintain teacher-like behaviour (thus speaking English), while junior peers did not want to lose face in this role-playing. Thus, peer teaching helped learners "to see themselves as potentially competent L2 users, to become excited about the value of knowing a foreign language in their own lives…" (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2013).

Table 4 sums up the main elements of the peer teaching sessions. Though, initially, the 9th graders prepared four WebQuests only three were taught to junior peers due to various reasons such as absences due to illness among the participants, school trips at the end of the school year, etc. The WebQuest about Paddington designed for the 5th grade was thus not taught.

Table 4. Summary of peer teaching sessions

Group #	WebQuest topic	Number of peer teachers	Number of peer learners	Topic of the final presentation
Group 1 – 7th grade	Trip to England - Football	2	14	Chelsea Arsenal
Group 2 – 8th grade	Trip to London	5	14	6 different suggestions of places they would like to visit
Group 3 – 6th grade	Sightseeing in Prague	3	20	3 places per group they would like to visit

Data Collection and Analysis

Instruments

As the main purpose of the research was to determine whether cooperative WebQuest creation in EFL classes with further peer teaching can improve the motivation of students in the final year of junior high school, it was relevant to survey participants' views on the process. With this in view, the data collection techniques included (1) a questionnaire completed by 9th graders after the WebQuest creation (2) a questionnaire completed by 9th graders after peer teaching (3) a questionnaire completed by peer learners. Questionnaires 1 and 2 were administered in English and Questionnaire 3 was completed in English by 8th graders and in Czech by junior peers.

Questionnaire 1 contained six statements. Its main objective was to obtain information as to whether the cooperative WebQuest creation encouraged them to fulfil all the necessary tasks, and consequently motivated them to gather and process information using English. Five was designed as a Likert scale with optional choices ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree', and five indicator statements:

1. I worked hard when creating a WebQuest

2. Making a WebQuest was interesting

3. I enjoyed making a WebQuest

4. It was interesting choosing sources for the WebQuest

5. I am interested in younger peers' outcomes

While dealing with statement 6 'I fulfilled the assignment because …' students could select more than one option from the following:

It was interesting

It was something new

It was challenging

My teacher was demanding

I liked preparing assignment for junior peers

This questionnaire was administered after the 9th graders finished their cooperative creation of the WebQuests and was completed by 15 students.

Questionnaire 2 contained the following statements:

1. I prepared myself for peer teaching in advance

2. Peer teaching was interesting

3. I enjoyed peer teaching

4. Peer teaching was a great experience

5. I would recommend trying peer teaching to other 9th graders

6. My feelings when peer teaching (you can choose more than one possibility).

The aim of the 2nd questionnaire was to find out the 9th graders' attitude and feelings after experiencing the role of peer teacher. The questionnaire was filled in by 10 students from the 9th grade after having peer taught their younger peers.

Questionnaire 3 was designed to learn junior peers' views on being taught by senior students. It consisted of seven statements:

When I saw my older peers going to teach us, I was excited

Peer teaching was interesting

I enjoyed peer teaching

Peer teaching was a great experience

I fulfilled the assignment, which my peers asked me to do

I always fulfill the assignments at school

I would like to try peer teaching myself when I am in 9ᵗʰ grade

Results

The results of the survey provided us with an overall picture of the participants' perceptions of the issues involved in cooperative peer teaching and learning.
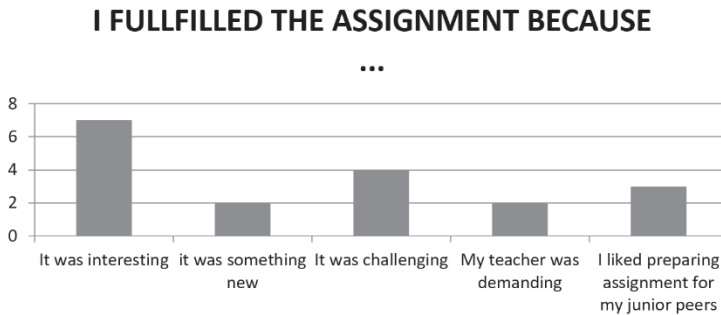
Analysing the respondents' views presented in Questionnaire 1, we found that the most frequent responses for all five statements turned out to be 'strongly agree' and 'agree', with 12 answers for the first statement and 14, 13, 13, 10 for statements 2-5 respectively. The options 'disagree' and 'strongly disagree' were selected only in minor cases: 3, 1, 2, 2 answers for statements 1 – 4. The options 'disagree' (2x) and 'strongly disagree' (3x) were selected for the last statement I am interested in younger peers'

outcomes which could be influenced by the fact that pupils were a bit nervous while peer teaching.

The final statement in Questionnaire 1 was aimed at learning the particular reason behind completing the WebQuest. The concrete choice options as well as their selection can be seen in Figure 4.

Figure 4. The reasons why the 9th graders created the WebQuest

I FULLFILLED THE ASSIGNMENT BECAUSE ...

It was interesting	7
it was something new	2
It was challenging	4
My teacher was demanding	2
I liked preparing assignment for my junior peers	3

The reasons named by students who could check more than one option demonstrate that the main stimuli for cooperative WebQuest creation were students' interest in the work (7), its challenge (4), and preparation of an assignment for junior peers. The novelty of the task, as well as the teacher's authority, were equally mentioned by 2 respondents.

The second questionnaire was administered to 9th graders who participated in peer teaching, and it was completed by 10 pupils. In Table 5 we include only the optional choices which were indicated by the respondents.

Table 5. 9th graders' views on peer teaching

Statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree
Peer teaching was interesting for me	2	8	0
I enjoyed peer teaching	3	7	0
Peer teaching was a great experience	3	6	1
I would recommend trying peer teaching to other 9th graders	4	5	1

As is visible from Table 5, the option 'disagree' was chosen twice by one and the same peer teacher. Contemplating this we came to the

conclusion that the pupil did not feel confident and efficient talking in a foreign language in front of the junior peers. Talking to other colleagues we found out that this student prefers to keep a low profile in other classes which provides us with food for thought on how to avoid a situation of this kind in the future. Undoubtedly, all peer teachers were nervous to a certain extent (as is visible from further analyses of the data), yet still, a majority regarded it as an interesting and enjoyable experience they could recommend to other 9th graders.

Finally, the last question of the survey focused on the peer teachers' feelings:

My feelings when peer teaching (you can choose more than one possibility):

I was nervous. I liked it. I was curious. I felt important. I was helpful.

The analyses of the answers showed that none selected the option 'I was curious', while the division of the other options got the following ratings: six peer teachers were nervous, eight liked it, two of them felt important, and two students felt helpful.

Though the research was targeted at the 9th graders and was carried out in order to discover whether cooperative WebQuest creation with further peer teaching can raise the motivational level of learning English at the end of junior high school, observing a genuine interest in the procedure among peer learners inspired us to ascertain their opinions. With this in view, we administered a questionnaire to peer learners from the 6th, 7th, and 8th grades. The total number of peers taught by 9th graders was forty eight.

This questionnaire was designed in English for the 8th graders, and in Czech for the 6th and 7th graders to avoid misunderstanding of the questionnaire content. The results of the questionnaire evinced an interest and enthusiasm that was visible during the observation of the peer teaching activity.

While answering the questionnaires all the respondents checked only three options out of the available, i.e. strongly agree, agree, and disagree. The results of this questionnaire are presented in *Table 6*.

Table 6. Junior peers' views on peer teaching

Statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree
I was excited to be taught by senior peers	13%	60%	27%
Peer teaching was interesting	24%	72%	4%
I enjoyed peer teaching	27%	69%	4%
I always fulfill assignments given by the teachers	15%	60%	25%
I fulfilled all the assignments my peers asked me to do	28%	63%	9%

Analyses of the respondents' answers about the possible benefits of peer teaching in the 9th grade revealed some unexpected results. The choices selected by 48 participants were 30 for strongly agree and agree, disagree and strongly disagree checked by 18, respectively, and summed up in Figure 5.

Figure 5. Junior peers' willingness to try peer teaching in the future
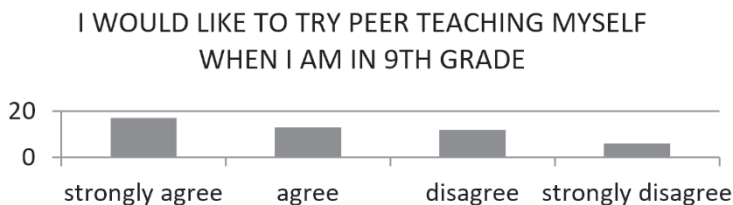
The highest number of pupils who were not enthusiastic about peer teaching in the future were found among the 8th graders. This result can be explained by a lack of self-confidence in social skills and in the use of English. At the same time, it proves that peer teaching requires more time to allow for the psychological preparation of students who are less confident in using English and consequently do not want to lose face while interacting with their junior peers. Still, we may hope that by being aware of such an activity as peer teaching in their immediate future, they can be motivated to improve their knowledge and skills in English.

Discussion and Implications

The current research, in tune with the conclusion of Goh (2006), proves that peer learning and teaching is a challenging strategy for teachers to

adopt. Still, it can be "a powerful mode of learning in motivating the sampled students to become actively engaged and involved learners" (Goh, 2006, p. 157). Peer teaching needs to be carefully thought over and organised in order to provide students with authentic learning experience of using communication skills in a foreign language

The key information obtained from the results of the questionnaire administered after WebQuest cooperative creation made it evident that students found cooperative learning challenging, though still interesting and joyful. This makes it possible to consider that cooperative WebQuest creation fosters students' intrinsic motivation, as according to Deci (as cited in Brown, 2007, p. 172) "Intrinsically motivated activities are ones for which there is no apparent reward except the activity itself."

The stage of the research which included peer teaching was regarded by participants as the most challenging one. Naturally all participants felt anxious about teaching junior learners, but they still found this endeavour interesting and worth trying and also recommended it to other peers in future. The active involvement of 9th graders in peer teaching, their use of English while interacting with 'co-teachers' and learners, and their dedication to successful task achievement presented a positive role model to junior students. Moreover, as peers seem to be less shy in using a foreign language while interacting with each other, peer teaching creates a safer environment for the language use, therefore favourably influencing the affective domain of all participants.

Conclusion

The study presented in this paper aims to outline some possible way of maintaining the motivation of learners who unfortunately cannot immediately use English as a lingua franca outside the classroom. The results of the study indicate that cooperative WebQuest creation is regarded by 9th graders of a junior high school as a motivating and innovative task which stimulated their creativity, the learner's autonomy, and also gave them a feeling of achievement; which is important for learning any subject in general, and a foreign language in particular, as effective domain plays an essential role in language learning.

This study also reveals that cooperative teaching of the designed WebQuests to junior peers was beneficial for both sides, making them use English meaningfully, and fulfilling communicative tasks which involved skill integration

Hopefully, junior peers, aware of the possibility of assuming the roles of teachers in the future, may invest more time and energy in learning English.

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SPEEDY ENGLISH GRAMMAR: POTENTIAL AND LIMITS

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Today's learners were born into an era of instant connectivity and digitalisation. Due to the constant presence of various technological devices in their lives from an early age, they expect the active use of technological tools also when learning a foreign language. As a result, English teachers might be forced to move away from traditional teaching methods, which are often disconnected with the way how their learners acquire new information, and to integrate technology into the classroom, which in most cases, requires a change in methods and approaches to language teaching. The following paper stresses the importance of teaching grammar, and offers options to reach the objectives through a selected smartphone application - "Speedy English Grammar". Within the research, the use of this application aims to prove that grammar holds an important position in teaching English as a foreign language.

The Changing World of English Language Teaching and Learning

Nowadays, young people belong to the generation surrounded by technology from an early age. They grow up with a computer in their home, use mobile phones since primary school, and can search for information using Internet access independent of time and place (Kopáčková, 2015, p. 155). The following studies conducted by three different organisations, including several age groups, prove this opinion and reflect that the time which the present-day generation in Slovakia spends online increases from year to year. In 2014, the Institute for Public Questions in Slovakia performed the study on 515 participants, aged 10 – 14, and realised that 50 % of them are online 1-2 hours per day (Velšic, 2015, p. 3). In 2016, two years later, the results of Millennials, a study conducted in Slovakia on 1500

participants aged 12 – 26, reflect that time being spent browsing the Internet and watching videos on YouTube has increased to more than 3 hours (235 minutes) per day (Millennials, 2016, p. 2). Similar results were obtained in the latest study conducted by organisation IPčko (Internetová poradňa pre mladých ľudí) on 100 young people, aged 12 – 16, according to which they spend approximately 2 hours and 51 minutes on the Internet, and this time can be even extended up to 4 hours and 19 minutes per day (Kohútová et al., 2018, p. 6). For all these people, who consider technology as an integral part of their everyday lives, Prensky (2001, p. 1) introduces the term "digital natives" as they are "native speakers of the digital language of computers, video games and the Internet." Similarly, Zur and Walker (2011, p. 1) describe them as a "generation born with digital DNA" and according to Bilgiç, Doğan and Seferoglu (2016, p. 192), it is a generation "who was born into the technology age and grew up with technology."

However, the ability to intuitively use a variety of technological devices is not their only characteristic. As Prensky (2001, p. 1) continues, "today's learners are no longer the people our educational system was designed to teach, because they also developed a different learning style and cognitive capacity." In our opinion, the accuracy of this statement is also visible in the field of English language teaching and learning. Due to their advanced digital literacy, present-day English learners expect the active use of computer-assisted language learning within classrooms on almost an everyday basis. Nevertheless, these expectations might be in contradiction with some of the English teachers' beliefs, as they might lack a positive relationship or confidence when using such technologies and are rather "digital immigrants" "who were not raised in a digital environment and have just acquired some form of digital literacy" (Alaniz, Wilson, 2015, p. 9). In terms of learning style, Kusuma and Rakhmawati (2015, p. 84) state that digital native learners "search for non-linear access to information, prefer images over the text-based content, expect immediate responses and reward from the technologies they use." Oblinger and Oblinger (2005, p. 18) are of a similar opinion and add that they need image-rich environments, do not like long readings, and prefer graphical information. Undoubtedly, it seems that the use of only text-based materials such as coursebooks, workbooks, or handouts within language classrooms cannot fulfil the needs of these learners, because they often lack visualisation, interactivity, and dynamism. Moreover, in comparison to the previous generation, digital native learners could be described as "multitaskers who are comfortable being engaged in several tasks simultaneously" (Kusuma, Rakhmawati, 2015, p. 84) and prefer "team work or social contact while learning" (Prensky, 2001, p. 2).

The assumptions that a new generation of learners, termed by Prensky (2001, p. 1) as digital natives, characterised by sophisticated technological skills and specific learning preferences, is present within the educational system might lead to the conclusion that approaches and methods to teaching and learning English need to be also changed in order to fulfil their learning needs. Being more concrete, Bennett, Kervin, and Maton (2008, p. 775) even write about "the urgent necessity for educational reform in response." Similarly, Oblinger and Oblinger (2005, p. 27) claim that "technology has changed the present-day generation just as it is now changing education." It could be assumed that the outcome of this kind of argument could be perceived from two main viewpoints. First, it leads to changes in the professional development of teachers who, according to Jones and Shao (2011, p. 7), need to be taught "new tools, new approaches and new skills" and, second, to transformation of learners' roles who will become "the source of guidance for their teachers" (ibid.). Undoubtedly, in recent years, while the use of information and communication technologies within formal education has become stressed at both institutional and policy levels, it could not be claimed that these technologies are widely integrated and accessible within the school system. In addition, even their availability does not guarantee the change in approaches and methods to foreign language teaching and learning. Therefore, it could be rather agreed with Gasser and Palfrey (2008, p. 338) who state that "the educational establishment is utterly confused about what to do about the impact of technology on learning." Considering the fact that within the formal education system at primary schools the majority of learners are digital natives, we presume that English teachers could primarily accommodate their teaching approaches and methods to become more technology-enhanced, fulfilling the learning needs of these learners who, first, will perceive their use as natural and, second, are proficient in using different types of smart technology.

Why English Grammar?

Teaching English grammar is criticised by many teachers and experts who prefer a communicative approach. They believe that children learn grammar via listening, reading, and speaking, just as they learn grammar in their first language. However, children at primary schools have difficulties with their mother language, which can be seen in Slovakian testing (testing 5th grade, testing 9th grade), especially reading comprehension and the field of grammar. This is their own language that they use, hear, and see constantly. On the other hand, the learners meet with the second language

up to five hours per week at primary school. The grammar rules are not easily understood by them; they keep making errors and these are reflected in everyday speech, story-telling, dialogue, or general practice.

Testing grammar is an essential part of teaching English. The Slovak school system considers grammar to be an important element, as all the tests and exams focus on grammar at the same level as speaking, listening, reading, or writing. Children applying for high schools or universities have to pass exams including a grammar test to prove their ability to use a language on an appropriate level. English grammar gives the essential basis to use the language in a spoken or written form according to grammatical rules (e.g. application forms, requests, formal or informal conversation). Speaking or writing in a grammatically correct manner contributes to reach higher level of CEFR.

Grammar errors are marked in the early stage of adopting the foreign language. Thus, all language skills should go hand in hand from the very beginning, and one cannot work on any of them in isolation (Brown, 2007).

In the research described below, we try to verify that practicing grammar at home via mobile application help students gain grammar knowledge that will be put into practice while speaking, making dialogues, and describing pictures, events, situations, or other activities. Learning grammar in a more attractive way makes learners see and understand the function and rules of language.

Research Procedure

The ongoing research aims to verify the positive influence of the application of learning English grammar in formal learning (tasks given via homework) and to contribute to higher learning motivation among learners.

The research sample is made up of 60 pupils (from a primary school in the east of Slovakia), half of which is the experimental group and the other half is the control group. Within the experimental group, we managed to involve 15 pupils of the 5th grade (whose knowledge in the examined grammar area reaches the level of beginners) and 15 pupils of the 6th grade (whose knowledge reaches the level of advanced beginners). The same number of pupils made up an experimental group of 5th grade pupils and 6th grade pupils. The knowledge is comparable between both experimental groups.

In 2019, all pupils completed a questionnaire of motivational types of people according to Plamínek. As the questionnaire was in Czech, Slovak language teachers translated it into their native language. However, the questions found it difficult to formulate for pupils aged 10 to 12, so the

teacher's help was needed to explain the meaning of the task. We expect these motivational types of learners to be a key point for determining the effect of the application, in other words, which motivational type is most positively influenced by the application.

The questionnaire contained 20 questions to determine the value of effectiveness and usefulness and 20 tasks determining the value of dynamics and stability. The resulting value determined the motivation type of a particular pupil. Plamínek (2010) defines these four types of motivational learners:

Explorers are the combination of dynamics and usefulness, and are independent and self – reliance in their behaviour. They are strongly attracted by conquering constraints and rising to challenges; often impatient, eager for information. This type of people appreciate freedom and autonomy but cannot stand to be driven; their argumentation primarily focuses on the matter, and man is referred to only to support the argumentation; such a motivation type is in the frame to succeed in disciplines in which social skills are not strongly required.

Directors include a combination of dynamics and effectiveness. The dynamic component supports them in risky activities, the effectiveness factor – expresses dynamics mainly in social processes and human relations. These people like to have an impact on other people; they strive to achieve maximum freedom and unlimited possibilities, and also appreciate being the centre of attention; they are predetermined for social success, and are often leaders of groups.

Harmonisers are the combination of stability and effectiveness. The importance of coordinators lies in how social relations are important for the stability and effectiveness of the system; they focus on people, their relations, feelings and satisfaction; they like talking to others, asking, listening, and are open to discussion. Conversations with coordinators are always helpful and pleasant, they understand others, especially in terms of feelings and emotions, and are also highly emphatic.

Specifiers combine stability and usefulness. Such people are reliable, accurate, and hard on themselves and the environment. They require clear tasks and reach them precisely; they appreciate the good organisation of work, like rules and regulations, but neither risk nor negotiating with people. They are calm in social relations, and open to those who they closely know and trust. They respect teachers and are loyal to school.

After defining the four types of motivation, the pupils were given a standardised pretest at the beginning of the 2019/2020 school year. This standardised test was designed by McMillan, and adopted to fulfil the needs of the research, as the tested area contains two grammatical phenomena

(*present simple* - the first tense they learn, the biggest errors were recorded in PS after years of teaching; we were trying to find a way how to help students manage difficulties with grammar; and *present continuous tense* - the second tense they learn, confusing in combination with present simple). The questions are not limited to the choice of options, but also to the actual creation of the phenomenon, thus increasing the need for pupils to think more critically.

The test contains 60 tasks and is divided into three parts, with the first 20 questions being multiple choice. The tasks from 21 to 40 require understanding of the difference and form of the two grammatical structures. The last twenty questions are the choice of one word fitting into a blank space.

In the following phase, the pupils downloaded the application to their smartphones or tablets. They started to use it with their home preparation for a period of 6 months. A posttest is planned to be written at the end of the mentioned period of using the application.

The *Speedy English Grammar* application was designed for smart technologies (smartphones, tablets) for learning basic English grammar; it links words to form sentences in a highly addictive English grammar course for ESL/EFL beginner and intermediate level learners (A1, A2 and B1). It contains over 100 simple lessons, including a simple colour-coded grammar book, listening exercises, and challenging games which test one's knowledge of English grammar.

It also includes a grammar reference book (list of irregular verbs, articles, pronouns and possessives, comparatives and superlatives); there are challenging games which test learners' knowledge after each chapter; each chapter has listening practice which includes American as well as British English vocabulary and pronunciation; the application provides tips when learners make mistakes, and the learning method fixes mistakes instantly.

Research Results

After the pretest was written, we checked the normality of data distribution in the results of the test. In this work, decimal comma is used instead of decimal point, as is common in English texts. The reason is that the statistical software processing the data presents the results using commas, not points. The results of tests for normality data distribution are displayed in Tables 1 and 2.

**Table 1. Tests for Normality for Experimental Group**

Test	Statistics	*p*-Value
Chi-Square	19.0	0.0885285
Shapiro-Wilk W	0.91087	0.0170573
Skewness Z-score	1.15256	0.249092
Kurtosis Z-score	-0.872729	0.382809

Table 2. Tests for Normality for Control Group

Test	Statistics	*p*-Value
Chi-Square	19.0	0.0885285
Shapiro-Wilk W	0.91087	**0.0170573**
Skewness Z-score	1.15256	0.249092
Kurtosis Z-score	-0.872729	0.382809

The lowest P value in both monitored files is less than 0.05, so we can reject the hypothesis that the files originate from the normal distribution. For further analysis, a non-parametric Mann-Whitney test was therefore used.

As clearly seen in Figure 1, there was no statistically significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in the pretest results (see the red marks within the box) - the experimental and control group must be equal to start a pedagogical experiment.

Figure 1. Results of Pretest in Experimental and Control Groups
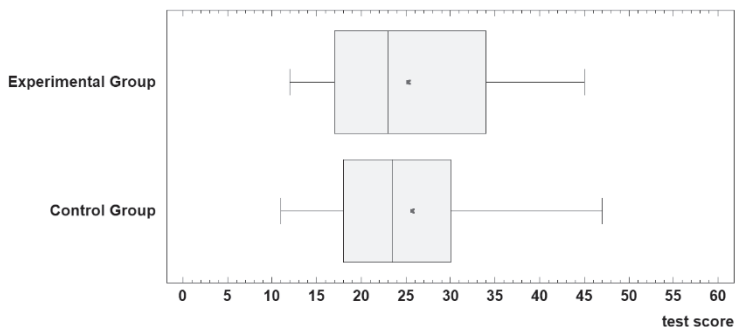
In the next step we tested whether there was a statistically significant difference in results depending on the motivation type. We used the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test for multiple comparisons. Results of the Kruskal-Wallis test are displayed in Table 3.

Table 3. Results of Kruskal-Wallis Test

	Sample Size	Average Rank
directive	10	32.85
specifying	25	29.74
exploring	17	27.7647
harmonising	8	35.75

As displayed in Figure 2, statistically significant differences were not discovered between the groups of pupils reflecting the motivational type (see the red marks).

Figure 2. Results of Pretest Reflecting the Motivational Type
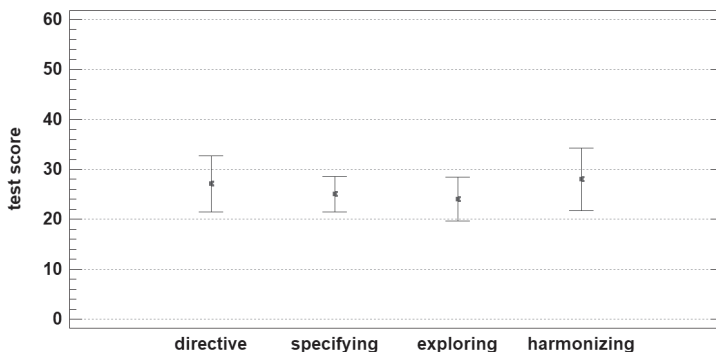
The next phase of the research is to work with the application for a period of six months, to document the learners' achievements via homework and finally test them using a standardised posttest which will reflect their grammar knowledge in the areas mentioned above.

Conclusion

The work deals with the use of technology in education, which has become an almost routine topic in recent years. The generation of learners referred to as digital natives has had access to computers, video games, the Internet, and other digital devices since their childhood. As a result, they do not perceive technology as something unique or extraordinary, but simply as a natural part of their everyday life. Thus, computer-assisted as well as mobile-assisted language learning could, at first sight, seem to serve as great approaches to teaching and learning English. As demand for teachers to adopt such methods are increasing, it is essential for them to adapt quickly to complement their knowledge and skills, and innovate methods.

Special attention is paid to teaching grammar. An English teacher should be grammatically competent, thus know grammar rules of that language. In addition, it is necessary that teachers are able to lead their pupils to understand and apply the rules, which is related to their presentation skill, but also to the selection and creation of appropriate materials that their pupils will draw on in their studies (Pelgrum, Law, 2003). After several years of teaching English experience at elementary school, we have come to the conclusion that the most serious and persistent problem among pupils at the very beginning is distinguishing between the two present tenses. Since

the field of grammar is, in our point of view, inseparable from learning English and goes hand in hand with other skills, we decided to help students in an innovative and modern way to acquire these two grammar phenomena.

When choosing an application, the focus was on its content, engagement, availability, and price. Since the selected application can be downloaded free of charge and meets our criteria, we will verify its contribution to the selected sample of students.

We believe that the application will have a positive impact on the experimental sample of learners, as their initial response after downloading the application to their mobile devices was positive and expectant.

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CREATIVE FOR A REASON: CREATIVITY IN EFL

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Instructors of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) may perceive themselves as being on a well-trodden path in a trade plied by generations of competent predecessors. The methods and materials are manifest and mature. There is a plethora of professionally prepared texts and lessons. The instructor may peruse and select workbooks or other standardized teaching materials which meet predefined lesson objectives. The students will most likely find their expectations met because they have become accustomed to these didactic methods. Yet dedicated and demanding EFL instructors may feel dissatisfied with an off-the-shelf approach. A desire or even need for personalised materials may have several sources. It is possible that the instructor does not find the content of commercially available material to be the most appropriate for their lessons, for example when serving a specialised group or highly specific content. They may be teaching a c; for instance, a class with irregular attendance or a high learner turnover. The instructor may wish to add their individual flair to the lesson, to make the content more memorable, and perhaps meet a specific goal for a lesson. To meet instructors' and learner's individualised goals, learning management systems, lesson materials, and classroom activities provide channels for exercising didactic and pedagogical variations. This paper identifies three main realms of application for creativity in the EFL lesson plan: 1) Visual design: colours, graphics, layout, etc.; 2) Content: topic selection, degree of specialisation, etc.; 3) Medial: use of different materials and channels including gamification, video, online quizzes, etc. Experience and course evaluations show that

students respond positively to these creative classroom elements. While adaptations naturally require an investment of time and effort, creativity is rewarded with enthusiasm (among both students and instructors), enhanced focus, and ideally higher attainment of the learning objective.

Introduction

For as long as languages have existed, so has the situational need to communicate in a foreign language; and, accordingly, formal and informal language instructors have responded to this calling. Language instruction has gone through countless iterations and innovations over the millennia (Howatt and Smith, 2014) – certainly every variation has been tried before? How and why should language instructors continue to find novel and creative ways of conducting their courses?

Inspired by the focus of the Challenges IX conference on creativity and reason, the authors took the opportunity to consider the role of creativity in EFL instruction from their own perspective as teacher of students at the tertiary level. The primary aspects which crystallised out of their contemplation of where creativity might be most relevant were: the teaching methods, [the *how*]; the content and materials, [the *what*]; along with the constructed expectations of the instructional context, [the *whence*]. The question is posed as to where the instructor can best apply their creativity to best improve the learning experience of the EFL students.

Regarding the teaching methods and techniques, or *how*, the pedagogy associated with EFL has matured over hundreds of years, and despite some internecine quarrels there is general consensus on the elements of "good" teaching. A wide palette of approaches is well documented and available to the EFL instructor (Harmer, 2015). There is thus no pressing need to invest resources in reinventing concepts which are already proven effective and readily available.

With regard to content, or *what*, the EFL instructor can fall back on the support of an industry that is more than happy to produce and provide, at a price, the complete gamut of teaching and learning materials for various languages, levels and fields of application. In this case as well, the abundance of supply does not appear to justify the effort required for generating original material for a large number of instructional situations.

Finally, with respect to established expectations, or *whence*: by the time they reach tertiary education, it is extremely likely that students are not experiencing their first foreign language course. Rather, the factors of established methods and standardized materials collude to create a cushion

of learner expectation, inuring them to the language learning process. Students have been conditioned to what a language course in general and the lessons in particular encompass. A course based on time-proven methods and commercial coursebook material is what they know and have come to expect. This expectation threshold also dampens the instructor's incentive for devoting effort to adapting their techniques.

When an instructor applies their creativity to disrupt the expectations of the canonical classroom, the increased level of attention feeds into learner motivation and also instructor motivation, creating a positive cycle in which all participants in the learning process have a higher degree of satisfaction and attainment.

Impetus

What about instructor creativity, then? How does being creative and original fit into an established scheme such as an EFL class? Well, instructors will know that the true goal of teaching is to have students learn. As Alan Maley of the British Council has said, routine is not conducive to learning: "The great enemy of learning is routine. So teachers who can make things new for their students are likely to be more successful than those who don't do that" (2019). Coming from another perspective, concepts of language development such as noticing (Schmidt, 1990, 2001) and salience (Gass et al., 2017) identify feature distinctiveness or prominence as important to the language development process; a well-worn routine simply does not attract a learner's attention. The goal of the EFL instructor should therefore be to avoid routine to better activate the learning process. Creativity is the instrument to break out of the confines of convention and to find the path to improving the EFL learners' language development, and in doing so, improving their own teaching experience as well. The construct of creativity can be understood to entail the application of a) novelty or originality b) in a manner appropriate, effective and/or useful to the context (Amabile 1983, Sternberg and Lupert 1999). The question arises as to how to best apply creativity to manipulate the classroom factors of *how* (teaching methods) and *what* (lesson content), and, relatedly, learners' constructed expectations based on *whence*. By isolating these factors, they can be individually addressed to provide an avenue to routine-breaking, learning-enhancing EFL lessons with benefits for both the learner and the teacher.

Firstly, to retain novelty and innovation, teaching methods and materials (*how* and *what*) need to keep pace with changes in technology and in society. The fact is that younger generations of learners are increasingly technophile and their relationship to media is evolving. As described in the

subsequent section, the new media provide excellent channels for applying creativity and obtaining variety in EFL.

Secondly, professional publishers do not necessarily provide the optimal methods or content for a given situation. Commercial EFL products are published by companies whose goal is to make a profit. The materials regularly ignore key elements of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research, resulting in lower cognitive engagement and underserving the achievement of authentic communicative competence (Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2013). This predicament is not conducive to an ideal SLA learning environment. For example, the adult EFL coursebooks reviewed by Tomlinson and Masuhara:

provide closed and pre-determined rather than open answers.

do not foster creativity.

show a decreasing use of humor.

result in teachers often negative about the material (see also Tomlinson 2010).

The inaptness of a textbook-dominated approach becomes increasingly acute as the course needs veer from mass-production areas (where publishers would naturally have the highest return on investment), as any instructor of Language for Specific Purposes can attest. By supplementing or replacing off-the-shelf approaches to language development through the infusion of instructor creativity, learners' needs can be better served.

Finally, the instructor's creativity can promote learner engagement and motivation. Regarding the interplay or material development with affective factors, Maley refers to the need to raise an atmosphere of 'expectancy' rather than 'expectation' (2003). Students should be able to look forward with positive anticipation to what the lesson is going to bring, rather than having a feeling of "different day, same old stuff." Materials, content, and techniques should be multifarious, consistently adding a fresh wrinkle to lessons which will consequently pique learners' interest.

There is no silver bullet to alleviate the work involved in preparing creative lessons. Applying creativity to course preparation involves unavoidable effort and requires knowledge and experience (Petkovska, 2015). However, like any skill, the development of new materials, exercises and approaches can become more efficient over time and with practice. The payoff from the effort increases, and the results require less development time and are of higher effectiveness.

Fulcrum and Lever

Now that creativity has been identified as an instrument towards improving the learning experience, it is necessary to refine where and how to apply this creativity. In the context of EFL lessons, three potential channels come to mind through which creativity may come to fruition: design (focusing on the *how)*, content (adaptation of the *what*), and media delivery (the marriage of *how* and *what*).

First of all, the colours, graphics, layout, etc., of the lesson material provide an avenue for reconfiguring the appearance of how the EFL learner is presented with materials. The aberrance from established expectations breaks the routine and captures students' interest to promote learner engagement. Visual variation can be applied to handouts, slide decks, or learning management systems. Presenting materials in a variety of formats – incorporating colours, different sizes from cards to posters, or introducing authentic haptic materials – can increase the novelty factor.

The combination of text and images is more conducive to learning than the use of text alone (Mayer, 2014). Imagery in slide decks, animated presentations, cartoons and subtitled videos are possibilities for linking pictures and words. Animation, if used effectively and not overdone, is well applied here.

Nonetheless, content is truly the keystone to the success of a lesson and also the element with possibly the highest potential for creativity. Lesson topics should engage the learners participating in the course. The content should be interesting and/or relevant to the learner (Krashen, 1985). Although both general English and specialty-specific material can contribute to an improvement in language skills, the affinity students feel towards the topics is higher for those they find relevant to their area of specialty (González, 2016). Further, the lesson design should bear relevance to authentic tasks in the "real-world". This relevance in the form of content-based instruction and task-based learning can enhance the learning experience (Pica, 2008; Long, 2015).

Instructors should not feel obligated to predetermine the complete content curriculum. Rather than patronising or mollycoddling the learners, it can be very effective to include them in the determination of content. Allowing students to contribute and guide topics is an effective means to introduce variety, ensure relevance, and promote content affinity.

Course content is also integral to ensuring the environmental ingredients conducive to optimal SLA, e.g. comprehensible input, negotiated interaction, and pushed output (Ortega, 2009). Material should be tailored to the specific learners and not mass-market, off-the-shelf products, which

are less likely to be relevant or interesting to the learners (Freeborn, 2015). The material and approach ought to suit the addressed topic, the level of the course, and the students' needs (Onofrei et al., 2012).

A modern EFL environment disengages from the audio-lingual focus on grammar and shifts to practicing interactive communicative tasks (Long 1996). Rather than attempting to teach English grammar in its entirety, the goal should be to teach those specific aspects known to help those specific learners achieve level-appropriate communicative competence (Doughty and Williams 1998). Lessons involving grammatical structure are legitimate if they provide the learners the opportunity to apply the learning objective to actual communication tasks (Ellis, 2006).

The types of assigned tasks also play a role in how effective the understanding of what is being learned is incorporated by the learner. Convergent tasks are likely to contribute more to understanding than divergent tasks without a particular outcome (Gass and Mackey, 2013). Interactive convergent tasks requiring discourse are excellent communicative tasks.

Regarding the level of the material, the input hypothesis asserts that learners are actually able to improve their language acquisition when they understand input that is just above their present capabilities (i+1; Krashen, 1985). In keeping with this, the EFL instructor should assure that the material presented in their EFL course provides a sufficient amount of comprehensible input at a level just above the learner's current ability. Analogously, for consistency the required output should 'push' learners slightly beyond their existing proficiency. The comprehensible output hypothesis asserts that learners are likely to add to their understanding of a language when they encounter something they did not previously know (Swain and Lapkin, 1995).

The tasks assigned in EFL courses thus have a greater likelihood of promoting understanding and growth when they have the quality to disclose the difference between what learners can produce and what they need to produce. Recognising the gap between present capability and the required level of competence provides the learner with the opportunity to act and adjust to that discrepancy and consequently add to their language ability (Schmidt, 1995). The creativity of EFL instructors is perhaps the most auspicious resource available to design tasks allowing such disclosure.

Simply put, the media opportunities of the 21st century belong in the 21st century EFL classroom. The contemporary learners' native environment is replete with the latest technology and its applications. EFL instructors can benefit from the creative use of modern media to capture learners' interest.

Participation in the EFL lesson should not be synonymous with a technological or methodological step back in time.

Classical representation of information will not engender the same degree of anticipation and interest that more state-of-the-art methods can. Phrased more bluntly, classroom media should keep pace with technology or risk becoming archaic in the manner of the slate chalkboard and tallow candle. Because the technological environment does not remain static but rather is in a state of constant flux, it falls upon the EFL instructor to be aware of which technologies, services and applications exist and how to apply them effectively in an EFL course.

While technology provides new tools for creating materials and interactions, classic word games such as jumbles, crossword puzzles, word tiles, or word searches provide a gamut of possibilities for adding variety to the introduction of lexis. Variations on interactive games such as Jeopardy, Who Wants to be a Millionaire, Family Feud, Hidden Picture, or Memory that are tailored to the target lexis further participation in the classroom and increase exposure. Possibilities abound for both applying these games during the actual lesson and creating online versions for outside the classroom. Equally, BYOD (bring your own device) gamified formats such as Kahoot bring new opportunities to engage learners (Bawa 2019).

Online quizzes constructed by the EFL instructor in, for example, learning management systems such as Moodle provide an excellent opportunity for self-learning. This warrants some consideration to ensure that the online language-learning content exceeds neither the learners' digital nor language proficiency (Hsu, 2017). Use of such practice testing has been shown to have a positive impact on learner success (Dunlosky et al., 2013). End-of-semester surveys reflect that learners recognise the benefit of such testing practice, as respondents mention Moodle quizzes along with technical topics most frequently as factors having been helpful in supporting learning (Koenig and Guertler, 2019). In-class word games and cartoons also earn regular praise.

Applying creative elements in the classroom is not possible without a substantial investment of time, effort, and resources. It calls for repeated trial and error to determine which techniques are most appropriate under which conditions. Using creativity effectively in the EFL classroom requires work and extensive preparation (Petkovska, 2015). However, the investment bears the potential of a substantial payoff for both the instructor and the learners.

Benefits for the Instructor

Despite the volume of preparation, the rationale for accepting the challenge of proactively pumping creative inspiration into the language classroom is clear in light of the potential benefits. From the perspective of the instructor, said benefits of generating creative material may encompass (Constantinides, 2015):

More stimulating material

Applying creativity to EFL lessons provides the capacity to make the material more engaging with regard both to subject matter and to presentation. When applying creativity, the selection of subjects is possible with a far greater level of specialisation and contemporaneity. This is an advantage over off-the-shelf materials, and updating one's own existing material regularly as well will ensure that lesson content remains highly relevant. Presentation can be augmented with respect to both media and layout. Enhancing technology can be applied where appropriate, and the lesson material rendered to maximise participation and exchange of information.

Increased variation

The ability and willingness to be creative in the design of EFL courses empowers the instructor to include diverse aspects and characteristics in the lessons and materials. The instructor may experiment with novel ideas or methods and adapt input from different sources. The introduction of variation into the lesson plan and course material will act as a remedy to routinism and lesson-weariness, serving to engage and re-engage the learners. Variation will not prevent instructors from developing their own course style. Rather, the practical variation of the lessons can become a signature quality of the course.

Enhanced flexibility

As instructors develop their creativity, they concomitantly evolve their capability to accommodate new, different, or changing situations. They are acquainted with their course material on a more detailed level due to its wellspring from their own creative thought processes. If, for example, the instructor senses that a particular activity is proceeding especially well, they may choose to prolong it rather than moving on to a subsequent exercise.

Conversely, if the desired effect is not being achieved, the observant instructor can choose to cut an activity short. A truly flexible instructor has not only the option of moving around in the lesson plan, but perhaps is able to introduce impromptu elements of particular relevance or effectiveness.

Improved adaptability

Being involved in the creative process sharpens the ability to modify the nature, quality, or design of the course material to a particular use, purpose, or situation. Because the various techniques through which the course has been developed are known and internalised, these techniques can be applied to existing course material to adapt it to specific circumstances. For example, a lesson used effectively with one specific target group of learners may be modified to appeal to a second very specific group of learners. This ability to adapt to the learners improves with practice. With increasing experience in preparation, it becomes easier to modify material.

Greater inventiveness

Beyond the capacity to modify, the practice of applying creativity enhances the adeptness at producing something new rather than merely imitating that which already exists. At the root of creativity is the creative thought process, the use of imaginative skill to produce original substance. Consistent with the aforementioned benefits, once an instructor has become familiar with the application of their creativity, material-producing abilities are enhanced which make the process easier, more efficient, and simply more fun.

Benefits for the Learner

The focus in the classroom should be on the learners' development and progress. As such, the potential positive impact of lesson creativity on the learners is not to be disparaged. The elements of positive impact may comprise (Petkovska, 2015):

Bolstered enthusiasm

When learners recognise that the subject matter has been tailored specifically to their needs, when they appreciate the variety in the course content, when they experience positive anticipation with regard to how the lesson will be carried out – that is when their enthusiasm is awakened.

Enthusiastic learners are more likely to have a positive learning experience. They will participate more in classroom activities, and their enthusiasm may even brim over to increase self-study beyond the classroom.

Intensified focus

Via creative course design, instructors can hone learners' attention to allow clearer perception and understanding. The relevance and applicability of the subject matter can be communicated and priorities reinforced. Extraneous information can be removed and the core message enhanced. The streamlined result can help learners concentrate on essentialities for their personal language development.

Accentuated learning objectives

Creative lesson design allows instructors to construct lessons with learning objectives defined by the specific learners' needs. The appropriate lesson structure can then emphasise those objectives. Activities and exercises punctuating the specified goals can be constructed around the core topic. The strategy of stress and repetition enhances learners' exposure to the key concepts and supports them in internalising the target objectives.

Enhanced inclusion

A further benefit of self-designing lessons is that it allows the optimisation of learner participation. Pair work, small group activities, speed dating formats or marketplace exchanges permit large numbers of learners to simultaneously apply their English language skills. This interactive mindset is far more conducive to practicing the language than teacher-centric approaches. In addition, learners may feel less inhibited in addressing a single peer than when they have to speak in front of the entire class. The calculation is simple: Maximising the number of speakers maximises the number of learners using English. This in turn instills a degree of sanguinity in the instructor that the learners are pursuing the lesson learning objectives.

And possibly… fostered retention?

To be able to make a verifiable, quantitative statement regarding whether applying creativity as has been suggested leads to improved long-term learning achievement will require an empirical study beyond the scope

of this report. However, it appears straightforward that presenting EFL learners with relevant, topical material in a manner sparking their interest and getting them actively involved in intercommunication should contribute positively to their language competence.

Conclusion

Creativity is an extremely useful tool in EFL lesson design and implementation. Imagination and inventiveness breathe new life into the *how* and *what* of lesson planning. Moreover, the instructor's creativity disrupts the learner's indoctrinated expectations of the foreign language classroom to result in higher engagement and, in the ideal case, improved progression.

The potential required effort is not negligible. Making any changes and introducing new elements comes at a cost. It requires time, energy, and resources. The fewest of us have these things in overabundance and they must therefore be invested efficiently. Nonetheless, the rewards in terms of learning achievement as well as motivation (for both students and instructors) should more than compensate for the expended effort.

Regarding the discussion of learners' conditioned expectations of the language classroom experience, it is important to note that these binds constrain not only instructors and students, but also publishers. Textbook producers must strike a difficult balance, appealing to both teachers and instructors, with the ultimate goal of promoting language learning, but while also turning a profit. A radically different approach to course and content construction may be more effective, but given the entrenched expectations of the relevant stakeholders, a revolutionary concept may be deemed too risky for the profit-seeking venture of publishing (Tomlinson and Masuhara 2013).

In summary, creativity allows the language instructor to manipulate the *how* of teaching methodology and the *what* of content delivery to disrupt the expectations conditioned by a language learner's *whence*. Originality opens a new panorama of *whither* – using creativity to heighten learner engagement and motivation towards achieving communicative competence.

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Teaching Foreign Language Students With Autistic Spectrum Disorders

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The number of young people with various diagnoses, including autistic spectrum disorders such as Asperger's syndrome or highly functioning autism, educated in the form of inclusion under the mainstream school system is still rising. Since English is a compulsory subject for every school child in Slovakia, students with autism also belong to the group of English language learners who attend foreign language classes. Thereupon causing worries to teachers and calling for the necessity of a wider concept because it might cause didactic problems, and thus this state attracts teachers' attention. Despite the prejudice against autistic people in our society, they are able to attain excellent educational results; however, in a very different way from the mainstream. This article depicts the teaching foreign language approaches to children having autistic spectrum disorders and strategies to help the learners and teachers acquire the curriculum. Data were collected via the parents' questionnaires of primary school children having autistic spectrum disorders, neurotypical children and also teacher's daily experience in teaching English to these children. Results are presented in the form of tables and prove the expectation that the special educational needs of these children can be satisfied when individualised approaches based on health conditions and motivation to learn are applied.

Introduction

Many people may think that a person suffering from autism is akin to "Rain Man", the movie character created by Barry Morrow in 1998. The man, who is unable to live a common life, is not able to walk across the street and has problems communicating. The person, who lives his own

imaginary life, loves stereotypes and rules because they give him security. However, this is not merely only a character, as teachers nowadays frequently meet children who behave unusually and strangely. Teachers are often curious how it is possible that a child so clever can be so immature. The research conducted by Starcic (2014) concluded that the diagnosis of autism in mainstream education might be more common than it seems. The inclusion level of the children with learning disabilities into mainstream schools in the United Kingdom was 28.81 % in 2014, with a growing tendency. In comparison to Slovakia, according to official statistics of the Ministry of the Education, Science, Research, and Sport of the Slovak Republic, there are about 10% of special education needs children at primary schools in the country, whist the Centres of Specialised Pedagogical Counselling provide help to more than 88,000 children. The higher prevalence of SEN is strongly influenced by better diagnostics, as teachers are more educated on this issue and able to recognise the symptoms of learning disabilities.

One of the diagnoses included under special educational needs learners (SEN) is also autistic spectrum disorder students (ASD), and the occurrence of autistic spectrum disorders is 1%, with the prevalence of male to female (Baron-Cohen, 1998). The reason could lie in improved diagnostic tools. Teachers are also more experienced in recognition of the symptoms on autistic spectrum disorders. Equally important is the fact that parents are more informed on the issue and look for professional advice themselves, however, they are able to receive only psychological help as factors responsible for autism are still the matter of scientific research and thus there are not any remedies on the autism yet.

Since English is a compulsory subject for every school child in Slovakia, students with special educational needs also belong to the group of English language learners who attend foreign language classes. For that reason, English teachers at primary schools face the demanding job of meeting the needs of all types of learners, including those with diagnosed learning needs.

The specialists in pedagogy Seidler and Kurincová (2011) analysed the current state, conditions, and aspects of the inclusion and teaching special education needs learners in Slovakia at primary schools as following:

> The parents' involvement in the education process of special educational needs students is vital. Students without parental support make little progress.

> Without a special pedagogist, SEN students are lost in mainstream primary schools.

Teachers call for the necessity of more materials and help in the process of inclusion.

As the above-mentioned authors claim, special educational needs learners, especially children with high functioning autism or Asperger's syndrome, require more professional help and more parental involvement in their education.

The study

Participants' characteristics

This research is aimed at analysing the attitudes to gaining four language skills – listening, speaking, reading, and writing among autistic spectrum disorder students and compares them with neurotypical students without autism. Students suffering from Asperger's syndrome and high functioning autism have problems in establishing social links, have pedantic and repetitive speech, difficulties in managing conversations, resistance towards changes in daily routine, and very low attention span (Zelinková, 2009). The results of a study made by specialists in autism (Mattila, 2010) present that autistic spectrum disorder students suffer from a higher occurrence of comorbid psychiatric disorders, such as depression, anxiety, and Tourette's syndrome. These students have difficulty with problem solving; especially with audio information processing, which is caused by the weakened short-term memory that affects the ability to follow instructions, namely in the disturbing environment that school is. Autistic spectrum students can also have various learning disorders, mainly attention deficit disorders causing the need for class accommodation in the form of special education needs. As stated by Carrol (1990, p.14), the results of research on the components of foreign language aptitude have been without great changes since 1959, and include the following aspects:

grammatical sensitivity

phonetic coding ability

memory abilities

inductive language learning ability

auditory ability.

It has been proven that autistic spectrum disorder students have relatively intact visuospatial abilities, good auditory short-term and memory skills, as well as remarkable memory for specific kinds of information

(Kendall, 2009). To better understand the learners' needs, we will discuss their impairments and challenges in relation with learning and teaching foreign languages.

Didactics of foreign language teaching for SEN learners

In order to learn a foreign language, one must master certain components like memory abilities, phonetic coding ability, grammatical sensitivity, and inductive learning ability. Students must meet a set of requirements, goals, and competencies when acquiring a foreign language. The education of students with autistic spectrum disorders is carried out in accordance with the current legislation of the Ministry of Education and recommended guidelines of the State Educational Programme of the Slovak Republic. The situation is similar in the Czech Republic. As the guidelines fully specify, teachers need professional advice from psychologists who prepare a tailored, individualised educational programme, as well as provide recommendations on teaching and compensational aids for children with special needs or pervasive disorders (Kendal, 2009). An individualised educational programme, in particular, helps both students and teachers to work according to their skills, because the programme is developed with consideration of the specific needs of the student (Zelinková, 2009).

Kormos and Smith (2012) provide detailed professional advice on teaching foreign language to special educational needs learners who face a great deal of problems while learning a foreign language in comparison to their unimpaired peers, and summarise their recommendations on teaching principles of English as a foreign language in gaining learning skills, namely listening, reading, writing, speaking, and also grammar and vocabulary, as follows:

Reading – should be carefully structured and build up gradually. Before reading, special educational needs (SEN) learners benefit from explanation of new vocabulary and syntactic structures. The length of the text should be increased gradually, starting with short paragraphs.

Speaking – should be in short sentences focused on everyday communication, including suitable Yes/No questions.

Writing – should be provided with the model text and instruction, very useful are brainstorming activities and the use of the Internet as the first input. Especially online writing activities are motivating because they provide visualisation.

Listening – should be accompanied by an input in the form of a short video and listening process can be segmented into smaller intervals. The useful is the process of pre-teaching of vocabulary, with the emphasis on the pronunciation of the words.

Among one of the biggest contributions to teaching English as a foreign language to learners with learning disabilities and autism in Slovakia was made by Homolová (2012, 2013). From the given monographs, we chose advice on teaching vocabulary and grammar because they are the most frequently tested in challenging for SEN learners.

Vocabulary – should create the base in the foreign language learning because SEN learners have to meet the requests on vocabulary specified in the state educational programme for a particular year. The revision is essential in gaining a new vocabulary and learners tend to forget the most within one day of learning. It is especially true for SEN learners, who have weakened long-term memory. Visualisation of new vocabulary in the form of pictures is also beneficial for SEN learners. The translation is suitable for ASD students; however, dyslexic children should also use acoustic and tactile memory in gaining vocabulary.

Grammar – the grammatical categories, particularly tenses, word orders, and simple negation, are the most challenging for SEN learners. The long explanations of rules do not help those type of learners and therefore, the simple rule, especially visualised form is helpful. For instance, SEN learners are allowed to use cards with a brief summary or example of tenses, creation of negatives, affirmative sentences, and questions because these cards help the SEN learners to remember and fulfil the need for visualisation. In her monograph, Homolová (2012) recommends the most suitable types of exercises for autistic spectrum learners of foreign language teaching, as follows:

matching exercises; multiple choice; dragging – antonyms, synonyms; spot the differences; word orders; cloze exercises; mind maps; match the picture to the definition; categorisation; Yes / No questions; crosswords; tick the correct picture; listen and do, and choose and fill in. Our research focuses on the suitability of online grammar exercises for SEN learners of English language and thus we plan to examine them in practical part.

In addition to the above mentioned, Mark Hutten, counselling psychologist provides research-based strategies on teaching autistic spectrum children as follows:

Visual and auditory stimulation in the classroom ought to be taken into consideration because autistic spectrum disorder students are sensitive to auditory input and have a more difficult time processing auditory stimulation.

ASD students perform the best when their daily routine is predictable due to the fact that they are not flexible. Visual schedules help the ASD students to be prepared for the transitions. The schedule must be visual, and kept in the same location at all times.

Activities should be designed with the strong visual cues so less auditory directions are needed.

Many ASD students have impairments in communication, particularly expressive communication. It is very common for students to be unable to access verbal communication when in a stressful emotional state. Having a back-up visual form of communication can assist with expression and reduce aggressive behaviours.

The daily program needs to be implemented as consistently as possible (parentingautisticchild.com).

Besides the above mentioned, Kendal (2009, p.84) gives a deep view on teachers' checklist activities during the lessons. We chose the checking questions that seem the most useful in preparing the lesson plan.

Are your activities engaging and motivating for autistic spectrum students?

Are your objectives, routines and rules clearly understood?

Do you demonstrate respect for the ASD students?

Do you ensure you have the student's attention before starting?

Do you have a variety of awards and consequences that are well known by ASD students?

Do you pause when ASD students interrupt?

The same author (ibid.) also advises how to teach ASD students.

Teachers should make sure that their classes and instructions are very clear and concrete.

Use many different methods of explaining something: visual, written, spoken, and demonstrated.

Hands-on activities to explain a concept can work very well. Be prepared to explain a concept many times. Know that ASD students think very literally, and you might have to work to understand how ASD students understand something you are saying.

As stated by Zelinková (2005, p.161), "Teaching foreign languages is a difficult problem to solve looking for the optimal ways of educating individuals. It comes from the logic that a student who has difficulty in acquisition of a mother tongue will have more serious problems in learning foreign languages as well". The special educational needs teacher Zelinková points to the parallel in teaching a mother and foreign language.

Research method and results

In this research we used both quantitative survey and qualitative methods in the form of interviews. Data was collected via 51 questionnaires of autistic spectrum disorders parents, who answered the questions instead of their children, and 59 responses of neurotypical children without autism. Both researched groups were of the same age. Likert scales were used to transform the answers into numerical values. The participants had the choice to answer in a five-stage scale of strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, and strongly disagree. A value of 100 % was attributed to the strongly agree option, and a value of 0% was added to the strongly disagree option. The answers were evaluated as the weighted average of particular answers. When respondents answered agree or strongly agree more frequently, the weighted average increased. Similarly, the weighted average decreased if the respondents' answers were either disagree or strongly disagree.

Research sample

51 students diagnosed with ASD (aged 10 – 15)

59 students of neurotypical students (aged 10 – 15)

While the neurotypical participants answered the research questions on their own, the participants with autism needed the assistance of their parents to answer the questions, which were aimed at comparing four language skills among the surveyed students: speaking, writing, listening, and reading. The participants answered the following questions:

Research question 1: Do you like writing in English?

Table 1. Writing in English

Answers Numbers of students	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree/ Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Average
with ASD	14	11	11	0	15	45 %
without ASD	12	15	16	9	7	41 %

Research question 2: Do you like speaking in English?

Table 2. Speaking in English

Answers Numbers of students	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree/ Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Average
with ASD	34	10	4	1	2	16 %
without ASD	25	11	16	4	9	26 %

Research question 3: Do you like listening to English?

Table 3. Listening to English

Answers Numbers of students	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree/ Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Average
with ASD	8	10	14	15	4	50%
without ASD	8	16	18	11	6	46 %

Research question 4: Do you like reading in English?

Table 4. Reading in English

Answers Numbers of students	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree/ Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Average
with ASD	8	12	10	10	11	52 %
without ASD	10	20	12	11	6	42 %

The questionnaire was aimed to track the difficulties related to English language study, particularly gaining the four main language skills – writing, reading, listening, and speaking. In this research, parents of autistic spectrum children were involved because students suffering from autism face difficulties when answering strangers' questions. Furthermore, the parents often do homework with their children and prepare them for school, so they are aware of the issues their children have in foreign language learning. Out of 51 responses, more boys than girls were involved in the research; more precisely, a ratio of 6:1. The biggest issue of this study was finding suitable respondents, because only about 1% of the population suffers from autistic spectrum disorders.

Based on the results of this research, we can declare that there are not significant differences in the approach to gaining the four main language skills – listening, reading, speaking, and writing, between students suffering from high-functioning autism and Asperger's syndrome, and neurotypical children.

In addition to the research questions, during interviews the parents of autistic spectrum children also reported other issues in foreign language teaching. The biggest problem in the foreign language teaching of ASD students is learning grammar. The second most common issue for ASD students is adaptation to novelty, followed by cooperation with peers and behavioural problems.

As the results on learning difficulties show, the biggest issues are tasks based on cooperation, socialising, and teamwork. Moreover, learning grammar is also a big issue for this kind of learner. In addition, we ought to take into account that ASD students can also suffer from developmental learning disorders, for instance – dyslexia, dyscalculia, dyspraxia, secondary

dysgraphia, attention deficit disorders, or attention hyperactivity disorders (Mazzone, 2012).

Conclusion

A teaching job is nowadays highly challenging, because as teachers we are obliged to teach students with special educational needs or pervasive diseases; for instance, autistic children together with neurotypical children. Based on the results of this research, we can claim that students suffering from Asperger's syndrome or highly functioning autism are able to learn foreign languages, as there are not significant differences in gaining the four skills in comparison with neurotypical students. More specifically, the writing and listening averages differ by 4%, however, the speaking results have a value of 10% less for Autistic spectrum disorder students, and reading has a 10% lower value for students without autism.

However, ASD students would not be able to reach such educational results without the school accommodation as defined in individualised educational programmes, because it is necessary to meet their needs during their studies of foreign languages. Based on our practical experience as in-practice teachers, we are able to conclude that the best form of accommodation during foreign language lessons is setting clear instructions at the beginning of the lesson. To be more specific, visualisation helps ASD students to prepare for changes. Because of the low flexibility of ASD students, we recommend informing and preparing them in advance, particularly of dates of testing. In this way, students' anxiety can be alleviated. Yet another important piece of advice for teaching ASD students is to prevent meltdowns. If an ASD student has a meltdown or becomes upset, it is probably because they are trying to focus on too many things at once, and are thus overwhelmed. If possible, teachers ought to get the ASD students to move to a quiet place and give them a chance to relax and calm down.

In addition to the above mentioned, each student's pace and individuality should be considered while studying a foreign language. For instance, in writing an essay the teachers ought to ensure that a student has understood the task. Teachers ought to never evaluate the handwriting of ASD students, because they suffer from comorbid disorders; namely secondary dysgraphia, which is linked to their mood. In dictation, teachers should evaluate only serious mistakes, not punctuation. Teaching grammatical categories is not only a problem in one's mother tongue, but is also applicable in studying foreign languages. For this reason, drills and simple, clear rules are the most beneficial for these learners (Zelinkova, 2009).

To be a teacher is a challenge, especially when teaching students diagnosed with autistic spectrum disorders. As teachers, we ought to bear in mind that our work is worthwhile; we not only provide these students with knowledge but also teach them social skills, which is most challenging for them.

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Exploring EFL Novice Teachers' Views on Teaching Practicum

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Teaching practicum represents a keystone moment for all student teachers. During the practicum, student teachers realise – perhaps for the first time – what their future profession will entail and whether it is really the career they want to pursue. As such, it is of cardinal importance in pre-service teacher preparation. The following paper describes the results of a questionnaire-based research study focusing on English as a foreign language (EFL) novice teachers' views on the teaching practicum completed at the University of Hradec Králové, and discusses possible means of ensuring its increased efficiency.

Teaching is a profession which requires the mastery of various skills and competencies. Not only do teachers need to be experts in their fields, but they also need to have a firm grasp of pedagogy, learner psychology, and subject-specific methodology. Furthermore, their knowledge of these topics cannot be only theoretical; teachers need to have practical hands-on experience of applying the acquired knowledge to the teaching/learning process. A teaching practicum provides student teachers an indispensable experience in the actual teaching process, and as such is a core component, perhaps even the most important one, of any teacher training programme (Doulík et al., 2013, p. 121; Farrell, 2007, p. 193). The implementation of teaching practicums in student teacher training accomplishes several goals. For instance:

> "they provide classroom experiences; are useful in evaluating teaching ability; support socialisation within the profession; stimulate the development of teaching skills in pre-service teachers; provide a protected field for experimentation; allow insights into new perspectives and increase motivation to continue studying" (Hascher et al., 2004, p. 623).

Furthermore, although the practicum is real teaching with real students, it to a certain extent still offers a guided experience with a safety net in the form of practicum supervisors. This is both an advantage and a disadvantage: it reduces the student teachers' amount of stress and pressure, but at the same time is only partially close to the reality that they should be prepared for. Student teachers should be offered every opportunity for self-reflective teaching as a central component of their future careers (Newby et al., 2007), and practicums are a suitable source of data for self-reflection.

Terminology and literature review

First let us spend a moment with the relevant terminology, which is by no means unified or universally agreed upon. There are many different labels for the activity of future teachers practicing dexterity in their prospective profession. It might stem from the existence of various approaches to teacher preparation: the skills-oriented vs. the theory-oriented (as discussed below), which translate into the preference of different terminology (in this paper the terms in bold will be used). The labels include terms such as **teaching practicum**, reflective practice, practice teaching, teaching practice, student teaching, teaching assistantship, field experience, apprenticeship, practical experience, and internship (see e.g. Gebhard, 2009; Krieg et al., 2020; Orlova, 2018; Richards and Farrell, 2011) to name just the most common.

The multitude of different terms grows considerably when it comes to the protagonists of the practicum process. The in-service teacher whose class provides the teaching opportunity may be referred to as a **host teacher**, mentor, subject mentor, professional mentor, school-based mentor, co-tutor, co-trainer, cooperating teacher, or a master teacher. On top of that, there are **practicum supervisors**, practicum coordinators, university-based supervisors, subject didactics supervisors, and teacher educators responsible for the organisation of the practicum. Finally, there are **student teachers**, teacher trainees, and pre-service teachers carrying out the practicum.

To suggest that teaching is a profession heavily dependent on long-term professional development and gaining of experience, the term **novice teacher** (also known as a beginning or first-career teacher) is used for those at the beginning of their careers. Exactly when one transitions from a novice to 'experienced' teacher is not clear (for the purposes of this paper it is a teacher with up to 5 years of teaching practice).

Ulvik and Smith (2011) attempted to summarise the two dominant traditional approaches to teaching practicum and argue that one, which is typical in an Anglo-American context, stresses the mastery of technical

skills that leads to becoming a good teacher (hence preference of the terms related to the training component). In this perspective, the teaching "practice tends to be highly valued and the education (training) often puts practical experience in the centre" (p. 517). The other approach, prevalent in continental Europe, especially in German-speaking countries, emphasises knowledge of the discipline (hence the scholarship related terminology). "A good teacher is viewed as a professional who makes independent decisions grounded on a high level of reflection" (p. 517).

Teaching practicum is an issue which does not lack scholarly interest and there are copious sources dealing with the issue from various perspectives. The practicum may be seen "as an opportunity to apply theoretical knowledge previously gained in campus-based activities" or as a way "to raise problems and issues which are used to trigger the investigation of related theory and knowledge" (Ryan et al., 1996, p. 356). Lawson et al. (2015) carried out an extensive review of 114 studies focusing on the practicum that were published in journals on teaching and teacher education, and found that most of them concentrate on student teachers' opinions, with only a handful focusing on the host teachers or practicum supervisors. That was one of the reasons which led us to focus primarily on the experience of novice teachers in our research.

Through the course of the practicum, the students may achieve the following outcomes:

practical application of theoretical knowledge;

development of teaching competencies through engagement in practical tasks;

identification of issues in need of cultivation;

increasing of professional environment insight;

also testing the determination towards their career choice (Ryan et al., 1996, p. 356).

According to Siek-Piskozub and Jankowska (2013, pp. 261-262), observation and teaching practice constitute principal elements of practicum and since the "teaching competence is more than just the declarative knowledge of teaching theories", the practicum reflection becomes a crucial element as well. Reflection offers student teachers the means of combining theory and practice.

"Researchers and teachers alike use terms such as The Reflective Practitioner, teacher as researcher, action research, reflection, reflective teaching and reflective practice to denote processes of reflection undertaken

by teachers in and about the act of teaching" (Glasswell and Ryan, 2017, p. 4).

Both the 'reflection-in-action', happening while teaching, and 'reflection-on-action', i.e. the post teaching reflection, enhance good teaching practices. Thus, student teachers should be offered multiple ways of carrying them out, and host teachers and practicum supervisors should not only show students techniques for independent individual reflections, but also include the elements of guided reflection and how to reflect in their courses (Blaik Hourani, 2013).

There is a plethora of research on challenging issues concerning practicum participants and their beliefs and expectations (e.g. Cabaroglu and Roberts, 2000; Fang, 1996; Harwell and Moore, 2010; Power and Bogo, 2003; Rubie-Davies, 2006; Richardson, 1996; Stuart and Thurlow, 2000). However, only limited research focuses on the amount of learning which occurs during the practicum, and to what extent the student teachers rely on what they were taught throughout their teacher training. Especially in the English language teaching (ELT) context, we still do not know much about "how pre-service teachers conceptualise their initial teaching experiences, and what impact these experiences have on their professional development as teachers" (Johnson, 1996, p. 30).

The nature of the practicum experience is the result of the synergy of at least two participants and the quality of practicum supervision has therefore also been scrutinised as a decisive factor (e.g. Bailey, 2006; Farrell, 2007; Youngs and Bird, 2010). Student teachers and their host teachers are often left to work out the daily business of student teaching by themselves with little guidance and connection to campus courses, and it is often assumed that good teaching practices are caught rather than taught (Zeichner, 2010, p. 91).

Czech Context

Teaching practicum is a part of all the teacher preparation programmes in the Czech Republic and is required together with subject oriented disciplines, subject methodology, general pedagogy and psychology courses as a mandatory component by the National Accreditation Bureau for Higher Education (NAB, 2017). Following the ratification of the Bologna declaration in 1999, the Czech Republic initiated the process of restructuralising its tertiary education into a two-cycle model. As a result, the Lower Secondary School Level teaching programmes (grades 6 to 9, from the age of 11 to the age of 15) were divided into the so-called 3+2 model, consisting of three years of undergraduate bachelor studies and two

years of postgraduate master studies. Although different universities approached the structuralisation of their studies differently (Doulík et al., 2013, pp. 13-22), the most common model was the one that transferred the whole practicum and subject methodology into the postgraduate master cycle of teacher education thus creating a considerable time pressure for everyone involved (by law a qualified teacher has to have a master's degree). The bachelor level is focused on gaining disciplinary knowledge, and the master level focuses on its development and introduces the subject didactics and practicum. Traditionally, Czech teachers have two subject specialisations (e.g. English and mathematics, or history and Czech) and thus their pre-service teaching programme consists of these two branches of study and a common core module.

Research

In teaching it seems that there is always not enough time, and the same applies to initial teaching training and therefore it is essential to tailor it to the needs of the profession and make it as effective as possible. At the Faculty of Education, University of Hradec Králové (UHK) we are always trying to adjust our pre-service teaching programme so that it fulfils both mentioned requirements. In order to enhance the effects of EFL teacher training at UHK, a project focusing on quality of teacher education was launched and in the following section of this paper we will present partial outcomes concerning novice teachers' views on the role of teaching practicum in their studies at UHK together with some of their views on the EFL teaching programme in general.

The project consists of four consecutive phases:

The 1st phase of the research consisted of a series of online questionnaires focusing on multiple aspects of teaching practicum (e.g. its timing and length, perceived benefits and drawbacks, preparedness, etc.) with three groups of respondents: student teachers currently studying ELT at UHK, novice ELT teachers who graduated at UHK, and the host teachers that UHK cooperates with. The paper will present the findings of this phase of the research.

The 2nd phase consisted of a round-table discussion to which the questionnaire respondents were invited together with the teaching public, and where partial results of the 1st phase were introduced and discussed.

The 3rd phase will consist of semi-structured interviews with novice and experienced ELT teachers and host teachers cooperating with the UHK ELT department.

The 4th phase will consist of a series of proposals for adjustments in ELT teachers' pre-service teaching programme at UHK and a blueprint for their application.

Procedure and Participants

The questionnaires were administered online, and collected over a period of two months. This paper will present the findings gained from the novice teacher group of respondents. We used the targeted distribution of the questionnaires so that we get only responses from our own graduates, and the results thus apply to the situation at the ELT department at UHK. The reasoning behind the project and its outline was explained to all the participants in the accompanying e-mail. Apart from the basic demographic and practicum-oriented items, the questionnaire also included questions about the respondents' current teaching status, the overall satisfaction with their UHK studies, especially the ELT component, in the form of both closed and open-ended questions. The respondents were strongly encouraged to voice their opinions to most of the question items, and some of the comments gained will be included in the Results section of the paper.

The participants of this study were novice teachers who graduated from the UHK ELT programme (n=53; 82% female, 18% male). As the following phase of the project will include interviews with the participants, we included in this study only those who are currently practicing teachers. The questionnaire was analysed quantitatively for frequency of responses, and the open-ended questions were analysed qualitatively in order to provide the basis for follow-up semi-structured interviews.

The main research questions related to readiness for teaching practicum and its value were as follows:

Were the theoretical and practical disciplines balanced?

Were the literary, linguistic, and ELT disciplines balanced?

What compulsory subjects did you consider the most/least useful?

Was the teaching practicum timed properly?

Was the amount of the teaching practicum sufficient?

Was the teaching practicum useful?

Did you feel well prepared before the teaching practicum?

Results

In the following section we are going to present the results of the research in the form of graphs stating the frequency of individual answers together with selected comments that each question offered, which we believe illustrates some of the reasoning behind the responses.

Figure 1. Q1 The Balance of Theoretical and Practical Disciplines
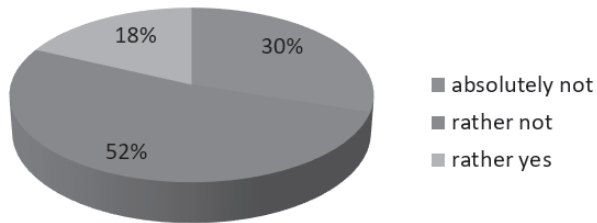
Selected comments

"There was certainly a lot more theory, but I think the practicum was sufficient as well."

"There could be more practicum because we learn the most doing it."

"There were many subjects at the expense of the practicum. I also missed more feedback. I suggest including 'a sample lesson' as one of the requirements for the exam, either real or simulated."

"There was too much theory, especially in the common core subjects such as psychology and general didactics. There wasn't any connection to the real application in practice."

"The university didn't prepare me for the administrative work, which makes a large part of my work now and that I as a class teacher need to do."

"It's hard to say because the only real practice is when you are on your own with a real class."

When including this question item into the questionnaire, we expected mostly negative answers as this is one of the frequent complaints that we hear from our students. Students often have the idea that their preparation should include only the disciplines that are practical, and in which they can see immediate and easy applicability into their own practice. Thus the

overall number of negative responses (82%) was not surprising, although one can see a silver lining in the fact that completely critical responses were not in majority (30%), which may hopefully suggest that although the students are not generally fond of theoretical disciplines, most of them at least realise their place in teacher education.

Figure 2. Q2 The Balance of Individual Disciplines
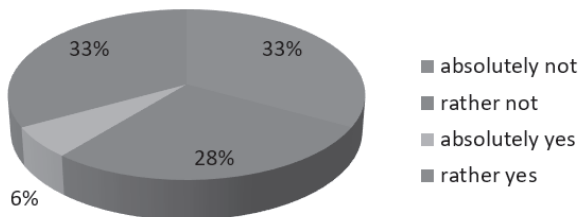
Selected comments

"I would like to explore English speaking countries more than learning about their literature and having to read it."

"Although I will not use the level of literary and linguistics subjects, I think that the balance was okay."

"I don't use a lot of knowledge I gained in my studies (e.g. from history, literature) but I try to sneak it into my teaching. That is mostly because of my personal interests and preferences."

"There was a slow start to it, but the last two years of my studies were just fine."

Following Q1, we wanted to know what the opinions of respondents were on the balance of individual disciplines in the English-focused part of their teaching specialisation. Altogether, during their studies the ELT students need to take compulsory English linguistics subjects (i.e. phonetics and phonology, morphology, syntax, lexicology, stylistics, discourse analysis), subjects on British and US history and literature, ELT methodology courses and ELT practicum. As a result of the accreditation process requirements, the faculty is limited by the overall number of credit hours in each semester and therefore the number of subjects in individual groups of disciplines and the amount of teaching hours they are allotted cannot be totally equal. Compared with the results for Q1 again, the negative

answers prevail (61%), though the difference is not that immense. The comments suggest that the respondents do not mind any of the individual disciplines per se, but they rather question the space each of them is given in the programme, clearly favouring those disciplines in which they see application potential. Some of the responses also hint at the personal willingness to include the knowledge from those less practical disciplines as one of the decisive factors rather than impossibility of doing it.

Table 1. Q3 The Most/Least Useful Subjects

Most Useful	Least Useful
English Grammar	Anglophone Literatures and History
Teaching Practicum	History of English
Didactics of English	English Stylistics
Phonetics and Phonology	Discourse Analysis
Practical Language Seminars	Literary Theory

Selected comments on the most useful subjects

"I consider the literature related disciplines useful for me personally – although they did not enhance my teaching, I believe they enriched me and satisfied my yearning for knowledge."

"Phonetics and Phonology: I realised a number of fossilised errors in my pronunciation, which made me focus on pronunciation a lot more."

"Didactic seminars that were full of practical activities I can use at school."

"I was rather inspired by ELT methodology and especially by the final project."

"History and literature – I draw on them a lot whenever the students come across some history or literature related text."

Selected comments on the least useful subjects

"Literature – I get that we should have some general knowledge, but the amount of the subjects was well beyond general."

"British and American literature and history – almost useless for future teachers."

"Pedagogical grammar – not a lot of pedagogical stuff in the subject."

"History of the USA and Britain – completely irrelevant to what I am going to teach."

"All the specialised disciplines that do not correspond with the school level I am going to teach at."

"Stylistics – I have not used any of it in my teaching yet."

"Linguistics – I do not explain the development of language to my students and I do not apply any of the information in my teaching."

"I valued every single subject I had to take for broadening my knowledge and horizons."

In these two questions (here combined into one table) the respondents were asked to evaluate the individual disciplines based on their usefulness for future teachers. Unsurprisingly, disciplines in which, at least partly, the application of knowledge or skill is more straightforward were deemed more useful. The responses were certainly also influenced by the subject teachers, their personal rapport with students, and how they approached the presentation of the disciplines, and the results should also be viewed in this context. The responses were more diverse, and not a single discipline was universally praised or 'condemned'; Table 1 gives the overview of the five most frequent answers for each of the opposite poles of the usefulness spectrum.

Figure 3. Q4 Practicum Timing

- late 58%
- timely 24%
- cannot tell 18%
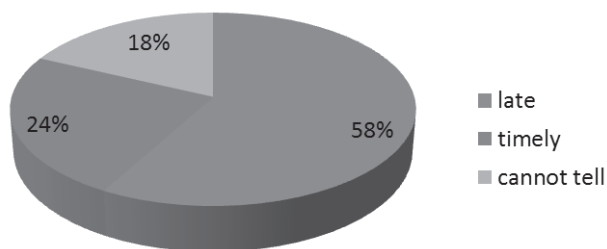
Selected comments on all practicum related questions

"We all had completely different ideas of what we will face, and we were not able to imagine how to solve situations arising in lessons."

"Real teaching practice is not only standing in front of a class. The most demanding things are problems connected with it (administrative work,

dealing with parents, headmasters, etc.) which during the teaching practice we do not have access to."

"I had problems with pupils' misbehaviour, but I didn't have any problems creating a lesson that would be interesting for my pupils."

"I don't think it was possible to be prepared for the practicum. You must think about a hundred things at the same time, and not just that one way how to present grammar."

"Due to the lack of teaching practice I did not feel confident in the class."

"Not enough practice, too many theoretical disciplines."

"To be honest I was quite disappointed by the approach of my host teacher, who was rather phlegmatic and did not help me at all."

"I would like to have more information how to work with large classes where all students have different abilities and problems."

"Teachers teaching how to teach should teach themselves – very few of them did when I studied."

The start of teaching practicum is a crucial point in teacher preparation and usually it is felt by the students that it should have been included earlier as the results for this question confirm. However, there is no universal agreement how much earlier it should be (18% of respondents were not sure either way) and when compared with the results for Q7, one must wonder whether the perceived practicum readiness would increase or plummet even more in case of earlier starting point.

## Figure 4. Q5 Practicum Amount
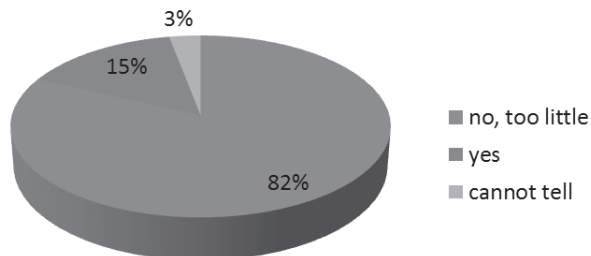
The amount of teaching practicum has been one of the crucial points in the (re)accreditation of the teaching programmes at UHK and in the latest round of the process we were luckily able to somewhat increase that

amount. However, at the time when our respondents carried it out, the amount of practicum was generally as follows: two semesters of Continuous Teaching Practicum (each consisting of 28 hours of practicum per semester for each of the two specialisations) and one semester of Block Teaching Practicum (24 hours per semester for each of the two specialisations). Although the students need to complete the practicum in both of their specialisations, hence having more opportunity to practice common teaching elements (e.g. class management, administrative work, dealing with disruptive behaviour, etc.), this is still clearly regarded as insufficient.

Figure 5. Q6 Practicum Usefulness
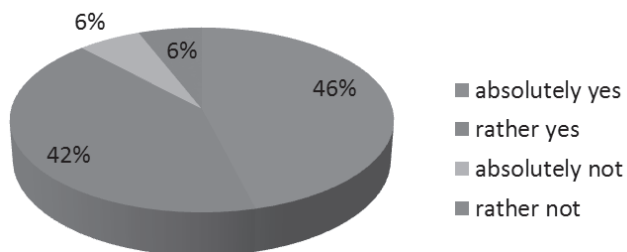
The majority of respondents (88%) clearly see the benefits of teaching practicum, and feel that it is a great opportunity to experience the teaching environment that is ahead of them after they themselves graduate. Those that assessed the practicum negatively (12%) were mainly influenced by the approach of their host teacher, either because they did not suit them personality-wise or that they, unfortunately, did not offer enough guidance or feedback on the teaching. In some cases, the host teachers were seen as too strict and prescriptive, not allowing student teachers any creativity in the lesson planning or lesson management. As one respondent put it: "It depended on the school a lot, but all in all the host teachers were doing their best though I don't think they always knew what was expected of them".

Figure 6. Q7 Practicum Readiness
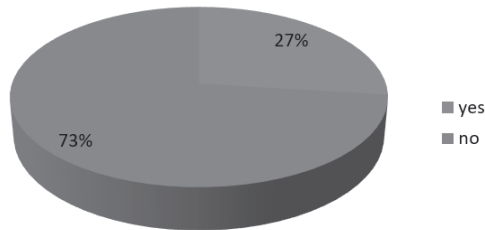
After stating that the respondents assessed the programme as being more theoretical, the balance of individual disciplines unsatisfactory in favour of, in their view, less useful subjects, the practicum start being too late and its amount insufficient, it is hardly surprising that they also did not feel adequately prepared before the practicum started. From the comments it is not clear whether all of this stems just from the design of the programme itself, or how much it is influenced by students' personal beliefs of what the practicum will entail and what they need to know before it commences.

Discussion

Undoubtedly, teaching practicum is full of challenges: student teachers find themselves in a new environment that they need to cope with, their own previous experience exerts a great influence on what they expect, they face pressure to integrate theory and practice, they need to cope with disruptive behaviour, their own self-esteem, and also getting used to their new social identity of educator, to name just a few. In the following section we would like to comment on some of the research findings, and suggest possible improvements addressing the most important perceived deficiencies of the current practicum design.

Constraints

In an ideal world, universities would have unlimited resources and would be completely free to form their programmes based solely on the needs of their students and the professional environment they are preparing them for. Unfortunately this is not the case, and there are a number of constraints which limit what we can do. Let us start with the institutional ones first. Funding issues are the most obvious, and perhaps the easiest to solve, since it is 'only' about pouring more money into the system. The more

severe and less easily remediable are teaching staff related problems. All faculty members are seen first and foremost as researchers and they are required to publish extensively, preferably in impacted publications. To be able to do that, one must have enough time, which means less teaching. This would, however, result in the need for more faculty and thus more money. Since the money is not there, practicum supervisors are frequently torn apart between practicum supervision and observation, teaching of didactic subjects and producing the required amount of research and cannot be physically present at all or most of the practicum lessons of every student teacher. The student teachers then may feel left on their own, which negatively impacts their experience.

The constraints stemming from the accreditation process are equally influential. In our research, the respondents clearly called for more practice and less theory. One way to achieve that without eliminating the theoretical subjects would be integration of methodological issues (the 'how to' approach) in all of the disciplines. In this way, the theory would be accompanied with the application guidelines and techniques within one subject. However, that assumes that all university teachers have adequate experience and training in doing so. Regrettably, the current NAB policy is that the faculty if to be considered a qualified subject guarantor should have only the appropriate education (i.e. specialised Ph.D.) with enough subject-focused publications, and teaching methodology knowledge is not necessarily asked for. Neither is familiarity with the current school environment. It is a bonus if they also possess appropriate knowledge of ELT didactics and teaching experience at the lower secondary level, but the system does very little to support this. Even when it comes to methodology/didactics teachers, the situation is rather complicated as in ELT there are not enough PhD programmes in the Czech Republic and they do not produce a sufficient number of graduates (Doulík et al., 2013, pp. 112-113), further contributing to the already mentioned pressure on the current practicum supervisors (usually also subject didactics teachers).

Practicum Amount and Readiness

The placement of the practicum within the teaching programme is a result of various needs and limitations, and since in the Czech context teachers have two specialisations, it is not an easy task to reshuffle it and set to an earlier stage. A more fruitful approach would be to increase the students' readiness for the practicum so that they can make the most of it. Based on her research of student teachers' views, Orlova (2018) discovered that there are three main concerns they have about the practicum - classroom

management, lesson design, and lesson dynamics – and a possibility of increasing their readiness is to overtly address these issues. This can be done through various ways, e.g. frequent micro-teaching focused on various aspects and properly reflected, team teaching or introduction of supplemental e-courses (including e.g. videos for observations, examples of good practice, banks of materials/activities, etc.).

Practicum Usefulness

A pivotal element for the outcome of practicum are the host teachers. Frequently, university supervisors monitor the practicum, but its actual execution is the responsibility of host teachers and therefore their influence is of the critical importance. Their availability, willingness to offer their classes and their quality is one of the weaknesses. Unfortunately, many host teachers have never undergone any formal mentoring program and thus have only their previous classroom experience to build on (Ganser, 2002, p. 380). However, as Orlova (2018, p. 160) rightly points out: "experience does not guarantee expertise" and they can be labelled "experienced non-experts" (Tsui cited in Orlova, 2018, p. 160). Even if willing and enthusiastic, the quality of supervision is not guaranteed and the call for proper training is warranted. Becker et al. (2019, p. 14) show that in post-lesson conferences "feedback is often given in the form of practical advice". In conversation, which is usually asymmetric, host teachers "tend to dominate the conversations" and they "rarely encourage in-depth reflection on teaching and learning processes or pupils' learning" from the student teachers. Making the conversations less directive and encouraging more reflection is thus suggested to improve the quality of the process. Another tool enhancing the quality of host teacher input can be the use of various readymade evaluation rubrics that would help guide them in the process.

This leads us to another crucial moment – the reflection on practicum and its quality. There is a universal agreement that practicum should be reflective (required among others by the NAB) and yet the term itself and what constitutes a good reflection seem to be rather vague. As Glasswell and Ryan (2017, p. 4) put it in their review of papers on reflective practice "what constitutes reflection and when it most usefully takes place can be difficult to anchor to a single action or timeframe", nevertheless "the transformative power of reflection" is clear. It can be argued that no activity is possible without reflection, as we adjust what we do based on the situational context and the actions we have already taken and their effects. Arguably, the teaching reflection should not merely involve responding to

the ongoing situation, but should also include consideration of alternative outcomes. It needs to be based on:

> "thoughtful analysis of experience and consideration of multiple perspectives leading to improved action; and it must also include exploration of personal and social values without which judgment and action can lack direction" (Glasswell and Ryan, 2017, p. 5).

However, to achieve that, we need to have proper tools and techniques at our disposal, and it should not be considered an automatic skill that comes with practice if it is not only to be superficial and instinctive. After all, the ultimate goal of teacher preparation is to become what Richards and Farrell aptly refer to as a "reflective practitioner" (2011, p. 167).

Let us now consider some of the guided reflection tools. Teaching portfolios are certainly one of the popular means of reflection. They may include lesson plans, lesson observations, teaching journals, host teacher and peer feedback comments, or lesson recordings. Since most of the reflection is done post-action (Blaik Hourani, 2013, p. 22) when we can forget about details, voice or video recordings can become really helpful (for ways of using video for reflection see Orlova, 2009). EPOSTL with its can-do statements is also a great tool that allows for self-reflection (Newby et al., 2007). The simple fact of maintaining a portfolio, giving feedback, or writing a teaching journal does not, however, guarantee quality of reflection. Students should be shown good examples of reflection and be taught how to do it themselves for instance by using targeted questions as prompts for reflection, engaging in moderated discussion forums with their peers or comparing their performance against clearly defined and accessible standards.

Conclusion

Our study reveals a positive attitude of novice teachers towards their teaching practicum, although the results indicate there is a demand for more practical teaching within the curriculum. The reality in which the education of future teachers takes place is exposed to many constraints and limitations, some of which make any rapid and meaningful changes affecting the outcomes of practicum extremely difficult and in need of long-term planning. That, however, should not be used as an excuse and reason for complacency. On the contrary, small yet incremental changes – if well planned and thought out – can also bring about significant improvements. Whatever the path, we should always bear in mind that the teaching practicum is a complex issue, and its effectiveness is a result of the interplay of various contributing factors. If we want to enhance its overall effect, then

all of its components must be taken into account and none should be left unattended, so as not to impede the benefits of the others. The model in which the practicum were to depend only on the host teacher's quality or, on the other hand, on the practicum supervisor would be deficient, since both contribute different perspectives and inputs. The close partnership is therefore necessary to realise the common goal.

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SECTION 3:

ELT PERSPECTIVES ON CULTURAL AND LITERARY STUDIES

BUILDING RESILIENCE IN YAZIDI IDP CHILDREN THROUGH ELT: AN EXPERIMENTAL SURVEY

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Thousands of children are currently housed in refugee camps in the Middle East. It has been estimated that a whole new generation of terrorists is currently in the making, due to the difficult conditions and lack of educational and mental health resources in the refugee camps. Resilience seems to be a prime factor in limiting radicalisation. Current research points to the need to explore resilience and how to increase it. This is an introductory study that was begun in Duhok, Iraq in September-October, 2019 and continues to the time of this writing. The research goal was to discover whether learning a new language (English) could have positive effects on building resilience in young people in the IDP camps and refugee camps of the Kurdistan region of northern Iraq. Three different types of research were originally planned and begun to extract data. However, due to the Covid-19 pandemic, a new method of data collection was developed with an online survey delivered to the target population. The preliminary data gathered in September/October of 2019 showed associations of positive feelings attached to learning English which in turn are connected to building resilience. This work reports the results of the survey.

Findings indicate that learning English can help build resilience in some areas. Learning English seems to bring about an overall improvement in participants' mood, self-esteem and peer relations. Long-term effects will hopefully be increased resilience demonstrated by optimism, better social relations, and success in school.

Introduction

Thousands of children are currently housed in refugee and IDP camps in the Middle East. UNICEF estimates that there are approximately 15.3 million internally displaced persons (including 6.8 million children) and 14.1 million refugees (including 5.8 million children).

Several countries (Turkey, Jordan, Lebanon, Iraq, and Greece) are simultaneously overwhelmed by multiples crises and are hosting large numbers of refugees, migrants, and displaced people. Figures are based on 2019 humanitarian needs overview documents for Middle Eastern and North African countries and International Organization for Migration (IOM) and United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees data reported as of August 2019 (UNICEF 2019).

It has been estimated that a whole new generation of terrorists is currently in the making, due to the difficult conditions and lack of educational and mental health resources in the refugee camps. Researchers from the Rand Corporation have pointed out that "there is no question that militant groups often focus on recruiting refugee youths (usually defined as between 15 and 24 years old) and youths on their own can become activist or even violent. The risk can be compounded if these youths do not have many educational opportunities beyond primary school and have little possibility of gainful employment" (Sude et al., 2015). Resilience seems to be a prime factor in limiting radicalisation. Current research points to the need to explore resilience and how to increase it. Very little research has been conducted on how learning English can increase or strengthen resilience in refugee children. The purpose of this project was to find out more about the situation in the camps, as well as find a way to increase resilience in young people in the camps through English language acquisition.

Introduction to the Duhok Governorate Region

Duhok is part of Autonomous Kurdistan, located in northern Iraq. It lies approximately 50 km north-east of Mosul, and 65 km from the northeastern Turkish border. It is about 180 km from the Syrian border (SUEAA 2020). Because of its location, Duhok has become the refuge of hundreds of

thousands of people who have fled from the Syrian civil war and the invasions of ISIS (Daesh). In 2016 the Duhok Governorate received approximately 1.47 million people, of which approximately 718,000 were displaced people, both externally and internally displaced (Duhok UNHCR 2016). As of 2019 that number has dropped due to immigration or returning home, but a huge number of IDPs and refugees are not able to return home because their homes are destroyed.

This large influx was caused by the invasion and conquest carried out by ISIL starting in 2014 and the conquest of Mosul and the Nineveh Plains area subsequently. The Sinjar massacre also accounted for this influx, when more than 5,000 Yazidis were killed due to the ISIL genocide against the Yazidis (Khalel 2014; Al-Jazeera 2014). This research deals with IDPs that arrived in 2014 and subsequently. The International Organization for Migration has reported that there were 350,000 IDPs living in 169 different locations in the Duhok Governorate while The Relief Web reported that in 2018 there were 90,000 Syrian refugees and 350,000 IDPs living in the region (OCHA 2018).

Setting up the research

The research was targeted at the refugee and displaced populations currently housed in the Duhok Governorate, part of Autonomous Kurdistan located in northern Iraq. It began as exploratory, ground-breaking research; the first author of this work went to the University of Duhok as a visiting researcher and laid the groundwork.

The research originally targeted both refugee and IDP populations, but was narrowed down to the IDP population, due to logistical factors.

The study was further narrowed down to the IDP population found in a particular IDP camp outside of Duhok, populated by Yazidis.

Information about the camp

Sheikhan (Shekhan) IDP Camp is located in the town of Sheikhan, about 30 km out of Duhok City. It has approximately 6,000 people. It is a typical IDP camp, composed of tents, makeshift shower/bathrooms, mostly dirt roads and a few sparse trees. The center where we worked was originally constructed by UNICEF in conjunction with a local NGO, Voice of Older People and Families (VOP http://vopiraq.org/). Our thanks go to them for welcoming us in this project, and for trusting us with their precious children and young people.

Internally Displaced People

Internally displaced persons (IDPs) are "persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalised violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognised border" (OHCHR). IDPs leave their homes and go to other areas of the same country, with the hope of going back home when it is safe. They face a higher mortality rate, greater risks of physical and sexual violence, with inadequate shelter, food and medical care. The OHCHR states that most IDPs are women and children. They are especially vulnerable and their basic rights are frequently abused. Additionally, IDPs often are trapped in conflict zones, and risk being used as human shields in conflicts.

Description of the population: Yazidi IDP children

The Yazidis as a group have gone through an indescribably traumatic period. Resilience is the key to their recovery. The question is, how to strengthen and increase their resilience. Yazidis need resilience to overcome the soul-wrenching destruction brought upon them by ISIS and also to find a way to confront the ongoing fear of extinction.

When the Islamic State (ISIS) otherwise known as Daesh declared itself as the new Caliphate in 2014 no one could have guessed just how devastating the results would be. The invasion of ISIS had a long-lasting impact on the Yazidi society as a whole as well as on the Yazidi individuals who were victimised.

Who are the Yazidis? Yazidis (also spelled Iyzidis, Yazidis) are a specific subset of the Kurdish people and live in parts of traditionally Kurdish areas currently located in northern Iraq, northeast Syria, southeast Turkey as well as in the ex-Soviet states, mostly in the Caucasus (Armenia and Georgia) and a few numbers in Ukraine and the Russian Federation (Izady 1992). A large number of the Yazidis have migrated to Europe, mainly to Germany and Sweden. According to unofficial estimates, the number of the Yazidis in the world varies between 1. 5 and 2 million. Throughout history they have suffered many massacres and mass killings and this is why there is currently such a small number of the Yazidi people (Kreyenbroek, 1995:5). The Yazidis themselves have counted 74 massacres

over the last thousand years, each one decimating their population, destroying their homes and ruining their livelihood.

Yazidis state that their community has gone through at least 74 attempts at annihilation - i.e. genocides.

Religion: Yazidism is an ancient religion from Mesopotamia. It represents a synthesis of Mithraism, Mazdaism and Zoroastrianism (Guest, 1987: 28). The Yazidis believe in one God as the first cause and prime source of the universe. The task of creation and the establishment of plant and animal life on earth were assigned to seven angels who are active in world affairs, but God himself created man. The Yazidis venerate "Malek Taus", the Peacock Angel, who is said to be the protector of the earth. The peacock is an emblem of their faith (Guest, 1987). The Yazidi religion incorporates the universal principles of ethics and morality – right and wrong, justice, truth, loyalty, mercy and love. The Day of Judgment, when the Yazidis will be rewarded of their trust in Malek Taus, is quite remote; meanwhile souls live on through transmigration. Evil is recognised as a fact of life, is not considered the work of any supernatural being. The story of Adam and Eve is part of the Yazidi tradition; but far from encompassing Adam's fall, the angel is shown as a provider of practical advice on the biological function of the body. The Yazidis have been falsely accused of being devil-worshippers and that provided the justification for the historical massacres, including the most recent carried out by ISIS (DAESH) starting in 2014. The Yazidis also maintain that every man and woman from their community must possess the following qualities: *Rasti* (truthfulness and faithfulness); *Nasin* (knowledge); *Shermi* (shame) which means to avoid wrong-doing. Lalish is their holy capital and the site of Sheikh Adi's tomb, who is highly venerated. Lalish is located in northern Iraq not far from the Sheikan IDP camp. According to the Yazidi belief, Sheik Adi worked miracles and carried secrets from Tawus Malek and God. The Yazidis have two sacred books.

Yazidism maintains that every religion reflects a truth. Therefore everybody should practice their own religion and should be free to practice their beliefs. According to the Yazidis, a person who does not practice his own religion will never respect other religions. It is for this reason that the Yazidis do not accept converts from other religions and have no missionary intentions. The Yazidis respect all religions and expect the same from the others (Guest, 1987).

Traditionally, Yazidis have not been permitted to marry outside their faith. Although the religion permits men to have more than one wife, this is

uncommon. Divorce is permitted but is very rare (Acikyildiz, 2010: 99-100).

Sinjar Massacre and ISIS domination: In June of 2014 ISIS took over Mosul. Religious minorities were given three options: accept dhimmi status, which meant paying a special tax in return for state protection; convert to Islam; or die. The first option was available only to 'People of the Book', meaning Christians, Jews, and other monotheists. Historically, the Yazidis were not considered to be 'People of the Book', and were therefore given the choice to convert or die. Hundreds of people were killed. After Mosul. ISIS arrived in Sinjar. There are many accounts of what happened in August of 2014. Perhaps the following reveals the horror of the ISIS attack and the dramatic exodus of the Yazidis to their holy Mount Sinjar, which had always protected them. The following appeal was launched by Vian Dakhil, the only Yazidi member of the Iraqi Parliament. The heart-wrenching report can be seen at this link, updated from 2014 to 2017:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=x_FSBxDrwF8&list=ULIioJEsfiR
ds&index=370

The following are excerpts of her speech to the Iraqi Parliament on August 5, 2014:

> "There are Yazidis who are now living in Sinjar Mountain…we are being slaughtered under the banner of 'there is no god but Allah'...until now 500 Yazidi men have been slaughtered…our women are being taken as slaves and sold in the slave market…there is now a campaign of genocide being waged on the Yazidi constituent…my people are being slaughtered just as all Iraqis were slaughtered. The Shias, the Sunnis, the Christians, the Turkmen, and the Shabak were slaughtered. And today, the Yezidis are being slaughtered….Save us! Save us! For 48 hours, 30,000 families have been besieged in Sinjar Mountain without water and food. They are dying. Seventy babies have died so far from thirst and suffocation. Fifty old people are died from the deteriorating conditions. Our women are taken as slaves and sold in the slave markets….We are being slaughtered. We are being exterminated from the face of the earth. Brothers, I appeal to you in the name of humanity to save us!" (she later fainted in the Parliament).

Another hands-on account comes from Nadia Murad. She was captured by ISIS and held as a sex slave but managed to escape. She told her story to the world and has become a human rights activist, winning the Nobel Peace Prize in 2018 for "efforts to end the use of sexual violence as a weapon of war and conflict"

(The Nobel Prize, 2018 https://www.nobelprize.org/ prizes/peace/ 2018/ murad/facts/).

ISIS massacred the men and older women, forced conversions, stole children and forced sexual slavery on thousands of women and girls. Eventually those who survived the Sinjar Mountain exodus arrived in Duhok. It has been estimated by the UN that more than 5,000 men were executed (Yazda, 2016), and at least 7,000 women and girls were captured for sexual slavery (UNAMI & Office for the High Commissioner for Human Rights, 2015). This was considered an act of genocide (Labott, E. & Kopan, 2016). This caused the mass displacement of people who arrived in the Kurdistan Region, especially in Duhok.

Description of the research population

There are more than 800 children and youths in the Sheikhan camp who were served by the NGO "Voices of Older People and Family" VOP. They receive various kinds of education and training. The center was a haven for them, where they could go, play, laugh, and be children.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of the study was to discover whether learning English could help build resilience in IDP children, specifically from the Yazidi group. The following section discusses the various concepts of resilience and their application in this study.

Resilience

Developmental psychologists have defined resilience as a quality that incudes protective factors which encourage positive and healthy results in children who have been subjected to difficult situations (Garmezy, 1991; Luthar, Ciccetti and Becker, 2000; Masten, 2001, Rutter, 1999; Werner, 1995.) The reality that so many children grow up in a bad neighborhood and turn out to be successful individuals and members of society inspired Masten to start looking at how it was possible that children living in gang-infested areas could survive and be 'normal'. Bonanno (2006) says "resilience is more common than often believed, and there are multiple and sometimes unexpected pathways to resilience" (Bonanno, 2006, p. 101). The purpose of this study was, in fact, to discover an unexpected pathway to resilience.

Factors that promote resilience

There seem to be different types of personality and traits that support resilience thereby maintaining equilibrium (Luthar, Doernberger, & Zigler, 1993; Rutter, 1987). "Hardiness" (Kobasa, Maddi and Kahnm 1982) is proposed as concept consisting of: the motivation to find meaning in life; the belief that the individual on some level can influence outcomes; and that both negative and positive experiences contribute to growth and learning of the individual. 'Hardy' individuals can perceive negative situations as less negative and thereby reduce the stress involved. They have more confidence and are more connected socially which in turn assists them with resilience (Florian, Mikulincer & Taubman 1995). Other qualities include "Self-enhancement" (Greenwald, 1980; Taylor & Brown, 1988; Field, Kovacevic, & Kaltman, 2002; Bonanno, Rennicke, Dekel & Rose, 2003); repressive coping (Weinberger, Schwartz, & Davidson, 1979; Weinberger, 1990).

An important resilience promoting factor for this study is positive emotion and laughter (Keltner & Bonanno, 1997). Positive emotions were seen to be connected to the learning of English, as will be seen below.

Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD)

PTSD (post-traumatic stress disorder) is a result of exposure to a traumatic life event. PTSD has been identified as one indicator of the lack or low level of resilience. It is one of the results of a traumatic experience, and other consequences including depression, anxiety disorder, and substance disorders (Kessler et al, 1995: Pietrzak (2011). The DSM-V (2013) defines PTSD as a collection of persistent symptoms of re-living an experience, avoidance of trauma-related stimuli, negative alterations in emotions and cognitions and hyper-arousal. People who suffer from PTSD need to build resilience; resilient people do not usually suffer from PTSD, at least in the long term.

The study of PTSD goes beyond the scope of this study but it is useful as a justification for this work. Helping refugee youths cope with PTSD is one tenet of this project, because how people cope with PTSD and whether or not they actually succumb to it is a result of resilience.

Certain skills are important for combatting PTSD. Emotional regulation is defined as the ability to generate appropriate emotional responses in a given situation. Maintaining or establishing and emotion, responding, or reducing a response are all part of emotional regulation. Emotional regulation plays an essential part in forming relationships, obtaining relationship support, and implementing activities that contain an objective (Gross &

Munoz, 1995), and the ability to form and maintain relationships are indicators of the capacity to be resilient. PTSD includes dysphoria (general dissatisfaction with life) and emotional numbing (Cloitre, 2015). Factors that negatively impact social relations, such as social withdrawal, poor communication, lack of positive emotion and ability to give or receive emotional support are all associated with problems of social functioning. The fact that symptoms of PTSD include reduced perception of social support, psychosocial problems and depressive symptoms constitute a challenge in the area of resilience development. Because one of the main factors in resilience is the feeling that one is supported socially (Agaibi & Wilson, 2005).

Resilience research applied to English language learning

Many studies report various positive impacts of learning languages. There correlation between reading scores and FL learning (Garfinkel and Tabor, 1991); children learning FL are more flexible and have more high-order thinking skills (Hakuta, 1986). A study in Louisiana Public Schools which involved 13, 200 children from different races, genders and levels showed that children who take FL courses score higher on basic skills tests than those who do not (Dumas, 1999). Another study conducted by Horn and Kojaku (2001) state that FL students not only attain higher grades in school, but they are less likely to drop out from school. Hakuta and Bialystock (1994) found that the cognition of children exposed to a FL at an early age develops better. Cummins (1981) states that understanding how language works and the ability to manipulate language assists children in thinking and problem solving.

The British Council (2015, p.4) reports that "language-learning builds an inclusive environment, increases feelings of safety, increases students' attendance and attainment in the classrooms... Language is an essential part of our individual and community lives, as well as being an essential tool for learning." Likewise, UNICEF (2016) reports that language can play an important role in resilience building and it can prevent conflict because it is an expression of identity. Resilience of individuals can be increased via language programs such as developing literacy and the home language, learning additional languages, and through supporting and promoting language teachers skills and capacities. Similarly, in a more recent study, Cinkara (2017) reported the support of language learning in development resilience in Syrian refugee students in Gaziantep.

Very few resilience studies have been carried out in Iraq (Ammeen & Cinkara, 2018). However, the Regional Refugee & Resilience Plan (3RP)

and the Iraq Crisis Response and Resilience Program (ICRRP) are including resilience building activities which will lead to more scientific resilience studies (UNHCR, 2016). The British Council conducted one of the few resilience studies in Iraq. It reports a significant relationship between language learning and resilience in Iraqi society and it aims to develop language education to promote the resilience of refugees and IDPs in Iraq and also in Syria, Turkey, and Lebanon (British Council, 2015)

Methods

Resilience and Covid-19

It is ironic that the very research project itself has become an academic monument to resilience building. This research was originally set up in two parts. The first part consisted of an instructional program delivered by the PhD researcher of this paper to two groups of young people at the camp, using the pre and post-resilience test. The first part of the course was given in September and October, 2019, and the second part was to be held in April of 2020. It was cancelled due to the Covid-19 pandemic. The second part involved 3 local English teachers who gave the survey at the beginning of their English courses and were supposed to give it again at the end of the school year. Unfortunately, this part also was affected by the Covid-19 lockdown in Iraq and the indefinite closure of the schools there. When it became clear that it would be impossible to go to Iraq to conduct the second half of the research, it was decided to set up a YouTube channel program called *"English for Resilience"* to be delivered to children in the camps, plus an online course in real time. Again misfortune struck because most of the children in the camps do not have access to the Internet, and when they do, the connection is bad and breaks down constantly. And so a final type of research was created which consists of an experimental online research survey that attempts to measure the connection between learning English and building resilience. Mr. Maher al Issa gave us his very important assistance by managing the data collection, as well as providing input in the qualitative research area.

Instrument used

The instrument used is the CYRM-28 "CHILD AND YOUTH RESILIENCE MEASURE-28 (Ungar, 2011)" developed at the Resilience Studies Center in Halifax, Canada (https://cyrm.resilienceresearch.org/).

This carefully researched instrument includes a strong cross-cultural component which was essential in this study. We used the questions measuring resilience from the CYRM and added 3 more questions to measure the connection between English language learning and resilience factors.

Conducting the survey

The survey was translated into Kurdish and Arabic, and put on an online survey link. It took about three minutes to complete, and could be done from either a mobile phone or a computer. Due to the COVID-19 lockdown, it was very challenging to distribute the surveys, but the link was sent to many different sites around the area. In the end most of the results came in from Camp Sheikhan because the onsite team member interviewed the children and assisted them with the data transmission. Older students answered by themselves.

Findings

Identification of participants

This section summarises the profile of the various participants. As already explained, at the moment of this writing, there is a total lockdown and every effort was made to collect as many surveys as possible from the Sheikhan IDP Camp, Domitz Refugee Camp and others. If there had been just a few more weeks available before this writing, many more surveys could have been collected. However, 51 questionnaires were sent and subsequently validated. All participants were duly informed about anonymity and privacy.

Descriptive Statistics

Identity of respondents: 82% were IDP Yazidis, living in the Sheikhan Camp of Duhok Governorate; 18% included individuals who responded for themselves, refugees, and others including indicating 1 tutor, 3 refugees, and 3 others.

Interviewer: again, the 82% were directly answered by the participants.

Gender: there were more males than females, 42% females, 58% males.

Place of residence: 72% came from the IDP Camp Sheikan; the entire number came from Autonomous Kurdistan. The 28% not from the Sheikan Camp came from Domitz Camp in the Duhok Governorate, and 16% came from other places outside of the Duhok Governorate.

Age in years: the results show the age breakdown; there was actually a good distribution of ages; Age 7 came in at 5.9%; age 8 at 3.9%; then age 10 at 5.9%. Going up in age, 7.8% were age 12; age 16 came in at 9.8%; age 17 at 7.8%; age 18 at 9.8% and age 19 at 9.8%. This is actually a good range because it can test the hypotheses based on age.

The mean for age is 16.82; the median 17, with a standard deviation of 6.42.

Original residence: 62% came from Shingal (Sinjar) which is the area that was taken over by ISIS, as reported previously. Other places of original residence include Syria (3.9%), Duhok (9.8%), and the rest is shown below.

Number of years in the camp: the largest number reported 5 years, followed by 3 and then 6. It makes sense because the fall of the Shingal (Sinjar) region to ISIS began in August, 2014 and the escape from the area started from that point and continued.

Employment of father: here 35.3% are unemployed, 33.3% are working part-time, and 19.6% are working full-time. Another 11.8% replied not present/don't know which I interpret as possibly dead or missing.

Employment of mother: almost 70% of the mothers are unemployed, which goes with the culture, to have the mother at home. 15.7% reported that the mother was not present/don't know, which I interpret as the result of the ISIS incursion, where they took women and children as slaves and killed the older women and men.

Education of father: 23.5% of the fathers never went to school; 33.3% finished primary school (5 years); 15.7% finished middle school, and 13.7% finished secondary school. And 7.8% had studied at the university.

Education of mother: 49% of the mothers never went to school. 27.5% finished primary school, 7.8% finished middle school, and 3.9 finished secondary school.

Number of brothers: The average was 2.29 brothers.

Number of sisters: the average was 2.02 sisters.

Years of schooling of the participants: the mean was 8.43 years, the median 9, with a standard deviation of 4.92.

This concludes the summary of basic information about the participants. The next part was taken directly from the CYRM, and directed towards measuring resilience.

The relationship between learning English and Resilience

In this phase of the research we focus on one specific question (proxy) for learning English:

How do you feel about learning English?

--I feel happy when I study English

--I feel afraid when I study English

--I feel strong when I study English

--I feel ashamed when I study English

--I feel optimistic when I study English

and two questions for "resilience":

Do you feel you fit in with other children?

-- Yes

-- Sometimes

-- No

Do you have chances to show others that you are growing up and can do things by yourself?

-- Yes

-- Sometimes

-- No

Due to the difficulties involved in getting samples, and time constraints, it was decided to utilise a contingency table to get a picture of the target population and whether there are any associations between learning English and resilience. For this purpose, the Chi Square test of independence was

used. We recall that the Chi-Square test of independence determines whether there is an association between categorical variables in a contingency table (i.e., whether the categorical variables are independent or dependent).

A contingency table (also known as a cross-tabulation, crosstab, or two-way table) is an arrangement in which data is classified according to two categorical variables. The categories for one variable appear in the rows, and the categories for the other variable appear in columns

The two hypotheses for the Chi-Squared test of independence are the following: 1) null: the variables are independent - no relationship exists; 2) alternative: a relationship between the variables exists. We use the 5% significance threshold for all contingency tables (p-value <0.05).

Let's analyse the first relation. The Chi Square test result is about 17 with a probability value of 0.025 (see Table 1). Here the percentages show 'feel happy' at 74.2%, and 50% for both 'feel strong' and 'feel afraid'.

The interpretation here could be that resilience is based also on positive feelings. It seems that learning English builds positive feelings. The 'feeling afraid' answer also came in as part of the other two feelings. Students feel afraid, but they also feel happy or strong.

Table 1. How do you feel about learning English? Vs. Do you feel you fit in with other children?

How do you feel about learning English?		Do you feel you fit in with other children?			Total sample
		No	Sometimes	Yes	
I feel strong when I study English	Count	0	1	1	2
	% within How do you feel about learning English?	0.00%	50.00%	50.00%	100.00%
I feel optimistic when I study English	Count	0	5	1	6
	% within How do you feel about learning English?	0.00%	83.30%	16.70%	100.00%
I feel happy when I study English	Count	1	7	23	31
	% within How do you feel about learning English?	3.20%	22.60%	74.20%	100.00%

I feel ashamed when I study English	Count	0	3	1	4
	% within How do you feel about learning English?	0.00%	75.00%	25.00%	100.00%
I feel afraid when I study English	Count	2	2	4	8
	% within How do you feel about learning English?	25.00%	25.00%	50.00%	100.00%

Table 2: How do you feel about learning English? Vs. Do you have chances to show others that you are growing up and can do things by yourself? Do you feel you fit in with other children?

How do you feel about learning English?		Do you have chances to show others that you are growing up and can do things by yourself?			Total sample
		No	Sometimes	Yes	
I feel strong when I study English	Count	0	2	0	0
	% within How do you feel about learning English?	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%
I feel optimistic when I study English	Count	0	6	0	0
	% within How do you feel about learning English?	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%
I feel happy when I study English	Count	5	9	17	5
	% within How do you feel about learning English?	16.1%	29.0%	54.8%	16.1%
I feel ashamed when I study English	Count	0	4	0	0
	% within How do you feel about learning English?	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%
I feel afraid when I study English	Count	2	3	3	2
	% within How do you feel about learning English?	25.0%	37.5%	37.5%	25.0%

For the second relation, the Chi Square test result is about 18 with a probability value of 0.017 (see table 2). Interpretation: this question was interesting because the percentages at 100% for feeling happy. This shows a good correlation with resilience, because combining growing up and becoming self-sufficient is connected to learning English.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The current research investigated the resilience levels of Iraqi IDPs and Syrian refugees. It further investigated the role of EFL in their resilience building. Although this research is still in experimental form, the survey has indicated some very interesting relations between learning English and resilience. The main areas of resilience building, that of social skills, ability to maintain relationships and obtain support, came out as significant relations. Another very important area of resilience building, and recovering from PTSD is that of generating positive feelings. Across the board the students associated happy, positive feelings with learning English. Another important area to resilience, hardiness, that of having hopes and goals for the future came out in this. Learning English was associated with finding a job, assisting the family, and generated feelings of pride as well. Another positive aspect of learning English is being able to tell one's story to the world. IDP children, refugees everywhere, and Yazidis in particular, all have the need to tell their story to the world, which they feel they can do by learning English.

There were many problems in conducting this research. Just entering Iraq, getting into the camps, establishing relationships, and making connections was a huge challenge. But when Covid-19 appeared, it seemed like this research was doomed. However, in the last hour, somehow resilience came through, from the camp side and from the academic research side.

In the final summary, we propose that building resilience is a way to avoid radicalisation. Young people who are connected, feel optimistic for the future, and see English as a way to communicate with the world will have an added advantage for avoiding the trap of recruitment and radicalisation so prevalent in that area. But more than anything else, in the first part of the research when the children were actually in our English course, they were able to laugh, sing and dance; and be children. That was truly the most important part of this research.

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AMERICAN ANTHEMS:
TEACHING HISTORY THROUGH FOLK MUSIC

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This paper will look at a number of American folk songs from the eighteenth century up until the present which help shed light on important developments in American history. Certain milestones in American history will be focused on: The War of Independence, The War of 1812, The Civil War, the Great Depression, the Civil Rights Movement, and the Vietnam War. This paper will look at a number of American folk songs from the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries which help shed light on important developments in American history. Certain milestones will be focused on: The War of Independence, The War of 1812 and The Civil War, etc. Although a teacher of literature primarily, I have been teaching a folk music class for several years now. I have found playing and singing in class to be a useful way to get students involved and increase class participation. I can also use songs as a means of teaching vocabulary, geography, history and American studies. This paper should hopefully serve as inspiration for other teachers, at various levels, to employ and incorporate music and song into their classroom activity.

Introduction

This paper will be using the term anthem in a wider sense, not being limited, in other words, to national anthems, which in the case of the United States would be *The Star-Spangled Banner*, although this song and its text will be included in the analysis. The Oxford English Dictionary contains a number of definitions of which I would focus on these particular two: "A song officially adopted by a nation, school, or other body, and performed at ceremonies and other official occasions, typically used as an expression of identity and pride." (Oxford, 2020). This would of course apply to national anthems and other official ceremonial songs such as *Hail to the Chief* the

anthem of the US President or perhaps *Lift Every Voice and Sing*, the African-American National Anthem.

I will also include, however, anthems in a broader sense, defined by the OED as: "A rousing or uplifting popular song, *esp.* one associated with, or with lasting appeal for, a particular group of people. Chiefly with distinguishing word, denoting either the associated group of people or the genre of music ..." (Oxford, 2020). This category would be more temporal and often more controversial, such as Woody Guthrie's *This Land Is Your Land*, which a certain amount of the population might identify with, while others reject it. Both of these categories overlap to some extent, with this being most poignant of late in connection with the Black Lives Matter movement, which has at times protested against the playing of the *The Star-Spangled Banner* in order to draw attention to social injustice, but also due to the actual content of the original lyrics.

American War of Independence

As with many old folk songs, the origins of *Yankee Doodle* are shrouded in the mists of history. The melody is arguably much older dating back to various parts of Europe. Its rise to fame, however, is connected with the Revolutionary War or the American War of Independence and the events leading up to it.

There are many surviving verses to the song, but I will focus on only the most well-known. The first verse is not particularly remarkable, seemingly describing soldiers preparing for war under the leadership of an unknown captain. General Washington is also referred to at a later point.

Father and I went down to camp,

Along with Captain Gooding;

And there we saw the men and boys,

As thick as hasty pudding.

The second verse seems to have been added later, but has now become synonymous with the song.

Yankee Doodle went to town,

A-riding on a pony,

Stuck a feather in his cap

And called it macaroni.

The lyrics were apparently made up by British troops in order to mock the lack of sophistication of their American counterparts. The term Yankee is arguably of Dutch origin, but had become a derogatory term for Americans by the second half of the eighteenth century. The lyrics depict an American country bumpkin taking on the airs of a gentleman, who can only afford a feather in his cap instead of the sophisticated 'macaroni', this being a fancy wig worn by fashionable Europeans. The insult 'doodle' implies his lack of intelligence and taste. He is also only riding a pony as opposed to a proper horse. The song was usually also understood as a condescending reference to the lack of style and uniformity of the American army as opposed to the well-dressed 'redcoats' of the British side.

Yankee doodle, keep it up,

Yankee doodle dandy;

Mind the music and the step,

And with the girls be handy.

The chorus of the song was apparently added by the American side as a retort to the insulting tone of the earlier verse. The lyrics embrace the negative labelling and turn an attack into a compliment. The song becomes a celebration of egalitarianism and democracy in opposition to the elitism and snobbery of the British side. The 'Yankee Doodle' is no longer a fool, but instead a charmer, popular with the ladies, living his life to the full. Alan Lomax in the *Penguin Book of Folk Songs* quotes a British soldier who wrote that, "After the affair at Bunker's Hill, the Americans glory in it. *Yankee Doodle* is now their paean, played in their army … After our rapid successes it was not a little mortifying to hear them play this tune when their army marched down to our surrender." (Lomax, 1964, p. 23).

Yankee Doodle became an anthem of the American troops during the War and is now one of the most recognisable songs in the national consciousness. It is not only the state anthem of Connecticut, but a stalwart classic heard in the background during practically any historical American film or documentary.

The song not only provides a lively picture of the social dynamics of late eighteenth century America, but can serve as the basis for a discussion of the evolution of the term 'Yankee' which, of course, experienced a shift in meaning in the nineteenth century, becoming specifically a reference to someone from the northern states; only to become a derogatory term for an ugly American abroad in the second half of the twentieth century.

John Shaw, in his book focused on the development of American national anthems, makes the intriguing claim that this Yankee Doodle

approach has marked country music, and American culture generally, ever since, celebrating our hillbilly, ragtag identity and refusing to be ashamed of it: "The fight sparked the American Revolution, and the singing of "Yankee Doodle" commenced an American tradition. The colonists reclaimed the insult and threw it back in the would-be oppressor's face. The move became a classic gesture of the confident underdog, seemingly self-deprecating but slyly a boastful taunt." (Shaw, 2013, pp. 41, 42).

War of 1812

The Star-Spangled Banner became the official national anthem in the year 1931. Prior to this, the song *Hail Columbia* served this purpose, but not apparently with such an official status awarded to it. The story behind today's national anthem is well-known, having been composed by Francis Scott Key in the year 1814 in a burst of patriotism upon witnessing the survival of the American flag on the walls of Fort McHenry in Baltimore after a bombardment by British ships.

The song has four verses in all, but only the first is sung. Unlike most national anthems, it is extremely difficult to sing. The plot of the song is quite straight-forward, celebrating the triumphant, almost supernatural, endurance of the flag through the 'fireworks' of the British attack.

Oh, say can you see by the dawn's early light

What so proudly we hailed at the twilight's last gleaming?

Whose broad stripes and bright stars through the perilous fight,

O'er the ramparts we watched were so gallantly streaming?

And the rocket's red glare, the bombs bursting in air,

Gave proof through the night that our flag was still there.

Oh, say does that star-spangled banner yet wave

O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave?

The final two lines are identical for all four stanzas and have taken on almost mystical importance in the American mindset and mythology. The remainder of the lines of the poem are practically unknown. The third stanza, in particular, is controversial to say the least and has become the subject of much discussion of late.

And where is that band who so vauntingly swore

That the havoc of war and the battle's confusion,

A home and a country should leave us no more!

Their blood has washed out their foul footsteps' pollution.

No refuge could save the hireling and slave

From the terror of flight, or the gloom of the grave:

And the star-spangled banner in triumph doth wave

O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave!

The reference to the slave in line five and the implied threat of punishment for having betrayed the homeland requires some historical background. The British had recruited a number of American slaves to fight with them in exchange for freedom. Key's lyrics celebrate their defeat in battle and consequent attempt to escape in order to preserve their freedom; a number of them eventually settled in Canada. The song also finds delight in their death during the fighting, followed once again by the *celebrated* couplet. Increased awareness of these lines has led to discussion as to whether this song is truly suitable as an anthem for all the inhabitants of the country, African-Americans in particular.

The Star-Spangled Banner has also been in the news of late in connection with protests during its playing before professional sports matches. This was initiated by the American football player Colin Kaepernick in 2016 when he took a knee during the anthem and met with a great deal of criticism, eventually losing his job and being blackballed by the league. A number of players followed suit, not only in American football, but in other sports. Kaepernick connected this protest with the Black Lives Matter movement which was intended to draw attention to the frequent shooting of African American males by the police in the United States.

This was actually not the first time protests have occurred in connection with the playing of the national anthem. Two African-American sprinters Tommie Smith and John Carlos, having won the gold and bronze at the 1968 Olympics in the 200 metre dash, raised their fists in black gloves in the Black Power sign and kept their heads down, averting their gaze from the flag, during the playing of the song. Their actions met, not surprisingly, with a great deal of criticism.

Both the controversial lyrics mentioned above and the response, bordering on vilification, to Kaepernick's actions have led a number of people to question the appropriateness of further use of *The Star-Spangled Banner* as the national anthem. This is, however, a minority opinion (in both senses of the word).

Also of interest to students outside the United States would be the rituals connected with the playing of the National Anthem, in other words, being played at practically every sporting event imaginable from professional levels to games organised for children. The audience has to stand up and place their hands over their hearts during the playing. Refusal to do so might meet with a hostile response from the people nearby.

Although not connected with any particular war or historical turning-point, *America* (*My Country, 'Tis of Thee*) written in 1831 by Samuel Francis Smith is also of interest. Strange as it may seem, the melody is identical to the British national anthem *God Save the Queen/King*. This song was one of the unofficial national anthems prior to the official recognition of *The Star-Spangled Banner* in 1931.

Anticipating the protests of the 2010s, this song became a subject of controversy in a fascinating, but little-known, incident back in 1892. A large group of African-Americans met in a church in Chicago to protest against recent lynchings in the South. At the conclusion of the service, the minister encouraged the audience to join in a rendition of *My Country, 'Tis of Thee*, only for parishioners to protest at its appropriateness in light of the recent events. According to a newspaper account, one of the audience members said: "I don't want to sing that song until this country is what it claims to be, 'sweet land of liberty'". (Decatur, 2020). A group decision was made to sing the anti-slavery Civil War anthem *John Brown's Body*, which will be discussed below, instead.

Coming full-circle, Martin Luther King Jr. famously quoted from the song in his *I Have a Dream* speech in 1963:

My country, 'tis of thee,

Sweet land of liberty,

Of thee I sing.

Land where my fathers died,

Land of the pilgrims' pride,

From every mountainside

Let freedom ring.

There have been a number of alternative versions of the song over the years, for example, during the Civil War. The most interesting, in my mind, is called *My Country 'Tis of Thy People You're Dying* by the native-Canadian/American musician Buffy Sainte-Marie from 1966. Her song is a powerful overview of the Native-American experience using the original

song as a springboard for criticism of the treatment of her people. Her version is a scathing tour-de-force deserving of further analysis, but a few lines from the beginning will have to serve to provide a taste of the tone.

> Then further say that American history really began
>
> When Columbus set sail out of Europe and stress
>
> That the nations of leeches who conquered this land
>
> Were the biggest, and bravest, and boldest, and best

The song progresses from the beginnings of European colonialism in the late fifteenth century up to the 1960s, with each stanza ending with the variation on the older song, "My Country 'Tis of Thy People You're Dying". An entire lesson or more focused on Native American history could be built upon this song. A link to the lyrics of the studio version are included in the bibliography. There are also a number of live recordings of the song available on YouTube, including Saint-Marie's classic 1966 performance on Pete Seeger's Rainbow Quest programme.

American Civil War

A number of acclaimed songs emerged during the Civil War, three of which, or two actually, one of them having two variant versions, are to be the focus of this section. Daniel Emmett, one of the key composers in the blackface minstrel tradition, wrote *Dixie* or *I Wish I Was in Dixie* in 1859, which consequently became the unofficial anthem of the Confederacy during the War.

> I wish I was in the land of cotton,
>
> Old times there are not forgotten;
>
> Look away! Look away! Look away! Dixie Land.
>
> In Dixie's land, where I was born,
>
> Early on one frosty morn,
>
> Look away! Look away! Look away! Dixie Land.

Emmett was from Ohio in the North and composed the song as part of the minstrel tradition of idealising the South and pre-war plantation life. The song, with lines like "I'll take my stand", immediately struck a militant chord. Shaw discusses its appeal: "Published in 1860, it was an immediate hit. When eleven Southern states seceded the next year, the strutting march

rhythm, indelibly catchy melody, and proudly sectional lyrics of "Dixie" made it a natural for a Confederate anthem." (Shaw, 2013, p. 34)

> I wish I was in Dixie,
>
> Hooray! Hooray!
>
> In Dixie's Land I'll take my stand
>
> To live and die in Dixie.
>
> Away, away, away down south in Dixie.
>
> Away, away, away down south in Dixie.

Although Emmett did not apparently intend it that way, the song eventually became synonymous with racism and the celebration of slavery. The song is still controversial to the present day, not being out of place, for example, at a gathering of the Ku Klux Klan.

This raises the question of whether it should be played at all in light of its problematic reputation. The present author is of the opinion that it should, but only when placed into the context of the time.

The Union troops adopted their own song as a de facto anthem, this being the folk song *John Brown's Body* about the controversial abolitionist who led a number of violent raids across the border, resulting in a number of deaths. Opinions regarding the protagonist of the song were understandably extremely different on both sides of the Mason-Dixon line: being a martyr to the cause in the eyes of many Northerners and African-Americans, and a terrorist and murder to the majority of Southerners. The song celebrates Brown's actions in laudatory, semi-divine tones reminiscent of the Holy Scriptures.

> John Brown's body lies a-moldering in the grave
>
> John Brown's body lies a-moldering in the grave
>
> John Brown's body lies a-moldering in the grave
>
> But his soul goes marching on
>
>
> The stars above in Heaven are looking kindly down
>
> The stars above in Heaven are looking kindly down
>
> The stars above in Heaven are looking kindly down
>
> On the grave of old John Brown

Glory, Glory, Hallelujah

Glory, Glory, Hallelujah

Glory, Glory, Hallelujah

His soul goes marching on

He captured Harper's Ferry with his nineteen men so true

He frightened old Virginia till she trembled through and through

They hung him for a traitor, they themselves the traitor crew

But his soul goes marching on

This song eventually became a hit with the Union troops and, at least in popular legend, was intentionally sung within earshot of the enemy soldiers in order to provoke and tease them. A number of alternative versions once again proliferated, the most famous of which was by Julia Ward: *Battle Hymn of the Republic* from 1861.

Mine eyes have seen the glory of the coming of the Lord;

He is trampling out the vintage where the grapes of wrath are stored;

He hath loosed the fateful lightning of His terrible swift sword;

His truth is marching on.

Glory! Glory! Hallelujah!

Glory! Glory! Hallelujah!

Glory! Glory! Hallelujah!

His truth is marching on.

The struggle against slavery is depicted in apocalyptic language, with the words and tune powerfully whipping up emotion amongst its sympathisers. The song has been adopted by many other groups over the years, including a number of British football clubs, testifying to its power to generate enthusiasm and unity. John Steinbeck, of course, famously used the words from the second line for the title of his most celebrated novel.

  These two at odds anthems, generating such antipathy over the years, were famously brought together and reconciled in the so-called American Trilogy originally arranged by the country performer Mickey Newbury, but popularised by Elvis Presley in 1972. The medley began with Dixie, moved into The Battle Hymn, and ended with the song *All My Trials*, a Negro spiritual originally from the Bahamas. Elvis, a southerner who had made it

big with Yankee money, managed to transcend the years of animosity triggered by the respective anthems and celebrate the American experience in all of its complexity. A link to the performance is provided once again in the bibliography.

The last song deserving of discussion herein is *America the Beautiful* by Katharine Lee Bates, written in 1895 and first published, set to the music of Samuel A. Ward, in 1910. This is my personal favourite of the songs mentioned thus far, not only because of its singability but also because of its message.

O beautiful for spacious skies,

For amber waves of grain,

For purple mountain majesties

Above the fruited plain!

America! America!

God shed His grace on thee

And crown thy good with brotherhood

From sea to shining sea!

O beautiful for pilgrim feet,

Whose stern, impassioned stress

A thoroughfare for freedom beat

Across the wilderness!

America! America!

God mend thine every flaw,

Confirm thy soul in self-control,

Thy liberty in law!

The call for humility, voiced in the song, and taking responsibility for what one has been given is a new and refreshing perspective.

O beautiful for heroes proved

In liberating strife,

Who more than self their country loved

And mercy more than life!

America! America!

May God thy gold refine,

Till all success be nobleness,

And every gain divine!

This stanza is also intriguing and novel in its reminder that the wealth of the nation needs to be channeled for the good. A corrective is suggested for capitalism gone rampant.

O beautiful for patriot dream

That sees beyond the years

Thine alabaster cities gleam

Undimmed by human tears!

America! America!

God shed His grace on thee

And crown thy good with brotherhood

From sea to shining sea!

This anthem is also the first to celebrate the novelty of a nation stretching across an entire continent, thereby anticipating and possibly inspiring another celebrated anthem of the Great Depression, Woody Guthrie's *This Land Is Your Land*.

Conclusion

This analysis could continue up until the present day. Guthrie's song mentioned above from 1940 was, of course, a reaction to the earlier song *God Bless America* by Irving Berlin, which has of late become an established ritual during professional baseball games, being played and sung during the so-called seventh inning stretch. One could discuss anthems of the Civil Rights movement, such as *We Shall Overcome* or anti-war songs of the 1960s, such as Bob Dylan's *Blowin' in the Wind*.

Apart from anthems which have struck a national chord, there are a number of songs which are of particular importance for minorities: people of colour (the African-American anthem *Lift Every Voice and Sing*, James Weldon Johnson, 1900, 1905), women (*Respect*, Aretha Franklin), the LGBT community (*I Will Survive*, Gloria Gaynor) or unions (*Joe Hill*, Earl Robinson), to name but a few.

These iconic songs, many of which are part of the life-blood of the American nation, can serve as excellent teaching tools in the EFL or ESL classroom. The material can be adjusted to a range of ages and levels of education. I have personally presented variations of some of the songs and themes analysed here to adult teachers of English, university, secondary, and primary students. I find playing the songs on the banjo contributes to the educational experience and any other instrument, of course, will do. Live playing and singing of the songs tends to bring the subject matter alive, and encourages the participants to join in. Recordings can also be played, however, if necessary. The lyrics are always shown on screen or provided in a handout.

The songs can also generate more general discussions connected with anthems. How do the students feel about their own national anthem? Are minorities (of various kinds) included, does it generate a sense of exclusion or inclusion? How do British people, for example, relate to their own anthem, if they are not supporters of the monarchy, for example, or are not from Britain? How do anthems change over time, after certain historical events, in Germany, for example, or after the dissolution of Czechoslovakia or Yugoslavia more recently?

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INTERTEXTUAL GAMES IN POSTMODERNIST FICTION

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The aim of this paper is to explore the phenomenon of intertextuality in postmodernist fiction. I focus mostly on the ludic aspects of this constituent text property and distinguish several types of intertextual games in postmodernist literary texts, such as metafictional games, revisionist games, and games involving characters of transworld identity. They are viewed in this paper as narrative techniques foregrounding ludic modality of postmodernist fiction and intensifying the readers' cognitive activity

Postmodern Intertextuality

Since the 1960s, when Julia Kristeva used the term "intertextuality" for the first time describing any text as a "a mosaic of quotations; any text as the absorption and transformation of another" (Kristeva, 1986, p.36), the theory of intertextuality has been actively and fruitfully developed not only in the area of literary studies, but in various other fields of philological research including text linguistics, cognitive poetics, narratology, and discourse analysis (c.f. Allen, 2006; Federici, 2005; Juvan, 2008)

According to Graham Allen, intertextuality as a concept has turned out to be very useful in the postmodern epoch, because "it foregrounds notions of relationality, interconnectedness and interdependence in modern cultural life" (Allen, 2006:5). This idea of polyphony, or heteroglossia, originally proposed by M. Bakhtin, and focused on by Julia Kristeva in her seminal discussion of the Russian scholar's work, seems to reflect the zeitgeist of the Postmodernist Age quite well as never-ending games of postmodern writers with the concepts of reality and fiction, objectivity and subjectivity, chaos and harmony, tend to ironically disrupt all the norms and conventions of the previous literary traditions in the "paradoxical play between the readerly or realistic and the writerly or intertextual" (Allen, 2006, p.199). The dialogue

of numerous literary voices, the interplay of various discourse types, the hybridisation of different generic forms, widely represented in postmodernist fiction, bear ample proof to the relevance of a further development of the notion of "postmodern intertextuality".

One of the major authorities on postmodern intertextuality, U. Eco, describes intertextual irony as a postmodern technique which he used when writing "The Name of the Rose". Its "concurrent use with an implicit metanarrative appeal" created the effect of "double coding" (Eco, 2011, p.30). The mechanism of double coding lying at the heart of postmodernist text construction and reception might be considered one of the reasons for triggering the effect of cognitive dissonance (Chemodurova, 2019a) in the minds of those "naive" readers, as U. Eco calls them (Eco, 2011, p. 31), who fail to grasp the nuances of the intertextual irony employed by the writers and who seem to be unprepared for various games postmodernist authors involve them in.

In this essay, I propose we take a closer look at several types of intertextual games offered by postmodernist authors which might baffle and confuse the less experienced reader and which, at the same time, establish "a sort of silent complicity with the sophisticated reader" (Eco, 2011, p.32), well aware of the dominant principles of postmodernist aesthetics and ready to partake in its carnivalesque playfulness.

Intertextual Games Postmodern Authors Play

Before defining the notion of "intertextual games" which I intend to analyse in this essay it seems important to dwell some more on the effect of cognitive dissonance which I believe to be an inherent part of the interpretational programmes devised by postmodernist authors for their model readers (U. Eco) and which might be interpreted as a motivational mechanism encouraging less sophisticated readers to reread challenging fragments of the text. Leon Festinger introduced the term "cognitive dissonance" in behavioural psychology in the middle of the 20th century when he outlined the hypothesis in his "The Theory of Cognitive Dissonance" (1955) according to which «the existence of dissonance, being psychologically uncomfortable, will motivate the person to try to reduce the dissonance and achieve consonance» (Festinger https://panarchy.org/ festinger/dissonance. html). He defined cognitive dissonance as «the existence of non-fitting relations among cognitions», as some inconsistencies which disrupt the conventional schemes and cause psychological discomfort (Festinger https://panarchy.org/festinger/dissonance.html).

Postmodernist fiction has long been known for causing this kind of psychological discomfort mingled with surprise, doubt, and confusion shared by those readers whose intertextual competence has not yet extended to fully processing countless narrative experiments with the ontology and epistemology of the constructed fictional worlds (c.f. McHale, 1992; Nicol, 2009).

The mechanism of double coding, referred to by U. Eco, contributes significantly, in my opinion, to enhancing the explicit ludic modality characteristic of many postmodernist works (Chemodurova, 2019 b) and is based, to a great extent, on intertextual games which in this article are viewed as narrative techniques foregrounded by means of intertextual markers and intensifying the ludic modality of postmodernist literary texts.

The playful atmosphere of uncertainty, mystery, and ironic doubt as to the complete impossibility of the fictional world emerging on the pages of postmodernist fiction, its unpredictability, logical inconsistencies, absurdities and paradoxes, is created with the help of such narrative mechanisms as metafictional games, games of revision, games with characters of transworld identity, all of them involving various kinds of intexts which are examined at some length in the rest of the article. Cognitive dissonance is believed to be an important psychological mechanism motivating readers to actively engage in numerous narrative riddles foregrounded by means of intertextual markers.

Metafictional Intertextual Games

Metafiction as a genre has become very popular with the onset of Postmodern Era due to the fact that it is often described as a «mask which points to itself» (McCaffery, 1982, p.5), drawing «the reader's attention to his or her own process of interpretation as s/he reads the text» (Nicol, 2009, p. XVI) and thus accentuating the ludic nature of a fictional text, its role of a prop in the readers' game of make-believe (Walton, 1990).

The concept of imagination, both the author's creative imagination and the reader's willingness to imagine new worlds, seems to be pivotal for constructing and interpreting metafiction in which the idea of storytelling as the manifestation of R. Barthes's ground-breaking thesis that "a text is made of multiple writings drawn from many cultures and entering into mutual relations of dialogue, parody, contestation" (Barthes, 1977, p. 148) is always brought to the forefront of the narrative:

"'Little Dooney', she said dreamily, and kissed me: "pretend this whole situation is the plot of a story we're reading, and you and I and Daddy and the King are all fictional characters…

"As soon as she spoke these last words a genie appeared from nowhere right there in our library-stacks. He didn't resemble anything in Sherry's bedtime stories: for one thing, he wasn't frightening, though he was strange-looking enough: a light-skinned fellow of forty or so, smooth-shaven and bald as a roc's egg. His clothes were simple but outlandish; he was tall and healthy and pleasant enough in appearance, except for queer lenses that he wore in a frame over his eyes. He seemed as startled as we were – you should've seen Sherry drop that pen and pull her skirts together! – but he got over his alarm a lot sooner, and looked from one to the other of us and at a stubby little magic wand he held in his fingers, and smiled a friendly smile" (Barth, 2001, pp. 8-9).

John Barth, the foremost American metafictionist of the 20th century, weaves an intricate intertextual game in which Scheherazade, his favourite character and the epitome of storytelling as art, helps the genie/the author's alter ego to invent yet another story, that of her younger sister Dunyazade narrating her sister's story. This playful self-reflexivity of Barth's "Chimera" draws the readers into the endless process of fiction-making, defeating their expectations and urging them to exercise their imagination.

Turning readers into active participants of the make-believe game is one of the constituent features of metafiction represented in the narration as "an extensive topos of the reader", a narrative strategy used to foreground a very precarious balance existing between the acts of illusion-building and illusion-disrupting. Intertextual markers are often employed to intensify the ludic modality of metafictional postmodernist texts tipping the balance in favour of constructing what M.-L. Ryan calls "impossible fictional worlds" (Ryan, 2013).

A recent example of such a metafictional intertextual game can be found in the short story "The Mirror" by Francine Prose (2016) written as a tribute to the renowned novel "Jane Eyre" by C. Bronte and celebrating the bicentenary of the writer.

F. Prose constructs her fictional world with Jane and Mr. Rochester as a married couple, modelling an extended topos of the Reader, playing metaleptically with the narrative levels and quoting passages from the original novel:

"Reader, you are probably thinking that nothing like this would ever happen to you. If you were pretty sure that a man's wife had still been alive when you met, and that she'd gone mad, and that he had shut her up in the attic, and that she died in a fire, you would probably stick to your guns. You might not marry him, after that.

"If you're wondering why I did, possibly you are forgetting what he said to me in Chapter 27, the speech that goes on for pages and pages, during

which he says everything that a poor orphan governess could possibly want to hear, everything that *every* woman wants to hear, pages and pages of passionately confessing to the growth of his obsession with me, the history of his love.

"I used to enjoy a chance meeting with you, Jane, at this time: there was a curious hesitation in your manner: you glanced at me with a slight trouble – a hovering doubt....” (Prose, 2017, pp. 110-111)

Here we can see a typically metafictional technique of addressing the reader directly and, thus, intensifying the feeling of uncertainty in the minds of “naive” addressees as to the ontological boundaries of the fictional world which is being constructed. The author draws us into the intertextual game made quite explicit thanks to the insistent repetition of the key words “pages and pages”, “Chapter 27”, and the quotation of the romantic passage from the novel by Bronte. The double coding, described by U. Eco, is the mechanism quite relevant to interpreting this metafictional story as F. Prose resorts both to the “intertextual irony: direct quotations from other famous texts, or more or less transparent references to them” and “reflections that the text makes on its own nature, when the author speaks directly to the reader” (Eco, 2011, 30). The effect of the cognitive dissonance caused by this flaunting of the artifice and foregrounding the intertextual game we are all involved in is enhanced at the end of the story which acquires a parable-like quality:

“I looked at the new governess and wondered about the future. My future, to be more precise.

I felt as if I were someone else: a visitor from the future, looking into a mirror” (Prose, 2017, p.117).

Concluding the story with the word “mirror” which she uses as the title, F. Prose manages to remind us at once of the famous frame-story J. Barth created to open his “Lost in the Funhouse”, this paradigm of metafictional playfulness: “Once upon a time there was a story that began...” (Barth, 1988, p.1). She also adds her creative voice to the ongoing dialogue of epochs, cultures and literary traditions illustrating quite brilliantly that texts are indeed the mosaics of allusions and transformed quotations.

Games of Revision

Another type of intertextual game which has gained a remarkable popularity in the Age of Postmodernism can be called Games of Revision, or Revisionist Literary Games, based on various rewritings and reinterpretations of well-known plots.

Canonical fairy-tale plots migrating through cultures and centuries seem to have been reworked into dozens of fascinating versions each of them retaining "genre memory" (Bakhtin, 1979) but transgressing the prototypical schemes and reflecting the latest anthropological, cultural, political, gender sensibilities and trends.

One of the absolute favourites with postmodernist writers transforming fairytale plots for the purpose of creating pastiche is, of course, Charles Perrault's "La Barbe-Bleue" which is not deemed to be a "proper" fairytale by some scholars, as it does not describe a magical, or miraculous, world of faeries, but rather a macabre and gloomy reality (c.f. Smith, 2004; Bottingheimer, 2009; Osborne, 2014). It inspired such outstanding postmodernists as Donald Barthelme and Margaret Atwood, Angela Carter, and Joyce Carol Oates to create their interpretations of the plot centred on the murderous husband and his young bride tempted to break his taboo in pursuit of the forbidden fruit of knowledge.

Women writers find this prototypical story especially enticing as it offers them endless possibilities of reevaluating prevalent gender norms and stereotypes (Chemodurova, 2019 c) and often defeating expectations of their readers as does Joyce Carol Oates in her short story entitled "Blue-Bearded Lover". Telling her version in typically postmodern narrative fragments she turns the bride into the narrator, changing the pragmatic perspective of the story originally built by Perrault as the third person narration:

> "III.
>
> He made me his bride and brought me to his great house which smelled of time and death. Passageways and doors and high-ceilinged rooms and tall windows opening out onto nothing. Have you ever loved another man as you now love me? my blue-bearded lover asked. Do you give your life to me?
>
> What is a woman's life that cannot be thrown away!
>
> He told me of the doors I may unlock and the rooms I may enter freely. He told me of the seventh door, the forbidden door, which I may not unlock: for behind it lies a forbidden room which I may not enter. Why may I not enter it? I asked, for I saw that he expected it of me, and he said, kissing my brow, Because I have forbidden it.
>
> And he entrusted me with the key to the door, for he was going away on a long journey" (Oates, 2010, p.391)

Shifting the focus of readers' attention away from the murder-plotting husband and concentrating on the wife's motives instead Oates disrupts the canonical plotline when she unexpectedly describes her "naive" wife-character as obedient and unwilling to break the prohibition:

"IV.

Here it is: a small golden key, weighing no more than a feather in the palm of my hand.

It is faintly stained as if with blood. It glistens when I hold it to the light.

Did I not know that my lover's previous brides had been brought to this house to die? — that they had failed him, one by one, and had deserved their fate?

I have slipped the golden key into my bosom, to wear against my heart, as a token of my lover's trust in me" (Oates, 2010, p.392).

The motive of initiation as a rite of passage a blushing bride of the Bluebeard should go through (Atlas, 2017, p.76) is creatively transformed by the author to depict the mentality of the survivor, who, according to Joyce Carol Oates herself, is not a victim, but "calculating, canny. She will outwit Bluebeard by obeying his instructions...and [using] cynical sexual manipulation" (Oates, 2010, p.394)

This ironic mode of narration the writer assumes helps Oates to provoke the effect of cognitive dissonance built with the help of the mechanism of defeated expectancy, one of the types of foregrounding (Chemodurova, 2019b) focusing readers' attention on some crucial inconsistencies of the plot.

An exciting intertextual game based on the revision of a well-known plot is offered by Neil Gaiman in his "A Study in Emerald" as he sets a number of narrative booby traps for unsuspecting readers who believe the story to be a new version of Sherlock Holmes' adventures. The title seems to point in that direction being the allusion to Conan Doyle's "A Study in Scarlet". The time of the narration is consistent with the original story, whereas the modelled space diverges considerably as Gaiman transports us to some kind of Nabokovian Antiterra when he constructs the New Albion of 1881. The first-person narrator who has just returned from Afghanistan where he was wounded and tortured by the "Afghan cave-folk" (Gaiman, 2007, p.2), where "gods and men ...were savages" (Gaiman, 2007, p.2), meets a new friend who is a detective and they settle down in Baker Street. The readers, though made aware of the eerie nature of the universe projected in the story with some alien supernatural monsters ruling Albion (Queen Victoria being one of those creatures who invaded England some 700 years before), might not avoid the narrative pitfall so skillfully prepared by Neil Gaiman in his intertextual game. The unnamed narrator and his unnamed friend are asked by Inspector Lestrade to investigate a brutal murder of an alien Royal Prince from Bohemia with the word "rache" ("revenge") left as a clue both for the

detectives and the readers to make sure they will "detect" the connection with the original Conan Doyle story.

The ludic modality of the text is constantly enhanced as Gaiman introduces numerous discrepancies between the stories which might trigger cognitive dissonance and leave the readers trying to puzzle out this game. The final clue as to the identities of the narrator and his friend and also the two suspects in the murder they have been investigating might come as a total surprise to naive readers adding the final twist to the plot. The manuscript which we have been reading is signed by

"S----------M----------- Major (Ret'd)

Baker Street,

London, New Albion, 1881" (Gaiman, 2007, p.26), urging us to reconsider our assumptions about the characters in the story, because the initials S--- M--- can refer to Sebastian Moran, "the second most dangerous man in London", according to Conan Doyle. In this case the intertextual game offered by Gaiman presupposes the reversal of the roles in this half-Doyle and half-Lovecraft detective story turning Holmes (known to the readers as "Sigerson") and his friend, an ex-surgeon, called John Watson, into the rebels/avengers fighting against the alien invasion and Professor Moriarty and Sebastian Moran into the law-abiding citizens of this New Albion.

Transworld Identity Games

The third type of intertextual games discussed in this essay and involving the readers in the projected fictional world where quite a few contradictions and incongruities are foregrounded might be termed "Games with Characters of Transworld Identity".

Brian McHale claims that "there are a number of ways of foregrounding this intertextual space and integrating it in the text's structure, but none is more effective than the device of "borrowing" a character from another text - "transworld identity". Umberto Eco has called this "the transmigration of characters from one fictional universe to another" (McHale, 1987, p.57).

According to him, postmodernists tend to resort to this trick of "borrowing" characters from other fictional universes trying to destabilise fictional ontology (McHale, 1987, p.58) and foreground "a text's own status as constructed, aesthetic artefact" (Nicol, 2009, p.XVI).

A brilliant example of this kind of game can be found in Woody Allen's story "The Kugelmass Episode" in which a not very happy New York Professor of Humanities, always complaining about the hardships of his

second marriage, visits a Brooklyn magician dreaming to find a beautiful lover in the pages of some novel:

> "Kugelmass remained skeptical. "What are you telling me - - that this cheesy homemade box can take me on a ride like you're describing?"

> "For a double sawbuck."

> Kugelmass reached for his wallet. "I'll believe this when I see it," he said.

> Persky tucked the bills in his pants pocket and turned toward his bookcase. "So who do you want to meet? Sister Carrie? Hester Prynne? Ophelia? Maybe someone by Saul Bellow? Hey, what about Temple Drake? Although for a man your age she'd be a workout."

> "French, I want to have an affair with a French lover." (Allen, 1998, p.350).

Finally settling for Madame Bovary, Kugelmass literally intrudes into her fictional space giving the readers an impression of hilarious absurdity of the created world that combines the typical features of postmodernist metafiction, pastiche and parody and seems totally impossible:

> "Emma turned in surprise. "Goodness, you startled me," she said. "Who are you?" She spoke in the same fine English translation as the paperback" (Allen, 1998, p.351).

These two characters, so obviously not "compossible" (McHale, 1987, p.57) in one fictional world and yet brought together in the pages of the story, account for the explicit ludic modality of the piece:

> "Kugelmass hailed a cab and sped off to the city. His heart danced on point. I'm in love, he thought, I'm the possessor of a wonderful secret. What he didn't realise was that at this very moment students in various classrooms across the country were saying to their teachers, "Who is this character on page 100? A bald Jew is kissing Madame Bovary?" A teacher in Sioux Falls, South Dakota, sighed and thought, Jesus, these kids, with their pot and acid. What goes through their minds!" (Allen, 1998, p.352).

A subtype of this intertextual game involving borrowed characters can be described as *an autointertextual game with characters*. Unlike the novels by Balzac, for example, in which one and the same character can "transmigrate" from one text to another solidifying the realistic illusion (McHale, 1987, p.57), postmodernist fiction tends to dispel this illusion using characters of transwold identity to problematise the ontological status of the text and foreground its contradictory nature.

In "Travels in the Scriptorium" by Paul Auster, the main character called Mr. Blank is accused by his own creations, referred to as his "operatives", "charges", "victims", and also "the figments in his head", "the phantom beings that clatter his head", "shadow-beings marching through his head",

"the damned specters"*(Auster, 2006)*, of sending all of them on dangerous missions, getting rid of them, which might confuse those readers who have not read any earlier works by Auster. His faithful followers, on the contrary, enjoy this kind of "secret collusion" with their author, constructing a metafictional world full of contradictions and inconsistencies and inhabited by protagonists from "The New York Trilogy" and "The Country of Last Things":

> "It was a special request, Ann replies. From Peter Stillman. Not the father, the son. Peter Stillman, Junior.
>
> Who's he?
>
> You don't remember?
>
> I'm afraid not.
>
> He's another of your charges. When you sent him out on his   mission, he had to dress all in white.
>
> How many people have I sent out?
>
> Hundreds, Mr. Blank. More people than I can count *(Auster, 2006, p. 28)*.

Thus, Mr. Blank finds himself locked in a small room, suffering from amnesia, and confronted by his own characters, whose fictional status is left indeterminate in a typically postmodernist manner, intensifying the ludic modality of the narration.

Conclusion

Creating complex heterocosms, many postmodernist writers use various narrative mechanisms to enhance the ludic modality of postmodernist fiction. In this essay I have analysed three types of intertextual games which can be defined as specific narrative techniques based on the elaborate use of numerous intertextual markers and foregrounding the ludic potential of postmodernist fictional texts. The attempt at classifying various types of intertextual games, including metafictional games, revisionist games, games with characters of transworld identity, can be viewed as a relevant area of the intertextual stylistic analysis which will take into account the latest findings of cognitive poetics, literary studies, and pragmatics and will give fresh insights into the interdisciplinary nature of postmodern intertextuality.

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CHARACTERISTICS OF SEMANTICS TEXTBOOKS AND THEIR USABILITY IN THE CURRICULUM

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We present a review of Kreidler, Ch. W. (2014). Introducing English Semantics. Second edition. London: Routledge. under the aspect of its usability as a standard text in the linguistics curriculum of undergraduate students.

The review

Kreidler's volume competes with the more conventional titles of

a) Cruse, D. A. (2011). Meaning in language. An introduction to semantics and pragmatics. Third edition. Oxford: Oxford University Press. and

b) Griffiths, P. (2016). An introduction to English semantics and pragmatics. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press. The latest edition of b) was revised by C. Cummins.

In all aspects the aforementioned titles are to be preferred to the reviewed book as current theories are presented in an extremely user-friendly style (Cruse) or with brevity and clarity (Griffiths).

Major factors to influence any decision to adopt a textbook can be in content and accessibility as well as the use of contemporary examples and references and suggestions for further reading. Others lie in the fact that:

1) Exercises are included in each chapter,

2) boxed-text segments with additional, sometimes anecdotal information are given, as evidenced by especially US textbooks for undergraduates.

Further plusses are:

3) clear graphs/diagrams plus explanations how to 'read' them,

4) a thorough introduction into methodological issues, i.e. how to conduct a study, make a questionnaire, do field research and finally

5) a clear separation between theoretical and empirical issues.

The aspects that speak in favour of *Introducing English Semantics* are that it is a relatively 'complete' introduction and that the learning curve remains very shallow, it is entry-level throughout. The glossary of key terms at the back of the book and a good selection of exercises would – in principle – make it a popular adoption even for students. But before that, in a new edition of this book, several changes would have to be made so that it can be more suited to a course in semantics, including a definite update of all text examples (e.g. an urgent replacement of obsolete car models like *Datsun*, p.12). Needed would be further an update and expansion of the bibliography and basically all of the 'suggested readings' sections.

As for areas and topics that are missing, formal semantics is completely ignored, it definitely deserves a short chapter, truth conditions are mentioned but their treatment is not properly executed. Chapter 9 on speech acts has been done much better elsewhere.

To comment on single chapters it needs stating that the chapter on 'The study of meaning' is too short, very narrow, and does not represent a conventional introduction into semantics, it is suggested to be rewritten.

The chapter on 'Language in use' is basically fine but comes too early in the book. It should be moved to the last 3rd of the volume.

As for 'The dimensions of meaning', the chapter title is a misnomer, in fact very basic relationships like homonymy etc. are explained here, it should be renamed.

'Semantic roles' is very basic, too; for example Jackendoff (e.g. Jackendoff 2010), its most important theoretician, is not even mentioned. A suggestion would be to thoroughly modernise it and include the substantial research done in this field.

'Lexical relations' has a 'projects' box, which is laudable; but it should contain more current projects (e.g. WordNet, FrameNet, etc.).

'Transition and transfer predicates' feels like an odd attachment of previously unused material, the book would be better off without it.

The chapter on 'Reference' is not the worst chapter; it is compact, yet too brief on Frege and especially on deixis (which is oddly surprising for a pragmatics-heavy semantics book). It would need recognition of Levinson (see Levinson 2003), there is massive research in this field that will provide countless good examples.

'Sentences as arguments' is a school-grammar kind of account, but quite systematic. It can stand as a stable chapter.

'Speech acts' is misshapen throughout. 'Aspect', to my assessment (due to research carried out on the topic, cf. Haase 2004), is the most useful chapter, not up-to-date but in conception and execution very systematic. It also needs an update.

'Factivity, implication and modality' provides a good challenge for the students but a bit too short. It has the inexcusable omission of causativity, which should be added.

'A variety of predicates' is a chapter that chooses a weird focus on S-schemes, which is definitely far from being a canonical model. The chapter as such can be appreciated but since it steers clear of anything modern (e.g. Goldberg's constructions, cf. Goldberg 2019), it is an odd choice.

'The semantics of morphological relations' provides a standard treatment of English morphology, its position at the end is truly beyond the comprehension of this reviewer.

On the other hand, the 'Glossary of technical terms' is good and helpful, as is the 'Index of Names'.

As for the 'Index of lexemes', it is difficult to imagine a student would be actually using this. In layout and accessibility of text, it benefits from a no-frills layout but the cover could get a fresher make-up.

The 'References' section and the suggestions for further reading have definitely many really old titles in there, this section needs substantial revision.

'Follow-up activities / questions' is one of the stronger components and should be left intact in all further editions. The summarising conclusions at end of chapters are all systematically executed and therefore recommendable.

Overall, a new edition needs to be updated on many levels, new research needs to be included (e.g. constructions), some important research should be introduced (e.g. Natural Semantic Metalanguage, cf. Wierzbicka 2008), some more transdisciplinary links should be established (e.g. to psycholinguistics, esp. Boroditsky's experiments, as in Thibodeau & Boroditsky 2015).

Conclusion

We cannot recommend this introduction to English semantics to be adopted as a standard textbook in the undergraduate curriculum. While it does have its merits, they are outweighed by its shortcomings in structure, actuality of the material, and especially in the light of other, stronger textbooks.

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