Faculty of Philosophy
University of Niš

Teaching Languages and Cultures in the Post-Method Era: Issues and Developments

Edited by
Nina Lazarević
Milica Savić
Tatjana Paunović
Ljiljana Marković

Niš
2015

Series SELECTED PAPERS / CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

Editors:
Nina Lazarević, Milica Savić,
Tatjana Paunović, Ljiljana Marković

Editor in chief
Bojana Dimitrijević, PhD

ISBN 978-86-7379-398-6

Reviewers:
Ekaterina Babamova, PhD
Gordana Petričić, PhD
Jelena Filipović, PhD
Olivera Durbaba, PhD

Contents

Introduction

Almost a decade ago, reflecting on the 40-year development of the theory and practice of foreign language teaching (specifically, English), after the turbulent decades that saw the rise and the fall of many language-teaching methods and approaches, Suresh Canagarajah stated:

> We have lost our faith in finding final answers for questions of language acquisition and learning. We have given up our march toward uniform methods and materials. […] [W]e have constantly reexamined our assumptions and enriched our knowledge in the process (Canagarajah, 2006, p. 29-30)

However, he also concluded that it may be "not the comfort of *solutions* that matters but the vigilance of the *search,* not the neat *product* but the messy *practice* of crossing boundaries, mixing identities, and negotiating epistemologies" (Canagarajah, 2006, p. 27).

Canagarajah's words excellently sum up the essence of the post-method era in the exciting, changing, and ever more challenging field of teaching foreign languages and cultures, where the issues of adapting to the specific local social, cultural and political contexts of language learning and teaching, as well as those related to teachers' and students' self-reflective and awareness-raising practices, have become essential. That is why Kumaravadively (2006, p. 59) refers to the 20th-century era of language teaching as the "period of awareness", in difference to today's era, the "period of awakening", characterized by a shift from method-based pedagogy to "postmethod pedagogy" (Kumaravadively, 2006, p. 66), which attempts to find answers to the "felt need to transcend the limitations of the concept of method" (ibid., p. 69).

The postmethod era is also characterized by an increasing call for a "critical turn" in both language teaching and language teacher education (cf.

Hawkins & Norton, 2009). Critical pedagogy, concerned with "social action and educational change" (Hawkins & Norton, 2009, p. 31), is especially important for language teachers, because language, culture, and identity are closely intertwined; therefore, critical language teacher educators need to encourage prospective teachers "to critically reflect on their own identities and positioning in society", since self-reflection "provides a window on the relationship between the individual and the social world", on both the constraints and the possibilities (Hawkins & Norton, 2009, p. 34).

Also addressing language teachers' education and preparation, and re-thinking "global perspectives and local initiatives in a way that blends improvement and innovation", Kumaravadivelu (2013, p. 321) focuses on several issues crucial for the future of foreign language teaching. They include expanding the language teachers' "professional horizon", "professionalizing the teaching force" and constructing their professional identities, as well as integrating principles and beliefs with teaching practices, which would lead to both effective and reflective teaching, and would offer principled solutions to language teaching problems.

With intercultural competence set as a central goal of foreign language and culture teaching and learning, and with the post-method era in language and culture teaching being defined as a continuous dialogue, in the very broadly understood field of social sciences and humanities, between theoreticians, researchers, practitioners, and language teacher educators, it becomes more and more important to provide ample space for this ongoing dialogue, and to address a wide array of issues concerning both "global perspectives" (Kumaravadivelu, 2013) and local language teaching practices. It has become vital to provide a forum for the various stakeholders in foreign language and culture teaching and learning to exchange experiences, views and ideas.

This collection of papers, resulting from the presentations and discussions in the *First International Conference* ***Teaching languages and cultures in the post-method era: Issues and developments*** (TLC 2014), organized on November 15th 2014 at the Faculty of Philosophy, Unviersity of Niš, aspired to provide one such forum for discussing an array of questions emerging from the theory and practice of teaching foreign languages and cultures in the Balkan educational context. The conference, initiated and jointly organized by the English Department and the Centre for teacher education and professional development of the Faculty of Philosophy, brought together language teacher educators, applied linguistics researchers,

and language teaching practicioners, since it was also accredited for the Nish English Language Association (NELTA) members and language teachers of state and private language schools, as an in-service teacher-development event.

With the scientific board of twelve internationally renowned scholars, from the USA, Norway and the Balkan region (Serbia, Macedonia, Montenegro), this international event aimed to contribute to the long and fruitful tradition of applied linguistic research and language and culture teaching methodology by providing a free and stimulating academic forum for sharing and comparing various and unique perspectives.

This thematic collection presents thirteen papers illustrating the breadth of issues discussed in TLC 2014, and aiming to highlight some of the current challenges in the field of language and culture teaching and learning in the region. Presenting sound and novel empirical research, discussed in the context of relevant theoretical concepts, this volume seeks to add a small contribution to the fields of applied linguistics and language teaching pedagogy.

∞∞∞

The volume consists of three parts. In ***Part One: Intercultural competence in language teaching,*** three authors address the question of intercultural competence, and the place of intercultural (communicative) competence in foreign language teaching and teacher education.

Kenneth Cushner draws on his vast experience and expertise to highlight some of the main points when developing intercultural competence. Professor Cushner reminds that linguistic competence is but one aspect of an overall competence that is required in today's globalized world. He discusses the changing contexts in which future teachers will teach and points out that both teachers and learners have to develop a sense of connectedness and the ability to reflect on their own experience. This will be achieved if educators rely on interdisciplinary research and provide both support and challenges for students in order to help them develop more fully.

This is exactly what **Dunja Živanović** discusses in her paper on the experience of exchange students. She analyses the written responses of students after they have completed their exchange programs to prove that

intercultural learning is an ongoing process affected by many factors, one of the most important being self-reflection. She also points out the opportunities for learning on the reentry which are still not explored enough and opens questions of how to round up an exchange program, where and when to look for the learning outcomes when it comes to intercultural competence.

Ljiljana Marković explores the way a simulation game has been used in a course on intercultural competence to help students recognize the important elements of cultures and oftentime discover those that are not visible at a first glance. The author discusses the issues that transpired during the debriefing of students and in their journal entries. These range from emotions, motivation and introspection, over non-verbal communication to interpersonal relationships and group dynamics. Finally, the considerations for the teaching practice are discussed and benefits of these types of activities highlighted.

∞∞∞

Part Two: Teaching issues offers seven papers addressing specific problems in language teaching practice, ranging from the general principles that govern the choice of approaches and setting the learning goals, to specific issues in teaching particular language areas and skills.

Jelica Tošić explores the role and function of English as a lingua franca in today's interconnected world. The questions of ownership of languge, and the challenges of language in culture (or without culture) for teaching are discussed. The author examines what new technologies offer for teaching and whether they can be helpful now that being a native speaker is not necessarily a requirement for a language teacher.

Speaking strategies are in focus in the study done by **Milevica Bojović**, where she explores their application in a university EFL course. The author examines which particular strategies students use and whether they see them as a useful tool for studying language. She also compares the findings with research done on lower educational levels to show differences in frequency with which speaking activities are employed in that context.

Marina Janjić and **Mirjana Ilić** discuss how antonyms can be taught and learned in a Serbian language class. The authors focus on cognitive aspects of the construction of knowledge to show the challenges of defining 'opposites'. The authors therefore propose associative learning as an example of productive learning that might lead to critical thinking.

As a recurring theme at the conference and in the papers, self-reflection as a useful technique for learning is explored in the paper by **Anita Janković** and **Snežana Zečević**, as part of formative assessment of university students. The authors present an evalution system employed for a complex subject – Contemporary English, where students are required to engage in self-reflection and thus develop metacognitive skills. The authors claim that the usefuleness of this evaluation system cannot be disputed, yet they recognize that students need to be trained to successfully do self-reflection.

The following papers in this section do not explore the process of language teacher education or teaching itself, but language competence of learners. They, however, do offer implications for teaching by providing the results of research conducted with students of different L1 backgrounds.

Zorica Trajkova discusses how Macedonian and German EFL students build authority and acknowledge the reader's presence in academic writing, illustrated by the corpus of EFL students' BA graduation papers. She analyses the use of two metadiscourse categories, self-mentions and engagement markers, which make the author visible in the text, thus enhancing the author's confidence. The comparative analysis of the papers written by German and Macedonian EFL students of the English departments in their respective countries shows many similarities in the students' use of the investigated strategies of authorial reference.

A comparative perspective is also taken by **Silvana Neshkova**, who discusses the use of verbal irony in conversation by Macedonian and English native speakers, in formal and informal discourse. Her study focuses on the interlocutors' response to irony, that is, the power of verbal irony to provoke the same kind of response, i.e. further ironic comments. Her study showed that English speakers responded to verbal irony by reciprocating ironically

more frequently than Macedonian speakers, and that this was a more common trait of informal discourse in both languages.

Some problems encountered by ESP students in translation tasks are addressed by **Maja Stanojević Gocić**. She discusses the merits of the traditional tool of error analysis, arguing that ESP translation tasks can be useful for observing students' progress and improving their performance, if carefully combined with student need analysis in the syllabus design. The results of her study show that error analysis can still be a very useful tool for identifying problematic language areas for students, caused by L1 transfer or specific stages in interlanguage development, and for designing correction, that is, remedial practice for students.

∞∞∞

Finally, ***Part Three: Teacher education*** presents three papers focusing on some specific areas that need to be addressed by teacher educators.

Radmila Bodrič explores what the twenty-first century methodology has changed for teacher education and shows that there has been a renewed interest in it, with the aim of developing pre-service teachers into reflective practitioners. She, therefore, explores which techniques and pedagogical tools can help students, pre-service teachers, develop reflectivity. The research shows that students benefit from the techniques such as observation journals and peer-feedback, becoming more confident and more aware of their own teaching practices, and hopefully, teaching philosophies.

Addressing one specific aspect of language performance which is still largely neglected in teaching practice – pronunciation – **Tatjana Paunović** discusses the effects of a pre-service EFL teacher education course that offers future EFL teachers both a theoretical foundation and practical skills. The author analyses the students' final projects to identify how successfully they managed to choose and adapt pronunciation practice materials to fit EFL pupils' needs, and to integrate pronunciation practice with other aspects of teaching. The author points out the importance of focused, specific, and practical training in teacher education programs, not only in the particular

area of pronunciation practice, but also in others, such as sociolinguistics and pragmatics.

Nina Lazarević discusses a number of problems encountered in the highest-level exam for foreign language teachers in the Serbian educational system – the state teaching licence exam. The observation of the exam lessons and the analysis of the lesson plans for this exam in elementary schools show that there is a need for more guidance and support for the organization of lessons, but primarily for the development of self-reflection practices.

The papers compiled in this thematic volume highlight the breadth of issues that need to be taken into account in the increasingly complex and demanding process of teaching languages and cultures. They show that there is indeed a need for a close and continuous dialogue between practitioners, researchers and teacher educators if we are to build a strong and modern community of practice, which would acknowledge and keep pace with the challenges of our plurilingual and multicultural world.

∞∞∞

Canagarajah, Suresh A.(2006). TESOL at Forty: What Are the Issues? *TESOL Quarterly,*40(1), 9-34.

Hawkins, M.,& Norton, B. (2009). Critical language teacher education. In A. Burns & J.Richards (Eds.), *Cambridge guide to second language teacher education* (pp. 30-39). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006). TESOL Methods: Changing Tracks, Challenging Trends. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(1), 59-81.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2013). Rethinking Global Perspectives and Local Initiatives in Language Teaching. In S. Ben Said & L. J. Zhang (Eds.), *Language Teachers and Teaching: Global Perspectives and Local Initiatives* (pp. 317-323). New York: Routledge.

About the contributors

Radmila Bodrič, PhD, is Assistant Professor of English language and linguistics in the English department of the Faculty of Philosophy, Unviersity of Novi Sad. Her teaching areas include ELT methodology, particularly testing and assessment, as well as pre-service student-teaching training (practicum). In the field of ELT methodology and applied linguistics, she has published a scientific monograph and a number of papers in domestic and foreign journals. She has presented at international conferences in the country and abroad. Her research interests include culture-specific differences in academic discourse, language testing, teacher training, the implementation of the CEFR, inclusive education, and reflective practice. She is a member of several scientific and professional associations: The Applied Linguistics Association of Serbia (ALAS), The English Language Teachers' Association (ELTA), The European Society for the Study of English (ESSE), and the Serbian Anglo-American Study Association.

Milevica Bojović, PhD in Philology/English linguistics, completed all levels of education at the Faculty of Philology, University of Belgrade, Serbia. At present she teaches English as a foreign language for Specific Purposes for engineers in the field of biotechnical sciences (agriculture, agronomy, fruit growing, animal husbandry, and food technology) at the Faculty of Agronomy, University of Kragujevac, Serbia. Her research interests include applied linguistics, methodology of foreign language (L2) teaching, L2 acquisition, communicative competence development in L2, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, e-teaching and learning, ICT in EFL teaching and learning, teacher education, and adult education. She has published thirty-seven articles in international and national monographs and thematic collections, in journals, and conference proceedings. She is a co-author of two teacher handbooks for in-service teacher education programs. She has participated in the international TEMPUS project "Building Capacity of Serbian Agricultural Education to link with Society" (CaSA), coordinated by the Faculty of Agriculture, University of Belgrade and partnered by the Faculty of Agronomy, University of Kragujevac. She is also a professional translator specializing in this field.

Kenneth Cushner, PhD, is Professor Emeritus of Kent State University, Cleveland/Akron, Ohio, and former Dean of the College and Graduate School of Education at Kent State University. Dr. Cushner is the author or editor of several books and articles in the field of intercultural education and training, including:

Human Diversity in Education: An Integrative Approach, 8th edition (2014); *Intercultural Student Teaching: A Bridge to Global Competence,* (2007); *Human Diversity in Action: Developing Multicultural Competencies in the Classroom,* and its 3rd edition *with PowerWeb* (2005); *International Perspectives on Intercultural Education* (1998); *Improving Intercultural Interactions: Modules for Cross-Cultural Training Programs, vol. 2* (with Richard Brislin, 1997), and *Intercultural Interactions: A Practical Guide,* 2nd edition (with Richard Brislin, 1996). A former East-West Center Scholar, he has contributed to the professional development of educators through writing, workshop presentations, and travel programs. He is a Founding Fellow and Past-President of the International Academy for Intercultural Research, and past Director of COST—the Consortium for Overseas Student Teaching, which sends students to student teach in 16 countries. Dr. Cushner has developed and led intercultural educational programs for teachers and youths on all seven continents.

Mirjana Ilić, PhD, graduated at the Faculty of Philology, University of Belgrade, from the Department of Serbian Language and Southeast Slavic Literature. Her MA thesis *Lexicographic Procedures in Dialect Dictionaries of Southeast Serbia* was defended at the Faculty of Philology, University of Belgrade, as well as her PhD thesis, in 2011, on the topic *Colour Names in Modern Serbian language – Lexico-Semantic Generative Aspect*. She works as an Assistant professor at the Faculty of Philosophy, University of Niš. She has published many scientific papers in respectable domestic and foreign journals. Her monograph titled *Lexicographic Procedures in Dialect Dictionaries of Southeast Serbia* was published by the Faculty of Philosophy and Prosveta, Niš, in 2004. She is a member of the research team in the scientific project "Dialectological Studies of Serbian Linguistic Region", supported by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development of the Republic of Serbia. Her scientific interests cover the fields of lexicology, lexicography, and cognitive linguistics.

Marina Janjić, PhD, obtained her BA degree in Serbian language and literature at the Faculty of Philology, University of Belgrade in 1994. She got the MA degree at the same faculty in 2003 by defending the thesis *Teaching cases in schools in the area of the Prizren-Timok dialect*, and the PhD degree by defending the thesis *Contemporary teaching of the speaking culture at the level of elementary schools*. Her research and teaching interests comprise applied linguistics and Serbian language and literature teaching. She has published about 80 scientific papers in domestic and foreign journals (in Slovenia, Russia, Poland, Bulgaria, Macedonia). She is the author of three books: *Teaching cases in theory and in practice* (2004), *Contemporary teaching of the speaking culture* (2008), *Space, time, society – meetings in language* (2012, co-authored by

Ilijana Čutura). She is Associate professor at the Faculty of Philosophy, University of Niš, and she is the head of the Center for Teacher Education and Career Development at the same faculty.

Anita Janković holds an MA in ELT. She is a language instructor at the Department of English Language and Literature of the Faculty of Philosophy in Kosovska Mitrovica and teaches EAP and Academic writing. The main focus of her professional research is blended learning and hybrid pedagogy. She has published research papers in scientific journals and thematic paper collections, and presented at scientific conferences.

Nina Lazarević, PhD, is Assistant professor at the Faculty of Philosophy, University of Niš, where she teaches Methodology of TEFL and Intercultural communicative competence. From her MA thesis, *Correlation of target language culture and sociolinguistic competence of grammar school students* (2007, Faculty of Philosophy, Novi Sad), and her PhD thesis *Intercultural competence as an aspect of the communicative competence in the tertiary level English language learners* (2013, Faculty of Philosophy, Novi Sad), her main research interests have been developing intercultural competence and its role in foreign language teaching and teacher education. She is a US government JFDP mobility program alumna (at Kent State University, Ohio, 2010), and a *Fulbright visiting scholar* program member (at Middlebury Institute of International Studies, Monterey, California, 2016). She has published a number of research papers and tertiary-level workbooks, and has presented at numerous international conferences (Spain, Italy, Turkey). She is the president of the Niš Englsih Language Teachers' Association (NELTA), and a member of several professional associations, such as the English Language Teachers' Association (ELTA), and the Teachers of English as a Second Language (TESOL).

Ljiljana Marković is a senior lector in the English Department of the Faculty of Philosophy, University of Niš. Her teaching and research interests, in addition to contemporary English areas such as grammar, writing, and speaking, include developing intercultural communicative competence and methodology of teaching English as a foreign language. She has published a number of original research papers, as well as a number of textbooks and practice books, including *English for Modern Politicians* (2002) and *New English for Modern Politicians* (2008), coauthored *Tips and Tricks, English Department Entrance Exam Practice* (2004), as well as *It's (just) Dictation, A Workbook for Serbian EFL Students* (2013). She has presented at various

international conferences (the Balkans, Italy, Germany), and has published research on gender issues in language and foreign language teaching.

Silvana Neshkovska, PhD, is a lector of English at the Faculty of Education within "St. Kliment Ohridski" University – Bitola, the Republic of Macedonia. Her main field of interest is pragmatics and her research encompasses speech acts and indirect speech. Her scientific research is also directed towards the methodology of teaching English as a second language, especially the methodology of teaching English for Specific Purposes. Recently, she has successfully defended her PhD thesis at the Faculty of Philology "Blaze Koneski" – Skopje, titled *Expressing Verbal Irony in Formal and Informal Speech in Macedonian and English: A Contrastive Analysis*.

Tatjana Paunović, PhD, is Professor of English language and linguistics at the Faculty of Philosophy, University of Niš, Serbia. Her teaching and research interests lie in linguistic phonetics, applied linguistics and EFL teaching, sociolinguistics, particularly language attitude research, and intercultural communicative competence (ICC). Her recent publications include a monograph presenting her research studies in ICC, *The tangled web: Intercultural Communicative Competence in EFL* (2013); three co-edited volumes, *Focus on English Phonetics* (2013), *Exploring English Phonetics* (2012) and *Ta(l)king English phonetics across frontiers* (2009); several textbooks, including *English Phonetics and Phonology for Serbian EFL Students* (2007), and a state-of-the-art review monograph, *Phonetics and/or Phonology? A critical review of the 20th century phonological theories* (2003). She has presented at international conferences, and published research papers in Serbian and international scientific journals.

Maja Stanojević Gocić is a PhD candidate at the Faculty of Arts and Philology of the Unviersity of Kragujevac. She is as a teacher of vocational studies at the College of Applied Professional Studies in Vranje, where she teaches English for Specific Purposes, and an EFL lecturer at the Faculty of Law in KosovskaMitrovica. The main field of her interest is English for Specific Purposes, particularly Legal English. Her research interests range from describing the linguistic features of legal English to legal English coursebook design evaluation and legal discourse analysis. She is also interested in cognitive semantics, especially synonymy and the Conceptual Metaphor Theory. She has published research papers on translation theory, translation competence and performance, and the role of translation in instruction, as well as the problems of translating legal English terminology into Serbian. The focus of her research within ELT methodology is on language learning strategies, especially vocabulary learning strategies, and the development of students' reading skills.

Jelica Tošić, PhD, is Associate professor of English at the Faculty of Occupational Safety of the Unviersity of Niš. Her research interests include English language and linguistics, ESP issues in the area of occupational safety, and ESP lexicography. She has published a number of research and review papers, such as *Sustainable Development and Ecological Resources. The Meaning of the Adjectives* (2012), and *Marginalization and dominance: 'Pure English' concept vs. English as a Lingua Franca* (2014). Her recent publications include the *English-Serbian Environmental Science Dictionary* (2009), and the *English-Serbian and Serbian-English Enviornmental Science Dictionary* (2015), as well as ESP textbooks *Environmental Science in English* (2002), and *Integrated Safety English – MA level EFL coursebook* (2015, Niš, Faculty of Occupational Safety).

Zorica Trajkova, PhD, works as an Assistant professor at the English Department, Faculty of Philology "Blaze Koneski", Ss. Cyril and Methodius University in Skopje. She teaches Modern English, Academic writing, Psycholinguistics and Sociolinguistics at the department. Her area of academic interest is mainly in the area of Pragmatics, Intercultural Communication and Discourse Analysis with a specific focus on speech acts, politeness theories and the role of the specific language devices in the creation of discourse and metadiscourse. In her doctoral dissertation she concentrated on the analysis of the pragmatic function of metadiscourse markers in the attainment of persuasion in spoken and written texts in Macedonian and English. She has published numerous articles in domestic and foreign journals. At the beginning of this year, she (together with three other authors) has published her book: *Speech Acts: making requests, thanking, apologizing and complaining in English and in Macedonian.*

Snežana Zečević is a PhD candidate, working on her dissertation in the field of ELT methodology. She is a teaching assistant at the Department of English Language and Literature of the Faculty of Philosophy in Kosovska Mitrovica and teaches EAP and Victorian literature. The main focus of her academic research is ELT methodology and sociolinguistics. She has published several research papers and presented at scientific conferences.

Dunja Živanović is a PhD candidate at the Faculty of Philology, Belgrade University, doing research in the field of intercultural learning. Her research interests focus primarily on the learning outcomes of international student mobility programs. She

has worked as a teaching associate at the English Department of the Faculty of Philology, University of Belgrade, and at Karlshochschule International University. She is currently active in the field of international high school student exchange as a programme coordinator and trainer of the European Federation for Intercultural Learning.

Part 1

Intercultural competence in language teaching

Kenneth Cushner[1]
Kent State University
USA

THE DEVELOPMENT OF INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE IN TEACHERS AND STUDENTS

Abstract
Educators in all content areas and at all levels, from primary, secondary to tertiary education, have encountered increased attention devoted to the attainment of a global perspective in general, and more specifically, to the acquisition of intercultural competence (IC). Language educators, along with many others, have long assumed that acquiring a second language was the primary way in which people become interculturally competent. Language acquisition alone, however, is but one of the many factors to influence the development of intercultural competence. Since many of you are or will soon be language educators, I will consider the development of intercultural competence from the perspective and experiences of the field of teacher education, one area that has been concerned with identifying strategies and methodologies that enhance IC in both young people as well as the adults who are to be their teachers.

Key words: intercultural competence, teacher education, language education

∞∞∞

Teachers of all content areas worldwide are increasingly faced with the fact that the world is, and will continue to be, a very different place for the students they teach than it was when they themselves were young. Young people today face, and will continue to face, untold challenges that cross national boundaries and affect all aspects of life from the environment, the economy, to their personal health and global security. Preparing our students to understand the global nature of these problems and then to have the

[1] kcushner@kent.edu

willingness and ability to act in order to resolve them requires a set of skills that heretofore has not been considered in the preparation of teachers in any discipline. Fundamental to this is the acquisition of intercultural competence –an expanded repertoire of culturally appropriate behavior that enables the individual to interact effectively and appropriately with people different from themselves.

Different from most places where people come together, schools in general, and in many circumstances the English language classroom, can be among the most culturally diverse and interculturally complex settings found anywhere on the planet. Here, people from a range of backgrounds and experiences, both in the domestic context as well as internationally, come into regular and frequent contact with others different from themselves where intercultural dimensions and influences can be observed in a wide range of contexts, from the manner in which students approach learning and teachers approach teaching; in how students and teachers communicate verbally as well as nonverbally; in how people have learned to solve problems, make decisions and resolve conflict; to the more recent recognition of the importance of attaining a global understanding or global competence as people's professional as well as personal lives become increasingly intertwined.

But even as our classrooms and workplaces become increasingly intercultural, just being with others does not necessarily guarantee that 'good things' will occur and that people's intercultural skills will develop. Nor will simply learning another language necessarily translate into culture learning. We may be missing significant opportunities to prepare ourselves as teachers, as well as our students, to understand the role that culture increasingly plays in our day-to-day lives and in the future for our students.

What do we mean by intercultural competence? What occurs at the interface of cultures that may prevent effective interaction? How is intercultural competence acquired; and how can we develop these skills in our students, let alone in ourselves? What can teachers do to begin to address this, both in their interactions with students while they prepare them for an increasingly intercultural and interconnected future? These are a few of the questions and issues considered below.

To begin with, I think it critical that my students feel a sense of connectedness with the broader world in which they live. I have found that most of my students, that is, American students studying to be teachers, in addition to having very limited experiences with people and cultures

different from their own, lack a sense of personal connectedness with global issues and others in the world. For years, I have been asking my students to become futurists. That is, given what they see happening today, I ask them to project themselves, as well as the world, into the future. I ask them to generate a list of some of the things they will have accomplished or be wresting with five years, and then 20 years into the future. For the past 20 years that I have been doing this exercise, not much has changed.

In five years, students typically report that they will have graduated from school, will have a job, be married, own a home, some will be in graduate school, some will have children, and they will take that long-awaited vacation. In 20 years, many will have a graduate degree, some will have moved into administration or pursued some other career path, they will travel, have children, have paid off their student loans, and with the money they are now saving, many will have a vacation or second home.

When asked what they project will be going on in the world in five years, they report such things as more wars, fuel shortages, increased dependence on technology, more pollution, violence and global pandemics. In 20 years, I often hear that we will have a one world government, that global population will continue to soar, and that we will continue to see more conflicts, pandemics and environmental problems. There are the occasional optimistic predictions that we will be using more and more alternative fuels, or that we will have cured some illnesses.

Then, when asked to sit back and reflect on what they see, the realization that their own lives seem to be a disconnected with what is happening in the world becomes apparent. They are doing just fine – while the rest of the world seems to be falling apart! They also fail to see that they are living in a world that faces a wide array of problems that cross international boundaries that will only be solved if people from many different cultures, speaking many different languages and holding many diverse beliefs learn how to communicate, understand one another, and collaborate – or they will not be solved.

It is particularly this part of the discussion that we focus on and that I see as an essential element of any intercultural or international education. People must first develop a sense of connectedness with others and the planet followed by intercultural sensitivity and competence if they are ever to acquire the skills and dispositions needed to solve problems, both on the domestic front as well as in the global context, that are faced by all. Language teachers can be essential in helping their students gain knowledge and

understanding about the diversity of people on the planet and the conditions under which we all live, and then to guide them to develop the essential skills of intercultural communication and competence.

Language educators and their students should be at the forefront addressing these critical intercultural concerns, as it is their students who will live their lives within an incredibly rich mix of cultures. And, in many instances, they have a unique opportunity to engage with and learn from the critical intercultural conversations that can occur almost daily in the midst of their classrooms and schools. But, we may be especially challenged given what we know about the experiences, or lack thereof, that most teachers bring to the field and about how people develop intercultural competence.

Teachers in many of the world's domestic schools are relatively homogeneous and tend to represent the majority culture of their nation. In Australia, for instance, approximately 90 percent of the teaching force are Anglo-Celtic Australian, monolingual, and 65 percent female; in England, between 90-95 percent of teachers are white and 75 percent female; In New Zealand, about 80 percent are European/Pakeha, 70 percent are female, and only 10 percent are Maori; while in the USA, it is estimated that 85 percent are European American and middle class and 65-70 percent female. In Serbian schools as well, there is relatively little ethnic or cultural diversity amongst teachers of all subject areas, including English. Students in schools in most of the world are just not being exposed to a diverse teaching force – even when the students in their charge often reflect a wide variety of cultural backgrounds and experience.

But even if there was significant diversity among our teachers, we are learning that we still have to work hard to create an environment where meaningful intercultural dialogue and interaction occur. Many of the assumptions we make – that if we learn a second language; if we interact with people different from ourselves; or even participate in an overseas study abroad experience, that will enhance our intercultural competence – are not supported by research (Bennett, 2013; Vande Berg et. al, 2012). Acquiring intercultural competence is developmental, comprehensive, and takes time (Bennett, 1993; Brislin & Yoshida, 1994; Merryfield et al., 1997). That is, it is a process that is more evolutionary than it is revolutionary, not achieved quickly in one course or one single experience, nor with the cognitive oriented approach that is typical of most educational settings. Rather, what is needed is a more formal attempt to address intercultural competence through the curriculum in a variety of ways and in a variety of levels. Intercultural

competence can be achieved after recognizing where one is on the developmental continuum, and then while providing both support and challenge, engaging students in systematic, oftentimes repetitious and well-planned exposure to intercultural interactions that nudge one to increasingly complex levels. Moving too quickly along the continuum is akin to the scuba diver plunging immediately to a depth of 100 feet without taking the requisite time to equalize pressure and accommodate to the new environment—the shock can just be too great for the body to accept. Alternatively, gradual movement or immersion enables the diver to adjust to the changing circumstances and thus to function more effectively in the new environment. So, too, should it be with intercultural development. Understanding and integrating what we know about intercultural development and sensitivity into the education of young people, and ourselves, will result in students and teachers being more culturally effective and competent.

Fortunately, we are educators concerned and comfortable developing curricula and creating the space and opportunity for mindful and strategic activity to occur. In many ways, however, we are walking a double-edged sword faced with two tasks in this regard – that of helping ourselves as teachers develop intercultural knowledge and skill while at the same time considering how to transfer this through curriculum to our students who ultimately will be required to exhibit these essential skills.

Those interested in addressing intercultural interaction as content, both to enhance their own knowledge and skill and then to transmit it to their students, can look to the fields of cross-cultural psychology and intercultural training, both for a knowledge base of important concepts as well as tested methodologies which have been found to be effective at advancing people from a more monocultural mindset to one that is more intercultural. One place to begin is to consider how the term intercultural differs from such terms as multicultural, international and cross-cultural – terms that are often used interchangeably, as this will help bring focus and clarity to such a curriculum (Bennett, 2013; Landis & Wasilewski, 1999). The term "multicultural," refers to knowledge about particular groups, usually underrepresented or minority groups within a domestic context. The term "international" refers to multiple nations and their 'Big C' or Cultural products and institutions. Use of the phrase 'Big C' refers to the visible, objective and tangible aspects of a group of people, and includes such things as the artifacts people produce, the clothes they wear or the food they eat – things that are typically easy to see and describe. Additionally, such things as

a nation's social institutions – its political system, economic practices or their educational system, for instance, as cultural products would also come into consideration here. When the term "cross-cultural' is used, it refers to the comparisons that are made between the cultural practices, institutions or worldviews of different groups.

"Intercultural" implies a penetration at the interpersonal level, suggesting that there is an exchange, collaboration or reciprocity between individuals of different groups that is characterized by mutual respect, equality and acceptance. Here, the focus is on building relationships between individuals in these groups as they consider how to come together in the collaboration of common problems. "Intercultural sensitivity," refers to the ability to perceive culture in context, recognizing both the cultural similarities as well as differences that may exist between groups. It is here where there is an emphasis on what is referred to as 'little c,' or the less visible, subjective elements of culture – a person's values, norms of behavior, nonverbals, etc. Such intangible elements of culture are the products in one's minds that underlie most interactions, are not as visible or evident, but are, perhaps, the most important and powerful, having tremendous influence on the outcome of communication and interaction.

Although there really is no fully-agreed upon definition of intercultural competence, this term suggests an enactment or application of intercultural sensitivity through the acquisition of an expanded repertoire of culturally appropriate behavior, including intercultural communication, that is appropriate to the time, place and circumstances in which an individual finds themselves. Interculturally competent individuals have been characterized as being open-minded, possessing a genuine interest in other people and cultures; being observant and knowledgeable about cultural differences as well as similarities; possessing the ability to resist stereotypes and anticipates the complexity that is certain to accompany intercultural interactions; and ultimately, being able and willing to modify their behavior in ways that enables them to interact and communicate effectively with those different from themselves (Bhawuk & Brislin, 1992; Deardorff, 2009).

Ultimately, intercultural competence is an intersection of knowledge, attitudes, values and a set of skills that enables appropriate and effective interaction with people different from oneself. Achieving intercultural competence, however, is not easy. Bennett (1993) points out that intercultural interaction among human populations has typically been accompanied by violence and aggression, when he stated:

> Intercultural sensitivity is not natural. It is not part of our primate past, nor has it characterized most of human history. Cross-cultural contact usually has been accompanied by bloodshed, oppression, or genocide. Education and training in intercultural communication is an approach to changing our "natural" behavior. With the concepts and skills developed in this field, we ask learners to transcend traditional ethnocentrism and to explore new relationships across cultural boundaries. This attempt at change must be approached with the greatest possible care. (p. 21)

My work in teacher education has taken me to the Intercultural Development Inventory or IDI, due in large part to the extensive research that has been carried out with it and the recognition of developmental nature of intercultural growth that speaks to our work as educators (Hammer 2012; Hammer & Bennett, 2013). The IDI measures where along the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS), a model proposed by Milton Bennett, an individual or an organization lies (Bennett, 1993). As a very brief overview, the IDI assesses where an individual falls along five of these stages of the DMIS – Denial, Polarization, Minimization, Acceptance and Adaptation. A brief overview follows.

Denial refers to the inability to see cultural differences and is evident when individuals isolate or separate themselves into homogenous groups. Individuals at this stage tend to ignore the reality of diversity and often reflect stereotypic and superficial statements of tolerance toward others. At this stage, an individual's understanding of difference is minimal, thus others easy targets for discrimination, exploitation, or conquer.

Defense (referred to as Polarization in the IDI), the next stage of the DMIS, is characterized by the recognition of cultural difference but often coupled with feelings of threat or negative evaluation of others. Strong dualistic us-them thinking is common in this stage, and when forced into contact with others, people in this stage may become defensive and focus on a small sample of a society.

Minimization is entered into with the discovery of commonality among people. People at this stage begin to recognize and accept more objective and superficial cultural differences (e.g., eating customs, money) while holding the belief that all human beings are essentially the same. The emphasis at this stage is on the similarity of people, with the tendency to define this basis of commonality in ethnocentric terms (i.e., "since everyone is essentially the same, they're really pretty much like me"). This perceived commonality may

exist around physical universalism ("We are all the same—we all eat, sleep, breathe, bleed red, and die"; "We are all people of color after all"), or around spiritual universalism ("Deep down we are all children of the same God, whether we know it or not"); not recognizing the very real differences that do exist between people.

Bennett (1993) asserts that a paradigmatic shift in thinking is taking place when an individual moves from the ethnocentric stages of the continuum, where difference is perceived as a threat and something to be avoided, to the ethnorelative side where difference is something that is sought out. Individuals in the ethnorelative stages recognize that people live in culturally different contexts and search for ways to adapt to difference. The notion of context is not fully understood in ethnocentric stages.

Acceptance of difference, the first stage on the ethnorelative side of the continuum, is characterized by the recognition and appreciation of cultural difference in terms of both people's values and their behavior, understanding that there are viable alternative solutions to the way people organize their life and experience their existence. At this stage, individuals demonstrate the ability to interpret phenomena within a cultural context and to analyze complex interactions in culture-contrast terms. Categories of difference are consciously expanded and elaborated, with people understanding that others are "not good or bad, just different." While people find that they may not necessarily agree with all they see practiced within another culture, they can, at least, understand what they observe.

Adaptation is the stage when people begin to see cultural categories as more flexible and become more competent in their ability to communicate and interact across cultures. Individuals in this stage are able to use empathy effectively, shift frames of reference, and are better able to understand others and be understood across cultural boundaries. Movement into this stage is typically driven by a need for action (better teaching, improved communication with families) and cognitive empathy—the ability to change frames of reference. Two forms of adaptation exist. Cultural adaptation refers to the ability to consciously shift perspective into an alternative cultural worldview and to use multiple cultural frames of reference in evaluating phenomena. Behavioral adaptation enables people to shift into different frames without much conscious effort, and then to act in culturally appropriate ways. It is at this stage that we say that people are becoming bicultural or multicultural. A teacher at this stage, for instance, would understand that the needs of new refugee students may be quite distinct from

those of international exchange students—even though they may both be from abroad—and will, in turn, respond differently to them.

What is important for us as educators to understand is that once we know where an individual (or group) lies on the continuum, we can be more strategic and mindful of the kinds of educational interventions we apply to move them toward more advanced stages. For a person who lies more toward the monocultural mindset we need to do certain things that both support the individual where they are, yet challenge them to advance toward more complex thinking. For instance, rather than condemning an individual for their current state-of-mind or skillset, we should understand that they may be where they are due to limited prior exposure, and slowly introduce them to the notion that there are both similarities and differences among people while helping them learn tolerance toward difference. For those who may already be further along the continuum, we can provide greater challenge and help them learn how to shift cognitive and behavioral perspectives. The educational strategies and interventions we employ, thus, would be different according to where on the continuum an individual lies. (A more detailed discussion of this can be found in Cushner, 2014)

Increasing the intercultural competence of our students is increasingly essential to develop, regardless of the discipline students are studying or the field of work they are preparing to undertake. Professionals in all fields will increasingly need to collaborate with those different from themselves to solve global as well as local problems. Health professionals increasingly interact with people from a range of backgrounds and cultures; businesspeople negotiate contracts and increasingly join forces with others; journalists cross intercultural boundaries all the time, as do academic researchers in most fields; and university personnel increasingly rely on joint partnerships and relationships to forge new programs, recruit international students and send students on study abroad programs that should emphasize meaningful interaction between domestic students and their international counterparts. It is especially essential that language educators become more mindful and adept at integrating intercultural concepts across their curriculum as their students will either be language educators themselves in the future or will be working in fields that demand that they are both linguistically and interculturally competent.

There are a myriad of problems and challenges that cross cultural and national boundaries that we must help our students be prepared to address. I believe that understanding the developmental nature of intercultural

competence, and with the use of an instrument like the IDI, we can become more mindful and strategic in our planning. I liken the acquisition of intercultural competence as a necessary part of an overall education. Since its beginnings, schools have focused attention on addressing the 3 R's – Reading, 'Riting and 'Arithemtic. Perhaps it's time to add a fourth – Relations.

References

Bennett, M. (1993). Towards ethnorelativism: A developmental model of intercultural sensitivity. In M. Paige (Ed.), *Cross-cultural orientation* (pp. 27–69). Lanham, MD: University Press of America.

Bennett, M. (2013). *Turning Cross-Cultural Contact into Intercultural Learning*. Presentation at the China Annual Conference on International Education, Beijing, Nov. 2, 2013. Retrieved from: http://www.idrinstitute.org/allegati/IDRI_t2_allegati/77/FILE_Allegato_CACIA_Beijing_2013rev.pdf

Bhawuk, D. P. S., & Brislin, R. (1992). The measurement of intercultural sensitivity using the concepts of individualism and collectivism. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 16*, 413-36.

Brislin, R., & Yoshida, T. (1994). *Intercultural Communication Training: An Introduction*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Cushner, K. (2014). Strategies for Enhancing Intercultural Competence across the Teacher Education Curriculum. In J. Phillion, S. Sharma & J. Rahatzad (Eds.), *Internationalizing Teacher Education for Social Justice: Theory, Research, and Practice*. Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing, Inc.

Deardorff, D. (2009). *Sage handbook of intercultural competence*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publication.

Hammer, M., & Bennett, M. J. (2003). Measuring intercultural sensitivity: The Intercultural Development Inventory. *International journal of intercultural relations, 27*, 403–419.

Hammer, M. (2012). v3.idiinventory.com

Landis, D., & Wasilewski, J. H. (1999). Reflections on 22 years of the International Journal of Intercultural Relations and 23 years in other areas of intercultural practice. *International journal of intercultural relations*, 23(4), 535-574.

Merryfield, M., Jarchow, E. & Pickert, S. (Eds.), (1997). *Preparing teachers to teach global perspectives: Handbook for teacher educators*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Vande Berg, M., Paige, R. M., & Lou, K. (2012). *Student learning abroad: What our students are learning, what they're not, and what we can do about it.* Sterling, VA: Stylus.

Dunja Živanović[1]
Belgrade University
Serbia

INTERCULTURAL LEARNING AND HIGH SCHOOL STUDENT EXCHANGE: WHAT HAPPENS AFTER STUDENTS COME BACK?[2]

Abstract
This paper explores intercultural learning in the context of high school student international mobility. It investigates the learning processes that take place not only during the stay abroad, but also upon students' return to the home country. To find out more about these processes we analyze narratives of Serbian students who spent a year abroad when they were in high school. The results of the analysis suggest that the students' intercultural learning experience did not seem to end immediately when they returned home, but that the period of reentry is perceived as an integral part of the exchange programme.

These findings go against what Vande Berg (2009: 16) identified as "the master narrative of study abroad", i.e. some widely held beliefs about international student exchange. We express the need for some more systematic research in this area, which could have important implications for international student mobility programmes and their providers.

Key words: intercultural learning, development of intercultural competence, high school student mobility

∞∞∞

[1] dunja.zivanovic@afs.org

[2] This paper is part of the research project "National, Regional, European and Global Framework of Social Crises, and Contemporary Serbian Literature and Culture", financed by the Serbian Ministry of Education and Science for the period of 2011–2014 (Project No. 178018).

1. Introduction

The number of students taking part in long-term international mobility schemes has grown significantly over the past decades, and so has the need to assess the learning outcomes of such educational programmes. In this paper we focus on intercultural learning − one of the key goals of study abroad programmes. We firstly give an overview of existing literature on intercultural learning related to study abroad programmes, and we identify a research gap in the area of intercultural development of high school students after their stay abroad. In order to gain an insight into this process, we conduct research among exchange programme returnees to learn about their perspective of the period following their sojourn. Finally, we draw conclusions regarding the relevance of the issue, suggesting it would be valuable to investigate the intercultural learning processes that take place not only during international exchange but also upon return to the home country, and we express the need for more systematic research in this area.

2. Literature Review

Long-term student exchange with focus on intercultural learning provides opportunities for young people to become global citizens by living and studying in another cultural environment. After their intensive contact with people of other nationalities students are more knowledgeable about other countries, more open to cultural, ethnic and religious diversity, and less susceptible to stereotyping. This is what we find in mission statements of most international student mobility schemes, and what Vande Berg (2009, p. 16) identified as the master narrative of study abroad. The basic tenet is that students become interculturally competent through exposure to a new and different cultural environment, and are transformed as a result of such experience. This master narrative "has encouraged us to selectively perceive what we've been conditioned to see — and to ignore, deny, or minimize the facts that don't fit the narrative" (Vande Berg, 2009, p. 16). Ehrenreich (2006, p. 187) describes theoretical and programmatic literature on study abroad as romanticised and largely uncritical, full of high hopes concerning its effects. In other words, it is widely believed that going on a mobility programme inevitably and unquestionably results in culture learning, foreign language learning, intercultural competence, good academic achievement, personal growth etc.

Existing empirical studies, however, do not always support the optimistic claims from exchange programme mission statements. For example, some studies (Anderson et al., 2006; Pedersen, 2010; Vande Berg et al., 2009) have raised doubts about the idea that students' intercultural competence necessarily increases by immersion into a foreign culture, which is an expectation frequently found in mobility programme descriptions. Furthermore, these studies have identified factors that influence the learning outcomes of study abroad programmes, such as the length of stay, presence of pedagogical intervention, type of school and home placement, previous travel experiences, and foreign language competence. The stay abroad itself needs to be complemented by some other factors in order to render promised educational results. In other words, immersion into another cultural environment and exposure to cultural difference do not seem to be sufficient.

Studies on the effects of international student mobility are usually done in order to evaluate the effectiveness of mobility programmes and to identify factors that could lead to further improvement of such programmes. There are both qualitative and quantitative studies, applying a variety of research methods: tests, self-report instruments, interviews, analysis of diary entries and narratives, etc. Such studies usually first assess students before their study abroad programme, and then immediately after the stay abroad (Vande Berg et al., 2009). The obtained results are compared and conclusions are drawn regarding whether students have made progress. In addition to these more numerous studies, there are fewer longitudinal studies which explore the long-term impact of study abroad programmes (Bachner & Zeutchel, 1994; Hammer, 2008). In these studies some decades later exchange alumni are compared to their peers who did not take part in the exchange, to see if there are differences between the two groups, not only in intercultural competence but also other parameters such as educational level, career and life choices. These two types of studies have provided us with information on students' intercultural development during the stay abroad and the long-term effects of such experience.

In contrast, there is hardly any information on the intercultural development of students in the period following their year abroad, which is in literature referred to as *reentry, reacculturation*, or *repatriation* (Sussman, 2000, p. 356). Martin and Harrel (2004, p. 310) define reentry as "the process of reintegration into primary home contexts after an intercultural sojourn (an intensive and extended visit into cultural contexts different from those in which one was socialized)". There seems to be a great disproportion in the

amount of research dedicated to processes that take place when a person enters another cultural environment on the one hand, and the processes that take place when a person returns to their cultural environment on the other hand (Martin, 1984, p. 115). We find this slightly surprising, since there seems to be a consensus in literature that going back to the home culture and readapting poses a challenge for exchange programme participants (Bathurst & La Brack, 2012; Martin & Harrel, 2004; Rexeisen, 2013; Sussman, 1986; Wilson, 2003). Some authors go so far as to say that reentry to the home environment greatly resembles the U curve process of adjustment that one goes through when living abroad: the sojourner feels the initial pleasure of returning home, after which there comes the realization that home is not what the person expected, which corresponds to culture shock, after which one gradually readapts. There is, however, little empirical support for this model (Martin & Harrel 2004, p. 312-313). Rather than a model, in an essay on reentry Sussman (1986, p. 236) gives a brief overview of the challenges exchange students face when they come home. Firstly, most students are prepared to make cultural adjustments in their host country, whereas they rarely anticipate difficulties they might experience when they return home. Then, students might not be aware of the changes that they undergo during their study abroad. Moreover, changes may meanwhile occur in the home environment, or there may be no changes, but the person coming back may perceive the home environment to have changed. On the other hand, family and friends may expect the returnee to behave in the same way as when they left to study abroad, and may not expect some new and different attitudes and habits. Finally, there may be a lack of interest of family and friends in the sojourn experience, which can be a source of frustration. This means that coming back after the school year abroad seems to be an intellectually and emotionally demanding task.

Having overviewed the studies and handbooks dealing with reentry not only of students, but also other groups such as corporate ones, Sussman (2000, p. 361) identified three approaches to this phenomenon: 1) it is an adaptation process which is the same as any other adaptation to a new life situation; 2) it is an adaptation to the home culture similar to the adaptation to the new culture; 3) it is a unique kind of experience, different from anything else. This shows that literature is more concerned with successful reintegration of people after their sojourn, rather than the learning processes that take place in the period upon the return and how people, in our case students, develop interculturally in the process of experiencing cultural

differences. Nevertheless, an overview of literature shows that there is still some recognition of the potential of conceptualizing reentry as culture learning (e.g. Martin 1984, p. 120).

One of the rare studies dealing with students' intercultural development upon return was done by Rexeisen (2013, p. 175-176), who measured the development of intercultural sensitivity of a group of US university students who spent a semester abroad. The assessment of students' intercultural competence was conducted both during the exchange and four months after their stay abroad. The findings suggest that the students' score measured by the Intercultural Development Inventory increased significantly during the year abroad, to the point where students accept and appreciate cultural difference, but dropped over the period of four months following their return home. Rexeisen calls this a "boomerang effect" reflected in the cultural polarization that students demonstrate in this period (believing that there are "good" and "bad", "superior" and "inferior" cultures). A potential explanation (Rexeisen, 2013, p. 175-176) for this regression is that students very often perceive the year abroad as "a time of romanticized freedom" which is different from the realities of home. This is why it should not be too strange that students' enthusiasm and once positive attitude towards cultural diversity drop when they come back to the place they left from.

At the end of the overview of literature it is important to point out two concerns about existing research. Firstly, it is worth noting that the majority of research on study abroad deals with international mobility in higher education (Cohen et al., 2003; Deardorff, 2006; Engle & Engle, 2004; Gallucci, 2011; Paige, et al., 2009; Pedersen, 2010; Rexeisen, 2013; Root & Ngampornchai, 2012; Vande Berg, 2009; Wilson, 1993), while comparatively less is published on secondary school exchange (Bachner & Zeutschel, 1994; Hammer, 2008; Lovitt, 2013). Therefore it is necessary to be careful with applying conclusions concerning students of one age and academic level to a different group of exchange students. Secondly, we need to be mindful of the fact that most research on the learning outcomes of student exchange in the world is done with students from the US, the UK and East Asia, the so-called "big markets for student mobility". Therefore, cultural contexts and differences need to be taken into account, because models and theories generated in one cultural context are not necessarily applicable in all other parts of the world. Szkuldarek (2010, p. 14) warns against the westernalization of intercultural research, noting that West-originated theories are all too often used to account for the intercultural complexity of

cultural phenomena all over the world, without acknowledging the limitations regarding the generalizablity of results from one cultural context. Finally, it is important to note that no studies on effects of international student mobility have been published in Serbia, so there is no information whether Serbian students going abroad and coming back go through the process of intercultural learning in an identical way as students from the US studies. This is understandable due to a relatively small number of students going abroad from Serbia, especially at the secondary education level, but since there are more student mobility opportunities and the number of exchange programme participants is rising, we hope that this topic will gain more research attention.

3. Present study

In this paper we would like to address this topic of the learning outcomes of the students' experience of reentry, i.e. the intercultural learning processes that take place during the period following the stay abroad. The key question is whether intercultural learning finishes upon return from a study abroad programme, or whether the post-stay abroad period should be treated as an integral part of the intercultural learning experience, relevant in the process of the acquisition of intercultural competence. In order to explore this issue, we investigate how former exchange students talk about their intercultural experience, and more specifically, how they perceive their exchange programme from a time distance. We are mainly interested in what they say about the period following the year abroad and whether they assign relevance to this period at all.

For the purposes of this research former exchange students were asked to write an essay on their intercultural experience. The students were given the following guiding questions:

- What is intercultural learning for you?
- When did it start for you?
- When did it finish (if it did)?
- How did you experience your exchange programme?
- What did you learn?
- What happened after you came back?
- Has the student exchange influenced your life, and if so, in what way?

The guidelines were sent to students by email, and they sent their essays back to the researcher by email. The essays were at least 1000 words long (this was a part of the instruction) and were written in Serbian. The excerpts included in this paper were translated into English by the researcher.

The sample consisted of five student exchange returnees, who went on a high school programme abroad at the age of 16, 17 or 18. At the time of this research all of the respondents were university students aged 21 or 22. This means that exchange programme returnees wrote about their experience from a time distance of two to six years. Each student did their exchange year in a different country, namely: Belgium, Germany, Italy, Norway, and Mexico. All of them went on the same exchange programme, provided by the international student exchange network AFS. They attended local high schools in these countries, lived in host families and attended orientation seminars for exchange students provided by AFS. Upon coming back from the exchange they stayed involved with the exchange organization as volunteers working with new exchange programme participants, which is how the researcher got access to them and asked them to participate in the study.

3.1. Analysis of Students' Essays

Several important topics emerged in the analysis of the students' narratives. Firstly, the students' responses suggest that they seemed to have enjoyed the task – they wrote that they appreciated an opportunity to share thoughts and feelings on their exchange experience. At the same time, three out of five students said that the task was difficult for them, claiming that although they liked the task they did not find it easy to verbalize their experience and thoughts. They wrote that their intercultural experience involved a lot of different emotions and situations which could not be easily identified and put into words. Nevertheless, there are certain claims that students have no doubts about and that appear in all five stories.

All students wrote that their intercultural experience did not finish when they came back home after a year spent in another country but that they still were involved in the ongoing process of intercultural learning. While one student's claim was more tentative, saying "I can't say that my exchange programme has ended in the right sense of the word", another student wrote that she believed intercultural learning was a "lifelong

process", not even expecting that there would be an end to it. Here's an excerpt from one student's essay to illustrate this:

> At first it seemed that our exchange experience ended the moment we flew back and saw the smiling and crying faces of our parents at the airport. When we arrive home, everything looks different and the same at the same time. Things start to come to their place and we realize that our intercultural experience has only started… When we observe our old friends we begin to understand how we grew up away from home. We leave so many open doors behind us and we try to re-adapt to the people and place from which we had left to study abroad. Who'd ever say that we would have to adapt to the circumstances in which we had grown up and which made us what we are today?

It seems that the student expected that there would be a clear beginning and a clear end to the experience, which did not happen. In fact, he goes so far as to say that the intercultural experience only started for him when he came back after a year abroad. He describes the situation in which the once familiar things are seen in the new light, and that this comes as a surprise. This description seems to fit Sussman's explanation of the impression of unexpectedness that characterizes reintegration into the home environment (1986, p. 236). While students expect that things will be unfamiliar when they go abroad, they hardly expect to experience this emotion when they come back home after a year in another country. Here is another example taken from the story of the student who spent her exchange year in Germany:

> The true realization took place after I came back home. It sounds like a cliché, but this is how it goes: I had changed and everybody noticed I had changed, I noticed as well, but I also saw that others too had changed. The wonderful and dear friends I had been looking forward to seeing again after 10 months were no longer wonderful and dear. And then I felt I was alone in the world. It sounds dramatic but the first week of school and the final year of high school were like another exchange programme for me, this time at home in Serbia. It was a typical reverse culture shock.

Apart from the unexpectedness, in the previous section we notice that the student felt lonely after she returned from her exchange. Another student wrote about this feeling as well:

> When you come back and somehow leave that world, you aren't strong enough for those changes, and people around you don't understand you. They think you are totally obsessed with Italy, Italians…

They seem to have had the need to talk about their year abroad, but people either did not show interest or did not understand how the students felt and why they felt like that. Consequently, they did not seem to be supported in their reentry although they were surrounded by family and friends. According to what they have written in their narratives, some students tend to experience more difficulty in their reentry than others. The student who went to Mexico described a kind of denial that the exchange programme had ended, and the difficulties she experienced in readaptation:

> The period upon return is something I would like to give special attention to. This period was very difficult for me. I could not accept that my exchange programme was over. During the first seven days I tried to live my life as if I was still there [in Mexico]. I wasn't trying to get used to another time zone, I went to bed and got up Mexican time, I spent days on Skype and every night thought about my memories before going to sleep. I remembered people, travel, anecdotes. I wondered where I would be at that moment, and what I would do if I was still there, and how all those people spent time without me. This was my daily routine for six months.

This student appears to have been largely unprepared for the exchange programme termination and the challenges that would follow. This should not be too surprising, since literature suggests that it is important to prepare students for the reentry experience and provide support for them in this period (Bathurst & La Brack, 2012; Sussman, 1986, p. 236, Wilson ,1993, p. 477).

In addition to the continuation of the intercultural experience after the stay abroad itself, and the unexpectedness of the challenges of coming back home, all five students' essays refer to the reflection processes that followed their study abroad and reentry. One of the students said that she was too young to make sense of her intercultural experience during the exchange year itself, at which time she was 15. She wrote that she had started thinking consciously about her experience after she got involved in AFS organization as a volunteer, and was in contact with other exchange students, where she had an opportunity to discuss various aspects of student exchange. Another student also wrote about his reflection:

> We often experience, but do not think about it afterwards, which I believe is necessary for intercultural learning. We need to experience, and then consciously think about the experience.

This suggests that it takes some time and thinking for students to process and fully understand the situations they went through as exchange students. In addition, students' perspective seems to change over time as well. Here is an excerpt from an essay to illustrate this:

> I have told the story of my exchange experience a lot of times and an interesting thing that I notice is that it is always a bit different.

The same student also wrote:

> My intercultural learning started when I went to Belgium as an exchange student, although I was not aware of this until much later… Today I understand that after every experience of this kind it is necessary to have a period of time to organize the impressions, when pieces come together and we realize what actually happened to us.

It seems that students in our study are aware of the shifts in their perspective over time, as well as their lack of awareness at earlier points, especially while they were participating in a study abroad programme and directly experiencing cultural difference. They claim it was necessary for them to reflect upon their exchange year and the period that followed it, in order to understand this experience and turn it into something meaningful. This finding is very similar to the one we come upon in an article by Bathurst and La Brack (2012) on structured pedagogical intervention in the American university students' exchange experience. These authors conclude that "that the primary intercultural learning from study abroad did not necessarily occur abroad, but rather as a result of particular kinds of reflection on the experience abroad" (p. 268).

4. Conclusion

The students' perspective expressed in their essays can be summarized in the following way:

1) Students believe that their intercultural experience did not end the moment they came back from a study abroad programme.

2) Students feel that coming back and re-adapting was a rather unexpected challenge.
3) Students claim that after they came back home they needed some time to reflect upon their stay abroad and organize the impressions.

These findings cannot be identified in the master narrative of international mobility described by Vande Berg (2009, p 16) and they challenge the claim that the year abroad is a complete experience in itself, resulting in students' understanding of cultural difference and similarity and ability to deal with cultural difference. Reentry is neglected in the master narrative, but seems an important learning element of student exchange.

Taking this into account, we may ask the following questions:

1) Should international student exchange programmes be treated as a period of time spent abroad, beginning on the day that the student leaves the home country and ending on the day that a student returns home, or should it also include reentry period in which students re-adapt to their home environment?

2) Should learning outcomes of international mobility programmes, intercultural learning being one of them, be assessed immediately upon students' return, or after a period of reflection on the intercultural experience?

The existing literature on student mobility learning outcomes does not offer answers to these questions. As we have seen in the overview of available literature, students are usually tested before and immediately after their sojourn to see whether they have made progress on certain assessment scales (such as the Intercultural Development Inventory), with the aim of evaluating the impact of the study abroad programme. However, there is no information on whether students would get the same score in assessment tests after a period of several months of structured discussion and reflection, or that score would differ from the score they have immediately after the sojourn abroad. Our analysis raises this issue but is based on a very small sample and its results are hardly generalizable. To draw reliable conclusions it would be necessary to do more systematic research, in which intercultural learning outcomes would be assessed immediately after the year abroad and then after a period of time back in the home country, to compare the results and see if the experience of readaptation on the one hand, and structured reflection on the experience on the other hand, influence students' learning path. Such

research would complement the existing results in the field of study abroad and ultimately would offer an insight for institutions providing students with international mobility opportunities. If the post stay abroad period turns out to be relevant, then the task of international exchange providers would be to integrate it in the international exchange experience along with the stay abroad, and support students' learning in this period.

References

Anderson, P. et al. (2006). Short-term Study Abroad and Intercultural Sensitivity: A Pilot Study. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 34(4), 457–469. doi:10.1016/j.ijintrel.2005.10.004

Bachner, D. & Zeutschel, U. (1994). Utilizing the effects of youth exchange: A study of the subsequent lives of German and American high school exchange participants. *CIEE Occasional Papers on International Exchange* (31). New York: Council on International Educational Exchange. Retrieved from http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED410819.pdf

Bathurst, L., & La Brac, B. (2012). Shifting the locus of intercultural learning : Intervening prior to and after student experiences abroad. In M. Vande Berg, M. Paige & K. H. Lou (Eds.), *Student learning abroad: What our students are learning, what they're not, and what we can do about it* (pp. 261-283). Sterling, USA: Stylus Publishing.

Cohen, A., Paige, M., Shively, R., Emert, H., & Hoff , J. (2003). *Maximizing Study Abroad Through Language and Culture Strategies: Research on Students, Study Abroad Program Professionals, and Language Instructors.* Minneapolis: Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition, University of Minnesota. Retrieved from http://www.carla.umn.edu/maxsa/documents/maxsaresearchreport.pdf

Deardorff, D. (2006). Identification and Assessment of Intercultural Competence as a Student Outcome of Internationalization. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, Fall 2006, 10(3), 241–266. doi: 10.1177/1028315306287002

Ehrenreich, S. (2006). The Assistant Experience in Retrospect and its Educational and Professional Significance in Teachers' Biographies. In M. Byram & A. Fang. (Eds.), *Living and Studying Abroad: Research and Practice* (pp. 186-209). Clevedon, GBR: Multilingual Matters.

Engle, L., & Engle, J. (2004). Assessing language acquisition and intercultural sensitivity development in relation to study abroad program design. *Frontiers:*

The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad, 10, 219-236. Retrieved from http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ891458.pdf

Hammer, M. (2008). Assessment of the Impact of the AFS Study Abroad Experience, Executive Summary: Overall Findings. *Background and Research Design.* Retrieved from http://www.afs.org/afs-and-intercultural-learning/research/

Gallucci, S. (2011). *Language Learning, Identities and Emotions During the Year Abroad: Case Studies of British Erasmus Students in Italy* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Birmingham.

Lovitt, A. (2013). *The Linguistic Gains and Acculturation of American High School Students on Exchange Programs in Germany* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from: https://arizona.openrepository.com/arizona/bitstream/10150/293543/1/azu_etd_12642_sip1_m.pdf

Martin, J. N. (1984). The intercultural reentry: Conceptualization and directions for future research. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations,* 8(2), 115–134.

Martin, J. N., & Harrell, T. (2004). Intercultural reentry of students and professionals: Theory and Practice. In D. Landis, J. M. Bennett & M. J. Bennett (Eds.), *Handbook of Intercultural Training* (pp. 309–336). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications Inc.

Rexeisen, R. (2013). Study Abroad and the Boomerang Effect: The End is only the Beginning. *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad* Retrhttp://www.frontiersjournal.com/documents/RexeisenFRONTIERS2013_000.pdf

Root, E., & Ngampornchai, A. (2012). "I Came Back as a New Human Being": Student Descriptions of Intercultural Competence Acquired Through Education Abroad Experiences. *Journal of Studies in International Education, November 2013,* 17(5), 513–532. doi:10.1177/1028315312468008

Sussman, N. M. (1986). Re-entry research and training: Methods and implications. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations,* 10(2), 235–254.

Sussman, N. M. (2000). The dynamic nature of cultural identity throughout cultural transitions: Why home is not so sweet. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 4, 355–373. doi:10.1207/S15327957PSPR0404_5

Szkudlarek, B. (2010). Reentry—A review of the literature. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 34(1), 1–21. doi:10.1016/j.ijintrel.2009.06.006

Vande Berg, M. (2009). Intervening in student learning abroad: a research-based inquiry. In M.J. Bennett (Ed.), *Intercultural Education Suppl,* S1–2. doi:10.1080/14675980903370821

Vande Berg, M., Connor-Linton, J., & Paige, M. (2009). The Georgetown Consortium Project: Interventions for Student Learning Abroad. *Frontiers: The*

Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad, 18, 1–75. Retrieved from: http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ883690.pdf

Vande Berg, M., Paige, M. & K. H. Lou (2012). *Student Learning Abroad: What Our Students Are Learning, What They're Not, and What We Can Do About It.* Sterling, Virginia: Stylus Publishing.

Wilson, A. H. (1993). A cross-national perspective on reentry of high school exchange students. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 17(4), 465–492. doi:10.1016/0147-1767(93)90005-S

Ljiljana Marković[1]
Faculty of Philosophy
Univeristy of Niš
Serbia

SIMULATION GAMES FOR TEACHING ICC: 'WHY DON'T OTHER PLAYERS SEEM TO BE PLAYING CORRECTLY?'

Abstract
Developing intercultural communicative competence (ICC) is particularly difficult in at-home educational contexts, in monolingual and monocultural learner groups, with no first-hand experience in intercultural interaction. This paper explores the effects of a well-known ICC simulation game, *Barnga*, used in an ICC development course in pre-service teacher education, at the English Department of the Faculty of Philosophy, University of Niš. The study focused on students' responses to the game in their journal entries over the period of five years, and the the content analysis (Patton, 2002) of the journals, based on Byram's model of ICC (1997), highlighted a number of topics, out of which three are presented here: emotions, the relationship between language and non-verbal communication, and effective intercultural communication. The analysis showed that simulation games are very important in ICC developing courses, since they bring real-life situations into the classroom and enable students to go through the process of experiential learning. They engage the student's whole personality, including emotions, attitudes and values, and recreate many significant attributes of real-life intercultural encounters, offering students a valuable insight into the most important aspects of successful intercultural communication.

Key words: intercultural communicative competence (ICC), experiential learning, simulation ICC games, language teacher education

∞∞∞∞

[1] markovic.ljiljana@gmail.com

1. Introduction

Social, technological and other changes have always influenced the process of education, including teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) and defining what kind of competences EFL students should possess. Similarly, the process of globalisation and the advances in informational technology at the end of the 20th and the beginning of the 21st centuries have inevitably changed the kind and amount of communication on the global scale. Thanks to these processes, communication (particularly in English as the modern-day *lingua franca*) between people living in the opposite parts of the world has become more frequent and more intense. It is not strictly communication between native and non-native speakers in English, but more frequently between non-native speakers whose geographic, cultural, social and linguistic backgrounds differ considerably and who just share knowledge of English as a means of communication.

Consequently, these changes in the needs of modern-day speakers of English have presented new challenges for TEFL and the definition of communicative competence as its objective: What kind of knowledge, skills and strategies does an EFL student need in order to communicate effectively? What variety of English should serve as a model for an EFL student to aspire to? Is language competence sufficient for effective communication or does an EFL student need some other kinds of competence as well?

Bearing in mind that the greatest part of international communication in English has become communication between non-native speakers (House, 2010), TEFL researchers, educationalists and teachers have come to the conclusion that using the model of the 'native speaker' as an ideal to aspire to is no longer appropriate. Therefore, the existing models of communicative competence (e.g. Bachman, 1990; Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Canale & Swain, 1980; van Ek, 1986), which explicitly or implicitly take the native speaker as the model, have proved to be at least partly inadequate for new economic, social, cultural and technological conditions. It has become evident that an international/ intercultural communicator needs a range of other competences – along with the linguistic ones – to function successfully.

2. Theoretical background

As a response to the challenges imposed on TEFL, Byram (1997) has offered a model of communicative competence which, along with typically

language competences, contains elements of competence for international/ intercultural communication. Byram (1997) finds that taking the 'native speaker' model as an ideal brings an EFL student into a schizophrenic position since adopting the native speaker's competences would entail, among other things, that the EFL student needs to change his/her complete cultural identity in order to reach that ideal. Instead, Byram proposes the model of the 'intercultural speaker' (Byram, 1997, pp. 31-32) – a person who may not be a native-speaker of English, who brings his/her whole personality, identity and background into intercultural communication and who uses English as a means of communication.

Another change that Byram (1997) has introduced into the concept of communicative competence is that TEFL should develop not only a person's intercultural knowledge and skills but also emotions, attitudes and values, since a person's whole being is involved and participates in intercultural communication. Therefore, his model includes: skills, knowledge, attitudes and critical cultural awareness necessary in order to communicate successfully in an intercultural setting.

Thus, Byram's (1997) model of intercultural communicative competence contains both language and intercultural components. The language part is based on van Ek's (1986) model of 'communicative ability', consisting of six elements: linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, strategic, socio-cultural and social competences. These components are partly changed and refined in Byram's model since they should fit the ideal of the 'intercultural speaker' and not of the 'native speaker', which van Ek's model is based on. The intercultural communicative components include: knowledge (*savoirs*), skills of interpreting and relating (*savoir comprendre*), intercultural attitudes (*savoir être*), critical cultural awareness (*savoir s'engager*) and skills of discovery and interaction (*savoir apprendre/ faire*) (Figure 1).

The 'knowledge' that Byram refers to in his model is "knowledge about social groups and their cultures in one's own country, and similar knowledge of the interlocutor's country on the one hand; knowledge of the processes of interaction at individual and societal levels, on the other hand" (Byram, 1997, p. 35). By 'attitudes' Byram means "attitudes of curiosity and openness, of readiness to suspend disbelief and judgement with respect to others' [and one's own] meanings, beliefs and behaviours […]. This is the ability to 'decentre'" (Byram, 1997, p. 34). Skills necessary for successful intercultural competence are of two kinds. One group is 'skills of interpreting and relating', which help a person to relate a document to other documents from

one's own or another country to the conscious knowledge gained through formal education or 'taken-for-granted', informal knowledge in order to interpret it. The other type of skills – 'skills of discovery and interaction' – includes 'social skills' necessary to acquire and adapt to the social rules, customs and beliefs of another culture.

As Figure 1 shows, these competences can be developed: in the classroom, with the help of a teacher; during fieldwork, where the role of the teacher is optional; or independently of any institutional, organized education. While developing intercultural competence through real-life intercultural encounters seems to be only logical, developing students' cognitive, behavioural and affective aspects in the classroom seems to be difficult, particularly if one teaches culturally and linguistically homogeneous classes (as most classes in the south of Serbia are). However, a solution to the problem of introducing elements of intercultural communication in the classroom can be playing simulation games.

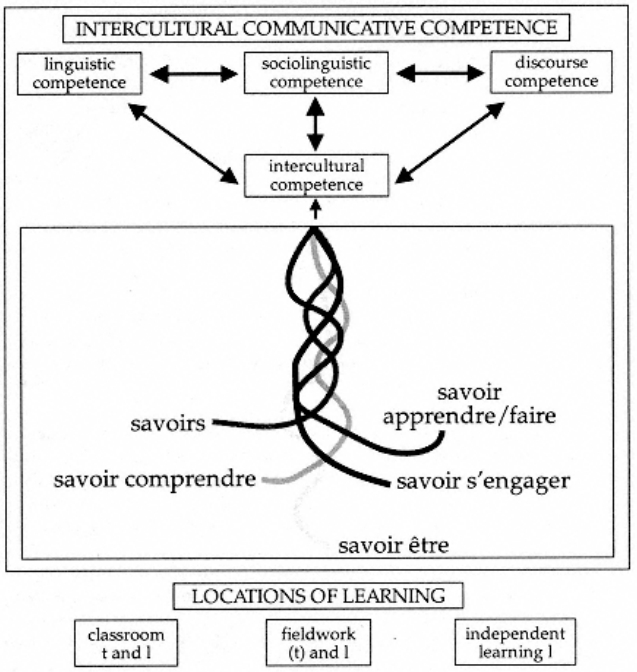


Figure 1: *Model of intercultural communicative competence (Byram, 1997, p. 73)*

2.1. Simulation games

Simulation games are a "basic method of instruction that reproduces real-life problems and situations under risk-free conditions" (Unger, 1996, p. 888 in Meltzoff & Lenssen, 2000, p. 30). Meltzoff and Lenssen (2000) identify several basic characteristics of simulation games which prove them useful in the classroom. They say that: (1) simulation games involve the learner holistically - on affective, behavioural and cognitive levels, which coincides with the engagement of the 'intercultural speaker' (Byram, 1997); (2) learning occurs on the affective, behavioural and cognitive levels; (3) simulations are particularly effective in raising intercultural awareness and competence; (4) they raise the awareness of the self and others, of the cultural and other differences, possible causes of conflict and ways for their resolution; (5) they are an effective tool in improving skills as well as cognitive knowledge; (6) simulation games create a safe place for the students to learn since they are played in the familiar environment and controlled conditions; (7) they create a learning environment where a sense of community between students is created; (8) they help students raise their individual as well as group awareness, particularly thanks to reflection and debriefing.

Bearing in mind the advantages of using simulations in the classroom that Meltzoff and Lenssen (2000) list, it is only natural that simulation games are increasingly used in the classroom, particularly when it comes to developing intercultural communicative competence. One of extremely popular games used in the educational context is *Barnga*.

Barnga (Thiagarajan & Steinwachs, 1990) is a card game which leads players to believe that they are all playing by the same rules but it turns out that the rules are partly identical and partly different. Faced with the unexpected differences in communication due to their being unaware that they are playing by different rules, players go through a culture shock. At that point the game begins to simulate real-life intercultural encounters and the emotions, behaviour and thoughts of participants in real life.

In order to play *Barnga*, students are divided into groups of 4-6. Each group has a deck of cards consisting of: aces, 1-7 and two jokers (face cards are not used) and two sets of instructions. Each group is seated at numbered tables. One set of instructions is general – common to all the groups; the other is group-specific. The game is played in rounds, each round consisting of three games. The point of the game is to collect as many cards as possible following the rules expressed in the general and group-specific sets of

instructions. After each round, the player with the highest score and the one with the lowest score leave the original table and join the neighbouring ones. The same procedure is repeated at the end of Round 2, so in Round 3 there are the representatives of up to five original groups, each playing by their own rules.

What makes *Barnga* interesting for developing intercultural competence is that the players are not aware that the rules of the game partly differ between tables (group-specific set of instructions), so when they move from one table to another they start playing the game according to the rules learnt at their original table, while the rest of the new group play by the rules they have previously acquired. As each table has players from several different groups, the game becomes tense since players often play by conflicting rules. The problem of communication is further made more difficult by asking the students not to speak: they are allowed to communicate using alternative means but not language.

The makeup of *Barnga* manages to introduce players/ students to its basic idea: that cultural differences are often subtle and can be masked by many obvious similarities. The misunderstanding due to the false belief that they all play by the same rules but actually by different rules may cause a lot of problems in communication. These problems may result in very tense situations and conflicts and upset the players' whole being: their emotions and attitudes, their behaviour and their cognition.

3. Present study

Since *Barnga* successfully simulates real-life intercultural encounters and engages the players' whole personality (just as in real life), it is used in the introductory class of the third-year elective course *Developing Intercultural Communicative Competence*, a course whose aim is to raise students' awareness about intercultural communication and about different factors that influence it by "[covering] not only the cognitive but also the 'action' and 'affective' components of ICC towards different cultures, including our own", as is defined in the course syllabus.

The game of *Barnga* is then followed by reflection. The students are asked to fill in a reflection sheet which contains the following questions:

1. How were you feeling during the game?
2. What did you think? How did you interpret other players' behaviour?
3. What could you learn about yourself?

As it can be seen, the students are invited to reflect on their feelings, thoughts, behaviour and self- awareness since it is said that one's whole personality is involved in intercultural communication (Byram, 1997).

The final stage of the class is oral debriefing (class discussion about the experience), which is, according to Meltzoff and Lenssen (2000), an important part of any simulation game "because it provides students [with] the opportunity to examine the cause-effect consequence sequence of events" (p. 30). They also emphasise that the role of the teacher/ facilitator in this stage of the class is crucial since "[w]ithout the guidance of a facilitator, the participant in a simulation activity may be affected emotionally but still may not make any conceptual gains" (p. 30).

At the end of the class, students are asked to describe their experience with *Barnga* in a 500-word journal entry – written debriefing, elaborating on their answers to the reflection sheet questions. This activity is introduced since research shows that written debriefing plays an important role in students' learning process because it is 'personal': while during the simulation game students' attention is focused on the events and in the oral debriefing they listen to the experiences of others, "[w]ritten debriefing is an experiential activity in which participants have the opportunity […] to examine behaviours, emotions, feelings, and statements made by themselves and others […]. Written debriefing provides a private, deliberating time to 'make sense of it all'" (Petranek, 2000, p. 109).

This paper will present the results of the content analysis (Patton, 2002) of those journal entries in which students were asked to describe their experience with *Barnga.* Particularly, we will focus on the topics that the students discussed in their journal entries and present their thoughts on some of those topics. The analysis will be based on Byram's model of intercultural communicative competence (1997) (Figure 1).

The study includes 67 journal entries written by the students of three classes who attended the elective course *Developing intercultural communicative competence* over the five-year period: 30 students of the 2009/10, 17 of the 2010/11 and 20 of the 2014/15 class. As the research was conducted on the material provided by the students within their regular coursework, collecting background data was not part of the data collection process. Therefore, the participants can be described in general terms relying on informally obtained information and the instructors' experience with teaching this course. Generally speaking, these are 3rd-year English language and literature majors, whose language competence is expected to be at the B2+ level of the *Common*

European framework of reference for languages (Council of Europe, 2001), usually at around the age of 22, mostly of Serbian ethnic background, with very little intercultural experience[2].

The process of analysis followed the procedure described in the literature on qualitative analysis (Patton, 2002). First, students' papers were coded using a letter for each generation and a number for each individual student[3]. Each of the (re)occurring topic was coded with a colour. During the course of the analysis the following topics were identified: emotions, personality traits and motivation, introspection/ self-reflection, interpersonal relationships and group dynamics, language and non-verbal communication, elements that make successful intercultural communication, elements that constitute culture and the teaching context (classroom as a site of intercultural encounters).

This paper will present students' reflections on three of the topics mentioned above: emotions, the relationship between language and non-verbal communication and elements that make successful intercultural communication. These are the topics which are directly related to Byram's (1997) ICC model and the elements included in the components of the model (attitudes, knowledge, skills of discovery and interaction and skills of interpretation and relating).

3.1. Emotions

The classroom is not usually treated as the site where social agents (students and teachers) can display their emotions. It is a formal context where both groups are taught from the very beginning that the focus should be on teaching/ acquiring knowledge and skills, where the feelings of pleasure and enjoyment can be desirable but not mandatory side effects and

[2] Lazarević (2013) states that the majority of Niš University students have few opportunities to communicate with foreigners and consequently have limited intercultural experience. Her study shows that most students went abroad for the first time at the age of 17 or 18, when they went on a 5-7 day school trip and that apart from small talk in shops, restaurants and discotheques they did not have a chance to really communicate with foreigners.

[3] The class of the academic year 2009/10 was marked with the letter 'A' while each student's paper in this generation was coded with a number from 1-30; the students' papers of the academic 2010/11 year were marked with the letter 'B' and a number from 1 to 17 and of the academic 2014/15 year with the letter 'C' and the number from 1 to 20.

where outbursts of negative feelings (complaining, conflict, anger) are not encouraged. Probably as a result, even literature on emotions in the classroom ignored the area for a long time (except for the study of test anxiety) although "educational settings are infused with intense emotional experiences that direct interactions, affect learning and performance, and influence personal growth in both students and teachers" (Pekrun et al., 2011, p. 13). In addition, as Weiner (2007) remarks, even when students' and teachers' emotions are studied, they are studied as 'intrapsychic phenomena', i.e. "as subjective or private experiences having a positive or negative quality […] Emotions (such as anxiety) are thus studied at the level of the individual" (pp. 75-76). On the other hand, Weiner (2007) believes that emotions in the classroom should be studied as a 'social phenomenon' because they "arise in social contexts and, as regulators of behaviour, have social consequences" (p. 76).

However, when it comes to developing intercultural communicative competence in the classroom, a public display of emotions is desirable. It is through emotional episodes that students can learn something about themselves, their classmates and intercultural encounters, and realise that "the ability to regulate emotion is one of the keys to effective intercultural communication" (Matsumoto et al., 2005, p. 15). In their study of the role of emotion in intercultural communication, Matsumoto et al. (2005) emphasise that uncertainty and ambiguity, and consequently, the 'inevitability of conflict and misunderstanding' (p. 16), are generally characteristics of intercultural communication. Uncertainty arises due to the fact that "we [cannot] be sure that the rules by which two people from different cultures operate are similar or that the signals that are exchanged have the same meaning; there is inherent uncertainty in both the verbal and nonverbal behaviours that occur" (Matsumoto *et al.*, 2005, p. 16); ambiguity is inevitable since

> chances are great that others' behaviours do not conform to our expectations. When this occurs, we often interpret those behaviours naturally as transgressions against our value system. They produce negative emotions, which are upsetting to our self-concepts. […] Uncertainty contributes to this conflict. People may become impatient with or intolerant of the ambiguity, leading to anger, frustration, or resentment. (Matsumoto *et al.*, 2005, p. 16)

Matsumoto *et al.* (2005) also emphasise that when one moves into another culture, they can undergo the process of adaptation or adjustment. The difference between the two, according to the authors, is that adaptation

entails a change in behaviour, beliefs, values due to the impact of external, socio-cultural factors and pressure, while adjustment is internally motivated. The authors also identify the key factors that can contribute to developing positive or negative adjustment. Those are: knowledge of host and home cultures, ethnocentrism and language proficiency. This means that the persons who have been informed of the host culture and how it is similar to or different from the home culture, who exhibit a lower level of ethnocentrism and who are proficient in language stand higher chances to adjust to the host culture positively.

Although there is not a separate component of 'emotions' in Byram's (1997) model of intercultural communicative competence, he emphasises that his components of attitudes and skills do include "the abilities to gather knowledge about another culture and the skills of empathy, management of anxiety and adaptability" (p. 47). Among the objectives related to each component, it seems that for the emotionally-laden intercultural encounters the most important ones are: willingness to question the practices of one's own culture; readiness to engage in the conventions and interaction in another culture; identifying areas of misunderstanding and dysfunctional communication; and identifying processes of interaction and participating in their appropriate use.

As simulation games enable learning on different levels, including the emotional one, and encourage "participants [to] feel a broad range of emotions" (Meltzoff & Lenssen, 2000, p. 31), playing the simulation *Barnga* in our classroom set the conditions for raising the students' awareness of their ability to adapt and adjust respectively. The students were positioned in the role of someone who had to leave their home culture and join a host culture. However, they had no knowledge of how different the host culture was, which had led to a rather high level of ethnocentrism (since they were led to believe that the rules of their own 'culture' were the only correct ones and therefore universally applied), and their language proficiency could not be of any help since they were not allowed to talk.

Our analysis of the students' accounts of how they felt while playing *Barnga* shows that most of them felt and often exhibited strong emotions, such as: uncertainty and ambiguity, conflict and misunderstanding, on one hand, or adaptation/ adjustment, on the other – the feelings that are usually identified in real-life intercultural encounters (Matsumoto et al., 2005).

Most of the students who left their original tables wrote how they felt uncertain in the new environment and unsure of whether they had mastered the rules (of the original table) correctly; as a result, they felt perplexed:

> (C9) *During the whole of the game I felt excited, amused, cheated, smart, proud, even aggravated at times.*[4]
>
> (B1) *I felt puzzled […] however, she*[5] *seemed rather certain about what she had just done. At this moment I thought that the whole situation was a result of my not being absolutely certain about the rules.*
>
> (A23) *[...] when the players switched again, the same thing happened. The game became chaotic and everyone was angry and frustrated.*

These excerpts show that the students experienced a whole range of emotions: from fun and interest to anger and frustration, with the feelings of uncertainty, ambiguity and conflict dominating. Shaken to the core by these feelings (especially the negative ones), the students started to view the other groups (cultures) in a different, antagonistic way. Their identification with 'their' original group became stronger and they started dividing the world into 'us' and 'them'. They began to feel that 'newcomers'/ 'intruders' (as they frequently referred to the new members at the table) threatened to impose new rules and endanger their group, so the original players reacted by strictly obeying and defending the application of their own rules:

> (A20) *Some new members in groups tried to impose their own rules and acted like bosses. For a moment it seemed like a competition and I noticed that some members of my group started looking at them as rivals.*
>
> (B11) *The game began and the five of us found ourselves in no man's land – the intruders were vehemently trying to impose their rules whereas the three of us remained unyielding.*

However, there were a considerable number of students who decided to avoid conflicts and adapt/ adjust to the new environment. Whether they decided to adapt or adjust in the sense that Matsumoto et al. (2005) define the

[4] The quotes from the journal entries are original and they were not corrected in any way.

[5] A member of the original group (the author's note)

two concepts is difficult to say, though it seems that most of the decisions were made as a result of pressure:

> (B7) *In the end, I found myself reconciling to the new rules […] in order to avoid conflicts.*
>
> (A4) *I accepted [the basic rules], without questioning them. I was not the one who was going to change the rules for the majority.*
>
> (A17) *I didn't feel comfortable in the new environment and both the other player who had joined the table and I were seen as some kind of 'intruders'. Nevertheless, I didn't want to get into conflicts and I accepted to play by their rules.*

What is interesting is that a great number of comments found in the journal entries emphasised that it was up to the individual to adapt to the rules of the majority. This idea was expressed both by the students who changed groups and by those who stayed in the same group throughout the game:

> (B1) *Ultimately, I decided to conform to the resident players' rules, as I was in 'their' group and did not want to cause a dispute.*
>
> (A16) *The newcomer is forced to assimilate and pick up the rules along the way. Upon accepting the given order, the newcomer becomes the official member of the team.*

As the students' reflections on their experience with *Barnga* show, simulation games can provoke a display of emotions in the classroom. In this particular case the predominant emotions were those of uncertainty, ambiguity, conflict and misunderstanding due to establishing relationships with people who did not share their rules of behaviour. As a possible resolution to these emotionally-laden situations, most students opted for adaptation/ adjustment to the rules of the majority at the table. As Matsumoto et al. (2005) show, this is one possible course of interaction in real-life intercultural encounters.

However, when it comes to the attitudes and skills which can be helpful in emotionally-laden intercultural situations (Byram, 1997), it seems that the students did not resort to any of them. They did not question the practices of their own culture (group) but rather questioned their personal

knowledge and abilities. Although they eventually succumbed to the rules of the new culture (group), they did not do that readily, out of the understanding of the new rules but most likely as a reaction to pressure. Finally, though they were able to identify areas of misunderstanding, they did not manage to identify processes of interaction in the new culture (group) or how to use them appropriately.

On the other hand, it must be admitted that the intercultural encounter that the students had while playing the simulation *Barnga* was an artificial, one-time situation for which they had not been prepared. In addition, they could not rely on the use of language during playing the simulation game.

At the same time, however, it was exactly these conditions created in the classroom that pointed out to the advantages of using simulation games in class. The classroom turned out to be a site where students could prepare for what they might encounter in real-life intercultural encounters. It was also a place with the 'the potential for reflection', which included 'focus on learners' affective responses' (Byram, 1997, p. 67). In our study the students used this opportunity to sincerely face their emotions during playing *Barnga* and learn the ways in which they could regulate their emotions and participate in successful intercultural communication.

3.2. Language and non-verbal communication

Another topic that was frequently dealt with by the students was non-verbal communication and its relationship with language. By the term 'non-verbal communication' we understand "those actions and attributes of humans that have socially shared meaning, are intentionally sent and interpreted as intentional, are consciously sent or consciously received and have the potential for feedback from the receiver" (Burgoon, Boller & Woodall, 1988 in Jandt, 2010, p. 107). Non-verbal communication is part of our everyday communication and it makes up 65%-90% of the meaning conveyed (Bratanić, 2007). However, due to the fact that we often acquire, use and interpret elements of non-verbal communication unconsciously, social agents may not be always aware of how much our non-verbal communication is loaded with meaning.

Non-verbal communication proves to be a very important component of intercultural communication since in intercultural communication we often assume that it is universal although studies point out that most of it is culture-specific. As Jandt (2010) remarks, "*nonverbal misinterpretation* [is] a

barrier in intercultural communication. While we expect languages to be different, we are less likely to expect and recognize how the nonverbal symbols are different" (p. 112, original emphasis).

Byram (1997) pays great attention to non-verbal communication because "many aspects of non-verbal communication, although learned within a given cultural environment, are unconscious, [so] the language learner may not be able to control them, or wish to give up what feels like a part of their personality, to acquire the non-verbal communication of others" (p. 14). He insists that non-verbal communications should be the focus of the skills of discovery and interaction as well as interpretation and relating since mere knowledge of the meaning of individual non-verbal symbols does not prepare speakers for communication in different cultures.

The students in our study did not have problems adopting 'the non-verbal communication of others' (Byram, 1997, p. 14) since the simulation game *Barnga* was played in culturally mostly homogeneous classes where students generally did not have problems understanding and interpreting elements of non-verbal communication. Therefore, their focus turned out to be directed at the means of communication and the relationship between language and non-verbal means.

The parts of the journal entries which describe how the students felt and how they communicated during the game show that the greatest burden on them was not being allowed to talk. They admit that they felt as if **the** means of communication was denied to them and that communication was impossible. Almost all of them stressed that that rule had been imposed on them – it was not their choice:

> (A9) *The lack of ability to communicate had only made things worse.*
>
> (A20) *It was more difficult to play without communication…*
>
> (A22) *Not being able to speak made us nervous and sometimes we uttered a few words, which only showed that it was not possible not to have any communication.*

Since they were left without what they perceived as the main means of communication, the students said that they had to resort to other means of communication, i.e. nonverbal communication. However, they regarded non-verbal communication simply as a substitute for verbal communication, not as a means of communication which they used on a daily basis:

(A15) *[…] we were not allowed to talk anymore [so] we introduced non-verbal communication.*

(B16) *This game could serve as an example of… how language is not the only way of communicating.*

(A4) *[…] I felt need to, at least, say hello to them.*

Now that the students discovered non-verbal communication as a means of communication, they realised that they could use different parts of their bodies (the eyes, hands, voice, posture) to communicate. However, these means of communication could have been used only to a point since the messages expressed through them did not help resolve conflicts and misunderstanding:

(C3) *Using the gestures, facial expressions and body language, they somehow managed to keep playing but without overcoming the conflict concerning the rules.*

(A6) *Players are trying to communicate by any means possible, using their hands, tapping on the table and cards with their fingers, even giving each other significant looks, frowns, and every other possible and impossible gesture which are supposed to transmit some message. It appears that it is impossible to restrict the players' communication […]*

(A27) *[…] that restriction did not prevent us from communicating, for we were quick to resort to other means of communication such as facial gestures, signing with our hands etc.*

Reflecting on the whole experience of playing a simulation game, the students pointed out that they realised that language was not the only way of communicating and that there were no limits to human creativity when it came to establishing relationship and communication: (A6) 'it is impossible to restrict the players' communication'. Still, despite the fact that the students had become aware of non-verbal means of communication, they tended to stick to the idea that it is difficult to communicate without speaking and that the world without language would be in complete chaos (or 'the Tower of Babel', as the Bible says):

(B3) *The game made me realise that it is extremely difficult, if not completely impossible, to communicate without language. Believe it or not, Barnga made me appreciate language more.*

(A21) *I realised that to me speaking is a natural process which I take for granted. I started wondering how people who could not talk at all felt during their whole lives.*

(B1) *[…] I realised that gesticulations, facial expressions, and even inarticulate sound form quite a formidable tool in communication, especially in the field of conveying 'simple' meanings (such as approving or disapproving it).*

(B5) *Without language the world, the people would be in complete chaos.*

The students realised how accustomed they had grown to the use of language and pointed out that this was an enlightening experience which reminded them of the value of language and communication through language. This was also an opportunity for them to put on somebody else's shoes – of people without speech - and thus to 'decentre' (Byram, 1997, p. 34), i.e. start viewing the world from another person's perspective. The whole experience also made them aware of the nonverbal means of communication and how effective these could be. What they kept pointing out was that they started to re-appraise the importance of language, which they had grown to consider 'normal', and focused on certain functions of language which they seemed not to have been aware of previously. Those were the social functions of language (A4: '*I had to say at least "hello"*') and the defining characteristic of our species (B5: *'without language the world, the people would be in complete chaos'*; B11: '*a society without a language […] anarchy*').

Just as playing the simulation game *Barnga* taught the students that intercultural encounters can be emotionally-laden, it also revealed to the participants that language was not the only means of communication people used and that their voice, hands, eyes – their whole body also conveyed meaning. Although the students did not have an opportunity to test their skills of understanding, relating to and adopting non-verbal communication of others, which Byram (1997) discusses, they did become aware of a means of communication they had been unconscious of and even – on rare occasions – they managed to 'decentre' by identifying with people who could not speak. In this way they took the first step in the development of "knowledge about other dimensions of communication which may produce dysfunctions" (Byram, 1997, p. 66) in intercultural encounters.

3.3. Successful intercultural communication

As mentioned above, intercultural communication involves the whole personality of intercultural speakers: not just their language competences but also their emotions, attitudes, beliefs, values, ideas – their whole worldview. As a great part of these is culturally determined, the encounter with someone who has a different worldview can be quite challenging. A person can react to this challenge in two ways: negatively or positively. If the person proves to be unable to accept a different perspective as legitimate, as equally 'correct' as his/her own, he/she will not be able to communicate successfully with the representative of another culture and their communication will encounter numerous obstacles. Therefore, Byram (1997) insists in his ICC model that to be a successful intercultural speaker one has to develop "the attitudes of curiosity and openness, of readiness to suspend disbelief and judgement with respect to others' meanings, beliefs and behaviours. There also needs to be a willingness to suspend belief in one's own meanings and behaviours, and to analyse them from the viewpoint of the others" (Byram, 1997, p. 34). As a result, a change in one's attitudes will inevitably cause changes in the other components since there is the relationship of interdependence between them:

> Without relativising one's own and valuing others' experience, interpreting and relating them is likely to be value-laden. […] [I]ncreased knowledge creates positive attitudes […]. [T]he skills of discovery and interaction are less difficult to operate […] if the person involved has attitudes of openness and curiosity. (Byram, 1997, pp. 34-35)

Bearing all this in mind, teaching a rather culturally homogeneous class what it takes to have successful intercultural communication seems to be impossible. The task can seem even greater when one realises that the students have had few opportunities for intercultural encounters, as the students in this study have. Therefore, it was interesting to see whether by playing the simulation game *Barnga* students could experience what it meant to communicate in the intercultural context and what made successful intercultural communication.

The students' ideas about the conditions under which the simulation of intercultural encounters (represented by the game *Barnga*) occurred ranged from (A7) '*It is a simulation game on cultural clashes'* to (B4) '*I see Barnga as an interesting social game that brings people together'*, i.e. seeing intercultural

communication as either '*cultural clashes*' or *'bring[ing] people together'*. However, the great majority of the students leaned toward the latter end of the pendulum, expressing a high degree of awareness of what contributed to successful intercultural communication. The most frequently mentioned factors were: knowledge about other cultures, understanding other people's perspectives, overcoming prejudice – the very elements that Byram (1997) includes in his model of intercultural communicative competence (attitudes, skills, knowledge):

> (B20) *It would be a must for us to get ourselves acquainted of others, as well as to dismiss the prejudice we might have for them.*
>
> (C5) *We should always consider other people's take on things. Because we haven't been in their position doesn't mean we should discard them, just the opposite, it means we should try and put ourselves in their shoes.*

Students also pointed out – in line with Byram's (1997) definition of attitudes of openness, skills of discovery and interaction and skills of interpretation and relating – that a person who was open to different worldviews would become a better person and the quality of their life would improve – in short, such a person would experience "personal growth" (Matsumoto et al., 2005, p. 28). Interestingly, this was the conclusion both of the students who changed tables and those who remained seated at one table:

> (B19) *[…] even though respecting other people's culture and preserving one's own is very important, we should also learn from others and in that way make ourselves better than we were before.*
>
> (A27) *It is not rare that one can find many useful things that he/she may adopt from another culture and improve his/her quality of living. But again, the main issue is to learn how to communicate and how to approach that dialogue with an open mind.*
>
> (A17) *Not only did the players who moved to other tables learn something but also the players who stayed at 'their own' tables. We should be supportive if someone else comes to our country […] and not to reject that person just because she/he plays by different rules.*

Just as the students realised that language was important for life in civilised societies, they also stressed that the ability to resolve conflicts, to

accept other worldviews and to learn about and from other cultures was important in modern societies. Such people were accustomed to dialogue, compromise, parlamentarism and, as a result, were able to communicate in an intercultural context successfully:

> (A27) *Bringing* different *cultures together does not necessarily need to result in conflict, although this is very often the case. The differences can easily be resolved through dialogue and compromise.*
>
> (A29) *These misunderstandings would easily be disregarded if the people would start [acting] parliamentary toward other people's culture and in the same way respecting their own.*

The final observation that was made was about what was essential for personal growth. In the students' opinion, it was having numerous intercultural experiences and encounters. However, in case one did not have many (as was the case with our students), simulation games such as *Barnga* could be of significant help:

> (A8) *[…] as [people] experience more differences, they also become more tolerant.*
>
> (A28) *Our teachers' aim was to show us how a person (a foreigner) with a completely different set of (cultural) rules (values) may end up being laughed at, perceived as stupid – just because of one thing – inherited system of cultural values. It was super fun to feel this 'rejection' on your own skin.*

Judging from these comments, it turns out that playing *Barnga* made students aware of what intercultural communication was like and what was necessary to make it successful. The significance of this form of experiential learning is even greater if students do not have much opportunity to travel abroad and communicate with foreigners. Playing simulation games can help students realise that they need to develop tolerance, openness to dialogue and the ability to compromise in order to have successful intercultural communication, which are exactly the skills and attitudes that Byram (1997) includes in his ICC model

4. Conclusion

As we have seen above, this paper presents the results of a study on how playing simulation games in the EFL classroom can affect developing intercultural communicative competence (ICC). Playing simulation games to develop ICC is recommended since simulations engage students' whole being and provide learning at different levels (emotional, behavioural and cognitive) (Metzhoff & Lenssen, 2000), thus recreating the circumstances of real-life ICC encounters and possible reactions of the participants in ICC real-life episodes.

The game played by the 3rd-year Niš University English majors at the beginning of their *Developing Intercultural Communicative Competence* course was the card game *Barnga*. This study presents the results of the content analysis of journal entries – written debriefing (Petranek, 2000) of how the students felt, what they thought and what they learnt while playing *Barnga*. Out of the topics the students wrote about, three are discussed here: emotions, the relationship between language and non-verbal communication and elements of successful ICC. The journal entries were analysed within Byram's (1997) model of ICC, a model which includes a range of competences necessary for intercultural communication, specifically: attitudes, knowledge, skills of interpretation and relating, skills of discovery and interaction, and critical cultural awareness.

This study shows that the students' experience while playing *Barnga* was similar to real-life intercultural encounters, as described in the literature (for example, Matsumoto et al., 2005). Playing this simulation game also made them aware of the problems that could occur in intercultural communication and some of the ways in which misunderstanding and dysfunction could be dealt with. Their comments pointed to the attitudes, skills and knowledge, which present part of Byram's (1997) ICC model. The elements they became most aware of were, what Byram calls, 'skills of discovery and interaction'. The students' report on their emotions, the use of non-verbal communication and the ways in which to ensure successful intercultural communication show that they realised the significance of the 'skills of empathy, management of anxiety and adaptability' (Byram, 1997, p. 47), using appropriate verbal and non-verbal means of communication and using the appropriate combination of knowledge, skills and attitudes. To a slightly lesser degree the students referred to the elements which Byram (1997) classifies as 'skills of interpretation and relating' and 'attitudes', i.e. through

taking the position of someone coming from a different culture in order to explain failure in intercultural communication, These also include being willing to explore and adopt conventions in communication different from those in one's own culture, and being willing to negotiate rules of interaction with the representative of other cultures.

It seems that the students lack the awareness of the importance of knowledge about social groups and rules of interaction in a culture and critical cultural awareness for successful intercultural communication. One of the reasons for their unawareness of the kind of knowledge could have been their being accustomed to acquiring more 'factual' knowledge about the social and political history of Anglophone cultures in their culture studies courses. Another could have been that *Barnga* was played at the very beginning of the ICC course, before any of the topics (including the one on social groups and classes) was dealt with. As for the lack of critical cultural awareness, i.e. the ability to critically evaluate a culture and its rules taking the position of a member of that culture, it seems that the students' limited intercultural experience could partly account for this. Additionally, the process of the psychological and cognitive development necessary for structuring and reflecting on their intercultural experience, and a prerequisite stressed by Byram (1997), might still be under way in students, thus causing this lack of awareness, therefore providing another topic of further research.

After the students' whole experience with Barnga as well as completing a course in *Developing* ICC, we can only hope that the students have found the answer to the question (B8) '*Why don't they seem to be playing correctly?'* and that they will be able to use that knowledge in real-life intercultural encounters to communicate successfully.

References

Bachman, L. F. (1990). *Fundamental considerations in language testing.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bachman, L. F., & Palmer, A. S. (1996). *Language testing in practice.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bratanić, M. (2007). Nonverbal communication as a factor in linguistic and cultural miscommunication. In A. Esposito, M. Bratanić, E. Keller & M. Marinaro

(Eds.), *Proceedings of the NATO Study institute of the fundamentals of verbal and nonverbal communication and the biometric* issue (pp. 82-91). Amsterdam: IOS Press.

Burgoon, J. K., Boller, D. B., & Woodall, W. G. (1996). Nonverbal communication: The unspoken dialogue. In Jandt, F. E (2010). *An introduction to intercultural communication: Identities in a global community*, 6th ed. Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage Publications.

Byram, M. (1997). *Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence*. Multilingual Matters.

Canale, M., & M. Swain. (1980). Theoretical basis of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics,* 1, 89-112.

Council of Europe. (2001). *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment.* Cambridge, UK: Press Syndicate of the University of Cambridge.

House, J. (2010). The pragmatics of English as a lingua franca. In A. Trosborg (Ed.), *Handbook of pragmatics, vol. VII: Pragmatics across languages and cultures* (pp. 363-387). Berlin/ New York: Walter de Gruyter.

Jandt, F. E. (2010). *An introduction to intercultural communication: Identities in a global community*, 6th ed. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Lazarević, N. (2013). *Intercultural competence as the aspect of communicative competence at the tertiary level English language students* (unpublished PhD dissertation). Faculty of Philosophy, University of Novi Sad.

Masumoto, D., LeRoux, J., & Hee Yoo, S. (2005). Emotion and intercultural communication. Retrieved from: http://mobile.kwansei.ac.jp/s_sociology/attached/5288_44277_ref.pdf

Meltzoff, N., & J. Lenssen. (2000). Enhancing cultural competence through simulation activities. *Multicultural perspectives*, 2 (1), 29-34.

Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods*, 3rd edition. Thousand Oaks/ London/ New Delhi: Sage Publications.

Pekrun, R., Frenzel, A. C., Goetz, T., & Perry, R. (2007). The control-value theory of achievement emotions: An integrative approach to emotions in education. In P. A. Schutz & R. Pekrun (Eds.), *Emotion in education* (pp. 13-36). Burlington/ San Diego/ London: Elsevier.

Petranek, C. F. (2000). Written debriefing: The next vital step in learning with simulations. *Simulation and gaming*, 31(1),108-118.

Thiagarajan, S., & Steinwachs, B. (1990). Barnga: A simulation game on cultural clashes. Retrieved from: http://www.acphd.org/media/271383/barnga_instructions.pdf

Unger, H. G. (1996). *Encyclopedia of American education* (Vol. III). New York: Facts on File, Inc. In N. Meltzoff & J. Lenssen (2000). Enhancing cultural competence through simulation activities. *Multicultural Perspectives*, 2(1), 29-35.

Van Ek, J. A. (1986). *Objectives for foreign language learning*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. In M. Byram (1997). *Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence*. Multilingual Matters.

Weiner, B. (2007). Examining emotional diversity in the classroom: An attribution theorist considers the moral emotions. In P. A. Schutz & R. Pekrun (Eds.), *Emotion in education* (pp. 75-88). Burlington/ San Diego/ London: Elsevier.

Part 2

Teaching Issues

Jelica Tošić[1]
Faculty of Occupational Safety
University of Niš
Serbia

TEACHING ENGLISH IN THE ELF (ENGLISH AS A LINGUA FRANCA) ERA

Abstract
The era of ELF, together with the era of globalization, opened up several important questions, such as the ownership of English, the role of non-native speakers in the development of the language, and the issues of teaching for international communication or Lingua Franca English. Although language change is accepted as a truism, teaching language change is very difficult, because it means doing away with two things: the fixed NS model and the relatively complete control of the situation in the monolingual classroom. The legitimate goal is for English language users to express their own culture in English. English, therefore, serves a double function for them. If that is so, there is no danger of other languages being wiped out by English. English as a lingua franca has its own functions, and one is to accept the influence of other world languages and cultures.

Key words: English as a Lingua Franca, globalization, language change, heterolingual classrooms, negotiation of meaning

∞∞∞

1. Introduction

Global mobility and the Internet have and are still revolutionising the world as a whole and the world of communicating. The appearance of the Internet is associated with the 1990s but it is, which is natural for electronic communication, developing speedily. It has become easily available, which

[1] jelica.tosic@znrfak.ni.ac.rs

means that an increasing number of people are daily joining the Internet community. Some figures show that the dominant language in all the Internet traffic is English, accounting for some 70% of communication (Crystal, 2001, p. 2). If this is not the share of native speakers of English in the world, the implication is that new usages, appearing quite fast, will ultimately affect the English language immensely.

Another great domain that is by its nature also global is science. David Crystal has also come up with the fact that "some 80% of the world's science is expressed in English" (Crystal, 2005, p. 21). Experts in their fields, scientists the world over cannot be expected to use perfect (NS) English. Their individual uses are thus affecting the English language as well as stressing again the need for a modern lingua franca.

The subject of a common world language is a new and a complex one raising serious questions in terms of cultural and linguistic identity and ELT. The turning point in linguistic history again were the 1990s, which saw an amazing increase in the interest among linguists and arguments for and against the global language i.e. global English. The changed situation is reflected in Crystal's words that only a relatively short time ago the prospect of English becoming a genuinely global language was uncertain. "I never gave talks on English as a world language in the 1960s or 1970s" (Crystal, 1999a, p. 1).

The prospect, however, had been predicted much before globalisation was openly proclaimed as both the state of affairs and the future goal of political endeavours. As early as 1978 the British Council issued a publication containing six papers on the emerging subject of English as an international language. Six scholars and practitioners were unanimous as to the acknowledgement of the phenomenon and they noticed the spots which also preoccupy today's linguistic debates: 1. "the native speaker of English must accept that English is no longer his possession alone: it belongs to the world" (The British Council, 1978, p. 31); 2. international communication involves ideological and cultural differences, which are to be overcome by changed attitudes both in linguistic theory and English teaching, among other things; and 3. international English "might prove to be a more suitable model for the classroom than the English of native speakers" (ibid.: 4). The last item marked the crucial departure from the NS model in English teaching and was a brave suggestion at the time, although its topicality has not ceased even today. Some other implications for the classroom show that "while the numbers (of English learners and users – ins. J.T.) have risen, the quality and range of

command has dropped" (ibid.: 42), and that when language is being used for communicative purpose it is fluency which counts rather than accuracy.

The term *English as a Lingua Franca* (ELF) has lately replaced the initial term international English. It is clear though that whichever term is used, it acknowledges the division within English itself. In order to avoid confusion and ill feelings towards the use of English on the international scene, it is necessary to say that native speaker English and English as a lingua franca are two different kinds of English. Both have their own functions and neither seems to be endangered by the other language.

2. The era of globalization and language change

Whether it is considered by the contemporaries to be *progress or decay* (Aitchison, 2001) is a matter of individual judgement but language change is the process which is undeniably going on all the time affecting, to a greater or lesser degree, the whole structure or system of the language. At the beginning of the twenty-first century the world entered the era of globalization, a much stronger emphasis being put on the world existing and functioning as a single whole. Put like this, this conception is a radical move in many ways. Although international relationships in all the aspects of human activities have always existed, their scope was not proclaimed to be global in intention. Nowadays globalization involves wide, if not total, intermixing of all the world's nations, because it implicitly, often explicitly too, means doing away with the deeply-embedded notions of nations and national belonging. It still generally raises wide debates with pro- and con- arguments in almost all spheres of life. Since a common language is obviously necessary if the world is to function on the global scale, English has acquired the role of the lingua franca. The English do not object to that fact. Its use in the world, however, is something that they do object to. International English (EIL or ELF) or English in its global context, where it serves the function of the global means of communication, is subject to numerous changes coming from the influence of other world languages. They interfere with 'pure' English making it a contact language almost unrecognisable to its native-speakers. "It is not easy for the NS to come to terms with the variations that occur in NNS use of what the NS feels to be 'one's own language'" (Strevens, 1987, p. 56). But the actual differentiation from English is something that NS should get accustomed to. The term 'native speaker' even seems to be somewhat obsolete with

globalization in mind, but it is also clear that it challenges the notions of language change and of the ownership of a language, in this case English.

Nowadays, at the time of globalization and the use of English as a lingua franca, English is extremely prone to changes. The difference is crucial: whereas, in the near past, it was mainly changing within the boundaries of its native speakers' countries, now the boundaries practically do not exist and English has been let loose in the world. The process of language change, if it is possible to control at all, is happening within a much broader or even limitless territory. At the same time, the pace of change has also been altered. In the past, it used to take centuries for some language to change extensively, but today, with English particularly, it is within decades that changes can accumulate so that the native speakers are faced with the uses they simply do not understand. Chronologically, the first step in non-recognition was the emergence of World Englishes, which were indigenised varieties with the uses reflecting their users' cultural backgrounds. The second step was the appearance of ELF, possibly an abstraction, comprising a much wider range of influences.

Language is, by its nature, a long-lasting phenomenon as it remains pretty same for long periods of time. Language change, however, can be caused by the inherent forces within the language or by different external (mainly social) factors influencing it. If these latter factors are relatively stable, the inherent changes in the language are rather slow. If, on the other hand, they are fast or even violent, language changes speed up. As regards ELF, it cannot be observed without the context of globalization, which presents a powerful force that affects English dramatically. The opponents of ELF are amazed by the unprecedented pace linguistic changes take place. In these circumstances, the petrification of English as a lingua franca seems impossible. It is shifting sand, both in its structure and in the way it is supposed to be taught.

3. English in the ELF era

English in its global context is a contact language used for international communication. If you take it as 'deficient', the term that is more appropriate to use is 'interlanguage'. Intrinsic to the definition of 'interlanguage' is the learner's "attempt to produce a foreign norm" (Mahboob, 2005, p. 67). This definition could first be reconsidered in terms of the ownership of English, and then it could be questioned again because it is considered to be a

temporary stage towards this original norm. Not only is the definition challenged, but it also questions the theoretical assumptions and practical activities in applied linguistics. The situation in the classroom is therefore complicated twofold: what English is to be taught or learnt, and what approach to apply in 'the post-method era'.

Different varieties of English, or World Englishes, have already become real just as the so-far nonexistent plural: Englishes. Their existence or acceptance by the native speakers of English is corroborated by the fact that there are already the dictionaries of WEs together with the fact that they have become teachable as a subject on both undergaduate and masters university programmes (Jenkins, 2006, p. 174). These varieties of English have actually sprung up as the outcome of the peoples' urge (mainly in the former British colonies) to express and show their cultural and linguistic identity. Their Englishes, though widely used within their own countries as the second language, had to cope with the heritage bequethed to them by their former colonisers. Because of the long-standing and obvious association, they had to insist on the differences, incorporating them into English and thus creating British-identity-ridden varieties. Their urge was politically understandable. It could, for example, be compared and traced back to American English, now the recognised language of the 'inner circle'[2] country. When the American need for their own identity appeared, their language had to be modified to become different from British English.

ELF is, by its definition and intention, certainly global-culture-bound. The association between any language and culture within a nation obtains universally, but when international communication is concerned, it is culture in the plural, cultures. Because ELF is dissociated from any particular nation's culture, it can be said to belong to international community. Another important characteristic of culture implies its temporal determination or that it always refers to some specific period of time. The time of ELF is the present time, when we are supposed to live in a single global civilisation. This, in turn, implies "the cultural coming together of humanity and the increasing acceptance of common values, beliefs, orientations, practices, and institutions by peoples throughout the world" (Huntington, 1996, p. 56). Furthermore, if a universal civilisation is emerging, it will include a universal or common language. ELF has therefore become a reality. It is necessary as a tool for communication, and not as a source of national identity. It has become a

[2] Reference to Kachru's term for NS countries.

reality because it is "a way of coping with linguistic and cultural differences, not a way of eliminating them" (Huntington, 1996, p. 61). Although the very notion of ELF is disapproved by numerous linguists, there is some weight to the appearance of the one-page-long ELF entry in the seventh edition of *Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary of Current English* (Jenkins, 2007, p. 245).

The era of ELF, just as the era of globalization, has thus opened up the important question of the ownership of English. It is true that, on the one hand, English belongs to the English. On the other hand, English as a lingua franca belongs to all the nations of the world or rather to all the individuals in the world. To them it is primarily a means of communication transcending traditional communal or cultural boundaries. However, this question engages distinguished linguists as well. Some are staunch proponents of 'pure English', whereas others stress the changed role and therefore structure of English. The English linguists or those coming from the 'inner circle' have differing attitudes as to what is going on with 'their' language in the world. Henry Widdowson, for example, holds that "how English develops in the world is no business whatever of native speakers in England, the United States, or anywhere else. They have no say in the matter, no right to intervene or pass judgement. They are irrelevant" (Widdowson, 1994, p. 385). On the other hand, Randolph Quirk is defending standard English insisting on the maintenance of high standards and condemning the changes it suffers in the world. Braj Kachru, the linguist coming from the 'outer circle' country, sees things in another light and, professionally biased towards the equality and self-sufficiency of all languages, ironically characterises Quirk's stance about English language users in the world as *deficit linguistics*. When Quirk answered this, he characterised his opponent's stance as *liberation linguistics* i.e. linguistics that was the outcome of the liberation of the British former colonies and their resultant need to express their own identity, but also the linguistics that 'allows' anything for the sake of 'smooth' communication.[3] If English as a lingua franca belonged to English native speakers, they would be right in wanting to preserve the 'purity of their language'. As it is, however, attempts to preserve original standards inerraneously fail on the global scale. ELF is a language of its own not to be compared with English. "It should operate with a difference hypothesis rather than a deficit hypothesis" (Mc Kay, 2003, p. 13). It lives in the use of the language having its own rules that should be appreciated for the global function it has. If a language belongs to

[3] Reference to Seidlhofer, 2003, p. 20.

everyone speaking or using it, as some linguists hold, roughly 1.4 billion people in the world 'own' English. In this capacity, they are entitled to do with it whatever they want.[4] Therefore it seems wise to predict that "the course of the English language is going to be influenced by those who speak it as a second or foreign language as by those who speak it as a mother-tongue" (Crystal, 2001, p. 21).

The already visible trend could be illustrated by the observation that "anyone participating in international communication needs to be familiar with...certain forms (phonological, lexicogrammatical, etc.) that are widely used and widely intelligible across groups of English speakers from different language backgrounds" (Jenkins, 2006, p. 161). In linguistic terms, grammar and spelling are more communal than communicative features of standard English. They are therefore more likely to be changed or modified if they are used outside the national boundaries. The present-day Internet communication testifies to the changes going on. The emphasis shifts thoroughly, from English grammar and spelling to vocabulary. Henry Widdowson's words could be helpful in explaining the process: "Because language has built-in redundancy, grammatical conformity is actually not particularly crucial for many kinds of communicative transaction. What we generally do in the interpretative process is actually to edit grammar out of the text, referring lexis directly to context, using lexical items as indexical cues to meaning" (Widdowson, 1994, pp. 380-381). Therefore although spelling, grammar and lexis serve to define a language, in the international use of English they have to be simplified judging from the standard English perspective, or universalised judging from the global English perspective. The changed status of English in international communication has more affected its communal characteristics i.e. those characteristics that define it within the 'inner country' boundaries.

To add to this argument, linguists dealing with English tend to admit that English has always been receptive to change. John Algeo even compares it to a powerful vacuum cleaner (Webster's New World Dictionary, 1988, p. XXV) adding that the appropriation of foreign words into a language is actually the enrichment of its vocabulary. Contact with other languages can thus be seen as productive for English. Extended to the global scene, this process is extremely fruitful: in this context English is affected by the uses of numerous people having different linguistic backgrounds. On the other hand,

[4] Reference to Crystal's paper (2001, p. 21).

their languages are also affected by English. This process of borrowing words must also mean enrichment for their native languages although there are also some tendencies to condemn the process. Those who oppose it are concerned about the purity of their language just like the English purists who believe in the retention of the status quo.

Although, in terms of lexis, English could be consireded to be enriched, in other respects it seems to be simplified. Pauline Robinson's (native speaker's) words show that there are native speakers of English who are willing to admit that the process of change visible in ELF is not likely to be stopped or controlled by the native speakers:

> Native speakers of English are in a minority as users of the language, most users are second- or foreign- language users. They are likely to simplify the linguistic system, to have some different usages. Their usage is likely to prevail in business and other contacts, rather than the version of the language that someone like myself might use. Perhaps this ELF is what we are or should be teaching in ESP (Robinson, 2007, p. 142).

'This ELF' was, at the time these words were spoken, much less obvious than today, but ESP is not the only field any more that is to take ELF into account. These words also show that not only the use of English in the world should be left out of the native speakers' influence but also, which is a crucial step, that English teaching or learning should be reconsidered because of ELF.

4. English in the classroom in the ELF and the post-method era

With the appearance of ELF, English for communication purposes in the world cannot easily be controlled by its NSs. Likewise, the situation in the classroom, in the post-method era and in the ELF era, is particularly difficult to control. Contemporary classroom is burdened with or must count on this because modern communication technologies, which broaden the input even if not actually present in the classroom, stand somewhere in the background. "E-mail, chat rooms, on-line teaching materials, and video conferencing are, in effect, redefining the concept of 'classroom' and, with it, the roles of teachers and learners" (Savignon, 2002, p. 21). Together with this, there is a continuing need to have in mind the comparison between the pictures

of the world and the classroom as the microworld because the former is always reflected in the latter. The following table shows their relationship:

Table 1: *The reflection of the real-life world in the classroom microworld*

WORLD	MICROWORLD (heterolingual classroom)
all cultures all languages	different cultures different languages
NS standard vs ELF standard (nonexistent)	NS standard vs ELF standard (nonexistent)
English users (between two languages) negotiation (acceptability)	English learners (between two languages) negotiation (acceptability)

Communication in the world involves intermixing of all its cultures and implicitly of all of its languages. This fact is of vital importance "if English is to be a language used *by* the world rather than imposed *on* the world" (Brumfit, 1978, p. 24). Most classrooms in the world, however, are still highly monolingual, but, with globalisation extending, the trend is to head towards heterolingual classrooms – the exact replica of the communication in the world. Answering a question from the audience at this conference if the concept of interculturality and interlinguistic communication is relevant to this country considering the fact that we consider ourselves to be monolingual in the classrooms, the keynote speaker of the conference, Kenneth Cushner, said that the world was being changed so fast that even the regions which are still monolingual might soon find themselves to be heterolingual, involving, both in reality and in the classroom, the complex issues of the presence of myriad nations, their cultures and their languages. In that case, English used in the world could be compared with English used and learnt in the classroom. English learners in the classroom later become English users in the world where the processes learnt and used in the classroom become fully operable. The teachers, conceived in the past as the embodiment of the native speakers, are in a changed position. Whether they set a NS standard or ELF standard (still nonexistent) as the teaching goal, both NS and NNS teachers could be accepted as good teachers. With the past attitudes, the NS teacher was to be the ideal choice. In the era of globalisation, NNS teachers are not necessarily a worse choice for the classroom.

With ELF in sight, both the users in the world and learners in the classroom remain learners, negotiating meanings all the time. On the world scene, just as in the classroom, "negotiated interaction means that the learner should be actively involved in clarification, confirmation, comprehension checks, requests, repairing, reacting, and turntaking. It also means that the learner should be given the freedom and encouragement to initiate talk, not just react and respond to it" (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, p. 33-34). This concept is promoted because it is widely known among linguists that "what enables learners to move beyond their current receptive and expressive capacities are opportunities to modify and restructure their interaction with their interlocutors until mutual comprehension is reached" and "that production, as opposed to comprehension, may very well be the trigger that forces learners to pay attention to form, to the relationship between form and meaning, and to the overall means of communication" (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, p. 34). In other words, even linguistically incorrect production proves to be fruitful. To add to this, Barbara Seidlhofer makes, for language theorists, an unusual, but for practitioners well-known observation that "although learners' intake does not correspond with teacher input, they do take in a good deal, picking up some bits of language, discarding others [...] learners learn the language by making use of it on or in their own terms and...in using it they develop the capability for further learning" (Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 189). In other words, they learn by negotiation of meaning, exactly in the same way it happens in the world. Learners or students tend to favour success in communication to correctness or identity with NS norms. Their linguistic behaviour is quite telling about how they translate their external communicative practice to the classroom ('external' primarily means the Internet communication, but also their encounters with foreigners). The tendency of not caring too fastidiously about the 'rules' is obvious to experienced teachers or practitioners. ELF practices therefore exist in the classroom as well but it is not only ESP classroom.

Who the learners mean to communicate with in English is becoming rather more important in general English (GE) classes as well: if these are the native speakers of English, the standards for both learning and assessment should remain high, but if English is needed for communication with other NNSs, the teaching goals should be modified. The focus in this situation should be shifted to successful communication or creation of 'competent speakers' (Kumaravadivelu 1994, p. 42; Jenkins, 2007, p. 237). This goal is considered by a lot of teachers to be quite attainable and therefore realistic.

This premise accepted, other important considerations in the classroom (teaching materials, the treatment of errors, and evaluation) should also be changed.

All English teaching used to be based on the Chomskian paradigm (Mahboob, 2005, p. 67) that studying language meant acquiring it as a cognitive system. The implied assumption was that the target competence for foreign language learners was the NS perfection. Foreign language classrooms, however, produce "less than NS ability" (Lester, 1978, p. 11) in the learners. More than their teachers, students are generally not put out by this fact – they, being more adaptable, show that the contemporary option for them is international English. In that conviction, they simply refuse the NS model for the simple reason that it works less successfully on the international scene. Considering the outcome, the starting assumption in foreign language learning and teaching should rely on the realistic goal of producing 'competent speakers'. Wondering why learners and teachers should stop with something less than the NS ability, Mark Lester comes up with three reasons that influence the practice: 1.communication needs, 2. culture factors, and 3. identity (Lester, 1978, p. 12). Globalisation has given him the adequate background for that.

4.1. NS vs NNS teachers

One of the prominent debates when English teaching is concerned is a dichotomy between NS teachers and NNS teachers in terms of their capabilities for the job. Based on the survey carried out among the students, Paunović found that the examinees judged three out of five NS of English as unsuitable to be EFL teachers (Paunović, 2013, p. 149). The finding was significant in the sense that just being a NS of English does not make one superior as a teacher, and that high and different standards obtain when the skill of teaching is concerned. Generally, however, ideal NS teachers could be considered superior in their language competence. On the other hand, they cannot cover the worldwide demand and NNS teachers of English are in the great majority (80% according to Mc Kay, 2003, p. 8). To compensate for the less-than-total mastery of the language, NNSs have developed other skills and abilities which present a good reason to consider the strenghts and weaknesses of both groups of teachers.

Closely related to this question is the simultaneously raised question of the ownership of English, important for the international status of English but also for its introduction into the classrooms. From this point of view, again,

the NS teachers would be ideal for teaching English. However, if they lack other competences that make teaching successful, this initial advantage may soon melt out. Henry Widdowson's paper (1994), much cited in the literature today, was a departure line that granted anyone who uses English the right of its ownership. This was a very important step in another respect: feeling equal with NS teachers, NNS teachers could be relieved of the great pressure of being disadvantaged and they could concentrate on their strengths instead of weaknesses. Both factors, language proficiency and the right of ownership, as important 'qualifications' for teaching English, could be compensated for by other professional and individual qualifications. It is therefore not surprising that Gloria Park from Indiana University of Pennsylvania thought it apt to investigate the issue and subsequently give her research the title "I Am Never Afraid of Being Recognized as an NNES: One Teacher's Journey in Claiming and Embracing Her Nonnative-Speaker Identity" elaborating on the capabilities of the NNS teachers to teach English. This statement is also important for the acceptance of different national identities within English use and teaching which, in turn, ensures the presence of the element of culture (multi- or pluri-culture) within the notion of English as an international language. Kachru's inner, outer and expanding circles of English have already become axiomatic in conceptualising the position and use of English in the world with realistic expectations about the teachers who should be "prepared to teach English around the world as a result of global mobility and the focus on internationalisation" (Park, 2012, p. 3). Wherever they teach and whoever they teach (mono- or multi-lingual classes), the English teachers should be aware of both their strengths and weaknesses in the situation.

Ahmar Mahboob was also motivated to concentrate on the advantages of NNS teachers. When teaching the learners with whom they share the same mother tongue or L1, English teachers can certainly compare with their native-speaking colleagues. Peter Medgyes also has noticed, among other things, that NNS teachers of English have a double role as both teachers and learners (at a higher level, of course) of the language. They are thus "set as proper learner models, since they *learned* English after they have acquired their native language, unlike NESTs who *acquired* English as their native language" (Medgyes, 2001, p. 422). What this statement implies is the possibility of progress and high achievement for the students or learners even at the times when they encounter difficulties in the process of learning. This is a psychological advantage which is known to be related to motivation as a

strong stimulus in learning. In the similar vein, "as successful learners of English, non-NESTs are supposed to be conscious strategy users, able to tell which strategies have worked for them and which have not." (Medgyes, 2001, p. 423). This supports the view that in ELF different negotiation strategies have proved to work effectively in learning and getting the messages across. Although they are more or less particular or individual choices, other people's language behaviour is quite helpful.

Another thing that, according to Medgyes, also seems to be rather important is that NNESTs have a better understanding than NESTs of "what is easy and difficult in the learning process" (Medgyes, 2001, p. 423).They are also able to prevent errors knowing the L1 system transfer and having experience in teaching English. This disadvantage could, however, be overcome in NESTs if they learn their students' mother tongue. The use of the students' native language can often facilitate learning in the classroom. If, on the other hand, a teacher teaches a multilingual class, which is, with globalization, supposed to be a near reality in a lot of schools, their native tongue might coincide with few, if any, students. In this case, the teaching process and the learning process resemble the world scene where the strategies of negotiation play a crucial role. At the time of increased globalisation, constant awareness of the reasons why English is learnt can be helpful because "for most learners, the ultimate aim is an effective use of the target language. People seldom aspire to more than what they find professionally and personally necessary" (Medgyes, 2001, p. 417). This goal will necessarily affect all the other aspects of English teaching.

4.2. Teaching materials

Authentic[5] materials in English teaching are supposed to genuinely represent the real language that is used in various situations by various speakers. The question that arises when the concept of authenticity is concerned is whether it refers to the uses observed in the communication between native speakers only. As a matter of fact, even these uses are not covered thoroughly in the classroom because the textbooks and other teaching materials mostly contain verbal exchanges within the standard variety of English – other varieties appear only sporadically. What is also important to take into account is *learner authenticity* which is inseparable from the authenticity of teaching materials.

[5] *Authentic* still mostly means *correct* according to the NS model of acceptability.

> For learners, to authenticate materials, these need, minimally, to fulfil two conditions. In the first place, they need to be recognized by learners as having a legitimate place in the language classroom. Secondly, they must engage the interests of the learner by relating to his interests, background knowledge, and experience, and through these, stimulate genuine communication. (Nunan, 1988, p. 102)

The background knowledge, experience and what communication looks genuine to learners at the beginning of the 21st century, show the preference for English as a lingua franca. At the time of the twenty-first century globalisation, the concept of authenticity should be modified to include other native varieties as well as World Englishes and ELF. If this modified concept is applied to teaching, this means a moderate share of these newly-acknowledged varieties as well. The defining features of English as an international language have affected the very nature of English in the narrow sense of the word. This outcome has been caused by the disappearance of the balance between the number of its native speakers and the continuously increasing number of L2 and FL speakers. Their versions of English, some of them even acknowledged as the language varieties, strongly affect original English in terms of both linguistic and cultural considerations. An international language is 'de-nationalized' and this language is therefore dissociated from any national culture. It follows then that it is not necessary to inbreed the culture of English native speakers in its international users; moreover, lingua franca English contains the outer and expanding circle users' culture and language backgrounds, which they want to communicate to others instead of hiding them. Being 'converted' to a native speaker of English seems therefore to be out of place in globalisation. "If one of the primary reasons for learners to acquire English today is to provide information to others about their own community and culture, there seems little reason to promote target cultural content in the English language classroom" (McKay, 2003, p. 10). What is therefore suggested are the materials that help students to explain particularities of their own culture in English. These materials will show both the difficulties of international communication, and the effective use of English in surpassing these difficulties. This is also a valuable option in teaching 'difference' or teaching tolerance to varieties of English worldwide.

The concept of English teaching will therefore also change in terms of authenticity – *authentic* meaning *coming from any users of English on the global scale*. Authentic materials in the classroom will then involve the inclusion of

the examples of real multi-national communication which involves specific ways of using English on a phonological, lexical, syntactic, and pragmatic level.

4.3. Errors

Another thing to be reconsidered with ELF concept in mind is the treatment of errors. Although they always appear in the process of language learning, the crucial difference refers to whether and to what extent they should be corrected. If the native speaker model is accepted, then any deviation from it is considered to be an error. On the other hand, if successful and effective communication is set as a goal, those errors that do not cause failure in communication should be allowed to let pass. They might take a lot of time and effort to be corrected in the classroom which, in the ELF conception, is not necessary to do. David Nunan (2003, p. 592), instead of using the modern SWOT[6] analysis, uses its sterner economic counterpart: the CBA – costs and benefits analysis. In terms of these analyses, the supposed urgency in language learning or needs analysis in ESP, seems to start obtaining for GE as well. Learning general English in the past used to mean, primarily, a slow and long-lasting process. In this respect, GE was untouchable.

The 21st century, however, finds it too slow for the whole-functioning world – therefore the afore-mentioned needs analysis should be applied to it as well and this involves a new division, important for teaching and learning: do the students need English for communicating with NSs or for communication with the world (other non-native speakers of English). The knowledge gained for either purpose should be adequate. In that case, the unattainable teaching goal of achieving the native-speakers' proficiency in terms of their "linguistic subtleties and cultural allusions" (Medgyes, 2001, p. 417) should be redefined. The English learners could be spared unnecessary efforts if they are to use English for international communication, which mostly excludes native speakers.

4.4. Evaluation

Assessment or evaluation will also be an extremely difficult part of the teaching process. Two terms important for any language pragmatics, use and

[6] Strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats.

acceptability, will work as criteria for excellence. Acceptability does not exist in the abstract, it is, rather, always associated with the uses of the language. National identities are not to be hidden either in international communication or in the classroom. Canagaraja, for example, stresses the fact that "not every instance of nonstandard usage by a student is an unwitting error, sometimes it is an active choice motivated by important cultural and ideological considerations" (Canagaraja, 2006, p. 609). In the classroom, therefore, the recognition of these factors involves the extremely strenuous effort on the part of the teacher to recognise the acceptable and systematic forms that are different from inner circle forms, and also to identify accommodation in the communication among the learners.

5. Conclusion

Although language change is accepted as truism, teaching language change is still debatable but certainly extremely difficult, because it means doing away with two things: the fixed NS model and the relatively complete control of the situation in the monolingual classroom. Both these things are difficult to achieve in themselves. With the changed model, however, the lack of control over the processes of teaching and learning makes the job more difficult for teachers, who should become very attentive to what is going on with English in the world and what effects the teaching process could produce in the learners in the shortest possible time and with the least possible effort. In other words, according to David Crystal,

> one has got to prepare students for the real world of English. And that means, I think, introducing into one's classes, little by little, over the period of their learning, an exposure to the variety of Englishes around the world, so they are not put off when they first encounter them, so they are not scared of them... (Rasulić, 2009, p. 247).

Apart from the 'what', the question 'how' is also to be tackled. A 'compact teaching method' in the classical sense of the word, as an all-embracing whole comprising certain theoretical assumptions and practice or techniques used to achieve these assumptions, is dead. The differing learning outcomes have already become much more important and they simply make teachers use different approaches, rather than fixed methods, in the same course. The future teaching of English will also have to be different; it will

have to become a conglomeration of the past methods and approaches.[7] Grammar-Translation Method, chronologically the first one in English teaching and definitely thought of as outdated, has its merits for ELF teaching in the realisation of the importance of comparing the learner's native language and the target language (English) or of the process of translation that mostly takes place in English learning and international communication, with all its consequences involved. Direct Method introduced important issues with its emphasis on speech and vocabulary, and the importance of self-correction in language learning. Culture, in this concept, acquired a new, much broader meaning compared to the previous method, with its inclusion into the classroom of everyday life of ordinary people, i.e. the life that is recognisable as important for the majority of language users. Audio-Lingual Method also emphasised oral/aural skills and everyday behaviour and lifestyle of the English language speakers. Subsequent approaches, Silent Way, Desuggestopedia, Community Language Learning and Total Physical Response, tried to emphasise the role of the learner, insisting on the process of learning, in which learners should feel relaxed, and not intimidated by the goal of achieving the NS model. These approaches find errors necessary in learning the language, and peer-correction is allowed as an important mechanism in the process. Unlike the highly controlled input in Grammar-Translation and Audio-Lingual Methods, in these 'participatory' approaches it is less controllable. The goal that is set in communicative language teaching, i.e. linguistic, but also equally important and distinctive, communicative competence, resembles the goals of ELF teaching; the situational context and interlocutors dictate what grammar and vocabulary is to be taught and learnt: errors are tolerated because they are regarded as part of developing communication skills, and other students or learners are encouraged to help and negotiate the meaning.

In the face of the wide use of English in international communication, the chief challenge facing ELT specialists in the 21st century, therefore, "will need to be grounded in a dynamic linguistic relativism recognising as axiomatic the notions of variation and change" (Crystal, 1999b, p. 22). In spite of the EU recognition of another need i.e. the need to preserve every living language or language diversity in the world sublimated in the term 'multilingualism' or rather 'plurilingualism' (*Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*, 2001), the opposing tendency to use a single

[7] The following part is based on Larsen-Freeman (2000).

international language is quite obvious and legitimate. Alastair Pennycook, led by practical reasons, holds that "to promote diversity is simply to deny people access to the most important language of our time, English" (Pennycook, year, p. 1). As it is also important to see that it is another diversity operating here, namely the diversity within English which involves WEs and ELF or the use of English for communication on the global scale. If there is "no true standstill in language" (Humboldt in Aitchison, 2001, p. 1) and if change is a prerequisite for longevity, this fact is supposed to increase the viability of English contrary to some fears that English is being endangered. When ELF is concerned, it fits within the realm of lingua francas throughout the world's history. While "it is futile to resist the rise of lingua francas altogether, multilingualism has not lost its significance and it remains key in the development of true cross-cultural awareness and cosmopolitanism" (Johnson, 2009, p. 159). Along with the native languages therefore, there should be a lingua franca for international communication in the 21st century.

Consequently, the close and inherent association between language and culture, also connected with the notion of 'nation', does not hold when a language, like English, becomes international or multinational. The newly created situation calls for reconsideration of the classroom practices and the first implication is doing away with "an exonormative native-speaker model" (Kirkpatrick in Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 204). It is also important to see that in the English language classroom, as any other foreign language classroom, students always waver between two languages and that there is always some intermixing of languages and cultures. Furthermore, the goal of learning English in the era of ELF is not to annihilate any of these two languages or cultures. The legitimate goal is also for English language users to express their own culture in English. English in this case therefore serves a double function for them. If that is so, there is no danger of other languages being wiped out by English. English as a lingua franca, or English as a contact language, has its own functions – one is to accept the influence of other world languages and cultures.

References

Aitchison, J. (2001). *Language Change: Progress or Decay*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Brumfit, C.J. (1978). The English Language, Ideolo gy and International Communication. In The British Council: *English as an International Language*, 15-24.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2006). The Place of Worls Englishes in Composition: Pluralization Continued. *College Composition and Communication*, 57(4), 586-619.

Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment. (2001). Strasbourg: Council for Cultural Cooperation, Education Committee, Modern Languages Division.

Crystal, D. (1999a). Prologue: The Future of Englishes. In C. Kennedy (Ed.) *Innovation and best practice* (pp. 9-22). London: Longman.

Crystal, D. (1999b). *World English: Past, Present, Future*. Paper to the ASKO Europa-Stiftung Symposium, 11-13 June 1999. Retrieved from: http://ww.davidcrystal.com/DC_articles/English28.pdf

Crystal, D. (2001). Global Understanding for Global English. *Vestnik MGU*. Ser.19. Lingvistika i mežkulturna kommunikacia, 4, 13-28.

Crystal, D. (2001). *Twenty-first century English.* Keynote speech to IATEFL Annual Conference, March 2001, 1-14. Retrieved from: http://ww.davidcrystal.com/DC_articles/Internet10.pdf

Crystal, D. (2005). *English and the Communication of Science.* A conference held at the English Speaking Union, London, 10 March 2005. (pp. 20-33). Retrieved from: http://ww.davidcrystal.com/DC_articles/English2.pdf

Huntington, S. P. (1996). *The Clash of Civilizations and the Remaking of World Order.* New York: Simon and Schuster Paperbacks.

Jenkins, J. (2006). Current Perspectives on Teaching World Englishes and English as a Lingua Franca. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(1), 157-181.

Jenkins, J. (2007). *English as a Lingua Franca: Attitude and Identity*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Johnson, A. (2009). The Rise of English: The Language of Globalization in China and the European Union. *Macalester International*, 22, 131-168.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994). The Postmethod Condition: (E)merging Strategies for Second/Foreign Language Teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28(1), 27-48.

Larsen-Freeman, Diane (2000). *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Lester, Mark (1978). International English and Language Variation. In The British Council: *English as an International Language,* 6-14.

Mahboob, A. (2005). Beyond the Native Speaker in TESOL. *Culture, context, & communication*, 60-93.

McArthur, T. (2001). World English and world Englishes: Trends, tensions, varieties, and standards. *Language Teaching*, 34, 1-20. doi:10.1017/S0261444800016062.

McKay, S. L. (2003). Toward an appropriate EIL pedagogy: re-examining common ELT assumptions. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 13(1), 1-22.

Medgyes, P. (2001). When the Teacher Is a Non-native Speaker. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (pp. 415-428). Boston: Heinle and Heinle.

Nunan, D. (1988). *The Learner-Centred Curriculum*. Cambridge: CUP.

Nunan, D. (2003). The Impact of English as a Global Language on Educational Policies and Practices in the Asia-Pacific Region. *TESOL Quarterly*, 37(4), 589-613.

Park, G. (2012). "I Am Never Afraid of Being Recognized as an NNES", One Teacher's Journey in Claiming and Embracing Her Nonnative-Speaker Identity. *TESOL Quarterly*, 46, 127-151.

Paunović, T. (2013). *The Tangled Web: Intercultural Communicative Competence in EFL.* Niš: Faculty of Philosophy.

Pennycook, Alastair: Theoretical and pedagogical implications of the global spread of English. (www.santiago.cu/hosting/../descargar.php?d=13; 3 November 2014).

Rasulić, K. (2009). Interview: David Crystal - 'A Nation Without a Language Is a Nation Without a Heart'. *Belgrade BELLS*, 231-254.

Robinson, P. (2007). ESP in the 21st century: New challenges, new needs. In *Language for Specific Purposes* – conference proceedings. Podgorica: University of Montenegro – Institute of Foreign Languages, 142-147.

Savignon, S. J. (2002). *Interpreting Communicative Language Teaching*. New Haven, Yale University Press.

Seidlhofer, B. (Ed.) (2003). *Controversies in Applied Linguistics*. Oxford: OUP.

Seidlhofer, B. (2011). *Understanding English as a Lingua Franca*. Oxford: OUP.

Strevens, P. (1987). English as an International Language. *English Teaching Forum*, 25(4), 56-63.

The British Council (1978). *English as an International Language*. London.

Webster's New World Dictionary (1988). New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc.

Widdowson, H.G. (1994). The Ownership of English. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28(2), 377-389.

Milevica Bojović[1]
Faculty of Agronomy Čačak
University of Kragujevac
Serbia

STRATEGIES IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING: SPEAKING STRATEGIES AND ORAL ACTIVITIES IN EFL/ESP CLASSROOM

Abstract
Language learning strategies are techniques that learners apply in order to acquire knowledge of a foreign language, and develop and improve foreign language skills. Since foreign language speaking skill present an important constituent of foreign language learning skills, speaking strategies are vital segment of language learning strategies. Various classifications of language learning strategies are illustrated. The study examines biotechnology engineering undergraduate students' use of speaking strategies in the English as a foreign language classroom context. The classroom foreign language speaking activities are evaluated. Two instruments were applied: Strategy inventory in foreign language speaking skills and Students' oral practice classroom activities evaluation scale. The results show that the overall use of speaking strategies in English as a foreign language is frequent among the participants. The findings indicate that students' use of speaking strategies is related to their evaluation of the classroom speaking activities.

Key words: classroom context, English as a foreign language, speaking activities, strategies.

∞∞∞∞

1. Introduction

Since the pioneering work carried out in the 1970s (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975) there has been awareness that language learning strategies are highly

[1] milevicabojovic@gmail.com

important in gaining command over second language skills (O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, & Kupper, 1985, p. 557).

The word *strategy* is of Greek origin (*stratēgia,* meaning generalship or the art of war) and presents a careful plan or method for achieving a particular goal usually over a long period of time or the skill of making or carrying out plans to achieve a goal (Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary) or a plan of action designed to achieve a long-term or overall aim (Oxford Dictionaries). The term implies conscious movement toward a goal. Learning strategies present the special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn or retain new information (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 1) or operations used by the learner to help the acquisition, storage, or retrieval of information (Rigney, 1978, according to Oxford, 1989a, p. 235, and Oxford and Crookall, 1989, p. 404). Learning strategies are also defined as "specific actions, behaviours, steps, or techniques — such as seeking out conversation partners, or giving oneself encouragement to tackle a difficult language task — used by students to enhance their own learning" (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992, p. 63, cited in Oxford, 1999, p. 110).

One of the earliest researchers in this field, Rubin (1975, p. 43) provided a very broad definition of foreign language learning strategies as "techniques or devices that learners apply in order to acquire knowledge of a foreign language". Oxford and Crookall (1989) defined language learning strategies as "the behaviours used by learners to move toward proficiency or competence in second or foreign language" (p. 404). They noted that strategies may be used consciously but they can also become habitual and automatic with practice. Language learning strategies are also defined as "specific actions or techniques that students use, often intentionally, to improve their progress in developing foreign language skills" (Green & Oxford, 1995, p. 262). The penultimate goal of language learning strategies is to enable the learner to accomplish individual learning tasks (Richards & Lockhart, 1996), and the ultimate goal is to promote language proficiency (Tudor, 1996) so that the learner can use the language outside the classroom.

2. Theoretical background

Concerning the development of research in foreign language learning strategies, the studies of language learning strategies started in the early 1970s (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975), centered on "good language learners", and explored their characteristics, personality, or strategy use. Those studies

offered a number of strategies used by good language learners. Rubin (1975) suggested that good language learners demonstrate a series of characteristics described as follows: being willing and accurate guessers, having a strong, preserving drive to communicate, being uninhibited and willing to make mistakes, attending to the form, taking advantages of all practice opportunities, monitoring his or her own speech as well as that of others, and paying attention to meaning. In her later research, Rubin (1981) identified cognitive strategies in foreign language learning and introduced the distinction between direct and indirect language learning strategies. The first primary category refers to the strategies that directly affect learning and involves clarification/verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing, deductive reasoning, and practice (Rubin, 1981, pp. 124-126). The second primary category considers the processes that contribute indirectly to learning such as creating opportunities for practice and production tricks, corresponding largely to Tarone's communication strategies (Tarone, 1978, p. 197).

Working at much the same time as Rubin, Stern (1975, p. 131) produced a list of ten language learning strategies which he believed to be characteristic of good language learners. At the top of the list he put personal learning style, and then an active approach to the learning task, a tolerant and outgoing approach to the target language and empathy with its speakers, technical know-how about how to tackle a language, strategies of experimentation and planning with the object of developing the new language into an ordered system and of revising this system progressively, constantly searching for meaning, and willingness to practice.

Later, in the 1980s, Carver (1984, p. 125-126) proposed a taxonomy of learner strategies. The taxonomy involved:

- strategies for coping with target language rules, which are neutral with regard to reception and production; the following processes come into this group – generalization, transfer from mother tongue or first language (L1), simplification, reinterpretation, hypercorrection, elimination of register differences;
- strategies for receiving performance, which are concerned with coping with the reception of language performance; these sets include devices such as inferring (from probability and knowledge of the world), predicting (from contextual clues), checking (by

rereading/replaying/asking for repetition, by asking for simplification or for confirmation of one's own interpretation), identifying key terms (from frequency, knowledge of context, chance);

- strategies for producing language performance would involve repeating (sentences, key elements, phatic elements), labelling discourse elements (by enumeration, by function), lifting elements of interlocutor's knowledge (sentences, expression, ideas), rehearsing before production, monitoring reception of message (by question tags, by requesting comment or reply), using routines; and
- strategies for organizing learning – this set is related to the learner's organization of the learning task; it includes the concepts such as repetition, cognition, whole or part learning, concentrated or spaced learning, peer group contact, contact with teacher, revision, using reference material, trying out and practicing.

In an attempt to produce a classification with mutually exclusive categories, O'Malley et al. (1985) developed their own taxonomy identifying twenty-six strategies which they divided into three categories:

- metacognitive strategies refer to executive function and involve strategies which require planning for learning, thinking about learning process as it is taking place, monitoring of one's production or comprehension, evaluating learning after an activity is completed;
- cognitive strategies are more limited to specific learning tasks and they involve more direct manipulation of the learning material itself such as repetition, resourcing, translation, grouping, note taking, deduction, recombination, imagery, auditory representation, key word, contextualization, elaboration, transfer, inferencing;
- socio-affective strategies are related with social mediating activity and transacting with others involving cooperation, question for clarification.

The metacognitive and cognitive categories correspond approximately with Rubin's indirect and direct strategies. However, the addition of the social mediation category was an important step in acknowledging the importance of interactional strategies in language learning.

Oxford (1990) took this process a step further. She synthesized earlier work on good language learning strategies (see above; also Ramirez, 1986; Stern 1983). The resulting strategy system suggests that good language learners use strategies in six broad groups:

- *memory strategies* for getting information into memory and recalling it when needed (e.g., creating mental linkages, applying images and sound, rhyming, reviewing well, employing action);
- *cognitive strategies* for associating new information with existing information in long-term memory and for forming and revising internal mental models (e.g., practicing, receiving and sending massages, analyzing and reasoning, summarizing, creating structure for input and output);
- *compensation strategies* for overcoming deficiencies in knowledge of the language (e.g., guessing intelligently while listening and reading, using circumlocutions while speaking and writing, overcoming limitations in speaking and writing)
- *metacognitive strategies* for managing one's own learning process and exercising executive control through planning, consciously searching for practice opportunities, arranging, focusing and evaluating the learning process (paying attention, self-evaluating, self-monitoring);
- *affective strategies* for directing feelings, motivations, and attitudes related to language learning (anxiety reduction, self-encouragement, self-reward); and
- *social strategies* for working with others to learn the language, for interacting with others and managing discourse like asking questions, being culturally aware, cooperating with others, empathizing with others.

These six strategies were further divided into direct and indirect strategies. Direct strategies are those which directly deal with learning the language itself and mental processes of the language (such as reviewing and practicing) involving memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies. Indirect strategies provide indirect support for language learning (such as planning, cooperating, seeking opportunities) and involve metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. Oxford (1990) acknowledges the possibility that the categories will overlap, and gives as an example the metacognitive

strategy of planning, which, in as far as planning requires reasoning, might also be considered a cognitive strategy. Oxford (1990, p. 49) justifies including such behaviours as learning strategies on the grounds that they "help learners become more fluent in what they already know [and] may lead learners to gain new information about what is appropriate or permissible in the target language". However, she admits that there is not complete agreement how many strategies exist, what they are, how they should be defined and categorized (Oxford, 1990, p. 17).

2.1. Strategies of speaking in a foreign language

As illustrated above, language learner strategies are often classified according to their psychological functions into cognitive, metacognitive or socio-affective (O'Malley et al., 1985) or memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social strategies (Oxford, 1990). They also can be classified according to skill area - four language skills, i.e., reading, writing, listening, and speaking (Cohen & Weaver, 2006). In this approach, strategies are viewed in terms of their role in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. In performing language tasks in and out of the classroom, language learners can employ language learning strategies across language skills.

Strategies of speaking present a vital segment of foreign language learning strategies. Speaking strategies are assumed to be used by foreign language learners to exercise their oral performance in the target language. Here, speaking strategies are seen as language strategies used for the productive skill in the oral mode. Speaking strategies are used to practice speaking, engage in conversation, and keep the conversation going when words or expressions are lacking. The whole concept of speaking strategies is based on the Oxford's taxonomy of language learning strategies (1990) and involves categories included in the taxonomy – memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, and affective strategies. It is important to emphasize that one of the basic features of learner strategies is that they are naturally not used separately but in sequences or clusters (Cohen & Weaver, 2006).

3. Purpose of the study

The present study examines biotechnology engineering undergraduate students' use of speaking strategies in English as a foreign language (EFL) in

the classroom context. The aim of this study is to determine the students' use of speaking strategies in EFL, the levels of evaluated parameters of foreign language (FL) classroom oral performance as well as the potential relationships between the students' speaking strategies and students' evaluation of foreign language classroom speaking activities.

The main hypothesis in the study is that the students' use of speaking strategies in EFL is related to their evaluation of EFL classroom speaking activities.

4. Research methodology

4.1. Participants

The sample involved 60 participants, students of the Faculty of Agronomy in Čačak, University in Kragujevac, Serbia. The participants were undergraduate students, prospective engineers in the field of biotechnical sciences (food technology, agronomy, and agricultural economy), learning EFL - more precisely, learning English for Specific Purposes (ESP).

4.2. Variables

The variables used in the study are as follows:

1) foreign language speaking strategies, including memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, and affective strategies;
2) speaking practice in a foreign language, particularly in the ESP classroom including the students' evaluation of: the frequency of speaking activities in the FL classroom; the effects of FL classroom speaking activities on foreign language communication; the difficulty of FL speaking exercises; the frequency of FL speaking practice - previous experience (at primary and secondary education levels); and, students' self-confidence in successful FL speaking performance.

4.3. Instruments

The research instruments include the *Strategy Inventory for Foreign Language Speaking Skills* (SIFLSS), based on the Strategy Inventory for

Language Learning or SILL (Oxford, 1989b), and the *Students' classroom speaking activities evaluation scale* (Bojović, 2012).

SIFLSS items measure students' evaluation of their own use of speaking strategies in EFL from the perspective of overall use of speaking strategies, and, in particular, memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, and affective strategies. The instrument was based on the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), Version 7.0, for measuring strategies for learning English as a foreign/second language (EFL/ESL) (Oxford, 1989b). The instrument items considering speaking strategies were extracted from original SILL scale. The SIFLSS scale consists of 20 items and is of the Likert-type, with choices ranging from "never or almost never true of me" (1) to "always or almost always true of me" (5). Items in the SIFLSS are grouped into previously mentioned strategy categories: memory-related, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, and affective.

Students' classroom speaking activities evaluation scale (Bojović, 2012) measures the frequency of speaking practice in the FL classroom and past experience (in primary and secondary education), the effects of FL classroom speaking practice on FL communication, the difficulty of FL speaking exercises, and students' self-confidence in successful FL speaking performance. It is also a five-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 to 5 – the low end indicating low frequency of speaking practice in the FL, negative effects of FL speaking activities on FL communication skills, high level of difficulty of FL speaking exercises and low level of students' self-confidence and vice versa.

4.4. Procedures

The instruments were used as the data collection instruments in the study. They were administered to the participants by their English language teacher during their regular lectures. The lectures involved regular classroom activities based on communicative approach, content-based approach, and process-oriented language learning. The teaching process reflects the contents, methods, tasks and procedures typical for the biotechnical engineering profession including development of speaking skills through diverse activities (e.g., descriptions, presentations, discussions, simulations, negotiations, conflict resolving, role-plays).

The measures of descriptive statistics (frequency analysis, mean values and standard deviation) and correlation statistics were used for data processing. The obtained data were analyzed using *SPSS 13.0 Package for*

Windows. For the Likert-scaled strategy-use items of the SIFLSS, the following key helped to interpret the means: mean values from 3.5 to 5.0 indicate high use, from 2.5 to 3.4, medium use, and from 1.0 to 2.4, low use (Oxford, 1990).

5. Results

In this study the SIFLSS, the instrument used for measuring students' use of speaking strategies in EFL, is found to be reliable and internally consistent since the coefficient Cronbach's alpha is r=0.83. This result is within the scope of the values found in the literature for the SILL, on which the SIFLSS is based, ranging from 0.81 to 0.94 (Lee & Oxford, 2008; Liu & Chang, 2013; Murray, 2010; Oh, 1992; Olivares-Cuhat, 2010; Oxford et al., 1989; Park, 1994; Talbot; 1993, cited in Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Yang, 1999; Yang, 2010).

5.1. Levels of students' use of speaking strategies and classroom speaking activities

The results obtained by frequency analysis reveal that the majority of participants (55%) use speaking strategies in EFL frequently; less than half of respondents (41.6%) show medium use of speaking strategies, while only 3.4% of respondents use speaking strategies rarely.

The undergraduate biotechnology engineering students' generally use all five of speaking strategies examined. The range of mean values of the scale is from 1 to 5 – the low end indicating low use of speaking strategies, the high end of the scale indicating frequent use of speaking strategies. Analyzing the results obtained by the measures of descriptive statistics (mean values and standard deviation) and illustrated in Table 1, it can be concluded that overall use of EFL speaking strategies is frequent since the means of overall speaking strategy use is M=3.55. The detailed results of five categories of FL speaking strategies are shown in Table 1. Among these five categories of speaking strategies, metacognitive strategies are used most frequently (M=4.03) and cognitive strategies are used least frequently (M=3.19). In other words, biotechnology university students use metacognitive strategies and affective strategies (M=3.69) at high level. On the other hand, compensation, memory, and cognitive strategies are used at medium level (mean values being M=3.48, M=3.41, and M=3.19, respectively).

Table 1: *Students' use of speaking strategies in ESP classroom*

Speaking strategies – subcategories	Possible scores	M	SD
Memory strategies	1-5	3.41	.576
Cognitive strategies	1-5	3.19	.680
Compensation strategies	1-5	3.48	.516
Metacognitive strategies	1-5	**4.03**	.528
Affective strategies	1-5	**3.69**	.746
Overall speaking strategies	1-5	**3.55**	.459
N = 60			

M – mean value, SD – standard deviation, N – number of participants

Analyzing the results of students' evaluation of FL classroom speaking activities and its factors, it can be concluded that (Table 2) the frequency of speaking practice in the FL classroom was high (M= 4.15), the practice of speaking in the FL classroom has highly positive effects on communication in EFL (M=4.50), the difficulty of speaking exercises in English language classes is moderate (M=3.22). Furthermore, at primary and secondary education levels, the speaking practice in EFL was far less frequent (moderate frequency tending to lower frequency where the mean value is M=2.87) compared to tertiary education level; and finally, students perceive themselves as self-confident in successful English language speaking performance in the classroom context (M=3.67).

Table 2: *Students' evaluation of FL classroom speaking activities*

FL classroom speaking activities - categories	Possible scores	M	SD
Frequency of speaking practice in FL classroom	1-5	4.15	.840
Effects of FL speaking practice on FL communication	1-5	4.50	.624
Difficulty of FL speaking exercises	1-5	3.22	.691
Frequency of FL speaking practice - former experience	1-5	2.87	1.241
Self-confidence in successful FL speaking performance	1-5	3.62	.783
Overall classroom speaking activities	1-5	3.67	.440
N = 60			

FL - foreign language, M – mean value, SD – standard deviation, N – number of participants

5.2. Foreign language speaking strategies and speaking activities in ESP classroom: relationships

In an attempt to determine the potential relations between EFL speaking strategies and students' evaluation of foreign language speaking activities, the correlation analysis was carried out and the results are presented in Table 3.

The correlation coefficient between foreign language speaking strategies and foreign language classroom speaking activities was calculated with a Pearson product-moment correlation. Positive correlations mean that higher scores of SIFLSS mean higher scores of students' evaluation of FL classroom speaking activities. On the other hand, negative correlations mean that higher scores of SIFLSS mean lower scores of students' evaluation of FL speaking activities and vice versa.

The findings indicate that speaking strategies are related to the student's evaluation of classroom speaking activities in EFL. The correlation between overall speaking strategies and students' evaluation of speaking activities in ESP classroom exists (Table 3); however, the correlation is not statistically significant ($r=0.22$, $p > 0.05$). The students' evaluation of overall EFL classroom speaking activities showed weak positive correlations with cognitive ($r=0.30$, $p=0.021$, $p < 0.05$) and affective strategies ($r=0.29$, $p=0.024$, $p < 0.05$) (Table 3). Furthermore, the participants' overall use of speaking strategies also showed a weak positive correlation with students' self-confidence regarding successful speaking performance in EFL ($r=0.27$, $p=0.040$, $p < 0.05$) and significant positive correlation with the evaluated effects of speaking activities on FL communication ($r=0.37$, $p=0.004$, $p < 0.01$). More specifically, cognitive strategies showed a weak positive correlation with the evaluated frequency of speaking activities in the classroom ($r=0.28$, $p=0.033$, $p < 0.05$) while affective strategies produced a significant positive correlation with students' self-confidence in performing speaking tasks in the classroom ($r=0.46$, $p=0.000$, $p < 0.01$).

The effects of speaking activities on communication in a foreign language, evaluated by the students participating in the study, showed a weak correlation with cognitive strategies ($r=0.30$, $p=0.020$, $p < 0.05$) and significant correlations with metacognitive ($r=0.39$, $p=0.002$, $p < 0.01$), and affective strategies ($r=0.39$, $p=0.002$, $p < 0.01$) (Table 3).

Table 3: *Correlation of EFL speaking strategies and evaluation of speaking activities*

EFL classroom speaking activities	**FL speaking strategies**					
	Memory	Cognitive	Compensation	Meta-cognitive	Affective	Overall
Frequency of speaking practice in FL classroom	.19	**.28***	.07	-.05	.24	.20
Effects of FL speaking on FL communication	.23	**.30***	.12	**.39****	**.39****	**.37****
Difficulty of FL speaking exercises	-.06	-.22	-.22.	-.11	-.21	-.21
Frequency of FL speaking practice - former experience	-.06	.21	.02	-.11	-.02	.01
Self-confidence in successful FL speaking performance	.08	.16	.13	.22	**.46*****	**.27***
Overall classroom speaking activities	.10	**.30***	.05	.07	**.29***	.22
N = 60 ***p < 0.001 **p < 0.01 *p < 0.05						

FL - foreign language, EFL – English as a foreign language, N – number of participants, p – statistical significance

6. Discussion

The findings revealed that students' overall use of speaking strategies in EFL/ESP is at high frequency level. This result is not in accordance with the results obtained in other researches studying university/college EFL learners'

use of language learning strategies (Chang, Liu & Lee, 2007; Khalil, 2005; Lee & Oxford, 2008; Zhang & Liu, 2005; Yang, 2010) or the researches studying the use of language learning strategies by the learners of Spanish as a second language (Olivares-Cuhat, 2002) or learners of Korean as a foreign language (Murray, 2010) where students' overall use of language learning strategies, ranging from 2.50 to 3.49, was at medium level.

The results also revealed that the students' use of metacognitive strategies was frequent, which is consistent with other studies (Khalil, 2005; Olivares-Cuhat, 2002). The students' use of affective strategies was also frequent, which is discrepant with most of the studies mentioned above reporting the medium level of use of affective strategies (Chang, Liu & Lee, 2007; Khalil, 2005; Murray, 2010; Olivares-Cuhat, 2002; Zhang & Liu, 2005; Yang, 2010) or even the low frequency level of use (Lee & Oxford, 2008). However, high frequency of use does not necessarily mean successful learning; it is more a matter of how effectively these strategies are implemented. The students also showed medium level of use of memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies when speaking in English as a foreign language. This fact is consistent with prior findings of the researches studying the use of language learning strategies in general (Chang, Liu & Lee, 2007; Khalil, 2005; Lee & Oxford, 2008; Murray, 2010; Zhang & Liu, 2005; Yang, 2010); however, the university students' frequent use of cognitive and compensation strategies is also recorded, mean value being M=3.70 for each strategy (Olivares-Cuhat, 2002).

The results of descriptive analysis in this study are generally not consistent with another research studying speaking strategy use (Morriam, 2005) in which both metacognitive and affective strategies remained at medium level of use while compensation and cognitive strategies were used frequently by the EFL university students (102 Japanese and 63 Bangladeshi students).

There is a paucity of research that considers students' evaluation of FL classroom speaking activities in terms of the students' perception of the frequency of speaking practice in academic and primary/secondary school contexts, the possible impact of classroom speaking practice on FL communication, the difficulty of speaking exercises in FL/EFL classroom, and their own self-confidence in successful FL oral performance (Bojović, 2012). The results obtained in this study revealed that the speaking activities in EFL/ESP are significantly more frequent in academic learning context than in primary/secondary education context. In the students' opinion, FL speaking

exercises in the classroom context have significant effects on communication skills in a foreign language. In the classroom environment where much attention is paid to students' regular oral performance, students feel self-confident when they speak in English classes; in addition, they also think that speaking exercises are not particularly difficult. Recent research indicates (Bojović, 2014b) that students whose duration of EFL/ESP instruction at university level was different evaluated speaking activities in a similar way, except for the category the frequency of speaking activities in the classroom context; the longer the students are exposed to EFL/ESP instruction, the more frequent classroom speaking activities are perceived. It seems that the length of ESP instruction may play a greater role in students' evaluation of how often speaking activities are practiced in the classroom. An earlier study (Bojović, 2014a) suggested that students' evaluation of FL classroom speaking activities is related to their levels of foreign language anxiety; lower levels of foreign language anxiety, particularly lower levels of communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation, indicate students' affirmative evaluation of FL classroom oral practice in terms of the frequency of speaking exercises and their lower difficulty, and higher levels of students' self-confidence.

The findings also revealed that students' use of speaking strategies is related with the student's evaluation of FL classroom speaking activities. Generally, students' positive evaluation of speaking activities in the classroom indicates students' more frequent use of overall strategies of foreign language speaking, particularly more frequent use of cognitive and affective strategies. The strongest relationships exist between cognitive and affective strategies, and students' perception of classroom speaking activities.

Cognitive and affective strategies are prominent strategies since they are correlated with several categories of speaking practice evaluation. The students' frequent practice of speaking activities in the ESP classroom indicates the increased use of cognitive strategies; the increased use of affective strategies contributes to students' higher level of self-confidence in successful oral performance in the FL classroom. It is important to underline that students' self-confidence is increased particularly if the use of affective strategies is increased. The association between low self-confidence in language ability and dynamic factors such as higher level of anxiety are identified in quantitative (Clement et al., 1977; MacIntyre et al., 1997) and qualitative studies (Cohen & Norst, 1989). Furthermore, students who

perceive the effects of FL speaking exercises on FL as highly important use cognitive, metacognitive, and affective strategies frequently.

The correlation data indicate that memory and compensation strategies are those variables of speaking strategies that are not correlated with the students' perception of the frequency of speaking activities in the classroom, the difficulty of speaking activities, the possible effects of speaking exercises on FL communication, and students' self-confidence in successful FL peaking performance. This could provide an interesting avenue for further research.

7. Conclusion

This study sought to explore some tendency of the use of speaking strategies of university students learning English as a foreign language and to determine the relationship between the students' use of speaking strategies and evaluation of classroom speaking practice.

The results of this study reveal that university students of biotechnology engineering use strategies in speaking English as a foreign language frequently and that they have positive attitude toward speaking activities in their ESP classes. The more speaking in a foreign language is practiced in the classroom context, the more frequent students' use of speaking strategies, particularly cognitive and affective strategies. Furthermore, the more self-confident students' are in successful FL speaking performance, the more frequent students' use of affective strategies is recorded. Finally, the more important the effects of FL speaking exercises on FL communication are in students' opinion, the more frequent the use of cognitive, metacognitive, and affective strategies is.

EFL teachers, as well as foreign language teachers in general, and language practitioners should provide students with enough opportunities to practice speaking in the classroom context. In this way the students/learners will have more chance to use and practice strategies of speaking and be more self-confident in their own foreign language speaking skills. Students' concerns about their active speech roles appear to fit well into learner-centre teaching/learning approach. One of the issues of the research discussion chapter is that students from different education environments might employ different language learning strategies as well as different strategies of speaking. Students' cultural background, education environment and experiences might be the variables affecting the strategy choices (Grainger, 2012; Lee, 2010; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985; Reid, 1987).

Using strategies of speaking in a foreign language has been the issue of various researches (Huang & van Naerssen, 1987; Nakatani, 2006; Nakatani, 2010). Future studies should be carried out across different types of groups. It can be argued that because the study context was homogenous in nature (the students were university level students of biotechnical sciences) the results of the current research can only be generalized to populations that share similar characteristics. It is meaningful to examine relationships between strategy use and conversation performance as well as to attempt to determine the potential predictors of oral communication strategy use.

References

Bojović, M. (2012). Anxiety in foreign language learning, 6th European Conference on Personality Psychology, Trieste, July 10-14, 2012. In L. Di Blas, A. Carnaghi, D. Ferrante, & V. Piccoli (Eds.), *Book of Abstracts*, PO2-33 (pp. 227-228). Retrieved from: http://www.eapp.org/meetings/conferences/ecp16/

Bojović, M. (2014a). Foreign language anxiety and classroom oral activities. In I. Živančević Sekeruš, Z. Jergović-Joksimović, & S. Halupka Rešetar (Eds.), *English studies today: Prospects and perspectives,* Selected papers from the 2nd International Conference on English Language and Anglophone Literatures Today (ELALT2) (pp. 149-162). Novi Sad: Filozofski fakultet.

Bojović, M. (2014b). Agronomy undergraduate students' evaluation of speaking foreign language classroom activities. International Conference Международная заочная научная конференция 2014 "Проблемы современной аграрной науки", Материалы международной заочной научной конференции, Секция №7: Разработка информационных и образовательных технологий, с целью повышения качества образования, Krasnoyarsk State Agrarian university, Krasnoyarsk, Russia, 15 October 2014. Retrieved from: http://www.kgau.ru/new/all/konferenc/konferenc/2014/g1.pdf

Chang, C. Y., Liu, S. C., & Lee, Y. N. (2007). Study of Language Learning Strategies Used by College EFL learners in Taiwan. Retrieved from: http://www.mdu.edu.tw/~ged/other%20download/bulletin/20070319/11.pdf

Clement, R., Gardener, R.C., & Smythe, P. C. (1977). Motivational variables in second language acquisition: A study of Francophones learning English. *Canadian Journal of Behavioral Science, 9*(2), 123-133. doi:10.1037/h0081614

Cohen, Y., & Norst, M. J. (1989). Fear, dependence, and loss of self-esteem: Affective barriers in second language learning among adults. *RELC Journal, 20*(2), 61-77. doi:10.1177/003368828902000206

Cohen, A. D., & Weaver, C. J. (2006). *Styles and strategies-based instruction: A teachers' guide.* Minneapolis, MN: Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition, University of Minnesota.

Grainger, P. (2012). The impact of cultural background on the choice of language learning strategies in the JFL context. *System, 40*(4), 483-493. doi:10.1016/j.system.2012.10.011

Green, J. M., & Oxford, R. (1995). A closer look at learning strategies, L2 proficiency, and gender. *TESOL Quarterly, 29*(2), 261-297. doi:10.2307/3587625

Huang, X., & Van Naerssen, M. (1986). Learning strategies for oral communication. *Applied Linguistics, 8*(3), 287-307. doi:10.1093/applin/8.3.287

Khalil, A. (2005). Assessment of language learning strategies used by Palestinian EFL learners. *Foreign Language Annals, 38*(1), 108-119. doi:10.1093/applin/8.3.287

Lee, C. K. (2010). An overview of language learning strategies. *ARECLS, 7*, 132-152. Retrieved from: http://research.ncl.ac.uk/ARECLS/vol7_documents/lee_vol7.pdf

Lee, K. R., & Oxford, R. (2008). Understanding EFL learners' strategy use and strategy awareness. *The Asian EFL Journal, 10*(1), 7-32. Retrieved from: http://www.asian-efl-journal.com/March_2008_EBook.pdf

Liu, H., & Chang, C. (2013). A study on language learning strategy use and its relation to academic self-concept: The case of EFL students in Taiwan. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 4*(2), 260-268. doi:10.4304/jltr.4.2.260-268

Morriam, Q. M. (2005). Speaking strategy use by the EFL students in Japan and Bangladesh. *Journal of International Development and Cooperation, 12*(1), 47-61. Retrieved from: http://ir.lib.hiroshima-u.ac.jp/files/public/29768/20141016172804894224/JIDC_12-1_47.pdf

Murray, B. (2010). Students' language learning strategy use and achievement in the Korean as a foreign language classroom. *Foreign Language Annals, 43*(4), 624-634. doi:10.1111/j.1944-9720.2010.01105.x

Nakatani, Y. (2006). Developing an oral communication strategy inventory. *The Modern Language Journal, 90*(2), 151-168. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4781.2006.00390.x

Nakatani, Y. (2010). Identifying strategies that facilitate EFL learners' oral communication: A classroom study using multiple data collection procedure. *The Modern Language Journal, 94*(1), 116-136. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2009.00987.x

Oh, J. (1992). Learning strategies used by university EFL students in Korea. *Language Teaching [Korea],* 1, 3-53.

Olivares-Cuhat, G. (2002). Learning strategies and achievement in the Spanish writing classroom: A case study. *Foreign Language Annals, 35*(5), 561-570. doi:10.1111/j.1944-9720.2002.tb02724.x

Olivares-Cuhat, G. (2010). Relative importance of learning variables on L2 performance. *Linguistik online, 43*(3/10), 99-116. Retrieved from http://www.linguistik-online.de/43_10/olivarescuhat.pdf, http://www.linguistik-online.de/43_10/olivarescuhat.html

O'Malley, J. M. & Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning strategies in language acquisition.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

O'Malley, J. M., Chamot, A. U., Stewner-Manzanares, G., Russo, R. P., & Kupper, L. (1985). Learning strategy applications with students of English as a second language, *TESOL Quarterly*, *19*(3), 557-584. doi:10.2307/3586278

Oxford, R. L. (1989a). Use of language learning strategies: A synthesis of studies with implications for strategy training. *System, 17*(2), 235-247. doi:10.1016/0346-251X(89)90036-5

Oxford, R. L. (1989b). Strategy Inventory for Language Learning. Retrieved from http:// www.finchpark.com/arts/sille.doc.

Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. New York: Newbury House.

Oxford, R. L. (1999). Relationships between second language learning strategies and language proficiency in the context of learner autonomy and self-regulation. *Revista Canaria de Estudios Ingleses, 38*, 109-126. Retrieved from: http://publica.webs.ull.es/upload/REV%20RECEI/38%20-%201999/08%20%28Rebecca%20L.%20Oxford%29.pdf

Oxford, R. L., & Burry-Stock, J. A. (1995). Assessing the use of language learning strategies worldwide with ESL/EFL version of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILLL). *System, 23*(1), 1-23. doi:10.1016/0346-251X(94)00047-A

Oxford, R. L., & Crookall, D. (1989). Research on language learning strategies: Methods, findings, and instructional issues. *The Modern Language Journal, 73*(4), 404-19. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4781.1989.tb05321.x

Politzer, R. L., & McGroarty, M. (1985). An exploratory study of learning behaviors and their relationships to gains in linguistic and communicative competence. *TESOL Quarterly, 19*(1), 103-123. doi:10.2307/3586774

Ramirez, A. G. (1986). Language learning strategies used by adolescents studying French in New York schools. *Foreign Language Annals, 19*(2), 131-138. doi:10.1111/j.1944-9720.1986.tb03108.x

Reid, J. M. (1987). The learning style preferences of ESL students. *TESOL Quarterly, 21*(1), 87-111. doi:10.2307/3586356

Richards, J. C., & Lockhart, C. (1996). *Reflective Teaching in Second Language Classrooms.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Rubin, J. (1975). What the "good language learner" can teach us? *TESOL Quarterly, 9*(1), 41-51. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/3586011

Stern H. H. (1975). What Can We Learn from the Good Language Learner? *Canadian Modern Language Review, 31*(4), 304-18.

Stern H. H. (1983). *Fundamental concepts in language teaching.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Strategy. (n.d.). In *Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary* (11th ed.). Retrieved from: http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/strategy

Strategy. (n.d.). In *Oxford Dictionaries, Language matters.* Retrieved from: http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/strategy

Tarone, E. (1978). Conscious communication strategies in interlanguage: A progress report. In H. D. Brown, C. Yorio, & R. Crymes (Eds.), *On TESOL '77: Teaching and learning ESL* (pp. 194-203). Washington D.C.: TESOL.

Tudor, I. (1996). *Learner-centredness as Language Education.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Zhang, X., & Liu, Y. (2005). Language learning strategies and language achievement: Across-cultural study. *CELEA Journal, 28*(3), 82-89. Retrieved from: http://www.celea.org.cn/teic/61/61-82.pdf

Yang, M. (2010). *Language learning strategies of English as a foreign Language university students in Korea.* (Doctoral dissertation). The College of Graduate and Professional Studies Department of Curriculum, Instruction, and Media Technology, Indiana State University. Retrieved from: http://scholars.indstate.edu/handle/10484/968?mode=full

Yang, N. D. (1999). The relationship between EFL learners' beliefs and learning strategy use. *System, 27*(4), 515-535. doi:10.1016/S0346-251X(99)00048-2

Marina Janjić[1]
Mirjana Ilić[2]
Faculty of Philosophy
University of Niš
Serbia

METHODOLOGICAL PLURALISM OF ASSOCIATIVE RELATIONS IN TEACHING ANTONYMY

Abstract
The paper deals with modern organization of teaching antonyms using the associative learning methods, mind maps and the verbal associative method. In this paper, we start from the hypothesis that the proper antonymy is one of the basic principles of the mental lexicon organization, which means that it is in the basis of a language competence, that is, one of the basic principles of human cognition. In this way, we confirmed, in theory and in practice, constructivist teaching theories based on cognitive approach to teaching and language.

Key words: teaching constructivism, mind maps, associative learning, verbal association method, antonymy.

∞∞∞

1. Introduction

The theory of constructivism in teaching is based in the work of Piaget's who believed that children's self-activity encourages their cognitive development, in fact, that maximal cognitive level of a child of a certain age cannot be developed without encouraging experiences. Cognitive development is directed towards comprehension and explaining the outer world and the entire social life, so children who are not naturally exposed to

[1] marina.janjic@filfak.ni.ac.rs
[2] mirjana.ilic@filfak.ni.ac.rs

such an influence, not only possess less knowledge about life, but also that particular knowledge is structured differently in their minds. So, according to Piaget, the cognitive level is an equivalent to the level of the child's social adaptation to the environment. Intelligence represents the basic knowledge by which an individual socializes oneself, in other words, becomes socially adapted. In fact, intelligence is an entire system of the cognitive adaptation of the human species - a database of knowledge and cognitive functions which is integrated in knowledge representation. This theory is further on improved by his followers, but Lev Vygotsky went furthest in the development of the constructivist theory.

The theory of knowledge, known as constructivism, supports the attitude that the constructions of knowledge are "constructed" by an active engagement of a child in social interaction with the environment. It is a very important attitude that the development of speech is closely related to the development of intelligence and that speech represents reflection of the cognitive development level. At about seven years of age, a child becomes capable of 'a social speech', which means the previous egocentrism becomes a kind of a social collaboration and altruism. Social interaction between an active, thinking child and his or her social intelligence is the key to the intellectual (cognitive) development.

Based on all these, we can derive a new learning concept: learning is a construction of the new knowledge based on the reconstruction of the previous knowledge, which makes it a dynamic process directed from teacher to student. The principle of the conscious student's activity derives from the psychologists' attitude that mind is active in the knowledge construction and that by learning we create new constructions of thoughts and cognition. Knowledge is not acquired in a passive way; it is constructed in the reflexive (thinking) operations. "We invent concepts, models and schemes to get the meaning and the sense of an experience and we keep testing and modifying these constructions in the light of our new experience" (Gojkov, 2007, p. 27). Cognitive scheme or cognitive structure, which implies networking of cognitive resources and their functions, is the bases for the constructivist theory of reflexive upgrade.

What is especially important for modern teaching organization is the connectionist approach, in other words, the modern associationism. Student's mind processes information in the simultaneous and parallel way, not in the linear way. Student's mind is working actively whenever teacher, during language and literature lessons, activates reflexive activities such as:

comparison, sequencing, extrapolation, categorization, synthesis, transformation, incorporation, challenge, elimination, conclusion, interpretation, criticism, experiment and explanation. The strong network of reflexive associations between old knowledge and new knowledge is established in this way and it is applied to achieve long-term memory and to produce new knowledge and abilities. Such complex contemporary teaching, with its psychological basis, enables efficient didactic organizing which we would like to demonstrate on the example of doing antonyms in teaching Serbian grammar in primary schools. The modern teaching should use students' existing cognitive structures as a starting point for mastering the new ones. Connection with a language as a mental concept and cognitive repository is exceptionally representative in the case of antonymy, which is taken as a language phenomenon based on associative connections, since verbal associations are one of the basic principles of the organization of mental lexicon. Antonymy, as one of the main modus of organizing paradigmatic lexical relations, has its foundation in cognition, whereas successful learning implies that learning methods are based on the natural laws of human cognition. Therefore, the application of associative learning methods is an ideal framework for modern lexicology teaching, in general, and especially for antonymy.

1.1. Antonyms and antonymy

Antonyms are, in general, different lexemes with opposite meaning. However, this definition seems simple only at the first glance. The problem arises when we try to define meaning of 'oppositeness': "Oppositeness is perhaps the only sense relations to receive direct lexical recognition in everyday language. It is presumably, therefore, in some way cognitive primitive. However, it is quite hard to pin down exactly what oppositeness consists of" (Cruse, 2004, p. 162). In comprehension of antonymy, we distinguish (according to Šipka, 1998, p. 47) two approaches: antonymy in the narrower sense and antonymy in the broader sense. The first group (Katz, 1972) includes functional opposites (like sell: buy), while the second group (e.g. Palmer, 1976) does not share that view. Rajna Dragićević divides antonyms into proper and improper (Dragićević, 2010, p. 267). Proper antonyms are lexemes with opposite meanings (white-black, hot-cold) and we deal with improper antonyms when the primary meaning of a lexeme is opposed to the secondary meaning of another lexeme (dry and raw are opposed only when they refer to wood, Dragićević, 2010, p. 267). In this paper

we will stick to the definition given by Dragićević 2010, as well as to the division into proper and improper quasi antonyms.

1.2. Mental lexicon and antonymy

The mental lexicon theories start from the assumptions that words are organized into specific structures within the mental sphere. Researchers have not discovered completely what structures we deal with. There are several theories on the mental lexicon organization. One of them is the spider's web model (semantic network theory). This theory starts from the fact that the mental lexicon is a kind of a graph connected with lexemes in the form of nodes and paths, leading towards each of them. Some of the logical and lexical relations within the network impose themselves like being dominant. Aitchison (1987, p. 99) mentions: "[s]everal logical relationships recur in discussions of the lexicon. There are: synonymy, antonymy, incompatibility, hyponymy".

The verbal association tests led to the following results (Dragićević, 2010, p. 49):

1. Associations are always words which belong to the same semantic field as the word-stimulus.
2. If the word-stimulus denotes a term that occurs within a pair of words or has an antonym, association is the word by which we denote the second word within a pair of words or it is an antonym.
3. Associations are usually the same types of words (e.g. the most common response to a noun is a noun itself).

Verbal association tests have been used so far very successfully in the mental lexicon examinations and have shown to be equally successful as other methods used for the same purpose, such as: lapsus linguae, finding the right word at aphasia, the slips of the tongue tests, etc.

1.3. Verbal association method

Associations are induced into science by Aristotle. He was the first to point at the fact that associations played an important role in learning and memorizing. Aristotle distinguished three basic types of associations: associations by contiguity, by similarity and by contrast.

A. Associations by contiguity denote a connection of two experiences by space or by time.

B. Associations by similarity occur when an experience elicits recall of another experience, similar by shape, color, size and proportion.

C. Associations by contrast or by oppositeness occur when an experience elicits occurrence of another experience opposite to the first one by shape, size and meaning.

Nowadays, verbal associations represent the research method of the numerous science branches, particularly in psychology. They have been applied in psycholinguistics since the second half of the 20th century for different research types: linguo-cultural (Piper, 2004), lexicological (Dragićević, 2002, 2003) and grammatical researches (Stefanović, 2004).

When lexicological researches are in question, they can deal with paradigmatic and syntagmatic lexicological needs. "Antonymy, together with the associations test is shown as a systematic phenomenon, and oppositeness is represented as one of the leading logical relations, which has the strongest influence on paradigmatic lexical organization in language and cognitive domain" (Dragićević, 2010a, p. 62).

On this occasion, we will mention some examples of antonymy research using the method of verbal associations. Smiljka Vasić (1976) using the controlled associations test, examined the children of primary school age (from the second to the eighth year of education). They were asked to write an adjective, opposite in meaning for four words-stimuli: big, good, black and free. The research objective was to study the stages and principles in development of meanings of opposite adjectives. The conclusion was that opposite adjectives of a particular meaning were acquired faster than opposite adjectives of abstract meaning. It was also concluded that there were several stages in the development of comprehension of the opposites: at the first stage there was no antonym for an adjective, at the second stage the answer was any word except the word-stimulus, at the third stage the answer was negative form of the word-stimulus in descriptive form (e.g. nonbig), at the fourth stage it was "nonbig", and only at the fifth stage it was an antonym – small. In another similar research (Marković, 1993), the secondary school students were examined. They had a task to respond to six words-stimuli: old, dressed, shoed, fat, full and dry. The test results showed that the examinees usually chose proper antonyms, thus confirming that lexemes

were lexically correlated on the level of primary meanings, which means that it was correct to denote relation of oppositeness of primary meanings as a proper and typical antonymy.

Verbal associations can be divided into syntagmatic and paradigmatic associations. We will focus on paradigmatic associations because antonymy represents a paradigmatic relation in the lexicon of a language. Otherwise, the verbal association researches confirm that if the word-stimulus is a noun, then the results are mostly paradigmatic associations. When the word-stimulus is an adverb – the result is syntagmatic association. Adjectives and verbs bring about associations of both syntagmatic and paradigmatic types.

In the Associative Vocabulary of Serbian Language (AVSL) we can see the following: if the word – stimulus is a lexeme which is a part of an antonymic pair, in most cases the most frequent word – reaction is mostly the other member of the antonymic pair: white (AVSL,120) –snow (216), black (84); big (AVSL,134) – small (163); tall (AVSL, 141) – short (181); stupid (AVSL, 161) – clever (121); rude (AVSL, 167) – violent (57), gentle (52); losses (AVSL, 168) – gains (61), etc.

An antonym occurs as the most frequent word-reaction or, which is less often, finds itself on the second place. This fact, as well as the researches listed above, confirm the fact that antonymy represents a strong cognitive mechanism within the mental lexicon.

2. Teaching antonyms

Antonymy, being a complex lexicological issue, is taught only in the third year of secondary education, according to the plans and programmes of the Ministry of Education, the Republic of Serbia. In creating methodological approach to antonymy, we always start from the expected outcomes of teaching, regulated by the General Achievement Standards for Secondary Students (ch: 2 SJK 1.1.6.) suggesting that a student at the end of the secondary school, in accordance with the secondary education level, "should possess a certain lexical fund according to his educational level, make a difference between formal and informal lexicon and be able to apply it correctly. A student should possess basic knowledge about word meaning, recognize basic lexical relations (synonymy, antonymy, homonymy), recognize metaphor as a lexical mechanism…" (Institute for Evaluating Quality of Education and Upbringing, RS 2013) The level of knowledge of antonymy is in more details elaborated by the text book designed for

studying Serbian language in secondary schools. It should be emphasized that the role of the teacher is the most important thing in designing the teaching process.

Stanojcić and Popović, in their "Secondary School Grammar" define antonymy as a language phenomenon which occurs when two or more words "gather together" around two highly opposite meanings, that is, around two meanings which are, in fact, in correlation with high oppositeness (Stanojcić & Popović, 2005, p. 173). This definition is followed on the same page by a simplified graphicon with given: word x : word y, and their meaning is represented by arrows in opposite directions (meaning ← : meaning →). This, certainly, demonstrates opposite meaning.

Further on, there is a division of antonyms according to composition:

1) antonyms with different roots (*day-night, black-white, life-death, north-south, up-down)* and
2) antonyms with the same roots (*like-dislike, friendly-unfriendly, ability-disability)*

Stating that the latter group of antonyms is a result of formational processes where prefix morphemes bring opposite meaning. In the last (shorter) paragraph, it is emphasized that antonyms occur in pairs, and in the case of polysemantics, there is a polysemous word contrasted to more antonyms (*solid-soft, liquid, wavering*)

Such a narrow theoretical approach is invalid for motivating students for a deeper reception of this complex and, by its very nature, interesting linguistic unit. Considering already presented findings and conclusions in the previous chapters, it is clear that teaching interpretation of antonyms deserves much more attention, since this phenomenon of associations by oppositeness has a distinct function in cognitive and perceptive and also intellectual parts of a student's mind, as well as in forming the mental lexicon. This cognitive approach to linguistics has its pendant in cognitive approach to teaching. One of the important approaches to the cognitive pedagogy is based in the application of associative method, general or logical, applied while mastering teaching units. Associative learning is a representative example of meaningful and productive learning and it is a synonym for a modern school which develops critical thinking. Thus, the previously mentioned spider's web model (semantic network), as a symbol of the mental lexicon, can be compared to the extraordinary functional teaching mind map model,

designed by Tony Buzan, a psychologist, a researcher who studied brain functions (Buzan, 1999). The mind maps are special, associative diagrams or associative schemes which represent a thought organization system, a pictorial or symbolic network of basic concepts and parts of a teaching unit that is being done.

The most direct association (or better say analogy) is established between lexical associations and mental associations; therefore the application of the mind map is the best recommendation for processing associative lexical opposite meaning.

The mind maps possess a wide range of application to all teaching situations which demand thinking and learning, planning and organizing, solving problems, analyses and project design. They are therefore convenient for problem solving teaching, project-based teaching, exemplary teaching, discovery learning and for any other form of interactive teaching. A mind map consists of a central topic (a title of the teaching unit that is being done or repeated) and of subtopics and key terms which literally branch out from the central topic. The branches are curved (an association to brain curves), they can be colorful and branch out according to the number of following subtopics. This is a map skeleton that is filled up with concepts in the following way: a written concept is joined by a small image which symbolizes the concept itself. In this way, we use metaphor and metonymy to design creatively and give a deeper meaning to teaching unit, because images we draw represent reality metaphors. The color palette of the mind map is rich and the visual processing depends on students' artistry. In fact, the mind map can be compared to artistically enriched pictorial alphabet, that is, picturesque signs based on rich children's imagination and logistics. Therefore such associative learning is a real challenge for students to "upgrade" teaching materials using their own experience and former knowledge. It also represents the most successful version of the holistic approach to teaching. It is contemplative; it demands active and conscious student's engagement in the classroom; it is meaningful, creative, and as its name suggests, it is wise and profound. We use it in order to strengthen, develop and make more complex the image of the world we live in and it represents a more creative version of empirical and practical map learning. Such associative or picturesque presentation student reads branch by branch, and image by image, clockwise (from left to right).

If we start from the conventional definition that learning is a process which changes an individual's behavior on the basis of previous experience, it

is obvious that learning with mind maps represents a very complex reflexive learning which is to result in the associative applying of the learned concepts in always new and fresh problem situations in life. In this way we respect the concept of the modern school, whose focus is a student and his ability to adapt and achieve success in a real social community through self activity, unlike the old school whose focus was a teaching unit and achievement of educational goals only.

The mind maps are the best way, not only to free students' minds and intelligence, but also to free their creativity. They are very encouraging and effective in all areas of teaching Serbian language and literature (grammar and speech culture). They should take the very central position in the lesson, in analytical and synthetic procedures when a student should spot a grammatical issue, decompose it, analyze its parts and in the associative way solve the problem. All that should be presented by likeable pictures, used for mapping mental intellectual processes with "building bricks" used to assemble an associative mosaic of cognition. In this way, teaching material, especially grammar, is much more interesting, it engages a conscious activity and previous experience of a student in a social interaction of team work. It is much better memorized, acquired and applied. The student's benefits are: more free time (the student should read the mind map only one more time at home), better results, praises, rewards and a personal fulfillment. But, the greatest mind map's benefit is, certainly, the fact that this teaching grammar process organized in this way, besides high development of linguistic potentials, provides maximal achievement of contemplative potentials of a student. The benefit is, hence, in grammar (linguistic)-reflexive unity of the high raised line on the graphic representing students' mental development.

3. Pedagogical implications

In the creation of methodological model of modern antonyms teaching, we will apply methodological pluralism of associative relations in the field of cognition, meaning and interpretation. We will use:

1. The verbal association method
2. The mind (mental) maps of teaching material method
3. The associative learning method

1. At the first class stage, we will use the verbal association method assigning students to solve the test of associations by contrast. This method

could be applied in many different ways, starting from the simplest, when teacher frontally provides words-stimuli demanding from students to respond with an associative word of opposite meaning. In this case, different types of words can be used for the word-stimulus: nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs (*nice, soft, short, tall, white, hungry, heavy, plain, friend, boots, sun, love, disport, take, run*…). The use of verbal association method in teaching will be more efficient if we apply group work instead of frontal work, and instead of dialogical method we apply demonstrative method of showing posters or application software method (ICT in teaching). If we put this test into a mini-quiz form, with groups of four to five students, who are assigned to gain as many as possible correct responds from the word-stimulus, that is, to provide as many as possible antonyms, working atmosphere will be more encouraging, and students will be more motivated for further learning.

2. In this manner, we have done emotional and psychological lesson preparation, we motivated students and introduced new teaching material. Having done that, we announce the teaching unit (Antonymy) and we point out the lesson objectives. The operative part of the lesson comes next when we apply the mind map method to the teaching material.

4. How do we draw mind maps?

At the beginning, we draw the central topic on the mind map, and that is Antonymy. The association to antonymy will be crossroads, a guidepost with different arrows which point to opposite destinations. There are curved branches that branch out from the central topic (from left to right): the first one ends in two branches, on one of the branches there is a word and an image of the sun and on the other there is a word and an image of the moon, which symbolize antonyms day and night. There is a flower (a dog) and a scorpion on the next branch by which we associate the opposite meanings: good and evil. On the third branch we see a heating furnace and a snowman (warm-cold), a girl on the grass and a bird on the tree (down-up), a mouse and an elephant (small-big), a lamb and a wolf (good-evil) etc.

The next branch will have little branches with these images presented: a room door and a house door (get in-get out, come-go), a soldier and a dog (a friend-an enemy), a gun and a book (war-anti war), an airplane flying high and an airplane flying low (fly over-fly below)…, and it will end with an image of a big root with leaves where the root is a symbol of the root of the

word and the leaves represent affixes, or it will end with an image of a flower with big petals, where yellow anthers represent the root morpheme, while the petals represent affixes.

The next branching out is: from a big branch goes a smaller one which branches out into two smaller ones, and a little farther there's another smaller branch which branches out into several smaller ones. A fox and a raven could be on the first branch (clever-stupid), a rock is on the second branch from which three smaller branches emerge with a pillow (sponge, feathers), then some liquid in the bottle, the rooster-weather vane (those three associations mean: soft, liquid and wavering by an antonym solid). It is illustrated in Figure 1.

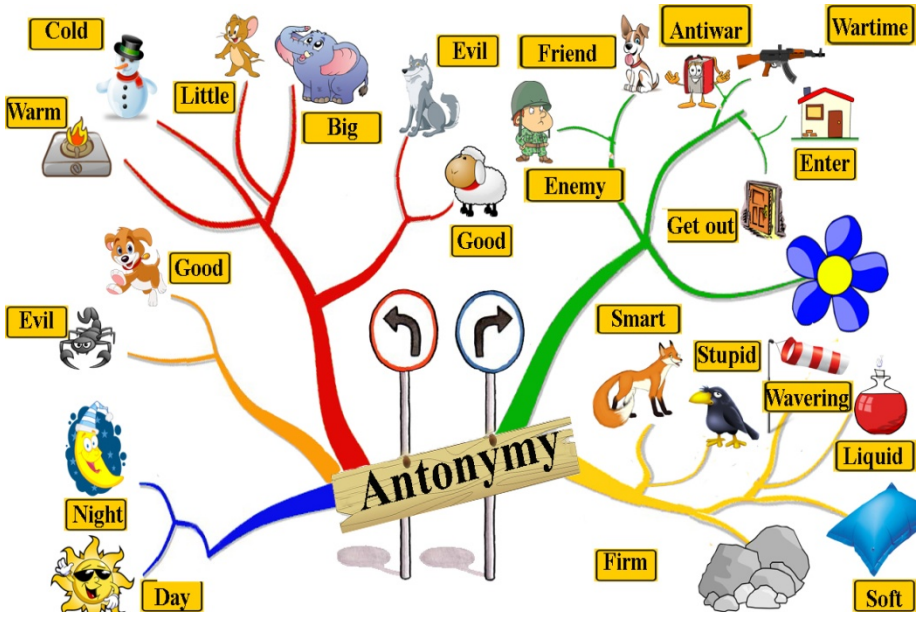


Figure 1: *Antonym mindmap – an example*

We have completed our lesson with these association picturesque symbols and it is possible to add some new pictures. We have finished the lesson, the teaching material on antonymy, which was planned by teaching plan and programme. Methodological recommendations related to the usage method of this mind map, when interpret antonymy, also take opposite directions, just like antonyms. In fact, one recommendation is that teacher designs and draws that one or a similar mind map at home (in electronic form) or on a poster and shows it to students at the beginning of the operative

part of the lesson in order to read it, that is, to analyze image associations. In this case, except the central topic, which is the title of teaching material, key terms won't be written next to each image (picture). Students should write key terms corresponding to each image. On the basis of this picture based lesson, that is, its mental representation, students will, firstly, use the inductive method; get to the associative content of presented symbols and to the antonym pairs themselves.

The next step is the analysis of a branch after branch in the clockwise direction, by which the sense and the meaning of antonymy will be deducted, as well as antonym types and subtypes.

Contrary to this teaching model, it is also possible that teacher assigns students to make their own mind maps individually or, even better, in groups. Each group gets a lesson chapter to analyze and comprehend, and then shape it into a mind map using associative symbols. In this case, the teacher helps students with analyzing and comprehension of the material students should read first. When groups complete their task, they demonstrate and explain it, while others listen and make comments by giving their suggestions. At the end of the lesson all groups together generalize-define antonymy and indicate antonym types.

Of course, this does not exploit a thorough use of the mind maps as a part of this (or any other) lesson. Teacher can assign homework: To design a mind map in teams or individually. At the beginning of the next lesson, teacher will check homework and give a feedback on students'mind maps of antonyms.

3. In the final evaluating part of the lesson, which involves creative application of learned material as well as repetition and deepening of teaching material (antonyms), we can apply group work. Each group is given a polysemous noun with a task to provide its antonyms. Students should create a short text from obtained antonyms.

5. Conclusion

The modern teaching based on the educational constructivism sets certain requirements regarding language teaching. It shouldn't be a simple numbering of definitions and rules, on the contrary it should encourage students' creativity and intellectual activities, creating in that way an individual who contemplates and analyses learned material, who is critical and who builds his own opinion. Associative linking of similar teaching units,

thematically united with students' preferences and life experience will help students' better comprehension, learning and application of new grammatical knowledge. On the other hand, it will make teaching more dynamic, interesting and purposeful. Associative learning, associative method and associative (lexical) meaning represent a strong cognitive network of cognition and interpretation, not only linguistic or teaching, but also life-long contents. Each term has its own special linguistic, pedagogical or psychological destinations, but only within the educational syncretism their synergy provides the best linguistic, intellectual and cognitive effects.

In this paper, we have demonstrated how the teaching unit *Antonymy* can be performed by the associative method, better known as the mind map method. We have stated that this learning method is efficient, applicable and interesting. It provides long term memory results and productive application of the learned material. It develops a divergent approach to teaching and thinking, as well as to reality reception. It disassembles the whole into parts in an analytic and associative way, analyzes, researches and designs, and in a completely new way creates and represents an abstract grammatical material, which will be meaningfully and symbolically stored in the long-term memory of the operating detail memorization. Associative learning via mind maps brings freshness, a sharp mind and a positive educational atmosphere. It encourages collaborative and competitive relationships among students, and by such playful and imaginative methods, teaching grammar is presented in the best lights, even to those students who consider it monotonous and uninteresting.

References

Aitchison, J. (1987). *Word in the Mind*, London: Basil Blackwell.

Budd, J. W. (2003). *Mind Maps as Classroom Exercises – Center for Human Recource*. University of Minnesota: Industrial Relations Center.

Buzan, T., & Buzan, B. (1999). *Mind Maps – Road to the Brilliant Thinking*. Belgrade: Finesa.

Vasić, S. (1976). *Razvojne govorna norme u naše dece,* Institut za pedagoška istraživanja: Beograd.

Gojkov, G. (2007). *Kvalitativna istraživaka paradigma u pedagogiji*. Vršac: Visoka škola strukovnih studija za obrazovanje vaspitača.

Dragićević. R. (2002). *Neka zapažanja o mogućnosti upotrebe asocijativnih testova u lingvističkim istraživanjima*, Slavistika VI, 116-124.

Dragićević. R. (2003). Asocijativna metoda u konceptualizaciji emocija. *Govor i jezik* (pp. 66-74). Beograd: Institut za eksperimentalnu fonetiku i patologiju govora.

Dragićević. R. (2010). *Leksikologija srpskog jezika*. Beograd: Zavod za udžbenike.

Dragićević. R. (2010a). *Verbalne asocijacije kroz srpski jezik i kulturu*, Beograd: Književnost i jezik.

Institute for Evaluating Quality of Education and Upbringing, RS. 2013 – General Achievement Standards for Completion of Secondary Education (Serbian Language and Literature). Belgrade. Available at: http://www.ceo.edu.rs/images/stories/obrazovni_standardi/Opsti_standardi_postignuca/SRPSKI%20JEZIK%20I%20KNJIZEVNOST.pdf

Janjić, M. (2014). *Cognitive approach to grammar teaching – on the example of syllable teaching in elementary schools.* Conference proceedings of the International Conference EDUvision: Modern Aproaches to Teaching Coming Generacion. 27-28. 11. 2014 (pp. 226-234). Slovenija - Ljubljana.

Cruse, A. (2004). *Meaning in Language*. Oxford: Oxford Universtity Press.

Piper, P. (2004). *Srpski jezik između velikih i malih*. Beograd: Beogradska knjiga.

Stanojčić, Ž. & Popović, Lj. (2005). Gramatika srpskog jezika za I, II, II i IV razred srednje škole. Beograd: ZUNS.

Stefanović, M. (2004). Gramatika u asocijativnim rečnicima ruskog i srpskog jezika. *Slavistika,* VIII, 128-139.

Šipka, D. (1988). *Osnovi leksikologije i srodnih disciplina*. Novi Sad: Matica srpska

Yager, R. E. (1991). The Constructivist Learning Model: Towards Real Reform in Science Education. *Science Teacher*, 58(6), 1991, 52-57.

Anita Janković[1]
Snežana Zečević[2]
Faculty of Philosophy
Kosovska Mitrovica

VALUE OF STUDENT SELF-EVALUTION FOR FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT IN EFL AT THE TERTIARY LEVEL

Abstract

Formative assessment or "assessment for learning" seeks out to adjust teaching and learning activities to improve the achievement of the learning outcomes. Self-evaluation is one of the formative strategies and it is nested under the umbrella term student self-assessment. It is defined as students appraising the quality of their learning, based on evidence and distinct criteria, in order to improve their work in the future. The underlying principle stipulates that student reflection on their behavior and learning habits leads to setting higher goals, which in turn contributes to increased motivation and effort, ultimately generating better results. In addition, by monitoring their progress, students acquire essential metacognitive skills.

This paper will review relevant theory and research literature supporting the value of student self-evaluation. The aim of the paper is twofold. Firstly, it argues in favor of self-evaluation and presents major tools in applying it. Secondly, it describes ways of integrating self-evaluation checklists in the *ENOS11 Contemporary English Language 1* course at the Department of English in Kosovska Mitrovica. Additionally, it presents the results of the preliminary analysis of student performance in regard to the introduction of the self-evaluation checklists.

Key words: student self-evaluation, formative assessment, checklists, language learning, Higher Education, Kosovska Mitrovica.

∞∞∞

[1] anita.jankovic@pr.ac.rs
[2] snezzanaz@yahoo.com

1. Introduction

University of Priština in Kosovska Mitrovica has recently implemented a student centered approach on the path of increasing student involvement in the learning process. The set of skills essential for academic and professional success are primarily the ability to assess one's role and contribution in the process, as well as to self-regulate behavior and learning strategies. These skills can be learnt and taught (Schunk, 2004), mainly through alternative assessment methods uncharacteristic to the tertiary education until recent times. Formative strategies nested under the umbrella-term student self-assessment are very effective in nurturing metacognitive skills in students enabling them to take control of their own learning by reflecting on their work and judging the quality of their performance.

The driving force behind the promotion of self-assessment is the necessity to develop autonomy in our students thus equipping them for life-long learning (Mistar, 2011). Since lifelong learning is the main goal of modern education and society, assessment as a necessary segment of the process of learning itself is not referred only to crediting students with recognized certificates, but it should monitor progress and direct students because there is a gap between what students in higher education are required and what actually happens in real life (MacMillan & Hearn, 2008). The need for assessment is emphasized so that the quality of learning and goals of higher education would be realized (Swartz, n.d.).

Self-assessment lends itself to the teaching and learning of foreign languages because it positively correlates with language abilities (Neini, 2011). Furthermore, Neini reports conclusions of researchers such as Tavakoli, Finch and Taeduck, Coronado-Aliegro, and Javaherbakhsh who have successfully supported the use of self-assessment in significantly improving productive language skills (2011). Hence, we seek to explore the outcomes of introducing self-assessment strategies to *ENOS11 Contemporary English Language 1* course at the Department of English Language and Literature in Kosovska Mitrovica with the attempt to monitor and adjust learning strategies and overall student performance.

The paper is organized into three major sections each elaborating on a different aspect of the pilot study. We start with defining the key terms as well as providing arguments and evidence gathered from the survey of relevant theory and research literature supporting the value of student self-assessment. The survey is mainly based on Falchikov and Boud's meta-

analysis (1989). Secondly, we will outline the pilot study; describe the instruments and the analysis tools. The third section presents the results of the statistical analysis and discusses them in the context of other research. Finally, we will draw conclusions from our practice and the pilot study with recommendations for the future implementation.

2. Rationale

For the purpose of this study, we will follow the definition of self-assessment by MacMillan and Hearn who stipulate that it is:

> … a process by which students 1) monitor and evaluate the quality of their thinking and behavior when learning and 2) identify strategies that improve their understanding and skills. That is, self-assessment occurs when students judge their own work to improve performance as they identify discrepancies between current and desired performance (2008, p. 40).

Several authors (Bruce, 2001; MacMillan & Hearn, 2004; Rolheiser & Ross, 2001; Schunk, 2004) proposed a four step cycle of student self-assessment (Figure 1). In the first step, the students focus their attention to some aspects of their learning or behavior. Next, they identify their progress in relation to the standards, which gives them an insight into what they still need to learn. Then, students choose ways or learning activities to achieve the goal. Finally, they define "subsequent learning goals to improve and extend learning" hence repeating the cycle (MacMillan & Hearn, 2004).

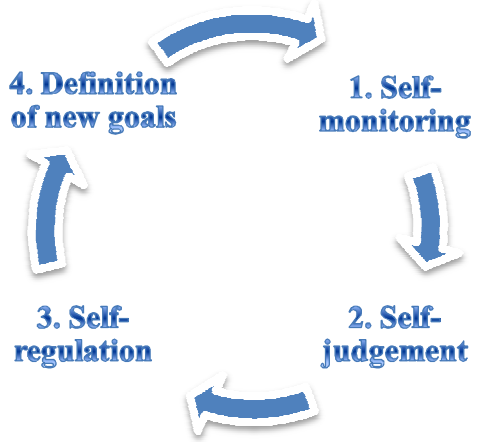


Figure 1: *Upward cycle of learning (Rolheiser& Ross, 2001)*

According to Butler and Lee, self-assessment caters for self-regulated learning in all three aspects: learning, metacognition and affection (2010). Therefore, in literature, three theories have been proposed to support the reliability of self-assessment: metacognition, constructivism, and self-efficacy theory. Based on ample evidence from literature, Schunk concluded that metacognition "involves the capacity to monitor, evaluate, and know what to do to improve performance" (2004). Practically, this implies that students employ cognitive mechanisms to plan and manage time, to use different learning strategies for different aims, to check understanding, etc. In regard to the constructivist theory of learning and motivation, the first step of the upward cycle of learning (Figure 1) is essential for constructing new knowledge because students are self-assessing prior to and during learning which is the essence of this theory (Shepard in Macmillan & Hearn, 2004). In addition, the focused attention of students to their learning and behavior contributes to the development of their self-efficacy beliefs. Shunk quotes studies which established that these perceptions students have about their capacity to successfully complete an assignment boost their engagement in learning (2004).

In view of the specific subject of this paper, there is a need to distinguish self-evaluation as one of the formative strategies in the broader category of self-assessment. Andrade describes it as "… understanding and application of explicit criteria to one's own work and behavior for the purpose of judging if one has met specified goals (2007)." Angelo and Cross state that "assessment and evaluation not only differ in their purposes but also in their use of collected information" (1993). In self-assessment, the gathered information would serve to improve learning, while self-evaluation data reflects the quality of the student performance and it might include other components than just course content, such as activity in class, attendance, etc. In addition, judging the quality of work in self-evaluation is based on evidence and explicit criteria (Rolheiser & Ross, 2001). Empowering students to evaluate their progress against challenging standards has a great impact on their performance because, as mentioned previously, it boosts self-efficacy beliefs and intrinsic motivation.

Research literature advocates the use of student self-evaluation through a great number of validity and reliability studies. Falchikov and Boud performed a meta-analysis of studies from 1932 till 1988 and classified those theories under three categories: conceptual, practical qualitative, and

quantitative (1989). Several general conclusions were drawn from the review of these studies:

- better students underrated themselves while weaker students overrated themselves;
- students in higher level classes could better predict their own performance than students in lower levels classes;
- there was no difference in student self-evaluation among 1st, 2nd and 3rd year students in a university department – all students rated themselves lower at the beginning and better as the semester progressed;
- students become proficient in self-evaluation with practice and instructor's feedback.

Similarly, many research efforts have been devoted to this field in the recent years. Mistar (2011) in her study on validity affirms that self-evaluation gives students valuable insight into their achievement against the criteria defined in the curriculum, as well as helps them realize what amount of assistance and effort they need to achieve the desired quality. Furthermore, Neini adds that self-evaluation can serve as an end-of-course view of students' learning process in addition to being their road map. Hence, students no longer depend on the instructor to tell them how to proceed and they now understand why they receive a particular grade (Mistar, 2011). Correspondingly, Chamot (1999) asserts that ability to evaluate one's own strengths and weaknesses leads to learning how to regulate learning, because, like with setting personal goals, self-evaluation as well boosts motivation and engagement. Andrade (2007, p. 2) depicts an appropriate picture, a cycle of benefits: "more effort leads to better results, which builds confidence, and increasing confidence enhances motivation, which in turn sustains effort that leads to better performance".

Finally, Rolheiser and Ross (2001) defined three kinds of student benefit: cognitive achievement, motivation, and affective attitudes toward evaluation. They contend that students become better learners by learning how to evaluate their learning and this self-evaluation training helps the weakest students the most because they are less certain about what quality work comprises of. Secondly, these students will rather stick to the task at hand because of their improved perception of their abilities, while at the same time feeling more confident and responsible. Thirdly, students will feel more

positive toward instructor's evaluation of their work if their self-evaluation contributed to the final grade. They will decide that the grade is fair, even though students tend to be very cynical about traditional, summative assessment as they grow older.

As mentioned earlier, self-evaluation especially supports improvement of productive skills, speaking and writing. Most frequent tools are: rubrics, checklists, portfolios, learning contracts, and appraisal interviews. Andrade and Brook (2013) see a rubric as a powerful means because "…it includes vivid descriptions of what excellent and poor work look like". It serves students as a signpost to achieving quality work. On the other hand, checklists only list learning targets without the degrees of quality. Portfolios are selection of student work and performance compiled to show student achievement. Because the students select the items that will represent their learning, portfolios are maybe the most valid evidence of reflection and student metacognitive voice (Little & Perclov, 2001). The third most frequent tool is a learning contract which is a collaborative work at the start of a new course or a new module when students define their learning goals and activities as well as products they will complete to demonstrate their learning (Frank & Scharff, 2013). Finally, with the appraisal interviews, instructors and students engage in a dialogue at regular intervals (i.e. at the end of a unit, at the end of the grading period) to discuss the student's progress in class. Instructors can personalize their interactions with students, while students have opportunities to ask questions and learn more about their strengths and weaknesses (Sadler, 1989).

3. Pilot study

We aim to substantiate introduction of self-evaluation checklists in *ENOS11 Contemporary English Language 1,* acourse delivered for the first-year undergraduate ELT students, as a way of monitoring overall student performance and providing opportunities for self-guidance and reflection.This is a hybrid course with 30 percent of course load delivered online via Moodle. For all arguments previously presented, but even more because of the online component of the course, our goal is to enable our students to become independent learners.

The general hypothesis is that by developing metacognitive skills and reflection about learning in students, the quality of their performance will improve. Keeping track of their learning activities and the quality of

performance gives students a chance to judge for themselves where their weaknesses and strengths lie and what they need to do to improve their work (Andrade, 2007).

For the requirements of this papera pilot study was conducted. It is referred to the so called feasibility study, pre-testing or 'trying out' of a particular research instrument (Baker, 1994). Generally speaking, pilot studies are a crucial element of a good study design. Although they do not guarantee success in the main study, they do increase the likelihood (Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001).

3.1. The sample

First of all, the sample of our pilot study was supposed to comprise 30 randomly chosen students. Since our pilot study is concerned with students' first term test scores in regard to certain statements in the checklists, three students did not complete this term test and therefore had to be eliminated. Consequently the final number of our sample is 27 students.

Table 1: *The structure of the sample in regard to gender*

Gender	Number	Percent (%)
Male	16	59,3
Female	11	40,7
Total	27	100

Table 2: *The structure of the sample in regard to age*

Age	Number	Percent (%)
19 years old	21	77,8
20 years old	3	11,1
21 years old	1	3,7
22 years old	1	3,7
35 years old	1	3,7
Total	27	100

As can be seen in *Table 1*, 59.3% of students are males, while 40.7% of them are females. In terms of age, the youngest student is 19 years old and the oldest is 35 years old (Table 2).

3.2. The instrument – self-evaluation checklists

Some of the most important general features regarding self-evaluation checklists have already been mentioned in the previous section, but for the requirements of this study our own self-evaluation checklists are used (for a sample checklist, see Appendix 1). Since this paper presents the first steps in implementation of student self-evaluation, only two monthly checklists have been distributed to our students so far. One checklist is referred to students' activities in October and the other one to the activities in November. They are comprised of three sets of statements that students interact with in different ways. The first set of statements is concerned with course logistics (major assignments and tasks during the month, such as completing the corresponding module in Moodle, completing the assigned reading, etc.), the second one with course participation (academic conduct and participation in class such as coming to class regularly and on time, speaking English, encouraging colleagues to speak, bringing notebook and books to class, etc.), while the third one is concerned with learning objectives (students evaluate their own achievement of the objectives on a Likert scale). The fourth section of checklists is open ended and refers to two things or areas students need to work on or improve where they describe the plans and give the deadline for accomplishing them.

3.3. Data analysis

The collected data were analyzed using SPSS software version 21.0. Namely the correlation analysis was used for measuring relationship considering students' scores after completing the first term test (max.100 points) and their participation in the course. Descriptive statistics was used for showing the percentage of students' answers considering some statements of the checklists while content analysis was used for analyzing students' answers in the final section of the checklists.

3.4. Hypotheses

After reviewingtheory and research literature on the topic, we noticed that a variable such as gender isof little importance for self-evaluation

(Mistar, 2011) and therefore it will not be regarded in our study. Furthermore, age can sometimes play a significant role in self-evaluation (Blatchford, 1997; Cassady, 2001; Talento-Miller & Peyton, 2006). However, in our case this variable will also be disregarded since the distribution of students in our sample considering age is unbalanced. Namely, twenty-three of them are 19 years old while the rest are of different age as it can be seen in Table 2, and thus, the final results of our study will not be relevant. Nevertheless, there are enough other appropriate data for the correlation analysis of the test scores and certain statements in our checklists. Some of the hypotheses according to which this pilot study was conducted are:

- Most students completed tasks and assignments regarding course logistics in October/ November.
- Most students regularly participated in the course activities in October/ November.

Since good command of grammar and wide vocabulary range are important factors for successfully completing *ENOS11* coursein addition to improving four basic language skills, their correlation with students' test scores is regarded in this paper. Moreover, as it has already been noted, self-evaluation checklists are most frequently used for evaluating speaking and writing. Therefore, the correlation between test scores and some of the statements regarding speaking and writing is also tested. It can be expected that test scores will match students' self-evaluation in regard to:

- how much time and effort they invest in practicing grammar;
- how much time and effort they invest in expanding their vocabulary range;
- perceived accuracy and fluency in speaking and writing;

This also implies that students' answers in the fourth section of the checklist are expected as follows:

- grammar and vocabulary are the most common areas for improvement;
- productive skills demand much more attention and practice.

4. Findings and discussion

In accordance to the initial assumptions, more than 50% of students completed tasks and assignments related to the course logistics (Table 3). Having in mind that a new school year began in October, first year students are supposed to be dutiful and complete all tasks and assignments necessary. However, the smallest number of students, namely 55.6% of them, read the January section of The Secret Diary of Adrian Mole and 66.7% of them spent minimum 3 hours per week learning English outside the classroom. These results can be explained due to the lack of time since these tasks are more demanding and students might have not still understood the necessity of regular work nor the obligation of completing the assigned readings.

Table 3: *Tasks and assignments – course logistics in October*

Tasks and assignments - October	I bought/copied/printed the books for the course	I registered for the virtual classroom	I completed the ENOS 11 SEJ 1 Survey	I completed the assignments in the first module	I read the syllabus	I read the January section of The Secret Diary of A. Mole	I spent minimum 3 hours per week learning English outside the classroom	I learned at least 10 new words in the past four weeks	I connected with other students to exchange information about the course
Yes (%)	92.6	100	88.9	92.6	88.9	55.6	66.7	92.6	96.3
No (%)	7.4	0	11.1	7.4	11.1	44.4	33.3	7.4	3.7

In terms of students' test scores, the use of correlation analysis between the scores and the statements from the first part of the checklist in October (Table 4) showed that there is a significant positive correlation at the 0.05 level (r=0,451). Namely students with higher scores learned vocabulary in the past four weeks (in our case 10 new words) more than the students with lower test scores. The other correlations are statistically insignificant and therefore will not be discussed.

Table 4: *Correlation between students' scores and completing task and assignments in October*

Tasks and assignments - October	I bought/copied/printed the books for the course	I registered for the virtual classroom	I completed the ENOS 11 SEJ 1 Survey	I completed the assignments in the first module	I read the syllabus	I read the January section of The Secret Diary of A.Mole	I spent minimum 3 hours per week learning English outside the classroom	I learned at least 10 new words in the past four weeks	I connected with other students to exchange information about the course
Test scores	-.143		-.346	-.322	-,.101	-.310	-.171	.451*	-.268
*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level									

Considering the students' completion of tasks and assignments in November (Table 5), it can be noticed that neither all students took part in the discussion about national stereotypes (only 11.1% of them did), nor did all students take part in the discussion about controversy (only 29.6% of them did). In comparison with results concerning tasks and assignments in October where only 55.6% of students read the first chapter of The Secret Diary of Adrian Mole, in November 92.6% of students read the second chapter, while all of them read the third chapter. The reason for these results may be the fact that students became more serious and realized the necessity of reading the chapters for completing task and assignments related to The Secret Diary of A. Mole. Considering the use of correlation analysis for the checklist from November, observed correlations were insignificant so the results are not relevant for our pilot study.

Furthermore, in regard to the second set of statements that are referred to the course participation, the results confirmed the previous hypotheses, that is more than 80% of students participated in the course during October. Comparing student participation in October and in November (Tables 6 and 7), it can be seen that students participated in the course during November even more than in October.

Table 5: *Tasks and assignments – November*

Tasks and assignments - November	I completed the third module in the virtual classroom	I completed the fourth module in the virtual classroom	I took part in the discussion about national stereotypes	I took part in the discussion about controversy	I read the February section of Adrian Mole	I read March section of Adrian Mole	I practiced for the dictation	I prepared a presentation for class	I spent minimum 3 hours per week learning English outside the classroom	I learned at least 10 new words in the past four weeks
Yes	81.5	55.6	29.6	11.1	92.6	100	85.2	77.8	66.7	96.3
No	18.5	44.4	70.4	88.9	7.4	0	14.8	22.2	33.3	3.7

Table 6: *Course participation – October*

Course participation - October	I come to class regularly	I come to class on time	I come to class prepared (bring books, notebooks, pen)	I take part in class activities	I pay attention in class	I listen to instruction carefully before I begin working on a task	I understand teacher's instructions	I ask for help if needed	I listen carefully to my colleagues	I respond to my teachers and colleagues appropriately	I take notes during a class
Yes (%)	100	92.6	96.3	88.9	96.3	88.9	96.3	85.2	81.5	96.3	88.9
No (%)	0	7.4	3.7	11.1	3.7	11.1	3.7	14.8	18.5	3.7	11.1

Table 7: *Course participation –November*

Course participation -November	CP 2 I come to class regularly	CP 2 I come to class on time	CP 2 I come to class prepared (bring books, notebooks, pen)	CP 2 I take part in class activities	CP 2 I pay attention in class	CP 2 I listen to instruction carefully before I begin working on a task	CP 2 I understand teacher's instructions	CP 2 I ask for help if needed	CP 2 I listen carefully to my colleagues	CP 2 I respond to my teachers and colleagues appropriately	CP 2 I take notes during a class
Yes (%)	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	92.6	100	85.2	88.9	88.9	88.9
No (%)	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	7.4	0	14.8	11.1	11.1	11.1

Table 8: *Correlation between students' scores and their course participation - November*

Course participation - November	I come to class regularly	I come to class on time	I come to class prepared (bring books, notebooks, pen)	I take part in class activities	I pay attention in class	I listen to instruction carefully before I begin working on a task	I understand teacher's instructions	I ask for help if needed	I listen carefully to my colleagues	I respond to my teachers and colleagues appropriately	I take notes during a class
Test scores	.252	.252	.252	-.113	.252	.345		.234	.470*	.151	.401*
*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level											

Beside these results, the correlation analysis between students' test scores and statements concerning students' participation in the course during November (Table 8) points out a significant positive correlation at 0.05 level between scores and listening carefully to colleagues (r=,470),as well as between test scores and taking notes during a class (r=,401). Namely, students who evaluated themselves as more diligent, cooperative, and hardworking have test scores to validate their self-judgment.The other correlations are statistically insignificant and will not be discussed.

Table 9: *Correlation between students' scores and learning competences – October*

Language competences - October	I can convey degrees of emotions and highlight the personal significance of events and experiences.	I can account for and sustain my opinions in discussions by providing relevant explanations, arguments and comments.	I can carry out a prepared interview, checking and confirming information, following up interesting replies.	I can give clear, detailed descriptions on a wide range of subjects related to my fields of interest.	I can understand and summarize orally the plot and sequence of events in an extract from a film or play.	I can write about events and real or fictional experiences in a detailed and easily readable way.	I can write clear and detailed texts (compositions, reports or texts of presentations) on various topics related to my field of interest.	I can express in a personal letter different feelings and attitudes and can report the news of teh day making clear what-in my opinion-are the important aspects of an event.	I have sufficient vocabulary to express myself on matters connected to my field and on most general topics.
Test scores	.139	.246	-.012	-.006	.414*	-.126	.237	.365	-.014
*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level									

As far as the relation between students' test scores and perceived learning competences in October are concerned (Table 9), there is a significant positive correlation at 0.05 level (r=,414) between students' scores and

students' perceived ability,for example, to understand and summarize orally the plot and sequence of events in an extract from a film or a play. The other correlations in this analysis are statistically insignificant.

Since every course module is different thus the topics are also different as well as the learning objectives. The third set of statements of the checklist from November differs from the previous one. Namely, October checklist lists language competences at the level B2 of CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference), which is the entry level for the course, while November checklist contains specific module objectives. The correlation analysis of the learning objectives in November and students' scores (Table 10) showed only a significant positive correlation at the 0.05 level (r=.394) between scores and the perceived ability to form nationality adjectives, while the other correlations are statistically insignificant. The other correlations might be insignificant due to the fact that students need to work more on improving the abilities listed in Table 10 and therefore their final scoreswould probably be better.

Table 10: *Correlation between students' scores and some learning objectives in November*

Learning objectives - November	I can distinguish between who, whom and whose	I can identify an adjective in a sentence	I can identify an adverb in a sentence	I know when to use an adjective instead of adverb in a sentence	I understand the meaning of modal verbs	I understand use of prepositions in English	I expanded my vocabulary to talk about fashion and clothes	I expanded my vocabulary to talk about travel	I know how to form nationality adjectives	I can describe a character from the book supporting it with evidence	I can support a general statement using examples
Test scores	.227	.063	.054	.116	.059	.145	.077	.041	.394*	.105	.364
*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level											

The last section of the checklists is open-ended where we asked students to identify areas of improvement, think ofways to achieve success

and give themselves a deadline.Grammar and vocabulary are the most problematic areas according to their answers in the October checklist. In students' opinion some of the possible solutions for improving vocabulary are the following: learning at least ten new words every week till 2016;completing assigned readings by the end of the first semester; coming to classes regularly for the next two years;practicing the use of vocabulary at least four hours per week for a month, etc. Grammar will be improved by: coming to classes regularly and listening to the teacher for the next four years and by practicing at least four hours per day for a month.

Beside vocabulary and grammar, some students want to improve their accent and speaking skills too. The ways of accomplishing this are: speaking practice with their teacher and colleagues by the end of this semester; learning more from books, internet, and English magazines; talking to someone whose English is fluent for the next four years; speaking English as much as possible for the next two years, etc. Furthermore, one student will achieve the 'ultimate' fluency of speaking by talking to her colleagues, reading books, watching TV shows and films in English; all this will be accomplished simultaneously with improving her vocabulary.

Students also find writing as one of the areas they should work on more by practicing it till 2016, writing texts and chatting with their colleagues in English for the following four years of studies, etc. One student even wrote that she will read the whole Secret Diary of Adrian Mole very carefully for a month, while the other said that he will listen to what the others have to say by trying to be as patient as possible starting from the moment of completing the checklist. In addition to this, some students also plan to get good grades by studying and working hard, reading more, translating, listening to music and watching films in English for several weeks. The others plan to develop their general proficiency in English by coming to their classes well prepared and paying more attention to what colleagues and teachers are doing starting from the moment of completing the checklist.

On the other hand, students' answers in the November checklist are more precise and explicitly formulated. In terms of grammar, the identification of adverbs will be improved by practicing their use till February. The use of adjectives and adverbs as well as of relative pronouns *who, whom* and *whose* will also be improved by practice till the end of 2014 while forming nationality adjectives and using an adjective instead of an adverb in a sentence will be improved by the end of December. Vocabulary concerning fashion and clothes will be improved by practice, using it in

speech, talking about it with colleagues till February. The Secret Diary of Adrian Mole is much more important for students in November since they precisely say what they will do. For instance some of them plan to read April and May from this book every day for two hours in the following two weeks; other students will try to understand and better discuss the characters from this book by reading it more carefully and completing writing assignments regarding these characters on Moodle.

5. Conclusion and recommendations

The aim of this pilot study was to explore the benefits and drawbacks of introducing self-assessment strategies, namely self-evaluation checklists, to *ENOS11 Contemporary English Language 1* course at the Department of English Language and Literature in KosovskaMitrovica with the attempt to monitor and adjust learning strategies and overall student performance. Summing up the results, it can be concluded that the preliminary findings hold with the previous studies supporting self-evaluation as a valid and reliable indicator of foreign language proficiency (Bachman & Palmer in Falchikov & Boud, 1989; Patri, Stefani & Williams in Mistar, 2011). Furthermore, the statistical analysis of the correlation between student self-evaluation and instructor evaluation, grading the term test, suggests some validity of the introduced strategy. The term test results reinforce the students' judgment of the quality of their work; more precisely students who scored high in the test evaluated themselves as more proficient in speaking, as well as having a tighter grasp of grammar and a wider vocabulary range. In terms of monitoring behavior, academic conduct in class, a significant positive correlation at 0.05 level between scores and listening carefully to colleagues (r=.,470) and taking notes during a class (r=.401) in the November checklist denotes a slight rise in the student awareness of self-evaluation.

On the other hand, students' comments in the fourth section of the checklists show that they are not sufficiently trained for self-evaluation. Swartz (n.d.) indicates that one of the disadvantages is that students feel "ill equipped to undertake the evaluation". Weaver and Cotrell (1986) quote their students who expressed discontent because they are undertrained and believe that "student-grading detracts from focusing on activities from which a student may feel she learns more". Another issue with self-evaluation comes from the instructors. Several authors (Shwartz, n.d.; Sadler, 1989; Sadler & Good, 2006) reveal disadvantages for the instructors such as: increase of

workload and unwillingness to share the power traditionally held by the teacher, the power to evaluate. Sadler expressed it as:

> … considered by many teachers as "guild knowledge," making judgments about students' understanding is a most arcane skill, acquired by apprenticeship and rarely revealed to the uninitiated (Sadler, 1989).

On the whole, to make self-evaluation a valid assessment and motivation tool, several aspects need to be considered. Firstly, as mentioned earlier, students should be taught how to judge their performance and they need time to develop the competence (Rolheiser & Ross, 2001). Secondly, Ross suggest further steps to be taken when preparing students for self-evaluation: language of the self-evaluation tools needs to be intelligible to students; students need to be taught how to apply the standards to their work; immediate and regular feedback will nurture motivation for self-evaluation; and finally, students need guidance in the regulation phase as well (2006).

Even though, the results of this study were somewhat conclusive, and the research design and instruments were sound, this was only a pilot and as such it was not without its limitations. For example, this study was limited to a selection of first-year undergraduate ELT students and the results cannot be generalized to the whole population. Furthermore, the time constraints (only the first semester was covered by this study) paid its toll on the reliability confirmation. Clearly, the continuing research onto the whole class or even to other educational populations appears fully justified because the theory and research literature on self-evaluation, as well as the unyielding interest of the academic community, testify to its value.

References

Andrade, M. R. (2007). Monitoring student performance with self-evaluation checklists: An ongoing case study. *Faculty bulletin Sophia Junior College*, 27. Retrieved from: http://www.jrc.sophia.ac.jp/courses/pdf/kiyou2701.pdf

Andrade, H., & Brook, G. (2013). Student-centred assessment guide: self-assessment. *Students at the Centre*. Retrieved from:

http://www.studentsatthecenter.org/resources/student-centered-assessment-guide-self-assessment

Angelo, T.A., & Cross, P.K. (1993). *Classroom assessment techniques* (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Baker, T. L. (1994). *Doing Social Research* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Inc.

Blatchford, P. (1997). Students' self-assessment of academic attainment: Accuracy and stability from 7 to 16 years and influence of domain and social comparison group. *Educational Psychology*, 17(3), 345-360.

Bruce, L. B. (2001). Student self-assessment: Making standards come alive. *Classroom Leadership,* 1(5). Retrieved from: http://www.ascd.org/publications/classroom_leadership/sept2001/Student_Self-Assessment.aspx

Butler, Y. G., & Lee, J. (2010). The effects of self-assessment among young learners of English. *Language Testing*, 27(1), 5-31.

Cassady, J. C. (2001). Self-reported GPA and SAT: A methodological note. *Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation*, 7(12). Retrieved from: http://PAREonline.net/getvn.asp?v=7&n=12

Chamot, A. U. (1999). *The Learning Strategies*. New York: Longman.

Falchikov, N., & Boud, D. (1989). Student self-assessment in higher education: A meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 59(4), 395–430.

Frank, T., & Scharff, L. F.V. (2013). Learning contracts in undergraduate courses: Impacts on student behaviors and academic performance. *Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, 13(4), 36 – 53.

Little, D. & Perclov, R. (2001). *European Language Portfolio: Guide for Teachers and Teacher Trainers.* Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

MacMillan, J. H., & Hearn, J. (2008). Student self-assessment: The key to stronger student motivation and higher achievement. *Educational Horizons*, 87(1), 40-49.

Mistar, J. (2011). A study of the validity and reliability of self-assessment. *Teflin Journal*, 22(1), 45-58. Retrived from: http://journal.teflin.org/index.php/journal/article/view/18/20

Naeini, J. (2011). Self-assessment and the impact on language skills. *Educational Research*, 2(6), 1225-1231.

Rolheiser, C., & Ross, J. A. (2001). Student self-evaluation: What research says and what practice shows. In R. D. Small & A. Thomas (Eds.), Plain talk about kids (pp. 43–57). Covington, LA: Center for Development and Learning. Retrieved from: http://bit.ly/1IyWekK

Ross, J. (2006). The reliability, validity, and utility of self-assessment. *Practical Assessment, Research, and Evaluation*, 11(10). Retrieved from http://pareonline.net/getvn.asp?v=11&n=10

Sadler, D. R. (1989). Formative assessment and the design of instructional systems. *Instructional Science*, 18, 119–144.

Sadler, P. M. & Good, E. (2006). The impact of self- and peer-grading on student learning. *Educational Assessment*, 11(1), 1–31.

Schunk, D. H. (2004). *Learning Theories: An Educational Perspective*. Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Merrill Prentice/Hall.

Schwartz, M. (n.d.). Peer and self-assessment of student work. *Learning & Teaching Office*. Retrieved from: http://www.ryerson.ca/content/dam/lt/resources/handouts/StudentPeerAssessment.pdf

Talento-Miller, E. & Peyton, J. (2006). Moderators of the accuracy of self-report Grade Point Average. *General Management Admission Council Research Reports - RR-06-10*. Retrieved from: http://www.gmac.com/market-intelligence-and-research/research-library/admissions-and-application-trends/moderators-of-the-accuracy-of-self-report-grade-point-average.aspx

Teijlingen van, E.R., & Hundley, V. (2001). The importance of pilot studies. *Social Research Update*, 35. Retrieved from: http://sru.soc.surrey.ac.uk/SRU35.pdf

Weaver, R. L., & Cotrell, H.W. (1986). Peer evaluation: A case study. *Innovative Higher Education*, 11, 25–39.

Appendix 1: Self-evaluation checklist – November

TASKS AND ASSIGNMENTS	YES	NO
I completed the third module in the virtual classroom.		
I completed the fourth module in the virtual classroom.		
I took part in the discussion about national stereotypes.		
I took part in the discussion about controversy.		
I read the February section of Adrian Mole.		
I read the March section of Adrian Mole.		
I practiced for the dictation.		
I prepared a presentation for class.		
I spent minimum 3 hours per week learning English outside the classroom.		
I learned at least 10 new words in the past four weeks		
COURSE PARTICIPATION	YES	NO
I come to classes regularly.		
I come to classes on time.		
I come to classes prepared (bring books, notebook, pen).		
I take part in class activities.		
I pay attention in class.		
I listen to instructions carefully before I begin working on a task.		
I understand teacher's instructions.		
I ask for help if needed.		
I listen carefully to my colleagues.		
I respond to my teachers and colleagues appropriately.		
I take notes during a class.		

Please use the following marking code:

1 –NEVER / 2 – SELDOM / 3 – OFTEN / 4 – ALMOST EVERYTIME / 5 - ALWAYS

LEARNING OBJECTIVES	1	2	3	4	5
I can distinguish between who, whom and whose.					
I can identify an adjective in a sentence.					
I can identify an adverb in a sentence.					
I know when to use an adjective instead of adverb in a sentence.					
I understand the meaning of modal verbs.					
I understand use of prepositions in English.					
I expanded my vocabulary to talk about fashion and clothes.					

I expanded my vocabulary to talk about travel.					
I know how to form nationality adjectives.					
I can describe a character from the book supporting it with evidence.					
I can support a general statement using examples.					

Please identify 2 things (areas) from the previous table that you need to work on or improve, and for each describe how you plan on accomplishing it and by when?

Area for improvement (what)	Plan for accomplishing it (how)	Timeline (when)

Zorica Trajkova[1]
Faculty of Philology
Ss. Cyril and Methodius University
Skopje, Macedonia

BUILDING AUTHORITY AND ENGAGING THE READERS IN BA GRADUATE PAPERS

Abstract
This paper aims to demonstrate how Macedonian and German students of EFL build their authority and at the same time acknowledge the presence of the readers in their BA graduate papers through the use of two metadiscourse categories: self-mentions and engagement markers. By making themselves visible in the text, writers display their confidence in the ideas and evaluations they present.
More precisely, this paper sets out to explore the function and use of self-mentions and engagement markers in BA graduation papers written by 40 German and 40 Macedonian EFL students, both graduating from the English departments in their native countries. Overall, the analysis gives an insight into the use of these strategies in BA theses as a specific written genre in both languages and it contributes to our understanding of the authorial reference and the dialogic nature of persuasion.

Key words: BA graduate papers, metadiscourse, self-mention, engagement markers, persuasion

∞∞∞

1. Introduction

Writers need to be pragmatically competent in order to persuade the readers to accept their points of view presented in the text. One aspect of writers' pragmatic competence is their ability to represent themselves as credible personas, with authority and expertise in the specific area they write about. Another aspect of their competence is reflected in their ability to

[1] trajkova_zorica@flf.ukim.edu.mk

establish an appropriate relationship with the readers by involving them in the discourse and making them active participants in the creation of arguments.

This article explores the use and pragmatic function of two groups of interpersonal metadiscourse markers: self-mentions and engagement markers, in BA graduate papers as a written genre. Their role in the text is mainly to build the writer's authority and engage the readers in the discourse. Furthermore, the use of these markers contributes to the persuasive effect of the text on the readers. The aim is to see to what extent these markers are used in this specific genre in two different academic settings (Macedonian and German) and how the use of specific markers defines this type of written genre in both societies.

2. Theoretical background

2.1. Academic discourse: BA graduate paper as a written genre

The BA graduate paper is a type of argumentative academic writing. It is the final piece of writing submitted by students before they graduate, and it usually involves, besides the presented theoretical background, a small-scale research carried out in the area of study. In certain countries (as is the case in Macedonia), students are required to defend their thesis before a committee of (usually three) professors.

This type of written text offers students the possibility to carry out a real scientific research by incorporating and putting into practice all the knowledge they have gained throughout their studies of the specific subject area. The BA graduate paper is actually the first more serious type of academic text they are required to write, because prior to that, they were only focused on writing argumentative essays, seminar papers, or short research articles. However, since students usually do smaller-scale research in BA papers than in master theses or doctoral dissertations, it is assumed that their knowledge in the specific language area is somewhat limited. Therefore it is essential that they are careful when creating their voice as writers and establishing the relation with the readers.

There has not been much research done on the use of metadiscourse markers in this particular genre (see for instance Pungă & Borchin, 2014), although there is an extensive research in other types of academic writing

(Crismore, Merkkanen, & Steffensen, 1993; Kuo, 1998; Hyland, 2002a, 2002b, 2002c; 2005b etc.). Therefore, an analysis of this kind has been a real challenge.

It is expected that this paper will reveal how young researchers, still undergraduate students, build their identity in the text and in what way they establish a relationship with the readers i.e. their professors, in both societies. This insight is also important, especially for university professors who teach academic writing, because it will reveal whether students follow the writing conventions taught at each department in both societies and at the same time the possible problems they might face. Therefore, an analysis of this kind is expected to aid the teaching process.

2.2. Interpersonal metadiscourse: self-mentions and engagement markers

Metadiscourse[2] is used in written texts to offer a way of understanding language in use and it represents the writer's attempts to guide the readers' perception of the text (Hyland, 2005a, p. 3). When linguists tried to define metadiscourse they followed Halliday's classification (1974), according to which language has three main metafunctions: *ideational* (the proposition itself), *interpersonal* and *textual*. Therefore, according to many of them (Vande Kopple 1985; Crismore & Farnsworth 1990; Crismore et al., 1993; Hyland, 1998), metadiscourse was classified in two major groups: *textual* and *interpersonal*. *Textual metadiscourse* organizes the text and directs readers towards the intended interpretation. *Interpersonal metadiscourse*, on the other hand, helps writers to express their attitude towards the proposition and establish a certain relationship with the readers.

It offers a framework for understanding communication as social engagement and refers to the features writers use to express their views concerning the propositional material and help readers accept and share their views (ibid, p. 4). Hyland, 2005a, p.4???

Self-mentions and engagement markers are types[3] of interpersonal metadiscourse markers (see, for instance, Hyland, 2001, 2002a, 2005a, b). Many authors have categorized these two types of markers in one group of markers called *commentaries* (Kopple, 1985; Crismore, Markannen &

[2] This term was coined by Zellig Harris in 1959

[3] According to several authors (Hyland 2005a, Crismore et al., 1993 etc.), there are 5 main categories of interpersonal metadiscourse markers: hedges, boosters, attitude markers, self-mentions and engagement markers.

Steffensen, 1993; Dafouz-Milne, 2008). *Self-mentions*, as their name suggests, are language features which help authors present (or mention) themselves explicitly in the text. *Engagement markers*, on the other hand, help the authors engage the readers actively in the text by involving them in the propositions through different language strategies (by using *second person pronouns, directives, questions* etc.), (Trajkova, 2014, p. 94).

2.2.1. Self-mentions

As it was previously mentioned, the use of self-mentions "reveals the level of the author's presence in the text measured through the frequency of use of personal pronouns and possessive adjectives (*I, me, mine, exclusive we*[4]*, our, ours*)" (Hyland, 2005a, p. 53). According to Hyland (2004a, p. 106) the use of self-mentions is probably the most important strategy which helps in building the role of the author as an authority and a person who is reliable and knowledgeable.

The authors themselves have the freedom to decide whether they will explicitly reveal themselves in the text or will just implicitly refer to themselves. This, however, depends on the way they see themselves, the confidence they have in their arguments and the relationship they strive to establish with the readers (Trajkova, 2014, p. 96). Or, as Kuo (1998, p. 123) says: "the choice of a certain personal pronoun for a given context, or even the presence or non-presence of a personal pronoun […] can often reveal how writers view themselves, their relationship with the readers, and their relationship with the discourse community they belong to".

2.2.2. Engagement markers

Engagement markers are another type of interpersonal markers used by writers to help them establish a relationship with the readers and at the same time involve them as direct participants in the discourse. The use of these markers also helps the authors to provoke the readers' affective feelings and in this way persuade them to accept the presented arguments. Therefore, their usage helps in the creation of an effective *pathos*[5]. On the other hand, it

[4] Exclusive "we" excludes the reader (the writer uses it to refer to himself/herself or some specific group of people which does not include the reader).

[5] *Pathos* refers to a communication technique used most often in Rhetoric (comes from ancient Greek – discussed by Aristotle in his "Rhetoric") and means an appeal to person's emotions.

also helps the writers to present themselves as competent in the specific subject area, which contributes to the creation of an effective *ethos*[6]. More precisely, with the help of these markers, the writers meet the readers' expectations by involving them in the discourse as direct participants in the argument, by means of:

1. **pronouns** (*you, your, inclusive we*[7]) and
2. **interjections;**

At the same time they 'lead' readers towards an appropriate interpretation of their intention, by means of:

3. **questions**,
4. **directives**,
5. **asides** (Hyland, 2005a, p. 53)[8].

According to Hyland (2004a, p. 110) the markers writers choose to use in the text define the type of text or genre and the aim they want to achieve with it. Therefore, it is expected that our analysis will show how the use of these specific engagement markers helps in defining the BA graduate papers as specific genre in both societies.

3. Corpus and research methodology

The corpus consisted of 11 BA graduate papers written by German students majoring in English at the Technical University Chemnitz, Germany and 11 BA graduate papers written by Macedonian students of English from the Ss. Cyril and Methodius University in Skopje, Macedonia. All the papers were written in the area of linguistics. It is important to note down that the

[6] In rhetoric, *ethos* is another mode of persuasion, along with *pathos* and *logos* and means an appeal to person's character and moral beliefs.

[7] Inclusive "we" includes the reader (when the writer uses it he/she means "you (the reader) and I (the writer)")

[8] Interjections and asides are excluded from this analysis because they were not expected to appear in significant number in this type of text.

German papers were about three times longer than the Macedonian ones (14 223 versus 5242 word tokens)[9].

The analysis was carried out both manually and with the help of computer software. Firstly, the programme *concordance* AntConc 3.2.3w (as well as the *'Wordsmith tools':* software used to list most frequent word uses in a selected corpus, *Key Words* by Mike Scott, 1998) was used to obtain a list of all the uses of certain words/ phrases in the corpus. Then, they were analysed manually to distinguish those which have metadiscourse functions of self-mentions and engagement markers in the text. After that, the selected ones were analysed semantically and then formally, i.e. they were classified in an appropriate word group.

Two initial hypotheses were made prior to the analysis. The expectations were that:

Hypothesis 1: There will be differences in the use of the various subtypes of self-mentions and engagement markers across the two corpora (GerBA and MacBA).

Hypothesis 2: German students will use both these markers more frequently than Macedonian students.

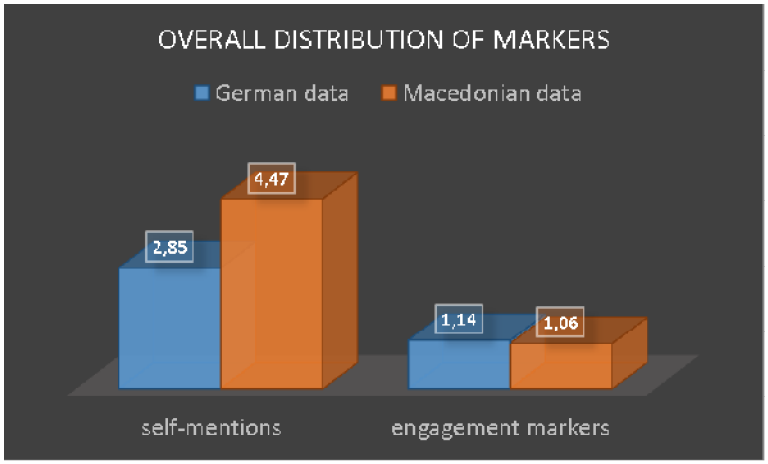
The reason the first hypothesis was posed was that the theses were written in two different societies, at two different language departments. It was expected that there would be differences in the writing conventions that the two societies follow, as well as some pure cultural differences which might influence the way the students were thinking and writing. The reason for posing the second hypothesis was the fact that German students had been instructed on the use of metadiscourse markers in academic writing throughout their academic writing course. Therefore it was expected that they would naturally use them more frequently and probably more appropriately than Macedonian students.

4. Distribution and pragmatic function of self-mentions and engagement markers

The overall distribution of self-mentions and engagement markers in the two corpora is presented in graph 1. As it can be seen, self-mentions were

[9] The English department at the Macedonian university had brought an internal rule that the Bachelor degree papers are from 25-40 pages long only, and that is why they differ in length compared to the German.

much more frequently used in both data. Macedonians used them about twice as frequently compared to Germans (4.47 vs. 2.85, frequency per 1000 words). A separate analysis of the specific subtypes of these markers was additionally done so that the reasons for this are revealed. On the other hand, engagement markers were much less frequently used than self-mentions and their use was very similar in both German and Macedonian data (about once in 1000 words). Further in the text, an analysis on the use and pragmatic function of both group of markers is done.



Graph 1. *Overall distribution of markers across the two corpora*

4.1. Self mentions

The analysis of the use of self-mentions in the two corpora showed that the first person pronoun "I" was almost twice as frequent in the German corpus (2.06 vs. 1.34, frequency per 1000 words), while the exclusive "we" was a lot more frequently used in the Macedonian corpus (2.69 vs. 0.21, frequency per 1000 words). This clearly shows that Macedonian writers are more prone to using the authorial "we", while German writers appear to be more confident to refer explicitly to themselves when stating their claims in the text.

However, when writers decide to use the first person pronoun, they seem to take greater responsibility for their claims. The research results Hyland (2002a) came to when analysing the use of personal pronouns by undergraduate students, are really relevant to our study. His research

showed that the students avoided to present themselves explicitly in the text. On the other hand, the research he did on the use of these markers in dissertations of doctoral and master students (2004b) showed that doctoral students felt much more confident in their claims, so they used these markers almost four times more frequently than students working on their master theses. Now, taking into consideration the fact that the BA theses were written by students who were still undergraduates, it was really unexpected to discover that they (especially the German) feel so confident to refer to themselves explicitly in the texts. The reason for this might be the way the two groups of students were educated i.e. instructed on the conventions on writing of this type of text in both societies, or simply a result of cultural differences i.e. German students might simply be more confident to refer to themselves openly.

Table 1. *Distribution of the self-mentions in the corpus*

Self-mentions	**German corpus**		**Macedonian corpus**	
	'n'	frequency per 1000 words	'n'	frequency per 1000 words
I	322	2.06	77	1.34
me	5	0.03	-	-
my	85	0.54	15	0.26
our	1	0.01	1	0.02
us (exclusive)	-	-	10	0.17
we (exclusive)	33	0.21	155	2.69
Total	446	**2.85**	258	**4.47**

The examples below feature the use of these markers in both corpora. As it can be seen, in (1), the writer, a German student uses the first person pronoun to refer to himself/ herself, while in (2), the Macedonian writer uses the authorial "we", again for reference to himself/ herself. In Macedonia, especially at the English department, students are encouraged to use this form in their writing as more appropriate than the first person pronoun. I am not sure what the reason for this may be. It might be that it sounds more polite or it simply makes the writer more comfortable because he/she doesn't take whole responsibility for the presented arguments.

(1) *The reason was that I am interested in the dialect lexis of Sheffield only and not of the area South Yorkshire. Nevertheless, I agree that the main study may be conducted again with more participants to verify the collected data and findings.* (GerBA_9)

(2) *In the first sentence we have the indefinite article which introduces the new information for the first time. While in the second one, we assume that the speaker is already familiar with the subject.* (MacBA_8)

The other types of self-mentions were not frequently used in both corpora. Examples (3)-(5) feature their usage in some texts. In (3), the possessive "our" is used as a correlate to the authorial "we". In (4) and (5), on the other hand, the possessive "my" and objective "me" are used as correlates to the first person pronoun "I".

(3) *The purpose of this paper is to explain the importance of the equality among sexes in the process of speaking and general usage of language (in our case English and Macedonian),…* (MacBA_10)

(4) *One of the most difficult tasks for me was to explain the use of adjectives and adverbs, more precisely to use the right form in the right context. It appeared to me that they simply could not understand that adjectives referred to nouns,…* (GerBA_3)

(5) *The core of my comparison is based on two classifications (supplemented by subtypes) of passive sentences which are taken from articles published on the website SETimes.com.* (MacBA_7)

4.2. Engagement markers

The results of the analysis on the use of engagement markers, presented in Table 2, show that they were more or less similarly used in both corpora (1.14 (GerBAs) vs. 1.06 (MacBAs) frequency per 1000 words).

The most frequently used subtypes of these markers were the pronouns (the first person plural pronoun was used more often in the Macedonian corpus, while the second person pronoun in the German corpus), then the directives (German students used them more often) and finally the questions (Macedonian students used them more often).

Table 2. *Distribution of engagement markers across the two corpora*

Engagement markers		Ger. data 'n'	Freq. per 1000 words	Mac. data 'n'	Freq. per 1000 words
we (inclusive)		43	0.27	21	0.36
you		32	0.20	7	0.12
your		6	0.04	2	0.03
our (inclusive)		33	0.21	3	0.05
us (inclusive)		6	0.04	-	-
directives		62	0.39	16	0.28
questions	rhetorical	1	0.17	1	0.21
	questions	26		11	
Total:		179	**1.14**	61	**1.06**

4.2.1. Pronouns

1st and *2nd* person pronouns are known as personal metadiscourse or personal reference because they show who the addresser and the addressee are, i.e. they help the readers locate the writer and themselves in the text. In BA graduate papers as a genre, the use of inclusive 'we' as a metadiscourse marker is of great importance because it helps the students – writers to establish contact with the professors – readers (Trajkova, 2014 p. 100). By engaging the readers in the discourse, they lower the potential risk of their disagreement with the arguments, which in this case is very important (ibid.).

As for the use of the specific subtypes of markers, the inclusive "we", for instance, was used more often by the Macedonian writers, while the German writers addressed the readers directly with the second person pronoun "you", more frequently than the Macedonian. So, again, it seems that the German are more confident to address the readers directly, while the Macedonians tend to engage the readers in their text by using the inclusive "we" as a metadiscourse strategy. The examples below feature the use of pronouns and possessive adjectives.

As it can be seen, in example (6), the writer uses "we" and "our" generically, but, they are also considered to have metadiscourse function

because they to refer to both the writer and the readers. The use of inclusive 'we' helps the writers involve the readers in the discourse, and at the same time, lower the potential risk of their disagreement with the arguments. It also shows the readers that although they do not have a direct contact with the writer, their presence, wishes and stances are taken into consideration.

(6) *The reason for all of this is to be found in our mind, more precisely it requires finding out how we store and access memories, and how we use them for a decision or a choice. In this respect, the terms categorisation prototype help to understand our mind and thought structure.* (MacBA_4)

The second person pronoun *you* also has a metadiscourse function and it can refer to the imagined reader or, it can be an example of a generic use of *you, your,* which can be replaced with *we* or one. In example (7), the writer addresses the reader directly, giving them instructions on how they should read and understand the text. The use of the second person pronoun is very rarely seen in the Macedonian texts.

(7) *As you can see in Figure 4, I would like to support my explanations of AntConc with the help of the feature 'whenever in the sense of when'. Right at the top you can see the menu bar which helps you to coordinate the whole tool. By clicking on the menu 'File', a submenu opens and you can, for instance, open the txt-files which you want to use for your analysis.* (GerBA_10)

In examples (8) and (9), the writer again tries to involve the reader in the text by using the possessive "our" and the objective "us". It is expected that this usage will have greater persuasive effect on the readers because they "are made to feel" as if they were involved in the creation of the arguments, and, therefore, already agree with them.

(8) *However, one issue not to be omitted is that our perception does many unconscious decisions for us, and it also influences our conscious behaviour. In general, what is true for us acts as our measure for everyday life.* (GerBA_4)

(9) *Regarding these identities, there will be consequences in the language use for each of them, which, generally speaking, leads us to the fact that it is mainly the language that signals a certain aspect of our social identity, and not the clothing, behavior or sexism.* (MacBA_10)

4.2.2. Directives

According to Hyland (2005b, p.371), *directives* are a type of engagement markers employed by writers to provoke readers' participation in the text by urging them to carry out an action or see things from the writer's perspective. With the use of these markers, the writer tries to take control both over the text and the readers and show authority. Hyland (2002b) also identifies three main functions of directives in the text:

a) ***textual*** (these directives are used to help the writers to lead the readers to some textual act, directing them towards some part of the text or another text),

b) ***physical*** (they are used to make the readers carry out some physical act, such as an activity in the real world), and

c) ***cognitive*** (they are used to lead the readers towards a cognitive act, rely on their cognitive capacity in order to understand a certain point) (Hyland, 2004a, p. 101; 2005b, p. 372).

Therefore, directives do not serve simply to give commands to readers but they present rhetorical strategies used by the writers to shape their relationship with the readers and lead them to the appropriate interpretation of the text. However, it is very important that they are used appropriately, because they are considered face-threatening acts and therefore, can threaten the face of the reader.

The analysis of the use of directives showed that they were more frequently used by the German students and their main purpose was to give directions to the reader on how they should read the text (see examples (10)-(13)). In this way, the writer engages the reader in the text and establishes a relationship of trust.

(10) *Let's look at some of the Macedonian equivalent* (Mac_4)

(11) *Look at the following pair of words* (Mac_10)

(12) *Please take the examples below into consideration.* (Ger_10)

(13) *see Campbell, 2004: 260* (Ger_9)

It is important to note that writers opted for two forms when presenting their research results. They either decided to use a directive in order to guide the reader in the text, as in example (14), or used a passive construction instead – in this particular case: *a closer/brief look will be taken at…*

(14) *Therefore, take a look at the following example…* (Ger_8)

Following Hyland's classification presented above, it can be concluded that most of the directives used in the papers were either physical, urging readers to some physical act like: *look at that, see example* etc. or textual, giving directions to the readers on how they should read some part of the text like: *look at the examples/graph below/above*, etc. However, the aim of both these types of directives was to urge readers to a cognitive act i.e. try to understand things from the perspective of the writer.

4.2.3. Questions

Questions are one more type of engagement markers and they are used by writers to show their awareness of the readers by inviting them to answer the posed question[10] while suggesting or giving them the correct answer. In that way writers indirectly pull the readers in their text as active participants in the discourse. This is supposed to be a very successful persuasive strategy so it is recommended that writers employ it when possible.

The results of the analysis on the use of questions as engagement markers showed that writers used questions in their theses on which they usually gave an answer. Macedonian writers used questions a little bit more frequently than German, but there was no significant difference between the two corpora.

If we take a look at some examples taken from the data (see (15)-(18)), we can see that the questions used were mostly research questions that the writers tried to answer in their theses, as in (15) and (16). At times, however, they would just ask the reader a question which came up naturally as they were doing their analysis, as in (17) and (18).

(15)*What were the most prominent choices of both males and females?* (Ger_4)

(16) *Do German on-line newspapers use anglicisms more frequently than Spanish ones?* (Ger_6)

(17) *However, the question imposed is: How do such differences arise?* (Mac_10)

[10] See more about the use of questions as a type of metadiscourse markers in Hyland, 2002c.

(18) *Now, is it possible that we have a specific sense of language as being divided into men and women, and if so, are all these differences much stronger than they really are?* (Mac_10)

5. Conclusion

This paper aimed to investigate the use and pragmatic function of two types of interpersonal metadiscourse markers: self-mentions and engagement markers, in Macedonian and American BA graduate papers as a written genre. The analysis showed that the main pragmatic function of self-mentions in these written texts is to help the writers make themselves visible in the text and thus build their authority and integrity and at the same time reveal their stance concerning the topic they are presenting. Therefore, self-mentions in BA theses help the authors build their voice as authors of an original scientific text and at the same time express their confidence in the research results they present. In that way, they appear as experts who 'stand behind' their arguments and research findings.

On the other hand, the pragmatic function of engagement markers in BA theses is to help the writers to establish a relationship with the readers by acknowledging and involving them in the discourse and attributing to them equal responsibility for the presented arguments. Their use is very important in this specific genre because the writers, who are students writing their first more serious scientific text, have the need to establish relationship with the readers, in this case – their professors, and persuade them to agree with them.

The analysis done in this research proved the first hypothesis correct i.e. there were differences in the use of the various subtypes of self-mentions and engagement markers across the two corpora (GerBAs and MacBAs). The results showed that German students felt more confident to use first person singular pronoun to refer to themselves and second person pronoun to refer to the readers in the text. On the other hand, Macedonian students used mostly the authorial "we" to refer to themselves and the inclusive "we" to refer to the readers. It is assumed that the reason for this might be some differences in the accepted writing conventions that the two English departments in the two different societies follow. Furthermore, since the writers belong to two different cultures, the reasons might also originate from pure cultural differences. German people, or students in this case, might simply be more direct than Macedonian. However, further, more elaborate

research should be done in order to see whether this supposition is correct or not.

In addition, the analysis proved the second hypothesis incorrect i.e. contrary to what was expected, the German students did not use both markers more frequently than the Macedonian students. There was a variety in the usage of the various subtypes of these markers in both corpora. It seems that the expectation that the explicit instruction would make the German students use the markers more often was not valid. Instruction maybe helped these students be more aware of them and probably use them more correctly. However, this would be a topic for another research since this issue was not considered here.

Finally, we believe that this paper gave some insight into the use and pragmatic function of the two specific types of interpersonal metadiscourse markers in BA graduate papers and therefore, it is expected to contribute to the general understanding of the authorial reference and the dialogic nature of persuasion in this specific type of written genre.

References

Crismore, A., & Farnsworth, R. (1990). Metadiscourse in popular and professional science discourse. In Nash, W. (Ed.), *The writing scholar, Studies in Academic Discourse* (pp.118–136). Sage Publications, Inc.

Crismore, A., Markannen, R., & Steffensen, M. (1993). Metadiscourse in persuasive writing. A study of text written by American and Finnish university students. *Written Communication,* 10(1), 39 –71.

Connor, U. (1996). *Contrastive rhetoric*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dafouz-Milne, E. (2008). The pragmatic role of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers in the construction and attainment of persuasion: A cross-linguistic study of newspaper discourse. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 40(1), 95–113.

Fairclough, N. (1995). *Critical discourse analysis*. Essex: Longman.

Fowler, R. (1991). *Language in the news: Discourse and ideology in the press*. London: Routledge.

Halliday, M.A.K. (1974). *Explorations in the functions of language*. London: Edward Arnold Publishers Ltd.

Hyland, K. (1998). Persuasion and context: The pragmatics of academic metadiscourse. *Journal of Pragmatics,* 30, 437–455.

Hyland, K. (2001). Humble servants of the discipline? Self-mention in research articles. *English for Specific Purposes,* 20(3), 207–226.

Hyland, K. (2002a). Authority and invisibility: authorial identity in academic writing. *Journal of Pragmatics,* 34, 1091–1112.

Hyland, K. (2002b). Directives: Power and engagement in academic writing. *Applied Linguistics*, 23(2), 215–239.

Hyland, K. (2002c). What do they mean? Questions in academic writing. *Text*, *22*(4), 529–557.

Hyland, K. (2004a). A convincing argument: Corpus analysis and academic persuasion. In U. Connor & T. A. Upton (Eds.), *Discourse in the professions: Perspectives from corpus linguistics* (pp. 87–112). Amsterdam, PA: John Benjamins B. V.

Hyland, K. (2004b). Disciplinary interactions: metadiscourse in L2 postgraduate writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 13 (2), 133–151.

Hyland, K. (2005a). *Metadiscourse. Exploring Interaction in Writing*. Cornwall: MPG Books Ltd, Bodmin.

Hyland, K. (2005b). Representing readers in writing: Student and expert practices. *Linguistics and Education,* 16, 363–377.

Kuo, C. (1998). The use of personal pronouns: role relationships in scientific journal articles. *English for Specific Purposes,* 18 (2), 121–138.

Le, E. (2004). Active participation within written argumentation: metadiscourse and editorialist's authority. *Journal of Pragmatics,* 36, 687–714.

Pungă, L. & Borchin, M. (2014).The Metatextual Role of Introductions to BA Papers. *Romanian Journal of English Studies,*. 11(1), 36–47.

Richardson, J. (2007). *Analysing newspapers: An approach from critical discourse analysis*. London: Palgrave, Macmillan.

Trajkova, Z. (2014). Building authority and acknowledging the readers in newspaper editorials. *Book of Proceedings from the International conference Contexts I. Novi Sad* (pp. 93-108). Novi Sad: Filozofski fakultet.

Vande Kopple, W. (1985). Some explanatory discourse on metadiscourse. *College Composition and Communication,* 36, 82–93.

Silvana Neshkovska[1]
Faculty of Education
"St. Kliment Ohridski" University
Bitola, Macedonia

THE POWER OF VERBAL IRONY TO INSTIGATE IRONIC RESPONSES

Abstract
Normally people use verbal irony when they want to be humorous, criticize, humiliate and make fun of their interlocutors. The interlocutors, i.e. the 'victims' of irony, depending on how they interpret the ironist's intent, could react in various ways, for instance, they could laugh; say nothing; change the topic or respond ironically.
In this paper the accent is put on the ironic responses uttered as a reaction to the ironist's initial ironic comments. In fact, this paper analyzes the 'power' of verbal irony to provoke further ironic comments in formal and informal discourse, in two completely dissimilar languages, Macedonian and English.
The results reveal that, in general, unlike the Macedonian native speakers who appear to be more hesitant, the English native speakers show greater inclination towards reciprocating ironically to the initial ironic comments. However, both Macedonian and English native speakers seem to prefer to respond ironically to the initial ironic expressions much more frequently in informal speech than in formal speech.

Key words: verbal irony, ironic responses, formal/informal speech

∞∞∞

1. Introduction

Many researchers who have dealt with the intricate issue of verbal irony among other aspects have also tackled the aspect of verbal irony most

[1] silvanakolevska@yahoo.com

frequently referred to as the 'victims' of irony and their responses (Attardo, 2001; Eisterhold et al., 2006; Gibbs & Colston, 2007 etc.).

The research, in this respect, has shown that the initial ironic comment could be addressed to various recipients or 'victims'. For instance, in some cases, the 'victim' is the speaker's interlocutor; however, in the interactions which include several interlocutors, this could be one of the interlocutors who is not supposed to recognize the ironic intent of the ironist. In some interactions, even a person who is absent and, consequently, is not taking part in the conversation at all could be the target of the initial ironic comment as well.

Understandably, the diverse pragmatic functions of the ironic comments such as expressing *humor* (Kreuz & Long, 1991; Littman & Mey, 1991; Long & Graesser, 1988; Long & Kreuz, 1991; Roberts & Kreuz, 1994; Matthews et al., 2006); *criticism* (Clark & Gerrig, 1984; Kumon-Nakamura, Glucksberg & Brown, 1995; Sperber & Wilson, 1981), *surprise* (Colston & Keller, 1998) etc., could provoke a wide array of reactions on the part of the 'victims'. Namely, sometimes, in order for the 'victims' to avoid compromising their position, they find it more convenient to pretend that they have not comprehended the ironic intention of the ironist; whereas, at other times, they might indeed fail to recognize the ironic intent. Additionally, the 'victims' may wish to acknowledge the ironic intention of the ironist simply by laughing if they find the ironic remark humorous, or by remaining silent and not responding to it if it hurts their feelings. In some situations, the 'victims' of irony deem it appropriate to respond ironically to the initial ironic comment because they do not want to terminate the 'joke' and leave the ironist with the impression that they are incompetent interlocutors. On the other hand, they may chose to respond ironically as the bitterness and the critical overtone of the ironist's remark hurt their feelings and now they want to reciprocate in the same manner.

In this paper, however, we focus solely on responding ironically to the initial ironic comments, i.e. we investigate the 'power' of verbal irony to provoke new instances of verbal irony, irrespective of the internal motives of the 'victims' which prompted them to resort to using irony.

Considering the fact that verbal irony is both a universal and culturally marked linguistic phenomenon whose analysis is best performed contrastively, i.e. by comparing its manifestations in at least two distinct languages, this study investigates this aspect of verbal irony in two completely dissimilar and unrelated languages, Macedonian and English. In

fact, the aim is to determine whether Macedonian or English native speakers are more inclined towards responding ironically to the initial ironic comments.

Furthermore, the formality of the context in which the interactions take place is also brought to the foreground. Namely, the paper seeks to ascertain whether there are any differences in the incidence of the ironic responses used in formal and informal contexts, i.e. when formal and informal speech is used by Macedonian and English native speakers, respectively.

As to the structure of the paper – first, we outline a short theoretical background on the 'victims' of irony and their responses; then, we present the methodology used for compiling and analyzing the linguistic corpus used in this particular research. Finally, we discuss the results obtained from this analysis and draw conclusions pertaining to the similarities and differences in both languages.

2. Theoretical background

Some of the main discussions pertaining to verbal irony revolve around these two questions: "Who is verbal irony usually intended for?" and "How do 'victims' of irony normally react?" In other words, the 'victims' of irony and their reactions, constitute a very important aspect of the research on verbal irony (Barbe, 1995).

The role of the 'victim' is normally allocated to the person whose action or inaction has prevented the speaker, i.e. the ironist from realizing his/her intentions and expectations, although, sometimes the unrealized expectation of the ironist cannot be attributed to anyone in particular (e.g. "*What a wonderful weather*!" – uttered during a storm) (Utsumi, 2000, p. 1795). In certain misfortunate situations, the ironist himself/herself can undertake the role of the 'victim', in order to achieve the effect of self-compassion, i.e. to laugh off his/her misfortune and to behave optimistically (e.g. *"Oh, great! This is lovely!"* – uttered upon hurting one's leg). Sometimes, the victim could be a person who is not even present and is not taking part in the conversation, but, yet, he/she is the 'topic' of discussion because of something he/she had done or said (Barbe, 1995; Hutcheon, 1995, p. 42 in Rosolovska, 2011). The ironist could be addressing several interlocutors at the same time, in which case, the ironic comment is usually intended for one of the interlocutors who is not supposed to realize that. The rest of the interlocutors immediately grasp the ironic intent of the ironist and become the ironist's allies (Jeoung, 2006).

According to the latest theories, verbal irony should be analyzed as a complex ironic exchange or a speech act which includes both the initial ironic comment of the ironist and the response of the 'victim' (Attardo, 2001; Eisterhold et al., 2006; Gibbs & Colston, 2007). Thus, according to Attardo (2001: 176) upon decoding the meaning of the ironist's ironic comment, the interlocutor, i.e. the 'victim', is faced with one of the following options:

a) to react to the dictum (the said), i.e. the literal meaning of the utterance;

b) to react to the implicatum (the implied), i.e. the figurative meaning of the utterance[2];

c) to laugh and

d) to remain silent or change the topic.

Anolli et al. (2001, p. 156) claim that the interlocutor could react in one of these three ways:

a) the interlocutor fails to understand the ironic meaning of the utterance; (misunderstanding),

b) the interlocutor correctly interprets the ironic meaning of the utterance, yet he pretends that he/she hasn't done that so as not to compromise his/her position and to remain "distant" (denial) and

c) when the interlocutor openly admits that he/she finds the witticism of the ironic comment funny or that the shrewdness of the indirect remark has hurt his/her feelings, he responds by smiling or by returning the 'blow', respectively (touché).

The interlocutors' reactions have been studied also by Gibbs (2000), Nelms et al. (2000) and Eisterhold et al. (2006). Gibbs (2000) purports that the 'victim' of irony, could respond by using an ironic or a literal expression; by laughing; changing the topic; or even he/she could fail in grasping the ironic intention. Nelms et al. (2000, p. 39) state that, most of the time, the interlocutor's response is a holophrastic 'Yeah' which, in fact, replaces an

[2] Only in the case when the interlocutor reacts to the implied meaning, it is clear that he/she has understood the ironic intention of the ironist. Logically, in all the other cases it is not clear whether the ironic intention of the ironist has been understood or not (Attardo, 2001).

entire ironic utterance. He also mentions ironic responses expressed in the form of some significant movements such as specific looks, shaking one's head in disbelief, blushing, squirming one's eyes etc. Eisterhold et al. (2006, p. 1250) notice that the victims' reactions are closely linked to the solidarity factor, i.e. whether the ironist and the interlocutor are close friends, acquaintances or strangers. Hence, due to the greater degree of solidarity, for instance, between close friends and relatives, it is much more natural and acceptable for the 'victims' in informal conversations to be more prone to responding ironically to previously uttered ironic remarks.

On the basis of all these contentions it becomes obvious that the usage of verbal irony in verbal interactions could result in creating very complex communicative events, which inevitably engage "both human intellect and emotions" (Walker, 1990, p. 24 in Leggit & Gibbs, 2000, p. 19).

3. Methodology

3.1. The corpus

As the focus of this research is placed on analyzing the ironic responses to the initial ironic comments in two different types of discourse, formal and informal, within two unrelated languages, Macedonian and English, we selected the television as the most accessible medium for obtaining and compiling linguistic material suitable for this analysis. In fact, the corpus comprises two distinct types of television programs: a) *television programs with entertaining character (talk shows)* in Macedonian (TPECM) and in English (TPECE) and b) *television programs with political character (political interviews, discussions and debates)* in Macedonian (TPPCM) and in English (TPPCE). The former type of television shows is characterized by a high level of informality of speech and behavior of both hosts and their guests who are usually famous people from the show business. This is mainly due to the fact that these TV shows are intended to provide viewers primarily with entertainment, and, consequently, with an opportunity to, at least, temporarily forget their everyday worries. The latter, on the other hand, offer an abundant source of formal conversations among politicians, political analysts and journalists who converse about serious political, economic and social affairs. Despite the seriousness and formality of their interactions, the participants very frequently resort to using verbal irony, especially when they wish to

disparage their political opponents' viewpoints and deeds and to mar their repute publically.

Excerpts from 13 political television shows and 13 talk shows, in both Macedonian and English, or in more precise terms, 560 minutes of recorded conversation (280 minutes in Macedonian and 280 minutes in English) were subjected to analysis. In order to increase the objectivity of the analysis as much as possible, apart from the equal duration of the recorded material in both languages, the accent was also put on the number of people, i.e. native speakers of Macedonian and English, who took part in the analyzed conversations. In that respect, the speech of 49 Macedonian and 45 English native speakers engaged in formal and informal conversations within the previously mentioned television shows was thoroughly analyzed (see Appendix).

3.2. The analysis of the corpus

The process of analyzing the compiled linguistic corpus was undertaken in several separate stages. The first stage of the analysis was directed at recognizing and singling out the ironic expressions from the non-ironic ones used in the analyzed television conversations. The recognition process was based on *the conditions for ironicalness* which utterances should meet in order to be interpreted ironically, proposed in some of the most influential theories on verbal irony[3]:

a) allusion – the ironic utterance alludes to the incongruity between the speakers' expectations and what happened in reality,
b) pretense – the speaker pretends that he is not criticizing or condemning anyone with his/her utterance, when, in fact, that is exactly what he/she is doing,
c) semantic negation – the speaker says one thing but means the complete opposite,

[3] Traditional Theory of Verbal Irony as Semantic Inversion (Cutler, 1974),The Pragmatic Approach (Grice, 1975, 1978); The Echoic Mention/Interpretation Theory (Sperber and Wilson, 1981, 1986); The Pretense Theory of Irony (Clark and Gerrig, 1984); The Allusional Pretense Theory (Kumon-Nakamura et al., 1995); The Relevance Inappropriateness Theory (Attardo, 2000); The Implicit Display Theory (Utsumi, 2000); Theory of VI (Colston, 2000); Irony as a Strategy for Indirect Communication (Anolli et al., 2002), Irony as Reversal of Evaluation (Partington, 2007).

d) relevant inappropriateness – the utterance is relevant and contextually incongruent at the same time, and
e) reversal of evaluation – if the evaluation of 'the said' is positive, then, it is reversed and the evaluation of 'the implied' becomes negative and vice versa.

Understandably, apart from these conditions, this process was, undoubtedly, significantly eased by the direct audio and visual access to the analyzed conversations which provides an insight into participants' facial expressions, gestures and changes in the tone of voice which, unquestionably, constitute an inseparable part of expressing ironicalness.

Furthermore, the identification of the ironic utterances was followed by recognition of the ironic exchanges they belonged to. In other words, in all of the analyzed conversations, the ironic exchanges were composed of: a) *an initial ironic comment* (IIE) uttered by the ironist, and, b) *an ironic response* (IRIIE) uttered by the interlocutor. More precisely, it was established that the ironist's initial ironic expression could be followed by the interlocutor's ironic response which might consist of one or more ironic expressions. It is not excluded, though, that the ironic response of the interlocutor could be, in fact, a combination of not only ironic but of literal expressions as well. Finally, the analysis showed that ironic response could be of a much more complex nature consisting of a mixture of ironic and literal expressions uttered by both the ironist and his/her interlocutor, interchangeably (Example 1).

In Example 1 the initial ironic expression provokes a complex ironic exchange between the host and the guest who is a famous pop star. The ironic exchange consists predominantly of ironic utterances (written in italics) and two literal ones. The host is trying to make fun of the provocative dress which was obviously completely transparent except for some embroidery concealing the intimate body parts of the singer who wore it on the Oscars Ceremony.

In the case of the complex ironic exchanges, almost immediately, it became apparent that is of a paramount importance to ascertain the 'boundaries' of the ironic exchange. In other words, there arose a need for determining a mechanism which would indicate the end of a particular ironic exchange. In this respect, it was established that the topic of the conversation introduced in the initial ironic utterance plays a crucial role. In other words, as long as the ironic utterances exchanged by the ironist and the interlocutor, which could be occasionally mixed with some literal utterances as well, refer to the topic introduced by the ironist in his/her initial ironic comment, they

belong to that particular ironic exchange. The first utterance which refers to another topic, i.e. directs the conversation in a completely different direction, irrespective of who uttered it, should be interpreted as the end of the ironic exchange in question (Neshkovska, 2014). Thus, for instance, in the previously discussed example (e.g.1) the ironic exchange finishes with the utterance "No, seriously, it was a great dress, an amazing dress really", inasmuch as from this point onward the conversation takes a completely new direction and a new topic is being introduced by the host which is completely unrelated with the guest's dress.

Example 1:

IIE

Host: *But there was a strategic placement of whatever that embroidery was on your dress. Had you sit down or lain over could something move to another area?*

IRIIE

Guest: *The dress is so constructed that nothing is gonna move.*
Host: *Nothing is gonna move*?!
Guest: No.
Host: *That almost sounds worse*.
Guest: *That's why I did change to the black dress*. No, seriously, it was a great dress, an amazing dress really.

In the following section we discuss the results obtained from the analysis of the linguistic corpus in terms of the power of verbal irony to instigate the usage of new ironic expressions in formal and informal discourse in Macedonian and English.

4. Results

As previously mentioned, the aim of this study was to discover whether Macedonian native speakers, on the one hand, or their English

counterparts, on the other hand, show greater readiness and inclination to accept the initiative of the ironist and to respond ironically to the ironist's initial ironic comment, in both formal and informal context.

In that respect, all the identified ironic utterances in the corpus were classified in two categories: a) initial ironic expressions uttered by the ironist and b) ironic responses to the initial ironic expressions uttered by either the interlocutor and/or the ironist, interchangeably (Table 1).

Table 1. *Ironic utterances identified in the corpus*

	MACEDONIAN		**ENGLISH**	
no. of initial ironic comments	**formal (TPPCM)**	**informal (TPECM)**	**formal (TPPCE)**	**informal (TPECE)**
	144	138	164	101
	282		265	
no. of ironic responses to the initial ironic expressions	**formal (TPPCM)**	**informal (TPECM)**	**formal (TPPCE)**	**informal (TPECE)**
	41	200	127	221
	241		348	
total no. of ironic expressions	**523**		**613**	

Generally speaking, the number of ironic expressions identified in the English interactions (613) was slightly greater than the number of ironic expressions used in the Macedonian interactions (523), which indicates the English native speakers showed somewhat greater inclination to speak ironically in comparison to their Macedonian counterparts.

Moreover, the obtained results observed within each of the two analyzed languages, Macedonian and English, separately, show that (Chart 1):

а) in **Macedonian**, there was a greater number of initial ironic expression (282 IIE) in comparison to the number of the ironic responses to the initial ironic expressions (241 IRIIE),

б) in **English**, the number of the ironic responses to the initial ironic expressions (348 IRIIE) was greater in comparison to the initial ironic expressions (265 IIE).

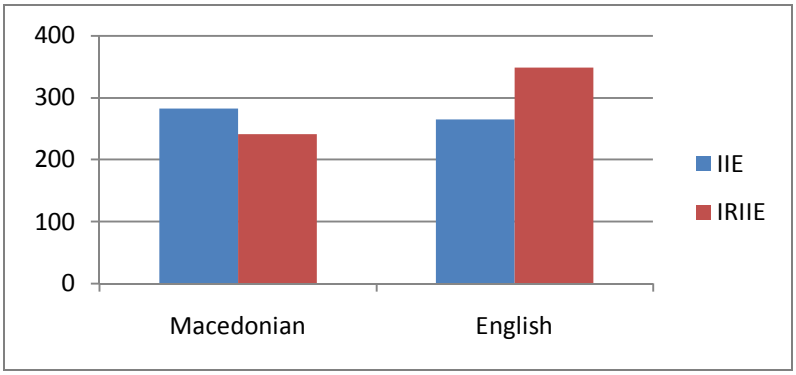


Chart 1. *Initial ironic expressions (IIE) and ironic responses (IRIIE) in Macedonian and English*

Generally speaking, these results indicate that, unlike their Macedonian counterparts who seem to be somewhat more reserved in their verbal interactions, the English native speakers show greater preparedness to accept the initiative for ironic interaction, i.e. to respond ironically to the initial ironic expression directed at them (Chart 1).

Furthermore, if we observe the results from the perspective of the formality of the speech, the following insights present themselves:
a) in **formal speech,** the number of the initial ironic expressions is higher than the number of the ironic responses to the initial ironic expressions in both Macedonian (144 IIE vs. 41 IRIIE) and English (164 IIE vs. 127 IRIIE) (Chart 2),
b**)** in **informal speech,** the number of the ironic responses to the initial ironic expressions is higher than the number of the actual initial ironic expressions in both Macedonian (200 IRIIE vs. 138 IIE) and English (221 IRIIE vs.101 IIE) (Chart 3).

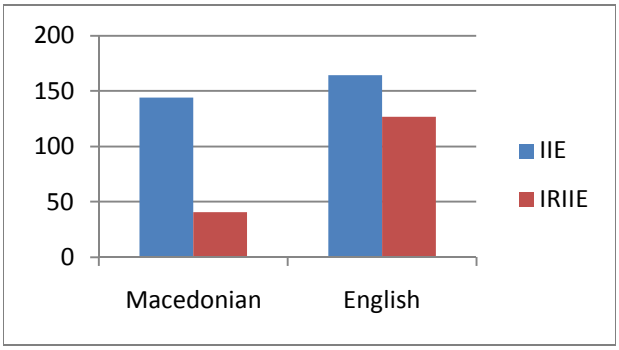


Chart 2. *IIE and IRIIE in Macedonian and English formal speech*

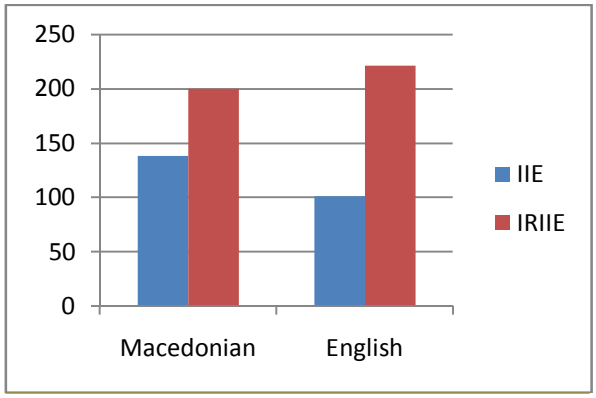


Chart 3. *IIE and IRIIE in Macedonian and English informal speech*

These results imply that in formal speech, in both Macedonian and English, the initial ironic comments of the ironists more often than not are followed by non-ironic expressions on the part of their interlocutors. This is especially the case in the Macedonian language where the number of the initial ironic expressions was several times greater than the number of the ironic responses to the initial ironic expressions. This implies that when Macedonian native speakers speak formally, they refrain from responding ironically and make visible efforts to go back to the serious mode of speaking as soon as possible. Unlike them, their English counterparts, prior to resuming the serious mode of conversation, display greater preparedness to respond ironically to the ironic comments previously directed at them.

The situation is completely different in informal speech, since in the informal interactions, the ironists' initial ironic comments are evidently much more easily accepted on the part of the interlocutors and, more often than not, instigate new ironic expressions on the part of both Macedonian and English native speakers.

5. Conclusion

This paper analyzed the 'power' of verbal irony to generate new ironic expressions in formal and informal discourse in Macedonian and English and in that respect it discovered certain similarities and differences in the two analyzed types of discourse, formal and informal, within these two languages.

On the whole, the English native speakers seem to be more inclined towards expressing their viewpoints and opinions ironically as the number of

ironic expressions in the English conversations was slightly greater than the number of ironic expressions in the Macedonian conversations. Moreover, in general terms, in comparison with Macedonian native speakers, English native speakers also display a greater inclination towards accepting and continuing the ironist's initiative for expressing ironicalness as their IRIIE considerably outnumber their IIE.

However, in formal speech, both Macedonian and English native speakers, and especially the Macedonian native speakers, refrained from responding ironically when using formal speech. In our view, this tendency of both groups of native speakers could be attributed to the pragmatic function which ironic expressions normally perform in this type of speech – *expressing criticism*. In that respect, the 'victims' of irony whose repute ironic expressions put at stake, deem it more appropriate to return to the serious mode of conversation in order to prove the opposite of what has been stated with the ironic expression. Yet, in this context, the English native speakers were more prepared to prolong this return to the serious mode of speaking and more courageously defied their interlocutors by being ironical themselves.

In informal speech, the findings suggest that there exists a similar tendency in both Macedonian and English – the ironic responses outnumber the initial ironic expressions, i.e. the usage of verbal irony most of the time instigates a lot of new ironic expressions. In informal speech, this finding could be linked to another major pragmatic function of verbal irony– *expressing humor*. Namely, in informal context verbal irony is normally used for expressing humor or for ridiculing the interlocutor, who in order to leave an impression of a competent interlocutor who is not terminating the joke, continues using irony in his/her subsequent expressions.

References

Anolli, L., Infantino, M. G., & Ciceri, R. (2001). "You're a Real Genius!": Irony as a Miscommunication Design. In L. Anolli, R. Ciceri & G. Riva (Eds.), *Say not to Say: New perspectives on miscommunication* (pp. 135-158). Amsterdam: IOS Press.

Attardo, S. (2001). Irony as relevant inappropriateness. *Journal of Pragmatics,* 32, 793-826.

Barbe, K. (1995). *Irony in context*. Amsterdam, PA: John Benjamins B.V.

Clark, H. H., & Gerrig, J. R. (1984). On the pretense theory of irony. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General,* 113, 121-126.

Colston, H. L., & Keller, S. B. (1998). You'll never believe this: Irony and hyperbole in expressing surprise. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research,* 27, 499–513.

Eisterhold, J., Attardo, S., & Boxer, D. (2006). Reactions to irony in discourse: evidence for the least disruption principle. *Journal of Pragmatics,* 38, 1239–1256.

Gibbs, W. R. Jr. (2000). Irony in Talk Among Friends. *Metaphor and Symbol, 15*(1&2), 5-27.

Gibbs, W. R. Jr., & Colston, L. H. (2007). I*rony in language and Thought. A Cognitive Science reader.* Lawrence Erlboum Associates, New York.

Kreuz, R.J., & Long, D. L., (1991). On being ironic: Pragmatic and mnemonic implications MB Church. *Metaphor and Symbol,* 6 (3), 149-162.

Kumon-Nakamura, S., Glucksberg, S., & Brown, M. (1995). How About Another Piece of Pie: The Allusional Pretense Theory of Discourse Irony. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General,* 124 (1), 3-21.

Jeoung, H. J. (2006). Irony intended: The Pragmatic Functions of Verbal Irony. Retrieved from http://jeas.cokr/athup3- 6JEASH.pdf

Leggitt S. J., & Gibbs,W. R.. (2000). Emotional Reactions to Verbal Irony. *Discourse Processes,* 29(1), 1-24.

Littmann, D. C., & Mey, J. L. (1991). The nature of irony: Towards a computational model of irony. *Journal of Pragmatics,* 15, 131–151.

Long, D. L., & Kreuz, R. J. (1991). The influence of discourse function on perceived verbal irony. In J. S. Mio (Chair), *Interdisciplinary aspects of figurative language. Symposium conducted at the 99th annual meeting of the American Psychological Association, San Francisco.*

Long, D., & Graesser, A. (1988). Wit and humor in discourse processing. *Discourse Processes: A Multidisciplinary Journal,* 11(2), 35-60.

Matthews, K. J., Hancock T. J., & Dunham J. P. (2006). The Roles of Politeness and Humor in the Asymmetry of Affect in Verbal Irony. *Discourse Processes,* 41(1), 3–24.

Nelms, J., Boxer, D., & Attardo, S. (2000). The least disruption principle: Sarcasm revisited. *Paper presented at the Fourteenth Annual International Conference on Pragmatics and Language* Learning. *April 13-15, Urbana-Champaign, IL.*

Neshkovska, S. (2014). *Expressing Verbal irony in Formal and Informal Speech in Macedonian and English: A Contrastive Analysis.* A Doctoral Dissertation defended at "Blaze Koneski" Faculty of Philology - Skopje.

Roberts, M. R., & Kreuz, J. R. (1994). Why do people use figurative language? *Psychological Science,* 5(3), 159-163.

Rosolovska, Y. (2011). Master Dissertation. *The Perception of Irony in Newspaper Articles in English and Ukrainian.* Departamento de Filología Inglesa I Facultad de Filología Universidad Complutense. Retrieved from: http://eprints.ucm.es/14098/1/Yulia_Rosolovska.pdf

Sperber, D., & Wilson, D. (1981). Irony and the use–mention distinction. In Cole, P. (Eds.), *Radical pragmatics* (pp. 295–318). New York: Academic.

Utsumi, A. (2000). Verbal irony as implicit display of ironic environment: Distinguishing ironic utterances from nonirony. *Journal of Pragmatics,* 32(12), 1777–1806.

Appendix

Entertaining TV programs in Macedonian				
	TV program and link	**guests**	**topic**	**min.**
1.	PM Magazin http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=s_9zhfpFvm8	Zoran Vasilevski Helena Roza Joce Panov	Hypocrisy	10.00-25.00
2.	PM Magazin http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gpORhCIxZJw	Vasko Todorov Mia Kostova	Marriage	05.00-15.00
3.	PM Magazin http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=PzTTuPwG_jg	Marjana Stonojkovska Dimitar Atanasovski Elena Petkovska Igor Milutinovich	What do boys expect from girls and vice versa?	20.00-30.00
4.	PM Magazin http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=sH2X8VpgGJU	Silvi Muchik-Plevnesh Novica Vasilevski Suzana Turundzueva	Marriage	10.00-25.00
5.	Eden na Eden http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ekilng8CFXQ	Naumche Mojsovski Filip Mirkulovski	Private life and career	04.00-16.00
6.	Eden na Eden http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=XwXjR2i6ZDk	Igor Dzambazov Trendo	Private life and career	00.00-15.00
7.	Eden na Eden http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Ad_f9l4Bvlw	Karolina Gocheva	Private life and career	3.00-13.00
8.	Eden na Eden http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qyKfreUoP0k	Elena Ristevska	Private life and career	5.00-15.00
9.	Eden na Eden http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=T1jIoOvIejc	Dragan Vuchik	Private life and career	13.00-28.00
10.	Eden na Eden http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=stvLYdQ-VT0	Darko Panchev	Private life and career	15.00-25.00
11.	Eden na Eden http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VlkOaMWsASk	Kire Lazarov	Private life and career	02.00-11.00
12.	Eden na Eden http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=nLSJRtTvN5Q	Kaliopi	Private life and career	00.00-15.00
total:		22 guests + 2 hosts		140 min.

Entertaining TV programs in English				
	TV program and link	**guests**	**Topics**	**min.**
1.	The Oprah Winfrey Show	Carrie Fisher, Debbie Reynolds	Private life and career	7.00

2.	The Oprah Winfrey Show http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=eaelzfAZ488	Smith Family	Private life and career	15.00
3.	The Oprah Winfrey Show	Michelle Obama Barack Obama	Private life and career	10.05
4.	The Oprah Winfrey Show http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1NpARnvAmis http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KrMl_eW9P6w	Beyoncé	Private life and career	15.00
5.	The Oprah Winfrey Show	Jane Fonda	Private life and career	2.00-9.00 12.00-23.00
6.	The Ellen Show http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tb74HJXcAAs	Johnny Depp, Michelle Fiefer Cloeh Grace Moretz	Private life and career	10.30
7.	The Ellen Show http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=B2nvWvdWrYU	Jennifer Aniston Portia de Rossi	Private life and career	10.00
8.	The Ellen Show http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yCGFeFiUS6s	Taylor Swift Zac Efron	Private life and career	11.00
9.	The Ellen Show	John Stamos	Private life and career	10.00
10.	The Ellen Show	Megan Fox	Private life and career	10.00
11.	The Ellen Show http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=sF_e1QSibMU	Jennifer Lopez	Private life and career	11.00
12.	The Ellen Show http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=iha5BoKWQ4I	Justin Bieber	Private life and career	6.00
13.	The Oprah Winfrey Show	Celine Dion	Private life and career	10.00
total:		19 guests + 2 hosts		140 min.

Political TV programs in Macedonian

	TV program and link	**guests**	**topic**	**min.**
1.	24 Analiza http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=a3AVbyAKvKw	Ljubomir Frchkovski	Lustration	00.00-08.00
2.	24 Analiza http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=D699lxPjcaY	Ljubcho Georgievski	The current political situation in the R. Macedonia	00.00-15.00
3.	24 Analiza http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jRS9NGYi4vI	Blaze Ristovski	The name dispute with Greece	0.00-13.00
4.	24 Analiza http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HqYe6KDCmow	Andrej Zernovski	The protests against the demolishing of the church in the Center municipality	03.30-16.30
5.	24 Analiza http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ELLQwRT9H28	Stojanche Angelov	The Law on the defenders	5.00-13.00
6.	24 Analiza http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Dxd0r4-C6M0	Radmila Sheherinska	The visit of the European Commissionaire, Stefan Fule	09.00-21.00

7.	24 Analiza http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SHeZYUrYMCI	Blagoja Markovski Zijadin Ziberi Pavle Trajanov	The festivities organized for welcoming Johan Tarchulovski from the Hague	4.00-19.00
8.	24 Analiza http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=U09_OCRBSW0	Petre Sarachin Roberto Belichanec Toni Naumovski	The downturn in democracy in R. Macedonia (Freedom House Report)	4.00-14.00
9.	24 Analiza http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=uysXAUlbVzc	Goran Trpenovski Zoran Trajanovski Marijan Nikolovski	The newly elected president of SDSM, Zoran Zaev	18.30-32.30
10.	24 Analiza http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=fXzH4O7BUBE	Nikola Todorov Marija Hadzilega Bojan Jovanovski Neda Korunovska	Amendments to the law on abortion	15.00-30.00
11.	24 Analiza http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bnlkAGcZW0g	Gjuner Ismail Jove Kekenovski	The Prime Minister's commentary on Macedonia being completely ignored at the last EU Summit	00.00-12.00
12.	24 Analiza http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GbSPmLXMXDw	Andrej Petrov Stevche Jakimovski	The 2013 local elections	00.00-10.00 (second part)
total:		23 guests + 2 hosts		140 min.

Political TV programs in English

	TV program and link	**guests**	**topic**	**min.**
1.	America Live with Megyn Kelly http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=fftggggYcOE	Pete Hegseth Col. Martha McSally	Women in military	10.26
2.	America Live with Megyn Kelly http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MNEfMcI189Y	Адвокатот на Kermit Gosnell'	The Gosnell case	9.00
3.	America Live with Megyn Kells http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ufacEg6Yi2A	Erick Erickson Lou Dobbs	The role of women in modern society	11.25
4.	America Live with Megyn Kelly http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=_u1Qf8elFcg	Simon Rosenberg Mark Thiessen	The bombing of the American embassy in Benghazi	6.37
5.	America Live with Megyn Kelly http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ceKQMF09rN4	John Bolton Ralph Peters	The Snowden case	8.00

7.	America Live with Megyn Kelly http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RpccKc4OZP0	Faith Jenkins Jonna Spilbor	The testimony of Rachel Jeantel's in the Zimmerman case	7.30
8.	Piers Morgan Tonight http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=K5GYyHpqW0A	Ben Ferguson	The rights of the terrorist in Boston	7.47
9.	Piers Morgan Tonight http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Y40We-O7qAc	Jesse Ventura	Anti-American violence in the Middle East	15.00
10.	Piers Morgan Tonight http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RC4JJWUtzkc	Larry Pratt	Armament control	12.27
11.	Piers Morgan Tonight http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=kwnJX12wSWQ	Condoleezza Rice	The 2012 presidential elections in the USA	10.00
12.	Piers Morgan Tonight http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=06AAAMQEUAQ	Greg Ball	The terrorist attack in Boston	5.48
13.	Piers Morgan Live http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zzLXCXrCoZA	Stacey Campfield	The failure of the armament control campaign in the USA	5.23
14.	Piers Morgan Live http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=38xuxniyr6Q	James Woolsey Ron Paul	The Snowden case	14.00
15.	Piers Morgan Live http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hOYhkXrRAdc	Christine O'Donnell	Same-sex marriages	3.18
16.	Piers Morgan Live http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dB0lJzNloyA	Sheriff David Clarke	The proposal of the sheriff for mass armament	11.12
total:		22 guests + 2 hosts		140 min.

Maja Stanojević Gocić[1]
College of Applied Professional Studies
Vranje,
Serbia

ERROR ANALYSIS AS A TOOL FOR IMPROVING TRANSLATION PERFORMANCE IN TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

Abstract
This paper is aimed at investigating errors made by students attending the course ~~of~~ English for Specific Purposes in performing their translation tasks. The analysis carried out was both quantitative and qualitative. It produced the list of most common errors. Syntactic, lexical and textual errors were identified by means of the scientific method of error analysis. The investigation has practical implications since an error analysis can measure the progress students are making in improving their translation performance, as well as the effectiveness of ESP course. It can also assist the teacher in determining a needs analysis that drives syllabus design. In our research a student has been given the role of a translator, so error analysis serves as a tool for identifying problematic language areas, getting an insight into students' translation competence and enhancing their translation performance. Translation errors can be ascribed to a number of factors, including linguistic competence and the interference between the first and the second language. The correction or remedial process is what comes afterwards and can be led by both the teacher and the students.

Key words: error, error analysis, translation, translation competence, translation performance, English for Specific Purposes, English for Legal Purposes

∞∞∞

[1] majastanojevic30@gmail.com

1. Introduction

Along with the development of Community Law and International Law, legal translation, and subsequently EU legal translation, has assumed a prominent role in not only resolving legal and business matters, but also in education and training of future lawyers. Legal translation can be beneficial in the process of developing communicative competence as the major objective in English Language Teaching (ELT) and its pervasive communicative approach. Although there are some disputes as to whether translation should be included in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course, this paper is based on an assumption that the growing need to include legal translation in teaching English for Legal Purposes (ELP), which is a part of ESP, is increasingly being recognized.

The evaluation of law students' translations by means of the scientific method of error analysis can also be regarded as the evaluation of their legal translation competence. Namely, translation as a communicative activity requires expert knowledge, which is called translation competence in translation studies (PACTE, 2003). Translation competence is a concept in translation studies and translation didactics that refers to underlying system of knowledge and skills the translator must possess in order to carry out a translation (Bell, 1991, p. 43), and it is constantly being deployed along with the term translation performance. Although PACTE (2000, p. 100) research group have allegedly borrowed the concept of translation competence from the idea of linguistic competence, their definition of translation competence is nowhere near the notion of linguistic competence. It is obvious that translators must possess skills and knowledge of the source and target language rules; nevertheless, translation competence is a much broader term that goes far beyond linguistic competences. In addition, "a distinction is made between competence (the underlying system of knowledge) and performance (translating)" (PACTE, 2003), so translation competence is contrasted with translation performance as a concrete manifestation of translators' knowledge and skills. However, the term is not used to the exclusion of other terms, such as translation expertise, which is sometimes used as synonymous with competence. In addition, Pym (2003, p. 482) claims competence cannot be confused with professional qualifications as qualifications change with technology and social demands. Moreover, English language learners are encouraged to develop their translation competence alongside their linguistic competence (Popescu, 2013b), and the teaching of

translation is often described as the transfer of translation competence from the teacher to the student (Pym, 1992).

In order to investigate students' translation performance and measure the progress they are making in attaining their translation competence, a teacher of ESP can apply error analysis, which offers an appropriate tool to check upon students' needs and relate them to translation theory (Elmgrab, 2013: 359). Error analysis, along with interlanguage as its closely related concept, is one of the issues in applied linguistics, which is a branch of linguistics that applies linguistic theories and methods of linguistic description and analysis to practical issues, including translation (Nunan, 1999, p. 301). Error analysis is a procedure used by teachers or researchers that involves collecting samples of learner language in order to identify, describe, classify and evaluate errors in the sample (Ellis, 1985, p. 296). It is also one of the topics in Second Language Acquisition (SLA), which Nunan (1999, p. 314) defined as the psychological and social processes underlying the development of proficiency in a second language, although error analysis had been used by language teachers all over the world even before the advent of SLA literature to determine progress in acquiring a foreign language (Menzildžić, 2011, p. 250). Error analysis is also related to contrastive analysis and the concept of interlanguage, which is the term Selinker (1972) coined to describe the learner's systematic knowledge of a second language independent of both the first and the second language (Ellis, 1985, p. 299).

The research aim is to explore translation performance and to demonstrate the idea that translation of legal texts (legal translation) included in teaching ELP can be very useful for mastering language skills. The purpose of the paper is to carry out both quantitative and qualitative analysis. The quantitative investigation has produced the total number of errors, the list of different error types, and the examples of most common errors, and the findings have been statistically presented, while retrospective interviews as a form of qualitative analysis revealed the possible causes of errors.

2. Theoretical background

When it comes to teaching translation, the fact that each ESP course requires teaching according to students' needs has to be taken into account. In the course of tailoring instruction to meet learning needs, Elmgrab (2013, p. 359) claims that the instructor's task is to explain the linguistic difficulties of the source text and to explicate translation strategies required to render the

source text into the target text. Popescu (2013a, p. 242-243) adds that translation as a classroom technique is indeed beneficial from a pedagogic perspective. Cook (1998) asserts that it can represent an extremely useful method in the learning and acquisition of foreign or second language, while Károly (2012: 38) emphasizes that pedagogical translation is a tool to improve students' communicative competence in a foreign language.

Translation was banned from ELT in the past, as well as from ESP as its specific variety; it was believed that the overuse of translation tasks, including those within Grammar-Translation method, could prevent students from communicating in English effectively (Harmer, 2007). Communicative approach also placed an emphasis on the target language and its norms to the exclusion of translation (Károly, 2014, p. 90). However, as the interest in translation has been gaining momentum, several authors, including Cook (2010) and Duff (1989), have proposed the rehabilitation of this useful skill in ELT, especially in non-native contexts because it is purposeful in expanding students' vocabulary, developing their style and consolidating their knowledge of the target language structures (Károly, 2014, p. 90-91).

Translation is the process of rendering the meaning from the source language into the target language, which has to be done adequately, accurately and precisely, Hansen (2010, p. 385) defines translation in terms of production of a Target Text (TT) which is based on a Source Text (ST), and a translation error in terms of misunderstanding of translation brief or the content of ST, as well as factual mistakes, terminological or stylistic flaws and interferences between ST and TT, which, in turn, can be characterized as cultural, pragmatic, text-linguistic, semantic, syntactic or stylistic errors. Hansen (2010: 385-386) also outlines that the perception of what constitutes a translation error and its evaluation varies across different approaches to translation, their theories and models. In the theories based on the concept of equivalence between ST and TT, error is regarded as some kind of non-equivalence between them. In functionalistic approaches and approaches based on the 'skopos' theory, error depends on the fulfillment of TT function and receivers' expectations, determined by the translation brief, which is the communicative situation and the context in which TT will be used. Therefore, factors such as language function, text type and purpose or function of the translation are considered to be key factors in function-based approach to translation.

Translation error analyses utilized as models for our investigation are the ones performed by Popescu (2013a) and Károly (2012). Popescu (2013a, p.

242-243) classifies errors in students' translations into three main types: linguistic, comprehension and translation errors, whereas Karoly (2012, p. 39) divides translation errors into lexical, syntactic and textual, as the most important error types. In addition, Eraković (2010) underlines two types of translation errors Serbian students made: misunderstanding of the source text and breach of linguistic rules (grammar, lexical and pragmatic errors).

2.1. Translation competence and translation performance

Pym (2003, p. 481) claims that since the 1970s translation competence has been viewed as 1) a mode of bilingualism, 2) a question of market demands, 3) a multicomponent competence, involving sets of skills that are linguistic, cultural, technological and professional, 4) a 'supercompetence' that would stand above the rest. Although bilingual competence is an indispensable condition, it is not sufficient to guarantee translation competence at academic level. Thus, it is postulated that translation competence is qualitatively different from bilingual competence, which is only one of the several components that make up translation competence. These components are inter-related, there are hierarchies amongst them and they also vary between individuals. Furthermore, translation competence is considered to be expert knowledge that includes declarative and procedural knowledge, but the procedural knowledge is predominant (PACTE, 2003).

Therefore, it is widely accepted that translation competence consists of several competences or sub-competences. Both the view of a translation competence as a form of bilingualism of the seventies and functional model of the eighties, which outlines the role of translator as a mediator between the cultures, have been replaced by competence-based approach in the nineties. However, there are more or less different opinions on what the relevant parameters determining translation sub-competencies are. Prieto Ramos (2011: 8) maintains that albeit using different labels and divisions, authors identified similar key competences that can be summarized by combining Nord's account of essential competences (Nord, 1991, p. 235) and Neubert's taxonomy of parameters of translational competence that include language, textual, subject, cultural, research and transfer competence. That is, Neubert (2000, p. 12) outlines that translation competence is the mental equipment that constitutes the translator's unique cognitive set or ability of matching language, textual, subject and cultural competences. According to Albrecht Neubert (2000, p. 6), it is the interplay of these kinds of competences that distinguishes translation from other areas of communication. For him,

linguistic competence is a near perfect knowledge of grammatical and lexical systems of the source and target languages, as well as awareness of the continual changes in two languages, and knowledge of repertoires of the language for special purposes. While textual competence equals text reception and analysis, its production and quality assessment, subject or thematic competence is the familiarity with what constitutes the knowledge of the area a translation is about, or the ability to research it. Cultural competence is important since translators are mediators between cultures, so intercultural differences play a significant role. Translators also need to have transfer competence, which represents the tactics and strategies of converting the source texts into target texts to produce the translation (Neubert, 2000, p. 8), and its effective application serves as the ultimate goal of translation.

Prieto Ramos (2011, p. 7) explains that the study of translation competence has gained momentum within the framework of the Bologna reform of university programmes in Europe in recent years, and it has been reflected in the competence-based approach of the European Master's in Translation or EMT group (Gambier, 2009), also referred to as translation macrocompetence approach. EMT expert group from Brussels claims that it comprises translation service provision competence, language competence, intercultural competence (with sociolinguistic and textual perspective), information mining competence, thematic competence and technological competence (Gambier, 2009).

According to the PACTE group, the significant researchers in the field of translation competence, translation competence consists of the ability to carry out the transfer process from the comprehension of the source text to the re-expression of the target text, taking into account the purpose of the translation and the characteristics of the target text readers. It is made up of five sub-competencies (bilingual, extra-linguistic, knowledge about translation, instrumental and strategic), and it activates a series of psycho-physiological mechanisms (PACTE, 2003, 2011).

These definitions take into consideration the multitude of skills the translators ought to possess. The opposite approach in defining translation competence, focused on translation itself, was given in a minimalist or binary definition produced by Anthony Pym (2003). He defines it as the ability to generate a series of more than one viable target text for a pertinent source text, and the ability to select only one viable target text from these series, quickly and with justified confidence (Pym, 2003, p. 489).

2.2. Legal translation

In this research legal translation refers to translating legal documents from English as the source language into Serbian as the target language. It requires clarity and precision, which leaves no room for ambiguity, and the ultimate objective is to transfer semantic and syntactic features fatefully and unambiguously so as to achieve legal precision.

The general overview of legal translation is provided by Šarčević (1997), whereas the problems of translating EU legal documents from English to Serbian are discussed by Čavoški (2012, p. 167), who maintains that when it comes to translating EU legal norms a translator has to transfer the meaning of a legal document accurately and completely, as well as to ensure its precision and clarity. In addition, as legal translation is often translation of one legal system into another, a translator simultaneously interprets the meaning of legal standards. Šarčević (1997, p. 19) emphasizes that Newmark (1982) considers legal translation as either literal or semantic translation, depending on the type of the legal document, or communicative translation, which is target language-oriented. Hervey and Higgins (1992, p. 144) stress that legal texts belong to literal translation as they rely on precision, while aesthetic effects, which are a part of stylistic or connotative meaning, are neglected as the least important features. Furthermore, Newmark (1982, p. 47) refers to legal translation as the most restricted form of translation in which translators used to be advised to honor the principle of fidelity to the original text, which was interpreted restrictively at first. However, Šarčević (1997, p. 112) maintains that "the translator's first consideration is no longer fidelity to the source text but rather fidelity to the uniform intent of the single instrument, i.e., what the legislator or negotiators intended to say."

2.3. Error analysis

Error analysis provides description and classification of different error types including translation errors. Gass and Selinker (2008, p. 102) explain that as the name suggests, error analysis is a type of linguistic analysis that focuses on errors learners make. Originated in the seventies, the method of error analysis was elaborated by Corder (1967, 1971, 1974), who was its formal initiator, even though the concept itself has appeared long before. He notices that errors are not random, but systematic, and thus they are an integral part of language learning and largely contribute to the comprehension of SLA. However, error analysis hasn't been deployed

enough as a research tool. Nowadays the main purpose of error analysis is to identify common error patterns in students' written production or written compositions (Babić, 2005; Menzildžić, 2011), since it would not be suitable for analysing their reading or listening comprehension.

Corder (1974, p. 122-154) claims that error analysis should go through the following stages: sampling, identification, description, explanation and evaluation of errors. Ellis (1985, p. 8) stresses that in error analysis samples of learners' language were collected and examined in order to discover different types of learners' errors, which were "classified according to whether they could be predicted by contrastive analysis or whether they resembled the developmental errors that occur in L1 acquisition." He maintains that a large proportion of developmental errors proved that the processes of first and second language acquisition were similar.

Errors are relevant to students' progress and can be ascribed to the level of their linguistic competence or the impact of their mother tongue. Furthermore, it is believed that errors are indicative of language learning strategies the students exploit in solving specific language learning tasks and problems. Ellis (1985, p. 14) stresses that early studies on learner strategies were based on error analysis, since, in his opinion, language learning strategies cannot be observed directly but can only be inferred from the language learner's behaviour.

Error analysis can be regarded as part of contrastive linguistics along with translation theory and contrastive analysis (Đorđević, 2002). Đorđević (2002: 3) explains that error analysis complements contrastive analysis in ELT since not all errors are attributable to the differences between the native and foreign language. However, Babić (2005, p. 55) states that errors analysis has replaced contrastive analysis, which is considered to be the product of rejected behaviourism. This is due to the fact that the method of error analysis has shifted researchers' attention from the teaching perspective and teacher-oriented instruction towards the learning perspective. In contemporary methodology, contrastive analysis, which is associated with behaviourist psychology (Lennon, 2008, p. 51), has lost its position in favour of cognitive psychology and communicative approach. Therefore, since error analysis has shown that contrastive analysis cannot predict all the errors, because many of the errors arise from incorrect conclusions about the rules of the target language, a foreign language teacher should not rely solely on contrastive analysis of individual segments of two languages, but also take into

consideration error analysis along with the problem of interference or negative language transfer.

In linguistics, errors are often discriminated from mistakes. The former cannot be corrected or recognized by the learners themselves as they result from their lack of grammatical knowledge, and the latter can be self-corrected by the learners. Mistakes include slips of the tongue and are also known as lapses or performance errors (Harmer, 2007, p. 96). In that respect, Dagneaux et al. (1996) created an error manual by classifying error types and establishing error codes. As Pym (1992) notices the difficulty of classifying errors as they appear in translated text, he divided all translation errors into binary and non-binary levels, where for binarism there is only right and wrong, whereas for non-binarism there are at least two right answers. Gass and Selinker (2008, p. 103) claim there are basically two error types within error analysis framework: interlingual and intralingual. Interlingual errors are a result of interference from the native language or they are generated by the first language transfer, whereas intralingual errors are those which result from incorrect, faulty or partial (incomplete or generalised) learning of the second language norms. In addition, they propose the steps taken in error analysis. These are: collect oral or written data, identify errors, classify errors, analyse source and remediate. Depending on type and frequency of errors, pedagogical intervention is carried out afterwards.

The observation that foreign or second language learners develop their own language system, which is neither their mother tongue, nor a foreign or second language, led to the emergence of the concept of interlanguage. The concept was introduced by Selinker (1972). He indicates that this language system is a structure that stands between the native and foreign language, and that it is independent of the source and target language, although under the influence of both (Menzildžić, 2011, p. 250-251). Moreover, the concept of interlanguage transfer emerged, referring to two or more target languages, which is the influence of one second language on another (Gass and Selinker, 2008, p. 152). In that sense, Popescu (2013a, p. 242) points out that "the interlanguage collocational and colligational patterns occurring in translations may be assignable to both mother tongue interference and students' developmental stage of language learning". However, Presada and Badea (2014, p. 53) conclude that the vast majority of translation errors are caused by negative linguistic transfer or a high level of interference between lexical and grammatical structures of the native tongue and the ones in the target language, and they recorded a low number of developmental errors.

Thus, since errors are a part of learners' interlanguage, the role of the teacher is to recognize them and point them out to the learners.

Eraković (2010) claims that evaluation of students translation competence is mostly performed by summative assessments of translation tasks on the basis of error analysis. According to her, criteria for evaluating students' translation are finding the number and types of linguistic errors in a translation, which means that their global translation competence is not evaluated. If it is to be validated, other instruments and methods should be included in the evaluation.

3. Methodology

The participants in the research are students of Law faculty in Kosovska Mitrovica, who are native speakers of Serbian, aged 20-22, enrolled in the first and second year, respectively. Research was carried out among a group of 60 students divided into two groups of equal size. They were individually assigned translation task that comprised a translation of unknown texts (Text 1 and Text 2) from English to Serbian.

The first group (G1) served as a control group. It consisted of 30 students enrolled in the first year. The participants with different educational background (coming from different types of high schools) and different English language learning length had no prior training in ELP. An error analysis has been conducted at the beginning of the course in order evaluate students' translation abilities and to assist the teacher in shaping the ESP course, including syllabus design and checking suitability of selected reading materials.

The second group (G2) consisted of 30 students enrolled in the second year. They attended ELP course during the semester 2013/2014, received proper instruction and passed the exam, and the second group served as an experimental group.

Text 1 and Text 2 contained approximately 700 words (350 words each), and the students who were assigned a translation task had one hour to complete it without using a dictionary. Both groups were given the same task of translating excerpts of EU documents: two pages taken from *Treaty on European Union* were compared to the official translation provided by Lopandić (2004) (Text 1), and two pages were taken from *Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms as amended by Protocol No. 11 with Protocol Nos. 1, 4, 6, 7, 12 and 13*. (Text 2). Later on, students'

translation performance was compared to the official Serbian translation of the documents by the teacher, who identified and computed the number of errors for each student, and compare the results of the two groups. The teacher regarded as errors only the ones that were deemed unacceptable. Therefore, the official translation (provided by a professional translator) is considered to be a useful tool for adequate error identification.

The aims of the research can be summarized in the following manner:

- to find the total number of errors, the types of students' errors (e.g., substitution, omission) by manually searching and counting them, and to produce the list of most typical errors,
- to identify errors distinctively different from the official translation that are breaking linguistic rules (e.g., grammar, lexis), and group them according to the levels of language at which they occur, which means that grammatical or syntactic, lexical, textual and stylistic errors have been identified,
- to determine how this error analysis can contribute to the design of ESP course, which means that the teacher is responsible for eliminating translation errors and carrying out pedagogical interventions.

4. Results

Errors are grouped into syntactic, lexical and textual according to the levels at which they occur. The total number of errors is presented in Table 1. Although several stylistic errors were noticed (presented in Table A1 in the Appendix), they were not included in the total number of errors. Quantitative research produced the percentage of errors represented in a pie chart (Figure 1).

Table 1. *Total number of errors*

	G1 (n = 30)	G2 (n = 30)
lexical	45	31
syntactic	24	16
textual	31	15
TOTAL	100	62

The research also produced the instances of common lexical errors in Table A2 in the Appendix, as well as the examples of syntactic and textual

errors listed in Table A3 in the Appendix, in which two forms are offered as Serbian translation equivalents. The first form is erroneous, and the second one is the correct, as it is taken from the official translation.

The highest number of errors detected are lexical ones, which is clearly indicative of the fact that students' lexical competence is to be improved. The results showed significant reduction in errors in the second group (G2), which is the group that had proper instruction. The results are expected, but not quite satisfactory. They showed that students' legal translation competence is not utterly developed, and that there is still room for improvement.

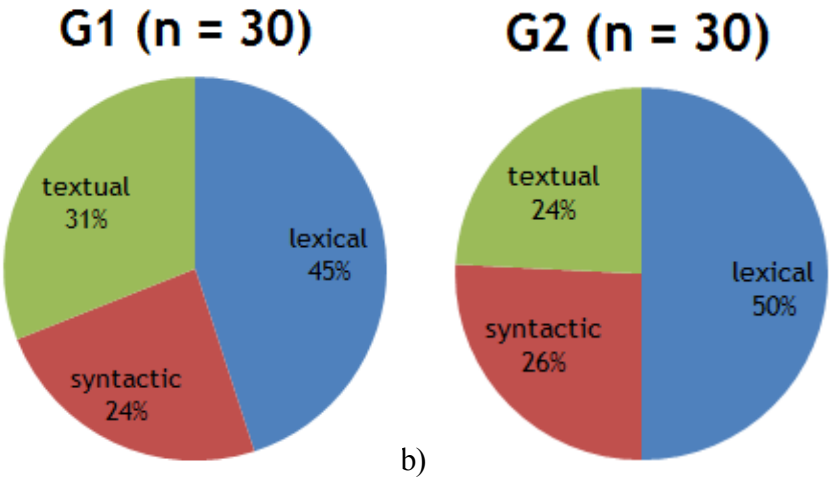


Figure 1. *a) Percentage of errors in G1 and b) Percentage of errors in G2*

5. Discussion

In the analysis of lexical errors, the purpose is to determine legal and non-legal terms that can cause problems for comprehending the message of the text. One such problem is literal translation (e.g., students non knowing the meaning of an idiom *as well as*) or easily confused words, such as when *effect* (= ostvariti) is substituted for *affect* (= uticati). In addition, false friends occur within lexical errors, including *constitutional* (= konstitucioni) and *civil* (= civilni). Students often do not know multiple word meanings or do not recognize the specific phrase or collocation.

Error analysis may lead to identifying possible causes of errors. Retrospective interviews with students willing to participate can help the teacher to discover possible causes of errors, and a more thorough and

objective analysis can be obtained. They provide the teacher with additional information about translation performance and sub-competences students need to strengthen (Károly, 2012).

The research taken at the beginning of the course may also indicate whether students appropriately use various language learning strategies, such as guessing the meaning of unknown words from the context, where the students could use their previously gained knowledge, i.e., knowledge about the subject of the text or content area, to discover the meaning of unfamiliar terms when they do not have the possibility of consulting a dictionary. Furthermore, they may indicate what dictionaries they should use to subsequently verify their guesses. Concurrently, discussions with students about the errors they made revealed that students were well aware of the term *nadležni sud* in their mother tongue, which led us to believe that students had no experience of how to use their knowledge about the content or subject area to infer the meaning of unknown words (such as *competent court*).

Students ought to solve specific syntactic problems in a translation tasks, such as those related to structure of adverbial phrases. However, most of the errors in this area are caused by misunderstanding of verb meanings. The problem was the fact that students were unaware or uninformed of the use of modal *shall* in terms of obligation, as they exclusively related it to future tense.

Károly (2012, p. 43) points out that textual errors are related to pragmatic errors. "At the textual level, the most frequent errors were in connection with lexical and grammatical cohesion, namely reference and the use of conjunctions." In our analysis, textual errors are characterized by the omission of certain lexical items and phrases, which are particularly difficult. The most frequently omitted legal terms include: *heritage, sustainable, inherent, pursuant to, in accordance with* and *intentionally*. As a rule, omissions occur due to the length of sentences resulting from the complex syntactic structure and a number of clauses. Secondly, omissions result from a lack of legal vocabulary. However, complexity of sentences and complex legal terminology can also result in substitution of lexical items with inadequate translation equivalents.

The findings are indicative of problematic language area students ought to focus on and potential difficulties teachers ought to explain within ESP course aimed at predicting and eschewing potential errors. Furthermore, students should take an active role in translation tasks and correction of translation error. Popescu (2013a, p. 244) thinks students should correct their own errors. In that respect, errors should be highlighted for the students to

analyse and remedy them provided they are empowered to do so, and thereafter, pedagogical interventions are provided by the teacher. Pedagogical implications comprise choosing reading materials that contain adequate legal terminology and dictionaries students could use for performing translation tasks in the future. In addition, grammar exercises could prevent or reduce syntactic errors, while reduction of lexical errors is directly dependent on vocabulary expansion or enlargement. Legal vocabulary is critical for understanding *legalese*, which is a term covering a wide variety of linguistic features and stylistic characteristics of legal English that people outside legal profession find difficult to comprehend. As the research showed, students produced faulty expressions due to their lack of legal vocabulary and misunderstanding of syntactic rules. Therefore, instruction should include the modal verb *shall* used in legal contexts in terms of deontic modality, as well as the verbs *find, found, raise, rise*, and other easily confused verbs to prevent further errors.

6. Conclusion

The translation practice would, in our opinion, help students master *legalese*, and an error analysis can pinpoint language areas to center on. Apart from evaluating students' translations, it is used for determining needs analysis, curriculum development and ESP course design. As our students are not going to become professional translators, their translation competence, which is also defined as the characteristics of the professional translator (PACTE, 2003), is analysed in order to explore the possibilities of improving their written translation performance. In this case, an error analysis can be considered sufficient as a research tool for analysing students' translation performance, whereas legal translation training of our students is regarded solely as an integral part of ESP course

As inadequacies and discrepancies often occur, Gass and Selinker (2008, p. 104-106) explain the drawbacks of error analysis. First, it is totally reliant on errors to the exclusion of the entire linguistic behaviour of the learner, so certain aspects of language systems would not be apparent through an error analysis. A second difficulty lies in determining what an error is, as well as ascribing causes to errors. Namely, there is a multitude of possible causes of errors, including communication strategies, personal factors, external factors, and since the learner's output is the only source of evidence used, presumed causes are unreliable. However, although error

analysis has been criticized for a number of practical problems, the study of errors is inevitable in SLA. In that sense, Presada and Badea (2014: 52) maintain that error analysis can indeed be effective as a classroom procedure or technique within translation classes, as it allows teachers to identify the degree to which students master the target language. It is both valid and reliable, and the importance of such an analysis is to raise students' awareness about lexical and grammatical structures of the source language that has a major role in improving their translation performance. It may also help the teacher learn about students' needs. As teachers are constantly faced with errors their students make, they could draw on the identification of most frequent error types for making efficient instruction.

In our view, students should practice translation as a part of ESP course. Owing to the teaching of translation, students may not only expand their legal vocabulary, but also learn about typical syntactic structures or legal style (e.g., modal verbs, passive voice, nominalization, lengthy sentences with several embedded clauses, etc.), and successfully cope with concrete linguistic difficulties in the process of translation. It undoubtedly contributes to the development of their global translation competence, whereas its significant contribution to the development of both linguistic and communicative competence, as a primary goal of ESP at tertiary level, is of utmost importance for students' professional development.

References

Babić, Ž. (2005). Analiza grešaka u pismenim radovima. *Philologia*, 3, 55-63.

Bell, R. T. (1991). *Translation and Translating: Theory and Practice*. London: Longman.

Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms as amended by Protocol No. 11 with Protocol Nos. 1, 4, 6, 7, 12 and 13 Treaty on EU. Retrieved from http://conventions.coe.int/treaty/en/treaties/html/005.htm

Cook, G. (1998). Use of translation in language teaching. In M. Baker (Ed.), *Routledge Encyclopaedia of Translation Studies* (pp. 277-280). London: Routledge.

Cook, G. (2010). *Translation in language teaching: An argument for reassesment*. Oxford: OUP.

Corder, S. P. (1967). The significance of learners' errors. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 5, 161–169.

Corder, S.P. (1971). Idiosyncratic dialects and error analysis. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 9(2), 147-160.

Corder, S.P. (1974). Error analysis, In J. P. B. Allen & S. P. Corder (Eds.), *Techniques in applied linguistics: The Edinburgh course in applied linguistics*, 3 (pp. 122-154). Oxford: Oxford University Press,

Čavoški, A. (2012). Teškoće u prevođenju acquis-a sa engleskog na srpski jezik: prednosti prevoda na francuskom jeziku. *Nasleđe*, 23, 163-178.

Dagneaux, E., Denness, S., Granger, S., & Meunier, F. (1996). Error Tagging Manual Version 1.1. Louvain-la-Neuve: Centre for English Corpus Linguistics: Université Catholique de Louvain.

Duff, A. (1989). *Translation*. Oxford: OUP.

Đorđević, R. (2002). *Uvod u kontrastiranje jezika*. Beograd: Filološki fakultet.

Ellis, R. (1985). *Understanding Second Language Acquisistion*. Oxford: OUP.

Elmgrab, R.A. (2013). Implications for translation teaching pedagogy: a case of Bengazi University. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 70, 358-369.

Eraković, B. (2010). Instrumenti ocenjivanja prevodilačke kompetencije u nastavi. *Metodički vidici*, 90-95.

European Union (2012). Consolidated version of the treaty on European union. Retrieved from: http://eurlex.europa.eu/legalcontent/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:12012M/TXT&from=EN

Gambier, Y. (2009). Competences for Professional Translators, Experts in Multilingual and Multimedia Communication. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/translation/programmes/emt/key_documents/emt_competences_translators_en.pdf

Gass, S. M., & Selinker, L. (2008). *Second Language Acquisition*. New York: Routledge.

Harmer, J. (2007). *How to teach English*. Essex: Pearson Longman.

Hansen, G. (2010). In Y. Gambier & L. van Doorslaer (Eds.), *Translation 'errors' in Handbook of translation studies*, Vol. 1 (pp. 385-388). Amsterdam, PA: John Benjamins B.V..

Hervey, S. G. J. & Higgins, I. (1992). *Thinking Translation: A Course in Translation Method*. New York: Routledge.

Károly, A. (2012). Translation competence and translation performance: Lexical, syntactic and textual patterns in student translations of a specialized EU genre. *English for Specific Purposes*, 31, 36-46.

Károly, A. (2014). Translation in foreign language teaching: A case study from a functional perspective. *Linguistics and Education*, 25, 90-107.

Lennon, P. (2008). Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis, Interlanguage. In S. Gramley & V. Gramley (Eds.), *Bielefeld Introduction to Applied Linguistics* (pp. 51-60). Bielefeld: Aisthesis.

Lopandić, D. (2004). *Ugovori Evropske unije*. Beograd: Kancelarija Srbije i Crne Gore za pridruživanje Evropskoj uniju/Evropski pokret u Srbiji.

Menzildžić, D. (2011). An error analysis of Serbian English majors' written production. In I. Đurić Paunović & M. Marković (Eds.), *The first international conference on English studies, English language and Anglophone literatures today – ELALT, Proceedings* (pp. 250-259). Novi Sad: Filozofski fakultet.

Neubert, A. (2000). Competence in Language, in Languages, and in Translation. In C. Schäffner & B. Adab (Eds.), *Developing Translation Competence* (pp 3-18). Amsterdam, PA: John Benjamins B.V.

Newmark, P. (1982). *Approaches to Translation*. Oxford: Pergamon.

Nord, C. (1991). *Text Analysis in Translation. Theory, Methodology, and Didactic Application of a Model for Translation-Oriented Text Analysis*. Amsterdam: Rodopi.

Nunan, D. (1999). *Second Language Teaching and Learning*. Boston: Heinle.

PACTE. (2000). Acquiring Translation Competence. Hypotheses and Methodological Problems of a research Project. In A.Beeby, D. Ensinger & M. Presas (Eds.), *Investigating Translation: Selected papers from the 4th International Congress on Translation, Barcelona, 1998 (*pp. 99-106). Amsterdam, PA: John Benjamins B.V.

PACTE. (2003). Building a Translation Competence Model. In Alves, F. (Ed.), *Triangulating Translation: Perspectives in Process Oriented Research* (pp. 43-66), Amsterdam, PA: John Benjamins B.V.

PACTE (2011). Results of validation of the PACTE translation competence model: Translation project and dynamic translation index. In. S. O'Brien (Ed.), *Cognitive explorations of translation*, London: Continuum.

Popescu, T. (2013a). A Corpus-based approach to translation error analysis. A case-study of Romanian EFL learners. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 83, 242 – 247.

Popescu, T. A. (2013b). Developing English linguistics students' translation competence through the language learning process, *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 93, 1075 – 1079.

Presada, D., & Badea, M. (2014). The Effectiveness of Error Analysis in Translation Classes: A Pilot Study. *Porta Linguarum*, 22, 49-59.

Prieto Ramos, F. (2011). Developing Legal Translation Competence: An Integrative Process-Oriented Approach. *Comparative Legilinguistics - International Journal for Legal Communication,* 5, 7-21.

Pym, A. (1992). Translation error analysis. In C. Dollerup & A. Loddegard (Eds.), *The Teaching of Translation* (pp. 279-288), Amesterdam, PA: John Benjamins B.V.

Pym, A. (2003). Redefining Translation Competence in an Electronic Age. In Defence of a Minimalist Approach. *Meta: Translation Journal*, 48(4), 481-497.

Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. *International Review of Applied Linguistics,* 10, 209-231.

Šarčević, S. (1997). *New Approach to Legal Translation*. The Hague: Kluwer law international.

Appendix

Table A1. Examples of stylistic errors

Language	
English	Serbian
in defence of any person	u zaštiti lica **(student's translation)**
	radi odbrane nekog lica (official translation)
for non-compliance with the lawful order of a court	zbog neispunjenja naredbe suda
	zbog neizvršenja zakonite sudske odluke
…or when it is reasonably considered necessary	ili kada se smatra nužnim
	ili kada se to opravdano smatra potrebnim
... in which decisions are taken as openly as possible and as closely as possible to the citizen.	u kojoj su odluke otvorenije i što je više moguće bliže građanima
	u kojoj se odluke donose što je moguće otvorenije i na nivou što je moguće bližem građanima
Those two Treaties shall have the same legal value.	Ova dva ugovora imaju istovetnu legalnu vrednost.
	Ova dva ugovora imaju istu pravnu vrednost.
area of freedom	mesto slobode
	prostor slobode
in conjunction with appropriate measures	u vezi sa odgovarajućim merama
	uz odgovarajuće mere

Table A2. Lexical errors

competent court	odgovarajući sud **(student's translation)**
	nadležni sud **(official translation)**
legal authority	legalni autoritet
	nadležna vlast
*sustainable developmen*t	ubrzani razvoj
	održivi razvoj
objectives	objekti
	ciljevi
means	značenja
	sredstva
internal	internacionalno
	unutrašnje
*confe*r	sadržati
	preneti
advance	mogućnosti
	napredak
rule of law	vladavina zakona, pravila zakon,a snaga zakona
	vladavina prava
highly competitive	visoko takmičarska
	visoko konkuretna
social market economy	socijalno ekonomsko tržište, društveno tržišna ekononija
	društveno tržišna privreda
constitutional	konstitucionalni
	ustavni
civil	civilni
	građanski

Table A3. Syntactic and textual errors

	Language	
Error	English	Serbian
Type of error: translation of modal verb *shall* Level of error: syntactic	The Union **shall** replace and succeed the European Community.	Unija će zameniti i u unaprediti Evropsku zajednicu.
		Unija zamenjuje i nasleđuje Evropsku zajednicu.
Type of error: translation of modal verb *shall* Level of error: syntactic	No one **shall be** deprived of his life.	*Niko ne mora biti lišen života.*

		Niko ne sme biti lišen života.
Type of error: translation of verb *effect* Level of error: syntactic	in order to **effect** a lawful arrest	da bi se uticalo na zakonsko hapšenje
		da bi se izvršilo zakonito hapšenje
Type of error: translation of prepositional phrase Level of error: syntactic	on reasonable suspicion	sa sumnjom
		zbog opravdane sumnje
Type of error: translation of verbs *find* and *found* Level of error: syntactic	The Union is founded on the values.	Unija se nalazi na vrednostima
		Unija se zasniva na vrednostima
Type of error: omission Level of error: textual	save in the execution of a sentence of a court **following his conviction of a crime** for which this penalty is provided by law	osim u slučaju izvršenja presude suda kojom je kazna predviđena zakonom
		osim prilikom izvršenja presude suda kojom je osuđen za zločin za koji je ova kazna predviđena zakonom
Type of error: omission Level of error: textual	any work required to be done in the ordinary course of **detention** imposed according to the provisions of Article 5	posao uobičajen u skladu sa odredbama člana 5
		rad uobičajen u sklopu lišenja slobode određenog u skladu sa odredbama člana 5
Type of error: omission Level of error: textual	in case of emergency or **calamity** threatening	u slučaju neke krize koja preti
		u slučaju kakve krize ili nesreće koja preti
Type of error: substitution Level of error: textual	or of a person against whom action is being taken	ili lica protiv koga se preduzimaju mere
		ili lica protiv koga se vodi postupak

Type of error: substitution Level of error: textual	High contracting parties By this Treaty, the HIGH CONTRACTING PARTIES establish among themselves a EUROPEAN UNION, **hereinafter called** "the Union", on which the Member States **confer competences** to attain objectives they have in common.	Po ovom ugovoru, ugovorne strane uspostavljaju međusobno Evropsku uniju, kasnije nazvanu Unija, za koju države članice imaju uslove da utvrde činjenice koje su im zajedničke.
		Ovim ugovorom Visoke strane ugovornice međusobno uspostavljaju Evropsku uniju, u daljem tekstu "Uniju" na koju države članice prenose nadležnosti radi postaizanja svojih zajedničkih ciljeva.
Type of error: omission Level of translation error: textual	**in accordance with** a procedure prescribed by law	u postupku predviđenim zakonom
		u skladu sa zakonom propisanim postupkom
Type of error: substitution Level of translation error: textual	in its relations with the wider world	u relaciji sa boljim svetom
		u odnosima sa ostalim delom sveta
Type of error: substitution Level of translation error: textual	in full mutual respect	u punom zajedničkom poštovanju
		uz puno uzajamno uvažavanje
Type of error: substitution Level of translation error: textual	**with respect to** external border controls	koje poštuju eksterne granice
		u pogledu kontrole spoljnih granica
Type of error: substitution Level of translation error: textual	or of a person against whom **action** is being **taken**	ili lica protiv koga se preduzimaju mere
		ili lica protiv koga se vodi postupak
Type of error: substitution Level of error: textual	as well as	isto tako dobro kao
		kao i

Part 3

Educating Teachers

Radmila Bodrič[1]
Faculty of Philosophy
University of Novi Sad
Serbia

THE ROLE OF REFLECTIVE PRACTICE IN PRE-SERVICE EFL TEACHER TRAINING

Abstract
Reflective practice, as part of a constructivist paradigm in the field of pre- and in-service teacher training, represents the critical reflection on one's own or someone else's teaching practice for the purpose of improving it and thereby enhancing the students' achievement. The aim of this paper is to determine the place and role of reflective practice within the ELT Methodology course taken during studies of English. The paper will consider the application of practical approaches to reflective practice with students of English, as well as the analysis of implicit theories by students regarding their significance and applicability in their future teaching practice. A survey was carried out among third-year students of English at the Faculty of Philosophy in Novi Sad. The aim of the survey was to determine in what manner and to what extent the microteaching sessions and observation journals had helped the students develop their teaching skills and reflect on the existing teaching practice of EFL teachers.

Key words: reflective practice, constructivist paradigm, pre-service EFL teacher training, practical approaches, implicit theories, survey.

∞∞∞∞

1. Introduction

It seems that the issue of education has never before been quite so relevant and important as today. Constant and unpredictable changes characterizing the modern world have inevitably affected the field of

[1] radmila.bodric@gmail.com

education. These changes call for a synergy of constant action and reaction within concrete teaching contexts, and insightful reflective practice for the purpose of the teachers' personal and professional development and self-empowerment. Researchers and practitioners unanimously agree that teacher quality is "the single most important school variable influencing student achievement" (McKenzie et al., 2005, p. 2 as cited in Zvozdiak-Myers 2011, p. 26). The European Commission (*Common European Principles for Teacher Competences and Qualifications* 2004, as cited in Donaldson, 2013, p. 14) has explicitly stipulated that teachers should possess extensive knowledge of the subject they teach, pedagogical expertise, necessary skills and competences to guide and support learners, as well as a wider understanding of the accompanying social and cultural dimension of education. These standards, whereby teachers (novice and experienced) are seen as part of the knowledge-generation process, should foster reflection and growth throughout their teaching careers (Donaldson, 2013, p. 16).

In light of the aforementioned characteristics of good teaching for the twenty-first century, there has been a renewed interest in initial teacher training which should help pre-service teacher trainees develop into reflective practitioners. Reflective practice represents the critical consideration and reflection on one's own or someone else's teaching practice for the purpose of improving and enhancing learner achievement (Ghaye, 2011; Lee, 2007; McIntosh, 2010; Richards & Lockhart, 1996; Ryder, 2012). Today, when teachers are facing increasing challenges in their profession, and when they are undergoing a transformation from conveyors of knowledge to researchers, innovators, active participants and leaders, reflective teaching practice is becoming an ever more present form of continuous in-service teacher training. However, reflection as an active and conscious process can and must become an integral part of formal pre-service teacher training so that teachers-to-be and future reflective practitioners could successfully bridge the gap between their preconceptions about teaching and the reality of the actual classroom. Reflective practice should be carried out before the student-teachers' teaching practicum in order to allow them to pinpoint and critically analyze various aspects of the teaching process.

The aim of this study is to determine the place and role of reflective teaching practice within the third-year ELT Methodology course taught at the Faculty of Philosophy, University of Novi Sad, Serbia. One task of ELT methodologists/teacher-educators is to devise pedagogically powerful tools to develop reflectivity in EFL students and make sense of teaching and learning

in real classroom contexts. To that end, carrying out observation tasks, keeping observation journals and doing microteaching can offer valuable opportunities for student teachers to learn about and reflect upon a variety of teaching techniques. The survey conducted among third-year ELT tertiary-level students at the Faculty of Philosophy in Novi Sad will reveal whether, how and to what extent they have benefited from exposure to these practical training tools.

2. Theoretical background

Reflective practice is part of the constructivist paradigm that dominates teacher education around the world. Reflection is a form of a conscious response to a classroom situation or event, and the experiences within that situation or event. It helps pre-service and in-service teachers to contextualize, recapture and evaluate teaching experiences in order to make decisions and choices about what they have experienced, how they have experienced it, and what they will or will not do in the future. The pioneer of the theory of reflective learning is John Dewey (1933), for whom reflection is a rational and purposeful act – a disposition to enquiry. According to Dewey, three frames of mind characterize a reflective practitioner: open-mindedness, responsibility and wholeheartedness. Later research studies are built on his concept of reflective practice: reflection is a component part of Kolb's model of experiential learning (1984), where immediate or concrete experiences serve as the basis for observations and reflections. Schön (1987), however, focused on the use of rational reflection within the understanding and development of professional practice. He proposed the concepts of *reflection-in-action* and *reflection-on-action* (Schön, 1987, p. 28; Ryder, 2011, p. 176). Reflection-in-action occurs when experienced teachers or professionals encounter unpredictable situations in the learning environment and have to find ways to overcome them. Descriptive expressions such as 'thinking on your feet' or 'keeping your wits about you' (Zwozdiak-Myers, 2011, p. 31) best describe this kind of reflective practice. On the other hand, reflection-on-action refers to looking back on action after the event has taken place, and provides a framework through which teachers find meaning of and have control over their situated knowledge.

Jay and Johnson (2002) (as cited in Fat'hi & Behzadpour, 2011, p. 243) provide a comprehensive definition of reflective teaching. Namely, the definition was proposed by a group of teaching assistants teaching the

reflective seminars in their teaching education program: *Reflection is a process, both individual and collaborative, involving experience and uncertainty. It is comprised of identifying questions and key elements of a matter that has emerged as significant, then taking one's thought into dialogue with oneself and with others*. Equally all-encompassing is the definition of reflective practice as: "... a disposition to enquiry incorporating the process through which student, early career and experienced teachers structure or restructure actions, beliefs, knowledge, and theories that inform teaching for the purpose of professional development" (Zwozdiak-Myers, 2010, p. 83, as cited in Zwozdiak-Myers, 2011, p. 26). It is because of the fact that complex phenomena lie at the core of the reflective paradigm that there are so many definitions and interpretations which can sometimes confuse practitioners. Reflective teaching is complex: it may be implicit or explicit, holistic or specific, professional or personal, intuitive or planned, it may take different shapes and forms and have different levels (Al-Issa & Al-Bulushi, 2010; Moon, 2004). The reflective model one adopts will be determined by our underlying reasons for using it, our processes, objectives and even methods of assessment.

Loughran (1996, as cited in Brandt, 2008, p. 42) argues that reflection helps develop the habits, skills, and attitudes necessary for self-directed development in teachers. Good learners are reflective learners in the same way as effective teachers are reflective teachers. This notion that teachers should be reflective practitioners became widely accepted in educational circles in the 1980s and 1990s. Ghaye makes a justified claim that good reflective practitioners are good at observation (Ghaye, 2011, p. 9). According to him, they observe with intense concentration in order to make sense of what is happening in the (inter)actions or encounters in front of them and in which they are immersed, directly or indirectly. Whether it be pre- or in-service teacher training, trainees are expected to be able to identify their own strengths and weaknesses, to diagnose and understand their classroom contexts and the way their students learn better. They should also be able to put the students' learning and achievement at the heart of the teaching-learning process and develop a sound rationale for their classroom teaching.

A reflective approach to teaching can be used with any teaching method or approach (Richards & Lockhart, 1996). Hence, reflective practice can be used equally successfully both at the pre- and in-service stages of teaching. It can involve learning and teaching situations or events, quite complex formal or informal occasions (lectures, tutorials, filed trips, language laboratories, group work, teaching practicum, participation in an assessment

task, etc.). Reflections may be about what teachers think, feel, do and conclude at the time and/or after the experience. In other words, experiences are explored and inherently lead to a deeper understanding and appreciation of the observed phenomena. Reflection-promoting tools and procedures include: journal writing (comprising a variety of reflective journals), observation, microteaching and other supervised practicum experiences, surveys and questionnaires, lesson reports, audio and video recordings, small-scale investigative tasks, action research projects, teaching portfolios, analyzing critical incidents, case studies and ethnographic studies of students/teachers/classrooms/schools, group discussions, etc. (Farrell, 2004; Murphy, 2001; Richards & Farrell, 2005; Richards & Lockhart, 1996). Bailey (1997) (as cited in Maarof, 2007, p. 206), for instance, explored the notion of reflective practice through her personal story of her teaching experience. Through her vignettes of classroom critical incidents she viewed teaching as "part of a bigger pattern, a reflection of a wider world" (Bailey, 1997, p. 7). Her authentic classroom practices provided valuable insights into teaching. By means of careful self-reflection and self-awareness characteristic of the constructivist paradigm, teachers can simultaneously formulate pedagogical theories and change educational practices and conditions where classroom teaching is taking place (Maksimović & Banđur, 2013, p. 599). All these aspects of reflection contribute to the teachers' understanding, learning, knowledge transfer and positive action.

As has been mentioned, a number of approaches can be used to promote reflective practice in both pre- and in-service teacher education. One cannot single out a method which is by far the best or the most useful because all of them contribute to the development of teachers as reflective practitioners. Since this article explores how carrying out observation tasks and keeping observation journals, and doing microteaching can be used to encourage reflection among pre-service teachers it is these effective learning tools which will be paid due attention throughout the paper. Journals represent a useful instrument for developing reflection and critical thinking in pre- and in-service teachers. They facilitate learning from experience, recording experiences and processing them further. According to Richards & Lockhart (1996, p. 7) journals are written responses to teaching events, and the mere process of writing "helps trigger insights about teaching". As such they offer important 'windows' into behavioral patterns of teachers and their students, and serve as a bridge between content and practical experience. Journals underlie three fundamental paradigms in education focusing on: 1)

process, 2) the learner, and 3) reflection (Cole et al., 1998, as cited in Lee, 2004, p. 74). By engaging in this kind of active learning, teacher trainees link their background knowledge, their own beliefs and experiences with new meaning.

Various forms of journals have been employed to foster reflection in teacher education. Most commonly used are the so-called *teaching/reflective journals*, connected with classroom teaching or the teaching practicum, *response journals*, providing opportunities to reflect on the teaching and learning issues raised on the teacher education program, *dialogue journals* that student teachers write and exchange with the teacher educator, and *collaborative/interactive group journals* that teacher trainees write and exchange among themselves (Lee, 2007, p. 322). Bartlett (1990, p. 209-210, as cited in Richards & Lockhart, 1996, p. 7), gives useful suggestions for teachers and teacher trainees to write about. Namely, the process of observation and subsequent journal writing can be about critical incidents in the classrooms, routine and conscious actions in the classrooms, their personal lives and experiences as teachers, their beliefs and/or value systems about teaching, events outside the classroom that might influence their teaching, conversations with pupils and other teachers, etc. Overall, journals may genuinely enhance reflective practice in all its aspects.

Another form of reflective practice, microteaching, provides student teachers with practical language teaching experience. It is a condensed and simplified teaching situation equivalent to a complete instructional segment. The task is simplified, the length of the lesson shortened (ten to fifteen minutes at most) and the size of the class reduced. Doing microteaching provides trainees with opportunities to observe, systematically analyze, practice specific teaching behaviors in a simulated environment and receive feedback from the teacher educator and their peers in a supportive environment. However, this practical training tool helps teacher trainees to put the theories and teaching techniques they have been exposed to into practice (Ismail, 2011, p. 1043). Also, trainees develop confidence and teaching skills while conducting a mini-lesson to their peers. Student teachers who are conducting mini-lessons reflect on their own performance, apart from being given constructive, quality feedback on the part of their peers. Peer observation is carried out according to the specified criteria, with the sole purpose of improving the skills of the observed student teacher. The aim of peer observation in a reflective context is, therefore, not to judge the teaching of their colleagues but to encourage reflection and awareness, to

stimulate a questioning attitude and experimenting with a variety of teaching methods and techniques (Cosh, 1999, p. 25). Many pre-service teacher education programs have recently introduced the microteaching component in order to help student teachers develop reflective thinking through learning how to teach (Amobi, 2005; Amobi & Irwin, 2009; Bell, 2007; Benton-Kupper, 2001; Britton & Anderson 2010; Fernandez, 2010; Fernandez & Robinson, 2007). It is important for the trainees to practice teaching as soon as the teacher learning process starts, because this meaningful learning experience can help them experience success and gain self-confidence in future teaching.

3. Research Methodology

Participants. The participants of this study were third-year English majors attending the ELT Methodology 1 course at the Faculty of Philosophy in Novi Sad. A total of fifty-four students participated in the study. Of these, forty-nine (91%) were female, and five (9%) were male. The age of the students ranged from 20 to 25, with a mean of 21.12.

Instrument. A questionnaire consisting of twenty questions was constructed and used to collect the required data. In accordance with the purpose and hypotheses of this study, the questionnaire was divided into two parts: one examining the usefulness of observation journals and the other focusing on the microteaching component. Of twenty questions seventeen were open-ended, relying on qualitative research methodology, and three used a five-point Likert scale from one (the least useful) to five (the most useful) relying on quantitative research methodology. The questionnaire was anonymous, which contributed to the validity of the study as students gave comprehensive and honest answers.

Data collection. The students were given a maximum of forty-five minutes to complete the questionnaire, which was administered within regular ELT Methodology practice classes. Data were collected in January 2014. The reason for administering the questionnaire at the end of the autumn semester was that by that time student teachers had already completed their observation tasks and finished all their mini-lesson sessions. Before the students filled out the questionnaire, they were told that their responses would remain confidential. Furthermore, they were also instructed to be as clear and open as possible, which was the key to validity and success of this research study. As was previously mentioned, both quantitative and qualitative data analyses were conducted in order to better understand the

student-teachers' perspectives regarding observations and microteaching experiences. Descriptive statistics were utilized to obtain patterns of demographic information and to quiz students about the usefulness of observations and micro teaching. As regards the qualitative research methodology, a qualitative analysis technique was adopted as suggested by Patton (2002: 41; as cited in Ismail, 2011, p. 1046), whereby the researcher should look at "the details and specifics of the data to discover important patterns and themes and interrelationships". The recurrent patterns and/or themes obtained from the qualitative data were employed to support the existing quantitative data obtained from the five-point Likert scale variables.

Hypotheses. This study was designed to explore whether, how and to what extent observations and/or observation journals and microteaching experiences were helpful to pre-service teachers in understanding ELT issues. It set out to prove the following two hypotheses:

1. Observation tasks and keeping observation journals can be useful in preparing student teachers to become reflective practitioners and learn from experience,

2. Microteaching can be useful for student teachers to reflect on their teaching and develop their teaching skills.

4. Results and Discussion

In the *first* question, the participants were asked to rate the usefulness of their class observation activities and keeping observation journals:

Table 1. *Usefulness of class observations and keeping observation journals*

NOT USEFUL	0.0%
OF LITTLE USE	3.7%
MODERATELY USEFUL	7.4%
USEFUL	50.0%
VERY USEFUL	38.9%

First of all, it is important to explain that observations are part of the pre-service teachers' practical experience in the ELT Methodology 1 course. Students are required to observe eight EFL classes, four in each semester. Ideally, these observations should be carried out at all levels: primary, secondary and adult. It is desirable that students observe different teachers in

different schools so as to gain insights into different repertoires that teachers use to achieve their objectives. For all the observations student teachers are given a focused observation task so that they can concentrate on different aspects of classroom methodology during each observation. This kind of reflective approach is basically a *guided discovery* approach because trainees, apart from being given the guidelines to reflect on, devise their own observation and/or evaluation system. Their role is not to judge but to monitor teaching standards at school, write straightforward and thoughtful comments, and, in a non-judgmental way, raise problematic issues that the teachers themselves may not have been aware of. After the observations, student teachers hold discussions with the observed teachers about diverse ELT Methodology issues and the procedures used in the observed classes. Students write their reflections in the observation/reflective journals, which are part of an assessment scheme. The findings from the reflective journals kept by the students are eventually discussed during practice classes with the sole purpose of sharing pertinent information gathered from a variety of sources and encouraging the students to develop a personal teaching philosophy through exposure to different teaching styles.

Of the total sample of students, 41 (76%) observed classes in primary, 47 (87%) in secondary education, and 14 (26%) in foreign language centers. The students' answers to the first question regarding the usefulness of the observation scheme reveal that they are aware of the importance of the observation program for their future professional development, as 88.9% of the surveyed students consider them useful or very useful. Namely, through observations students have the opportunity to reflect on what they have seen and to begin developing ideas about their own professional identity. Students are advised not to enumerate events in the journals but only to focus on their attitudes towards the observed activities and techniques. When asked to remember the most positive class they observed, which is dealt by *Question 2*, and briefly outline what aspect of the class made it so positive, some of the answers were as follows (all the answers in the survey are cited verbatim):

***S** (Student) **1**: I was impressed by the atmosphere and the student-teacher relationship which was neither too relaxed nor too formal.*

***S43**: In the third grade of elementary school the teacher promised the students a game at the end of the class if they behaved well. Everyone was focused and discipline was amazing for such young students. And the teacher kept her promise.*

***S51**: What made the class so positive was the manner in which the T managed to get all the Ss to participate without actually trying hard to get their attention.*

Conversely, when asked to briefly outline what aspect of the class made it so negative (content of *Question 3*), student teachers answered:

***S1**: The most negative class was the one in which the T was explaining the writing task the Ss were about to do, not all the Ss were listening, yet the teacher did nothing to focus their attention. The T just kept talking. (secondary school)*

***S3**: The most negative class I observed was the one in the private school. Although the teacher organized the class very well, it turned into anarchy in the end. No one listened, students were rude, they left the class earlier without her permission.*

***S14**: What made the class so negative were the Ss. They had no respect toward the teacher and they didn't appreciate the T's effort to teach them and make them interested in the lesson. (secondary school)*

As can be seen students were distinctly aware of the aspects that did (not) contribute to the success of the observed classes. However, their role was only to reflect on the procedures used in classes without assuming the role of evaluators or judges. What is important for pre-service teachers is to learn by observing and it is equally useful to be exposed to classes which they deemed successful or unsuccessful in order to gain insight into the reasons behind the success or failure of the class.

In the fourth question students were asked to reflect on one method the teacher used to focus the students' attention on the lesson at the beginning of the class, so they said:

***S4**: The teacher clapped her hands and raised her voice a little, and then she greeted pupils politely and friendly.*

***S13**: In the first grade of secondary school the teacher said she would switch to Serbian because they would be doing some new, complex grammar. Since this teacher almost never uses Serbian in English classes, this drew the pupils' attention and they were focused from the start.*

***S50**: Without previously stating the topic (which is daily routine), the T asked Ss what they regularly do on weekdays and then told them the topic of the class. Not the most innovative one, but hardly any teacher I observed used any method to focus the students' attention, they would immediately get down to work.*

Being perceptive like only students can be, they noticed all the tricks of the trade the observed teachers skillfully used to achieve short-term goals within a lesson. Thus, students remarked that teachers generally used standard, yet effective ways of focusing their pupils' attention by: quieting pupils down; writing the most important points on the blackboard so that pupils would pay attention to them throughout the lesson; stating the objectives and the value of the lesson; raising their voice and greeting students; asking students questions about the previous lesson; activating pupils' background knowledge by asking all kinds of relevant questions, etc. Pre-service teachers also noted down not so commonly used, but highly effective ways of focusing their pupils' attention: by creating a competitive atmosphere through short problem-solving tasks; by using pictures to stimulate their senses and arouse interest; by using the Silent Way method; by playing the song announcing the topic of the lesson; by telling a warm-up joke thus adding a personal note; by playing a video on the interactive whiteboard before introducing the topic, etc.

In *Question 5* students were to remember a task or situation where the teacher managed the time effectively and how s/he achieved this, so they came up with the following comments:

S13*: For one task the students were supposed to write a short story and she gave them 10 minutes to do it. However, noticing that the end of class was near, she shortened that time so that more of them could read their stories in front of the class, as many if them seemed eager to do so.*

S33*: The teacher was extremely well organized, she knew exactly how long each exercise should take, and anticipated possible delays. She is very experienced and this helped her determine the exact amount of time needed for every task.*

And, conversely, in *Question 6*, when asked to remember a situation where the teacher did not succeed in enforcing the required time limit on the task s/he has set the class, and why they thought this had happened, they responded in the following way:

S2*: There was a situation when the students were doing the speaking task and they liked the topic very much. Everyone wanted to participate so the task was spontaneously prolonged.*

***S18**: The teacher told the students to copy the content from the board, which they failed to do in time. She should have given them handouts, they would have been much more effective.*

***S22**: When the pupils (eight grade) were preparing for their first written task, the teacher gave them handouts and told them to rewrite the tasks. They didn't manage to rewrite and do all the tasks during the class. I think she should have let them keep the handouts, but again maybe the teacher couldn't photocopy the material for all the students.*

One of the reasons why such questions were asked in the questionnaire and not directly extracted from journal entries is to check to what extent students remembered positive or negative aspects of EFL learning situations. This only shows that versatile techniques imprinted themselves onto the students' memories allowing them to distinguish effective from ineffective ones and possibly implement them in their future teaching careers.

With *Question 7* we wanted to explore the students' reflections on a method the observed teacher used to introduce a new activity, which they thought was very successful:

***S4**: She talked about the students' exchange programs and how useful it is to know English. She encouraged them to apply for the exchange programs if they want to travel and study abroad, and students were very interested. Then she gave them a listening exercise with different accents of five speakers, which made them pay attention even more.*

***S5**: She started asking the students: "Are you in love?" A discussion on love started and in the end she stated that their next activity is love poems*

***S27**: I didn't notice anything new or creative when it comes to introducing new activities because they did everything by the book.*

Student teachers witnessed the use of a number of procedures which served as a good introduction to new activities, such as: drawing/coloring, activating the students' background knowledge, the use of the Silent Way method, the use of the interactive board, flashcards, personalizing, specific listening tasks, etc. However, trainees also noticed that some teachers did not have any special methods, but did everything from and by the book.

When asked to remember a situation when the teacher introduced the learning objective(s) particularly well and how s/he achieved this (*Question 8*), students responded:

***S7**: At the beginning of the class she told the students precisely what they were going to do and how it would be useful for their future education, which immediately made the students interested.*

***S43**: She stated them clearly, explaining the value of the lesson, and why it is important to learn that now, why the knowledge of this is useful.*

Students noticed that some observed teachers did not explicitly state the learning objectives. Reflections on this practice are best recorded in the students' journals and here is one quote from a student's journal entry, which is fairly self-explanatory:

I made quite a few observations and noticed that not once had the teacher explained the objectives to the students. It seems that common practice is to avoid stating the lesson objectives. When asked to account for this phenomenon, which clearly goes against everything we've been taught, the teacher answered that she doesn't want to burden the students with the objectives. I think that stating objectives has several important functions: students get to know what the teacher what the teacher expects from them, it also gives a sense of purposefulness to the lesson; students know what and why they will be doing some activity, and they will become more engaged in accomplishing this goal.

Pre-service teachers are taught that the purpose of learning or instructional objectives is to indicate what learners ought to be able to do at the end of the class. Generally, this is something both observable and assessable. Clearly defined objectives are presented as: 1) constituting a basis for the selection and/or design of instructional materials, content, or techniques, 2) creating a basis for determining when the goals of the instruction have been accomplished, and 3) providing the students with the means to organize their efforts toward the accomplishment of the learning tasks.

In *Question 9* students were asked to think of an effective way the teacher introduced new material, i.e. grammar/vocabulary/speaking, etc. and how the teacher achieved this, so they said:

***S33**: The teacher played the tape and then had the children engaged in a role-play activity. They were extremely amused and quickly repeated new vocabulary items. This was an excellent speaking exercise.*

***S51**: The teacher introduced new vocabulary items by writing them on the board, pronouncing them a few times, and trying to give definitions so that students could guess what the word means. If they couldn't answer he would give the students dictionaries to look them up.*

Again, students vividly remembered all the strategies teachers used in order to introduce new material. Similarly, in *Question 10*, when asked to name an effective method the teacher used to check whether the students had understood his/her instructions, the students remarked:

***S13**: Every time the teacher gave instructions or explained grammatical rules she asked the students if everything as clear and then she would assign the task, pace the classroom to make sure everyone understood what they were supposed to do.*

***S21**: After having explained their homework assignments, which was to write an advertisement, one of the pupils was asked to repeat all the main things the teacher had already explained.*

By analyzing the students' journals and responses given in the questionnaire it is evident that students are quite aware of the importance of giving concise and precise instructions. Repeating the instructions in order to give the students one more chance to understand what they have to do or asking students themselves to paraphrase them in their own words are worth their weight in gold, since this can make a crucial difference to the success or failure of an activity and therefore the whole class. Ur rightfully claims that the ability to explain things is one of the most important qualities of good teacher (Ur, 1996, p. 16) and that it is not enough just to ask students *Do you understand?*, it is always more effective to ask students to do something that will show their understanding. In *Question 11* students were to reflect on the method the teacher used to get students to participate:

***S5**: The students sat in the circle and the teacher organized an activity so that she could ask every student a question. When the circle was completed the exercise was over and the students were very satisfied.*

***S33**: She divided the class into 'teams' and had the students compete. They did the exercises in the course book and got points for every correct answer. Everyone enjoyed it.*

By being asked to reflect on the specific aspects of the EFL teaching process it became clear to the student teachers that all these aspects are closely intertwined, contribute to good classroom dynamics and provide learning opportunities. By analyzing the students' journal entries and their responses in the questionnaire we have come to the conclusion that the student-teachers realized the essence of active participation in class activities: by being supportive to (shy and passive) students, by constantly praising and encouraging their efforts, by choosing effective ways of arousing their interest and motivating them, by using all kinds of teaching aids to make them active and attentive, etc. When asked to name an effective method the teacher used to deal with students who were not paying attention (*Question 12*), students saw that:

***S23**: The teacher was trying to make the lesson as relaxing as possible and she used her excellent sense of humor to capture the attention of students who were uninterested.*

***S33**: The teacher divided students into teams and had everyone engaged, she made students who didn't pay attention 'captains of the team' so everyone participated, they simply enjoyed competing.*

Students noticed that the techniques for making such students participate ranged from ignoring them (as long as they did not disrupt the class) to raising one's voice, stopping speaking and looking at them – quietly and significantly, directly involving them into discussion thus making them ashamed for being the only ones who are inattentive, giving them all sorts of tasks to make them focused, etc. In the next question (*Question 13*) students were asked to list two very positive classroom management techniques that they observed in class and that they intended to use in their own classes:

***S46**: 1) Going from student to student during pair work activity to check whether they are really doing the activity or just talking about irrelevant things,*

2) Involving every student, even the ones who would rather not participate (but not in a way that makes them too uncomfortable, of course).

Conversely, some classroom management mistakes that students observed in class and that they intend to avoid making in their own classes were as follows:

S16*: Interrupting students when they want to share something important, avoiding passive students, not making the students self-correct, giving too much attention to the student who has the strongest voice.*

S22*: I would never allow students to speak to me in an arrogant manner.*

S28*: Asking the same students over and over again.*

S44*: Sitting down with arms crossed and waiting for the students to quiet down. This never works and at the same time the students feel as if they are the authority.*

Journal entries and students' responses in this study show how important it is for the teacher to be authoritative and in control of the class and to possess good classroom management skills, which in turn enables them to control the flow of energy in the classroom at all times. Student teachers have realized that teachers should know how to prevent problems arising through: careful lesson planning, giving clear instructions and repeating them, catering for the (language) needs and interests of all students (and not just "the loudest ones"), close monitoring of what is going on in every part of the classroom, etc.

In *Question 15*: "How useful do you think it would be to read other students' observation journals on a scale of 1-5 where 1 is the least useful and 5 is the most useful?" 13% of students agree that it would be *moderately useful* (claiming it would be repetitive/redundant), 39% say that it would be *useful* and for 48% of the whole sample it would be *very useful*, justifying their choice with the opinion that in this way "they would be able to get an insight into many more classroom management strategies, teaching techniques that they didn't have the chance to observe". However, students are aware that all this is but a tiny part of what can be experienced in the classroom. Overall, observation journals are a useful tool for developing individual reflection and making sense of educational theories while personalizing them, applying them and determining their relevance to educational practices. Moreover, they might be a good way to ease the pressure on pre-service teachers' as they try to find their feet on the pre-service teacher education course. And finally, in *Question 16*, the last question of the first part of the Questionnaire, students

were asked why they thought it would or would not be useful to read other students' observation journals:

S5: *Reading other students' observation journals would give us an insight into diverse class situations.*

S28: *School is a school. It would be extremely repetitive.*

While most of the students thought it would useful to read their peers' journals "… in order to see what their experiences were like since not all teachers are the same and each class is different", some were of the opinion that such practice would be redundant.

Table 2: *Usefulness of the aspects of Microteaching*

	Not useful	Of little use	Moderately useful	Useful	Very useful
Recognizing the strengths and weaknesses of your teaching style			4 (7.4%)	15 (27.8%)	35 (64.8%)
Developing classroom jargon		2 (3.7%)	15 (27.8%)	22 (40.7%)	15 (27.8%)
Gaining teaching experience		2 (3.7%)	5 (9.3%)	18 (33.3%)	29 (53.7%)
Developing class management skills		2 (3.7%)	4 (7.4%)	15 (27.8%)	33 (61.1%)
Building up self-confidence			2 (3.7%)	22 (40.7%)	30 (55.6%)
Getting feedback from your T and peers			5 (9.3%)	11 (20.4%)	38 (70.4%)
Learning by observing other Ss			5 (9.3%)	18 (33.3%)	31 (57.4%)

The second part of the Questionnaire dealt with the usefulness of the microteaching component, whose purpose and structure we have described previously in the paper. In *Question 17* students were asked to rate its general usefulness on a scale of 1 to 5 (where 1 is the least useful and 5 is the most useful): 13.0% of the students regard it as **moderately useful**, 31.5% consider it **useful**, 55.5% think it is **very useful**. None of the students said that it was not useful or of little use. When asked to name two ways in which Microteaching has helped them improve their teaching skills/ techniques/ confidence (*Question 18*), students responded in this way:

***S23**: Since I have always had stage fright, this useful experience helped me to reduce stress and get used to teaching.*

***S31**: I learned that I always have to be prepared for everything, that I have to have a "plan B", and that as a teacher I have to have control over the whole class – pay attention to all the Ss, help them out, divide them into groups myself, etc.*

***S16**: Watching very good mini-lessons has given me ideas in which I could teach in the future. I learnt how to implement humor into classes and how to promote student-to-student interaction.*

***S33**: I learnt how to organize time in class and how important praise is. Also, I had an opportunity to observe effective ways of drawing students' attention.*

This format is a powerful pre-service teacher training tool, which helps trainees develop the skills required for reflective and effective teaching. It is a beneficial practical training experience enabling trainees to acquire teaching skills and identify strengths and weaknesses in their teaching styles, before engaging in the teaching practicum and actual class experience. The micro-teaching component, as confirmed by the trainees' answers, is very useful for both the student-teachers/instructors and their fellow students, who observe them and give feedback. The micro-teaching component is one of a range of techniques for developing 'experiential knowledge of professional action in a controlled way' (Wallace, 1995, p. 87). Trainees benefit from the mini-lesson most if they receive clear feedback. This necessitates a supportive environment where fellow students feel comfortable offering honest feedback, motivated naturally by the instructor's willingness to receive it. The instructor is also given feedback by the teacher educator at the end of the session. The overall aim is to identify areas for improvement without overloading the students, and to give them the confidence to work toward improvement. The mini-lesson format undoubtedly helps students to develop into self-critical teachers who are ready to learn from each other, immerse themselves into a learning/teaching situation, albeit a simplified and artificial one, and to receive as well as give feedback.

And finally, in *Question 20*, students were asked the following: "If you could change/add one thing about the Microteaching classes in your ELT Methodology course, what would it be?", 25 (46.3%) students responded that they would not change anything, and the rest of the students mostly regretted not having more microteaching lessons so that they could practice more for their future teaching careers in schools, and not having more time (20 minutes) to deliver the lessons and "properly express all the main points".

Indeed, the number of students attending the ELT Methodology course each year and curriculum requirements are such that there is not enough time for more/longer microteaching classes, although this would be extremely useful for students. Still, the ten-minute time limit necessitates concise 'lesson planning', an invaluable pedagogical skill. Also, there is more than sufficient data generated during these ten minutes of instruction to provide feedback to student-teachers/instructors and point out aspects which are in need of improvement.

5. Conclusion

In an effort to bridge the gap between theoretical and practical aspects of methodologically oriented courses teacher educators should devise tasks which are stimulating enough but still provide a solid framework for developing students' teaching competences. Through reflective teaching practice, namely observing EFL classes and keeping reflective journals, and doing microteaching, students can successfully develop experiential knowledge in a controlled and progressive manner. This kind of carefully-staged practical experience can play an important part in any pre-service teacher training program. Student-teachers are gradually guided from a minimum risk environment to an increasingly realistic context in which they are expected to cope with the practicalities of the classroom and to take responsibility for their initial teaching experience during the teaching practicum. The survey carried out among the third-year ELT Methodology students shows that they find the 'micro-teaching in action' and observation journals both rewarding and purposeful. It is important to note that foreign language teaching methodology educators must use their professional judgement to select a teaching/learning model that will be of most use to the students. The observation program and the micro-teaching component thus assume their place along a continuum of reflective and practical learning, wherein teaching practice is probably the most important. By being exposed to diverse teaching/learning approaches that a particular teaching context provides, trainees learn by reflecting and doing and thus gain hands-on experience which lies at the heart of modern education.

References

Al-Issa, A., & Al-Bulushi, A. (2010). Training English language student teachers to become reflective teachers. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 35(4), 22-27. Retrieved from: http://ro.ecu.edu.au/ajte/vol35/iss4/4

Amobi, F. A. (2005). Pre-service teachers' reflectivity on the sequence and consequences of teaching actions in a microteaching experience. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 32(1), 115-128.

Amobi, F. A., & Irwin, L. (2009). Implementing on-campus microteaching to elicit pre-service teachers' reflection on teaching actions: Fresh perspective on an established practice. *Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, 9(1), 27-34.

Bailey, K. M. (1997). Reflective teaching: Situating our stories. *Asian Journal of English Language Teaching*, 7, 1-19.

Bartlett, L. (1990). Teacher development through reflective teaching. In J. C. Richards and D. Nunan (Eds.), *Second Language Teacher Education* (pp. 202-214). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Bell, N. (2007). Microteaching: What is it that is going on here? *Linguistics and Education*, 18, 24-40.

Benton-Kupper, J. (2001). The microteaching experience: Student perspectives. *Education*, 121(4), 830-835.

Brandt, C. (2008). Integrating feedback and reflection in teacher preparation. *ELT Journal*, 62 (1), 37-46. doi:10.1093/elt/ccm076

Britton, L. R., and Anderson, K. A. (2010). Peer coaching and pre-service teachers: Examining an underutilized concept. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26(2), 306–314.

Cole, R., Raffier, L. M., Rogan, P., & Schleicher, L. (1998). Interactive group journals: learning as a dialogue among learners. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32(3), 556-568.

Common European Principles for Teacher Competences and Qualifications. (2004). Strasbourg: European Commission.

Cosh, J. (1999). *Peer observation: a reflective model*. ELT Journal, 53(1), 22-27. Retrieved from: http://eltj.oxfordjournals.org/

Dewey, J. (1933). *How we think: a restatement of the relation of reflective thinking to the educative process*. Boston, MA: DC Heath and Company.

Donaldson, G. (2013). The twenty-first century professional. In V. Vizek Vidović & Z. Velkoviski (Eds.), *Teaching Profession for the 21st Century* (pp. 13-23). Belgrade: Centre for Education Policy.

Farrell, T. (2004). *Reflective practice in action: 80 reflection breaks for busy teachers*. California: Corwin Press.

Fat'hi, J., & Behzadpour, F. (2011). Beyond method: the rise of reflective teaching. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 1 (2), 241-251. doi:10.5539/ijel.v1n2p241

Fernandez, M. L., & Robinson, M. (2007). Prospective teachers' perspectives on microteaching lesson study. *Education*, 127(2), 203–215.

Fernandez, M. L. (2010). Investigating how and what prospective teachers learn through microteaching lesson study. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26(2), 351–362.

Ghaye, T. (2011). *Teaching and learning through reflective practice*. London & New York: Routledge Taylor & Francis Group.

Ismail, S. A. A. (2011). Student teachers' microteaching experiences in a pre-service English teacher education program. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 2(5), 1043-1051. doi:10.4304/jltr.2.5.1043-1051.

Jay, J. K., & Johnson, K. L. (2002). Capturing complexity: a typology of reflective practice for teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 18, 73-85. doi:10.1016/S0742-051X(01)0051-8

Kolb, D. (1984). *Experiential learning as the science of learning and development*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Lee, I. (2004). Using dialogue journals as a multi-purpose tool for preservice teacher preparation: How effective is it? *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 31(3), 73-97.

Lee, I. (2007). Preparing pre-service English teachers for reflective practice. *ELT Journal*, 61(4), 321-329. doi:10.1093/elt/ccm022

Loughran, J. (1996). *Developing reflective practice: learning about teaching and learning through modelling*. London: Falmer Press.

Maarof, N. (2007). Telling his or her story through reflective journals. *International Education Journal*, 8(1), 205-220. Retrieved from http://iej.com.au

Maksimović, J. & Banđur, V. (2013). Savremena akciona istraživanja i metodološko obrazovanje nastavnika refleksivnog praktičara. *Teme*, 2 (april-jun 2013), 595-610.

McIntosh, P. (2010). *Action research and reflective practice*. London & New York: Routledge Taylor & Francis Group.

McKenzie, P., Santiago, P., Sliwka, P., & Hiroyuki, H. (2005). *Teachers matter: Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers*. Paris: OECD.

Moon, J. (2004). *A handbook of reflective and experiential learning*. London: RoutledgeFalmer.

Murphy, J. M. (2001). Reflective teaching in ELT. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (pp. 499-514). Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Richards, J. C., & Lockhart, C. (1996). *Reflective teaching in second language classrooms*. Cambridge, New York: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C., & Farrell, T. (2005). *Professional development for language teachers*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Ryder, J. (2012). Promoting reflective practice in continuing education in France. *ELT Journal*, 66(2), 175-183. doi:10.1093/elt/ccr032

Schön, D. (1987). *Educating the reflective practitioner*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Ur, P. (1997). *A Course in Language Teaching – Practice and Theory*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wallace, M. (1995). *Training Foreign Language Teachers: A Reflective Approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Zwozdiak-Myers, P. (2010). *An analysis of the concept reflective practice and an investigation into the development of student teachers' reflective practice within the context of action research.* PhD thesis, London: Brunel University.

Zwozdiak-Myers, P. (2011). Reflective practice for professional development. In A. Green (Ed.), *Becoming a reflective English teacher* (pp. 26-43). Berkshire, England: McGraw-Hill Education, Open University Press.

Tatjana Paunović[1]
Faculty of Philosophy
University of Niš
Serbia

TEACHING TEACHERS TO TEACH PRONUNCIATION[2]

Abstract
This paper discusses the effects of a pre-service EFL teacher education course that offers, firstly, a broad view of the problems, questions and dilemmas highlighted by current research in pronunciation teaching and learning, and, secondly, practical training in how to choose and adapt pronunciation practice materials to fit students' needs, and how to integrate pronunciation practice with other aspects of teaching. After the presentation of the ideas and research reports used in the theoretical part of the course, this paper presents a qualitative analysis of a selection of students' final projects produced in this course. The corpus for analysis comprised 122 student lesson-plans and the analysis aimed to highlight the different ways in which students managed (or not) to integrate pronunciation practice with other language points taught. The analysis showed that the most important and most difficult aspect of this kind of pre-service teacher training is raising students' awareness about the importance of contextualized practice and of the socio-cultural and pragmatic components of pronunciation.

Key words: pronunciation, EFL, pre-service teacher education, pronunciation in EFL teaching, lesson planning, socio-cultural and pragmatic teaching context

∞∞∞

1. Introduction

Even those teachers and learners who believe that pronunciation *is* an important aspect of communicative competence and language proficiency

[1] tatjana.paunovic@filfak.ni.ac.rs

[2] This study was part of the research conducted in the project No 178002, *Languages and cultures in time and space,* funded by the Republic of Serbia Ministry of Education, Science, and Technological Development.

agree that the status of pronunciation in English language teaching today is ambivalent and controversial. One reason is the status of English as *the* language of international communication and its 'Lingua Franca' role, which makes defining EFL learners' needs and teaching goals a difficult task. Another is the fact that pronunciation is difficult to learn, so much so that it often remains the weakest aspect of performance even in otherwise proficient EFL learners. Yet another reason is that pronunciation is difficult *to teach*. Investigations of teaching practices show that teachers, whatever their theoretical stances, beliefs and attitudes in this respect, often avoid teaching pronunciation altogether, stating that they feel insecure because they lack the necessary knowledge and skills for pronunciation teaching.

Indeed, most teacher education programs lack this aspect of training. Traditionally, EFL teachers' education programs offer basic theoretical and practical knowledge in *English Phonetics and Phonology*, which, although doubtlessly important, is very difficult to translate into EFL pronunciation teaching practice. In the regular *TEFL Methodology* courses, there is rarely any room left to devote specifically to pronunciation teaching, with so many other important areas to cover. However, it has been pointed out for over two decades that pre-service EFL teacher education should offer specifically tailored TEFL-methodology based pronunciation-teaching courses. Burgess and Spencer (2000), for instance, argue that in pre-service/ initial or in-service/ post-experience language teacher education, in the "phonology and pronunciation components ... the emphasis should arguably be on pronunciation teaching and learning" (Burgess & Spencer, 2000, p. 210). They explicitly argue for a course that should be "called *Teaching Pronunciation*, rather than *Phonology*", and for "strong links between the fields of pronunciation-teaching and language-teacher education and training" (Burgess & Spencer, 2000, p. 210).

It is also very important for EFL teachers, if they are to make well-informed decisions in teaching and assessing pronunciation, to be aware of the many problems, issues and controversies related to English pronunciation, and also of their own stance regarding these issues. As pointed out by Baker and Murphy (2011), empirical research of language teachers' knowledge and beliefs in relation to their actual teaching practices "is sorely needed" (Baker & Murphy, 2011, p. 44), because it is very important to understand the "possible connections ([and] disconnections) between teachers' beliefs and knowledge and what teachers do in classroom settings" (Baker & Murphy, 2011, p. 33).

These ideas were the starting point for developing one such course in the BA study program in English language and literature at the Faculty of Philosophy, University of Nis, which, together with the follow-up MA study program, qualifies graduated students to work as EFL teachers in the Serbian formal educational context.

2. A pre-service course for EFL teachers: Overview

The course titled *Pronunciation in L2 teaching* was first introduced in the academic year 2008/2009, as an 8th semester elective course. It covers 2 contact hours a week, and carries 5 ECTS credits. It is ranked as one of the so-called "PPM" courses (Pedagogy, Psychology, Teaching Methodology), required by the Serbian *Law on primary and secondary education* from all teachers at any level of education[3].

This course has a two-fold aim. First, it offers a broad view of the problems, questions and dilemmas highlighted by current research in EFL pronunciation teaching. Students are required to read the assigned selection of research papers for each topic, to think about the main ideas brought up in them in order to gain an understanding of these complex issues, and then to form their own opinion and decide on their own standpoint. This aim of awareness raising is the foundation of the theoretical part of the course.

The second aim of the course is developing practical skills for pronunciation teaching. In the era of ready-made solutions and templates to download and apply in the classroom, students need to learn how to quickly evaluate, choose and adapt pronunciation practice activities, and how to develop their own materials. Choosing, among the multitude of activities available on and offline, the ones that are appropriate for the given context and lesson is not a simple task, and students need both practice and guidance. Students are required to consider factors relevant for making their choices, such as the learners' age, level of proficiency and the language teaching points (grammar, vocabulary, language skills, language use). They are also asked to consider the methodological background and purpose of the pronunciation activity (recognizing, discriminating, production; mechanical/

[3] In addition to the MA degree in the given field of study, every teacher is required to have passed exams in a number of PPM courses, altogether carrying at least 30 ECTS credits, in addition to the obligatory minimum of 6 ECTS of professional internship/ teaching practicum.

cognitive; guided/ free, etc), and to consider the specific elements of the socio-cultural, pragmatic and communicative context of the activity, where important. Learning how to integrate pronunciation teaching with other language aspects is the most important aim, not only because that approach is more effective, but also because, as often pointed out by EFL teachers, devoting extra time solely to pronunciation practice is a 'luxury' that the tightly-packed syllabi, crowded classes and insufficient teaching hours simply do not allow.

Another aspect of the course contributing to developing EFL teaching skills is the fact that all the coursework is organized and done through *cooperative learning* and small-group work (3 to 5 students). In the theoretical part of the course, students are required to read the selected articles and sum up the main ideas in a short hand-in assignment. The main requirement is that the students draw a conclusion, expressing where they stand with respect to the issues raised by the research papers, and to state how they think those issues relate to classroom teaching practice. Cooperative learning assignments are done as homework, but each week one group volunteers to prepare a class presentation, followed by class discussion. Group work is used in the practical part of the course, too. For each session, students are provided with a 'pack' containing 7 to 10 different pronunciation practice activities, taken from the commonly used sources (Hancock, 2003, 2007; Hewings, 2004; Nixon & Tomlinson, 2005, 2009; Kelly 2000; online sources *onestopenglish, englishclub, eslflow, iteslj,* etc.). Each practical assignment requires the students to work together on the practice materials following specific instructions, and to produce a group hand-in summary answering the assignment.

The first of these assignments requires the students to estimate the appropriate age and level for each activity (this information, usually given in the description of each activity, is hidden for this task); also, they are asked to evaluate three chosen activities in terms of preparation time, level of difficulty for the given age, and adaptability. The second assignment asks the students to classify the activities in the pack by their pronunciation focus (segmental, e.g. vowel quality, vowel length, consonant place of articulation, voicing, etc.; and suprasegmental, e.g. word-stress, sentence prominence, contrastive stress, rhythm, intonation, linking, weak forms, 'sound changes', etc.). As a second step, each student group is given a hypothetical class (defined in terms of age, level of proficiency and the number of students in the class; also, they are given a broad topic for the lesson). The students are required to

choose three activities for their 'class' and their 'lesson'. The third assignment requires the students to make a lesson-plan outline and choose three activities they think might fit into specific lesson stages of their choice. The second step requires them to think about two possible modifications for the three chosen activities, i.e. the ways to adapt them for their 'lesson-plan'. The students do not produce a complete lesson plan, but focus on the procedure of integrating pronunciation practice activities with other language practice activities.

The theoretical and practical coursework (homework and classwork) carries 70% of the final grade, while the remaining 30% are 'earned' by doing the final project or individual exam assignment. The final project consists in preparing a complete lesson plan for a lesson (randomly assigned to the student by the instructor), so as to integrate at least three different pronunciation practice activities with other language teaching/ practice points. The students are free to choose the pronunciation practice activities from any source, whether already used in the course or not, or to design their own activities, as long as they are appropriately integrated in the lesson plan. The final project lesson plan is assessed in terms of both the standard TEFL Methodology lesson planning requirements and the pronunciation teaching requirements of this course.

3. Theoretical background: Pronunciation issues

The research papers used as the theoretical basis for the course are chosen from different journals, mostly the ones oriented to teaching practice yet based on solid scientific research. The articles are selected to offer an overview of different perspectives and views on the important problems in EFL pronunciation teaching, grouped into five broad topics.

3.1. Topic 1: Pronunciation teaching – the teachers' perspective

The first topic focuses on the teachers' perspective, and questions such as: Should pronunciation be included in EFL teaching or not? What arguments are listed for and against teaching pronunciation? Why is it difficult to define the aims, objectives and outcomes of pronunciation teaching? What reasons for avoiding teaching pronunciation do reluctant teachers offer? How have views changed in different TEFL approaches over the past decades? What are the advantages and disadvantages of some approaches to teaching pronunciation?

These issues, and the possible answers, are illustrated by five research articles. The "views and practices of reluctant teachers" in the Australian ESL context with adult L2 learners are discussed by Macdonald (2002), who states that pronunciation is not taught "in a systematic, planned way"(p. 3). To explore the reasons, in-depth interviews were conducted with 8 ESL teachers, who put forward the following problems: the absence of pronunciation in the curricula, the lack of high-quality teaching materials, the lack of a clear assessment framework, and also that "some aspects of pronunciation are too difficult to teach", while teachers are under-prepared to teach. Macdonald points out that even in the practice of those teachers who do try to include pronunciation activities, they are still only 'add-ons' to a lesson. However, he concludes that we need to overcome teacher reluctance, to encourage them to teach pronunciation "confidently, effectively, and more often", i.e. to "turn pronunciation from being an add-on to being an integral part of the lesson" (p. 14).

John Levis (2005) discusses the status, goals and objectives of pronunciation teaching in the past century, within different teaching approaches, as well as a number of "conflicting principles", such as nativeness vs. intelligibility, or the ideologies of 'audiolingualism' vs. cognitive or communicative approaches. Levis claims that pronunciation should not be either "elevated to the central skill in language learning or banished to irrelevance" (p. 369). Stressing the importance of factors such as the communicative context, and issues related to identity, Levis concludes that "even completely intelligible pronunciation may be evaluated negatively" since "accents are intimately tied to speaker identity and group membership." Therefore, Levis demands that the "context of instruction" be taken into account when deciding how pronunciation should be addressed in teaching (p. 376).

Illustrating similar issues in the Canadian context, the paper by Breitkreutz, Derwing and Rossiter (2001) presents a survey of 67 different ESL programs, investigating to what extent pronunciation was included and what resources were used, as well as the learners' attitudes to pronunciation and accent. Most teachers stated they thought it was important to teach pronunciation at all levels, but also that they had not had special training in pronunciation teaching (p. 51). Criticizing the fact that "the advent of the communicative approach to L2 teaching marked the decline of pronunciation instruction", due primarily to emphasizing fluency over accuracy, the authors conclude that pronunciation instruction should be incorporated into

communicative teaching, in both curriculum and material development (p. 59), as well as in pre-service teacher education.

Also discussing the changes in the teaching approaches and the role of pronunciation in L2 teaching in the past decades, Jones (1997) states that even though the pronunciation teaching materials have changed to include broader communicative aspects of connected speech, the teaching techniques and task types are still based on behaviourist notions of L2 acquisition, thus relying on imitation and discrimination drills, reading aloud and contrastive analysis of Ll and L2 (p. 103). Instead, he points out that we need to move "beyond the 'listen-and-repeat' approach" to focus on the broader communicative usage of phonological cues. Pronunciation teaching materials and practices should "incorporate activities more fully addressing the communicative, psychological and sociological dimensions of pronunciation" (p. 103). Jones concludes that pronunciation must, "whenever possible, be taught in concert with other skills, not as a separate entity, but as another string in the communicative bow" (p. 111).

Finally, in a context very similar to Serbian, Sifakis and Sougari (2005, 2010) investigated the beliefs and opinions of Greek EFL teachers regarding pronunciation teaching. The results of their quantitative questionnaire-based study (Sifakis & Sougari 2005) showed that most teachers still consider native-speaker norms appropriate, particularly for formal educational contexts and younger learners. Although teachers agree that intelligibility is an important goal, in their teaching practice they still opt for native-speaker models and native-speaker oriented activities (role-play, real-life conversations). The authors conclude that the fact that teachers' viewpoints are still "predominantly norm bound" could be ascribed to the "teachers' sense of being the custodians of the English language", and to "the wider sociocultural linguistic background in Greece (which involves a history of diglossia and a recent experience of a massive inflow of immigrants)" (p. 467). The authors also rightly assume that "the situation described in this article is repeated in many other expanding-circle countries" (p. 483).

Additional sources offered to interested students for optional extra work include Luchini's (2005) discussion of EFL in some Asian contexts, and his proposal of "Task-Based pronunciation teaching". Also, there is a number of research reports on the findings of the English Pronunciation Teaching in Europe Survey (EPTiES), which included 10 European countries, investigating the state of English pronunciation teaching in European teaching contexts, i.e. EFL teacher's views, practices, training experience,

teaching materials, methods of teaching and assessment, and the chosen pronunciation models. For instance, Tergujeff (2012) reports on the views of 103 EFL teachers working in Finland, stating that the findings show that EFL teacher education does not offer them appropriate tools to teach pronunciation, but focuses on the teachers' own pronunciation skills. Also, the teaching materials are still traditional, although some teachers do use online resources. The reports by Henderson and colleagues (2012, 2013) present the findings of the EPTiES study for seven countries (Finland, France, Germany, Macedonia, Poland, Spain and Switzerland). In most these contexts, teachers report on having had little or no training in pronunciation teaching (p. 5). The chosen pronunciation model in most these contexts remains RP, or, occasionally GA (p. 6). Another issue the authors highlight is teachers' (lack of) awareness of their students' goals, skills, motivation, and aspiration to achieve native-like pronunciation (p. 7). Henderson and colleagues (2013) further report on teachers' practices inside the classroom concerning their methods, materials and assessment. Most teachers (79%) state that they devote up to a quarter of their weekly teaching time to pronunciation, which half of them consider sufficient. The tasks include oral performance (presentations), reading aloud, listening comprehension questions and oral exams in pairs, while transcription tasks and individual oral exams are not popular. The authors suggest that teachers need to determine effective teaching foci and pay more attention to the relationship between perception and production (pp. 387-8). Most importantly, teachers should avoid relying too heavily on pronunciation textbooks and software, but should focus on their students' pronunciation needs and problems (p. 389).

The idea pointed out by most of the chosen articles is that pre-service and in-service EFL teacher education should focus more substantially on pronunciation teaching, grounded in research findings. Most authors point out that teachers should be trained to critically evaluate the curriculum, materials and techniques, to assess their students' pronunciation problems, and to choose what is the most relevant for their students.

3.2. Topic 2: Pronunciation teaching – the EFL students' perspective

The second topic focuses on questions such as: Do students want to improve their pronunciation? Are they aware of the relatedness of language attitudes, identity, and pronunciation/ accent? What do students think about

'accented' speech, 'nativelike' speech, and intelligibility? What do students see as their needs and their goals in pronunciation acquisition in EFL?

To address this topic, seven research report articles are selected. Timmis (2002) discusses 'native speaker norms' and the notion of 'International English' from the perspective of classroom actors – EFL teachers and students. The main point he makes is that despite current trends in theoretical discussions and scientific research in this area, EFL teachers actually seem to have a more relaxed view about their students' pronunciation than the students themselves. Namely, most students in Timmis' survey actually stated they wanted to try and improve their pronunciation so as to sound as much like native speakers as possible (p. 240-250). A similar point is made by Derwing (2003) in the Canadian ESL context. Her research focused on students' attitudes towards different accents of English, towards 'foreign accents', and towards the social and psychological contexts of ESL learning and use. Derwing discusses the relationship between accent and the social context of language use, and points out that attitudes are closely related to factors such as ethnicity and identity, concluding that teachers must find ways to enhance intelligibility but also to respect the learners' perceptions of their own needs and goals in pronunciation.

A selection of research papers deal with the concepts and ideology of International English (IE) and English as a Lingua Franca (ELF). For instance, Pickering's article (2006) discusses current research on intelligibility in the interaction of non-native English speakers, and a decreasing relevance of native speaker models. She points out that current research from diverse areas, in experimental and real-world settings, suggests that the processes on which ELF interaction is based are "qualitatively different from those observed in native speaker interaction" (p. 219). Pickering particularly highlights the "blurring of the distinction between intelligibility and comprehensibility in interlanguage talk", and the fact that "ELF interlocutors engage in communication strategies and accommodation processes that are unique to this context" (p. 227). She concludes that all this should be reflected in the current trends in English language teaching.

Jenkins (2006) presents the main ideas behind the concept of ELF, discusses the developments in the past 15 years and the controversies they aroused, and focuses on the implications for TESOL. Presenting briefly the works of authors on both sides of the debate surrounding the global spread of English, Jenkins also summarizes the 'Lingua Franca Core' (LFC), i.e., the "potential salient features of ELF lexicogrammar" identified by Seidlhofer

(2001, 2004) based on the VOICE corpus (pp. 169-170). She particularly stresses "the need for a pluricentric rather than monocentric approach to the teaching and use of English", which "would enable each learner's and speaker's English to reflect his or her own sociolinguistic reality, rather than that of a usually distant native speaker" (p. 173). This should be reflected in both the teaching and the assessment of pronunciation, where, Jenkins concludes, there is a "need to abandon the native speaker as the yardstick and to establish empirically some other means of defining an *expert* (and *less expert*) speaker of English, regardless of whether they happen to be a native or nonnative speaker" (p.175).

However, some authors challenge the applicability of the ELF concept, advocating a balanced approach, based on identifying students' needs, and recognizing and respecting the specific local socio-political circumstances in EFL teaching. For instance, addressing the problems encountered by L2 university students in the Australian context, Macdonald (2015) investigates the strategies students use to overcome problems in classroom communication, which include issues related to their pronunciation and accent, closely connected to issues of identity and self-image. Namely, he points out that when pronunciation problems impede the students' classroom communication, "it can lead to students being marginalised and even excluded from the learning activities", because "speaking activities in classes provide students with important opportunities to establish their identities as [...] capable and confident people" (p. A40). Macdonald stresses the importance of understanding the role of pronunciation in speaker identity formulation, and proposes a model based on the sociolinguistic approach to spoken interaction proposed by Bucholtz and Hall (2005, in Macdonald, 2015, p. A40).

Following Derwing (2003), Kang (2010) investigated the attitudes of 238 adult ESL students in two inner-circle countries, New Zealand and the USA, from 14 different L1 backgrounds, but mostly Mandarin, Korean, and Japanese. Kang's study focuses on students' "expectations of their pronunciation lessons and their attitudes toward instructors' accent varieties" (p. 105). Almost all participants agreed on the importance on pronunciation improvement: over 93% say that pronunciation is important for communication, that they are concerned about it, and eager to improve the way they sound (p. 108). In this respect, Kang's findings fall in line with previous studies (e.g. Timmis, 2002). She concludes that "ESL learners prefer to model inner-circle standards", as if feeling "some kind of obligation to

acquire 'near-native' English accents in order to be seen – and to see themselves – as successful English speakers, despite the fact that NNSs no longer learn English to communicate primarily with its NSs" (p. 112).

Finally, this selection includes a reflection paper by an experienced EFL teaching practitioner. Dauer (2005) discusses the key points of Jenkins's 'Lingua Franca Core' (LFC) for pronunciation teaching, stating that her experience also shows that mastering some components of LFC is very important for students' intelligibility. However, she also points out that choosing the LFC for pronunciation teaching does not really "reduce the teaching load very much" (p.546), and goes on to critically discuss a number of specific components chosen for the Lingua Franca Core, questioning their relevance for students of different L1 backgrounds. She concludes that the main contribution of the LFC lies in the fact that it "opens a debate on pronunciation targets and teaching priorities", which, she hopes, would inspire empirical and classroom-based research, and enable teachers to evaluate their students' needs more critically and to "strike the right balance" (p. 549).

The main idea put forward by the articles in this section is that teachers must make well-informed and well thought out choices with respect to teaching points, materials and methods used, taking into consideration not only their students' needs but also their attitudes and feelings, and the relatedness of pronunciation to issues of identity and the specific soico-cultural context of EFL teaching.

3.3. Topic 3: Factors in pronunciation learning and teaching

The third topic the students read about and discuss covers several research papers, such as the ones by Baker, Trofimovich, Flege, Mack, and Halter (2008), Trofimovich and Baker (2006), or the reports by Moyer (1999), or Sheppard Hayashi, and Ohmori (2007), which all address the factors that influence learners' success in pronunciation learning or L2 phonological acquisition. Influential factors supported by empirical research include the age of EFL learning onset, the length of exposure to L2, but also motivation, the type of instruction used (Moyer, 1999), or the student's musical ability, the strategies they use (Sheppard et al., 2007), and other individual and contextual factors. To illustrate the extent of this complex area of research, this pack of papers also includes the state-of-the art review by Setter and Jenkins (2005) on pronunciation research.

Focusing on different learner populations in different teaching and learning contexts, all these papers highlight the complexity of the process of phonological acquisition and pronunciation learning. Sheppard and colleagues (2007), for instance, present the findings of a study in which the pronunciation of 67 EFL learners was rated for being 'close' to native-like pronunciation. The authors state that most EFL learners were able to attain a "near-native like pronunciation for all but sentences" while the "factors which explained individual differences in pronunciation attainment were self-rated musical ability, attitudes toward learning pronunciation, the length of time spent learning the language, and strategy use" (p.6). Similarly, an earlier article by Piske, MacKay and Flege (2001) reviews previous research to list an even wider variety of factors and variables suggested as relevant for successful pronunciation acquisition in L2 (or, as the authors themselves put it, "the degree of foreign accent in L2"): the learner's age, length of residence in an L2-speaking country, gender, formal instruction, motivation, language learning aptitude and amount of native language (L1) use. The authors agree that the age may be the most important factor, which is supported by their own research findings with Italian learners of English in Canada, but they also point out that it is usually a matter of more factors and variables and their "confounded" effect.

The papers in this section aim to raise the students' awareness of the fact that influential variables, in addition to the well-documented factors of age, length of exposure, and motivation, also include type of instruction, the student's type of intelligence, learning styles and strategies, as well as issues of identity, self-image, language attitudes, cultural awareness and (inter)cultural sensitivity.

3.4. Topic 4: The effectiveness of instruction in pronunciation teaching

The seven selected papers in this section offer research-based arguments for including focused and carefully selected pronunciation practice in EFL teaching. This is made clear even in the earliest of the research reports chosen, such as the ones by Morley (1991), Elliott (1997), or Jones (1997). Morley (1991) lists important aspects of the "multidimensional teaching process", such as learner goals, instructional objectives, the roles of the learner and the teacher, and a "dual-focus communicative program philosophy". What is particularly important is 'instructional planning', and a comfortable, supportive classroom atmosphere, as crucial factors for pronunciation teaching success. Elliott (1997) states that in his research, which

focused on the acquisition of Spanish by English L1 speakers, formal phonological instruction indeed produced improvement in students' pronunciation at the level of individual speech sounds, isolated words, and sentence repetition after the instructor (Elliott, 1997, p. 107). Therefore, he advocates explicit formal pronunciation instruction, regardless of the students' age, but also points out the importance of motivational and affective factors for the students' success.

M. Hismanoglu and S. Hismanoglu (2010, 2011) summarize the trends in pronunciation teaching over the past century, comparing 'traditional' to 'modern' techniques, aiming to find out which techniques are preferred by L2 teachers, and if there is a correlation between the pronunciation courses in the BA teacher education and their preferences in pronunciation teaching (Hismanoglu & Hismanoglu, 2010, p. 983). Their survey involved 103 EFL teachers working in English Preparatory Schools of five different universities in North Cyprus. Their results showed that L2 teachers prefer traditional classroom techniques, such as dictation, reading aloud, and dialogues, while they are reluctant to use modern techniques, such as computers, instructional software, and the internet. The authors argue that teacher education should make these more available and familiar to L2 teachers, and motivate teachers to use more modern techniques and resources (p. 988).

Advocating explicit pronunciation instruction, but adapted to current trends and views in the field, ELF and the Lingua Franca Core, Derwing (2010) states that pronunciation is still neglected in many language programs. Therefore, she sets a number of "utopian" or "idealistic goals", aimed at meeting students' communication needs: "[c]hanges to teacher education, increased pronunciation research, optimal use of technology, enhancement of listeners' skills, and strategies for increasing students' opportunities to interact with native speakers" (p. 24). She also suggests that appropriate curriculum choices should be made, and systems of assessment developed to suit the learners' needs, pleading for "no more scapegoating of accent" (p. 33).

A similar view is offered by Setter (2012), who explores recent developments in pronunciation teaching from the viewpoint of ELF and LFC, and intelligibility vs. native-like pronunciation. She states that pronunciation pedagogies can benefit from keeping pace with new theories and technologies, inviting teachers to re-examine their approaches. She also suggests various recently published "attractive and accessible" materials for pronunciation teaching and learning, which "look forward in terms of pronunciation theories and pedagogy" (Setter, 2012, p. 454).

However, some authors put forward somewhat different views. For instance, Deterding (2010) challenges the proposals for ELF-based pronunciation teaching in the EFL teaching context in China. He agrees that these proposals might be attractive "because they are practical, achievable, and fun" (p. 13), but also points out a number of important problems. Firstly, the suggestion that some pronunciation features should not be taught may be unacceptable for many teachers, e.g. "the use of dental fricatives, the exact quality of most vowels, the use of reduced vowels, and the pitch movements associated with intonation" (p. 13). As additional problems he lists a "shortage of ELF-based teaching materials, including dictionaries and other reference materials", as well as assessment problems "in the absence of a fixed target" (p. 13). Still, Deterding agrees that teachers should focus on the things that matter, "always consider how intelligible the speakers might be in an international context, rather than how close they are to some native-speaker target", and, finally, that ELF-based proposals invite teachers to "reflect on their teaching, to re-evaluate their priorities, and thereby become better teachers" (p. 13).

The selected research papers for this topic offer different conclusions, but all document the effectiveness of focused practise and instructions, albeit to various degrees. What all these articles agree on is the conclusion that pronunciation practice should be integrated with other aspects of EFL teaching – the issue addressed by the last topic discussed in the course.

3.5. Topic 5: Integrating pronunciation with language teaching

Five articles are selected to introduce the topic of integrated pronunciation practice. Chela-Flores (2001) describes her integrative approach, based on the idea that the learner should be "gradually immersed into pronunciation", by ranking priorities for intelligibility, dealing with learners' immediate phonological needs, and starting instruction from the beginner level. Further, instruction should be based on "meaningful units" such as tone groups as rhythmic units, not on isolated segments or words, even with the beginners. She points out that the integration of pronunciation into other language activities cannot be achieved unless new appropriate materials are developed, since most existing materials are designed for intermediate and advanced levels. She also states that the teaching approach should be reversed: "instead of first choosing a phonological feature and then finding multiple occurrences to highlight and practice it, we would have to deal with the immediate pronunciation needs found in the aural-oral

activities of the language course used" (p. 86). She especially stresses the need to raise both teachers' and students' awareness of the connection between pronunciation teaching and effective communication (p. 99).

Similarly, Gilbert (2010) calls for major changes in teacher training, materials available, and the curricula, to include a practical component focused on pronunciation teaching, and not only the theoretical phonological component. She describes her own experience in this area, in a class on pronunciation methods, where all students were required to teach a real lesson to real students and then discuss their experiences in class, whereby they learned that the same lesson must be adapted to different learners. Like Chela-Flores, Gilbert concludes that the responsibility is on teacher educators to ensure that teachers get the training they need, on the researchers, who need to discuss classroom application in their research reports, on material developers to include and integrate pronunciation skills in language work, and finally, on the curriculum developers, who should provide the teachers with the "scaffolding for integrating pronunciation" (p. 10).

Stating that integration is advocated in theory, while teachers rarely receive clear direction about *how* to accomplish it, Levis and Grant (2003) provide examples of practical activities that can be used in speaking and oral communication classes, focusing primarily on suprasegmentals (p.13). They also suggest some principles that can guide teachers trying to incorporate pronunciation into a variety of teaching contexts, to "weave" pronunciation practice effectively into the course, so that it is not just about "ad hoc corrections", but still does not take up too much time needed for the communicative goals of the course (p. 14). Similarly, focusing on suprasegmental, discourse-level phonology, Keys (2012) states that tasks involving the production of single sounds and phoneme discrimination exercises, while still appropriate at specific moments, should not be the only kind of pronunciation practice (p. 92). He points out that coursebooks offer "potential pronunciation work at almost every stage" (p. 92), and that the only pre- requirement is the teacher's "disposition" to work on pronunciation, which, however, presupposes sufficient and appropriate training (p. 93).

The issues and ideas, as well as the proposed solutions discussed in these articles constitute the framework for students' practical work on lesson planning, i.e. choosing, adapting and integrating pronunciation practice activities with other aspects of EFL teaching.

4. Present study: Final project analysis

The practical part of the course focuses on learning how to deal with typical pronunciation practice activities – how to evaluate them, choose the ones appropriate for the given teaching situation, and how to adapt them to suit specific learner groups and lesson aims. Adaptations needed in order to integrate pronunciation practice with other teaching points are the central task, and the practical sessions take the students gradually from individual activities to the whole-lesson plan. In the final (exam) project, the students are supposed to show that they have understood the course content and are able to apply the ideas in teaching practice. Each student is required to prepare a complete lesson plan for the assigned lesson, adapting and integrating at least three pronunciation practice activities (with various pronunciation teaching points, segmental and suprasegmental), into the other language teaching points.

Although all the students have completed the obligatory course in *English Phonetics and Phonology* in the 2nd semester of their study program, this course does not draw upon the theoretical concepts or practical requirements of that course (e.g. phonemic transcription, writing to dictation, orthographic or phonemic, or analysing intonation units/tone groups). Rather, final project lesson plans must comply with all the requirements of the *TEFL Methodology* courses (5th and 6th semesters): the students must specify in detail their learners' age, level of proficiency, the lesson aims and objectives in terms of teaching foci, anticipated problems and possible solutions, as well as the aims of each lesson stage in the plan. Also, the common requirement is that they provide at least three additional activities (3-, 5- and 7-minute activities), but only one of the required pronunciation practice activities can be among these. Students are free to choose the lesson plan type, from a more conservative PPP model (presentation, practice, production), to more creative task-based models.

4.1. Methodology

For the purposes of this study, a total of 122 final-project lesson plans were analysed. The plans were produced by two groups of students who took the *Pronunciation in L2 teaching* course as part of their BA study program in English language and literature at the Faculty of Philosophy, University of Nis, in the spring semesters of 2013 and 2014. All the lesson plans analysed were graded by a positive mark (from 6=the lowest to 10=the highest grade).

The aim of this study was to observe the different ways in which students managed (or not) to integrate pronunciation practice with other language points taught. We opted for a qualitative rather than quantitative analysis, because the aim was not to evaluate or compare students' success, but to gain insight into the overall effects of the course, as well as into the possible problems, highlighting the areas that may need to be addressed more thoroughly.

The qualitative analysis aimed to answer six pre-set questions, formulated on the basis of the theoretical and practical aims of the course:

1. Are the activities appropriate for the Ss' age and level of proficiency?
2. The structure of the lesson plan – which lesson stages is pronunciation practice included in?
3. How are pronunciation points included in the defined lesson aims & objectives (and individual stage objectives)?
4. What phonological points are covered?
5. What type of pronunciation practice activities are chosen? (Jones, 1997; Levis, 2005) – drill-based, repetition, imitation, discrimination, contrasting with L2, awareness-raising, communicative, reflexive, socio-culturally or pragmatically based? Which skills do they involve (listening and speaking or reading and writing)?
6. How is pronunciation practice integrated with other language teaching points? Are there activities that are not integrated at all, but remain just 'add on-s' (Macdonald, 2002)?

4.2. Results and discussion

The first observation, which accounts for the fact that all the students have passed this exam, was that students had mastered the format and requirements of the lesson plan to a very satisfactory degree. This was expected, bearing in mind that two basic *TOEFL Methodology* courses are the pre-requirement for this course. It should be noted, though, that most students opted for a more conservative lesson structure, the PPP model (Presentation, Practice, Production), while only 5 out of 122 lesson plans were task-based. This can be interpreted as a natural consequence of the fact that this final project was, in fact, an exam assignment, where students usually prefer taking the 'safe path'. Generally speaking, the lesson plans were

coherent, well thought-out, and, from the point of view of teaching methodology, even very good – communicatively oriented, with a variety of methodological elements from different teaching methods, and with clear teaching aims and objectives (lexical, grammatical, or skill-based).

However, with respect to pronunciation teaching, the findings were somewhat less satisfactory. Although all the lesson plans indeed contained the required three pronunciation activities, a number of problems emerged from the analysis, which will be discussed in turn.

4.2.1. Appropriate age and level of proficiency

Since this part of the task was also primarily TEFL Methodology based, it was successfully completed. All the pronunciation practice activities were indeed very appropriately matched to the students' age and level of knowledge, inferred from the lesson assigned. Very few activities aimed a bit lower than necessary for the given level, and a closer inspection revealed a possible explanation. Namely, this could be interpreted as the tendency still exhibited by some students to associate lower *phonological* levels with lower levels of EFL proficiency in general, typical of the traditional 'bottom-up' approach to pronunciation teaching. Indeed, that is the belief most students start from in the course, associating segmental practice with lower proficiency levels, beginner to pre-intermediate, while they believe that suprasegmentals should be addressed only at higher levels of study, intermediate to advanced. This belief, however, is something we try very hard to dispel during the course, so its traces in the students' final projects can be regarded as a sign that this aspect of training needs more attention in our coursework.

4.2.2. The structure of the lesson plan – lesson stages

With respect to the lesson stages chosen for pronunciation practice, a certain tendency to take what they considered to be the 'easy way out' could also be observed. Namely, the warm-up stage was almost invariably chosen as an appropriate place for pronunciation practice, and many students used the possibility to leave one of the three required pronunciation practice activities for the pack of 'additional activities'. A closer inspection, however, usually showed that although these two 'slots' were considered 'easier' by the students, in most cases the activities themselves were, in fact, successfully incorporated into the general teaching design of the lesson plan, so this was not to be considered a 'mistake' or a weakness of the lesson plan. Still, it can

be taken as indicative of some students' feeling that pronunciation practice is 'peripheral' to the lesson, not as important as the 'serious' work on vocabulary, grammar, language usage or skills, placed in the central part of the lesson plan.

In many PPP lesson plans, pronunciation practice was included as a second practice activity, and much less often as part of the production activity. In the few task-based lesson plans, some students managed to integrate pronunciation practice in the very task. For instance, in one plan for upper-intermediate students, the task was to prepare a job interview as the assigned character, and the characters assigned to different student groups were of different nationalities, with typical dialect/accent characteristics – Serbian, Australian, Irish, Scottish, American, British. The pronunciation practice point incorporated in the task was that the students were required to reproduce the most salient properties of these accents, segmental and suprasegmental. In another task-based plan (pre-intermediate) the task was to prepare clear instructions for making a paper airplane/ paper boat/ paper flower/ paper animal. The pronunciation practice incorporated in the task at the segmental level involved the appropriate pronunciation of diphthongs (as long), and at the suprasegmental level it focused on nuclear stress placement as very important for understanding instructions. Both these task-based lesson plans were very successful examples of incorporating pronunciation practice. The three remaining ones, however, were less successful in this respect, and included only segmental pronunciation practice only in the post-task stage (and additional activities).

4.2.3. Pronunciation points in the lesson/ stage aims and objectives

This question yielded somewhat unexpected results. Namely, specifying clearly the lesson aims and objectives regarding the pronunciation point proved to be very difficult for the students, and was the weakest point of most lesson plans, even when the pronunciation practice activities were otherwise successfully integrated with language practice. In many plans indeed, instead of specifying the phonological points that will be covered by the activities, the lesson aims and objectives only stated, for instance, "improving students' speaking and listening skills (including some related to phonology)", or "practice some of the phonological features", "practice students' pronunciation skills", or "speaking/ listening skills".

A gradation could be observed in the analysed plans, from the ones in which the listed aims and objectives were far too broad, as illustrated above,

to those in which an attempt at specifying the pronunciation point to be practiced was made, but the aim was still too broad, e.g. "practise natural rhythm, stress and intonation", or "drill the pronunciation of each pupil both chorally and individually, making them notice different features of connected speech". What the latter student actually meant, as was revealed by the detailed analysis of the lesson plan, were, in fact, the phenomena of connected speech such as assimilation, coalescence, and elision, but it was only vaguely indicated in the lesson aims and objectives.

Finally, in a number of plans, the aims and objectives were specific enough, stating clearly the phonological teaching focus, e.g. "distinguishing between commonly confused sounds" (and listing those sounds, e.g. dental fricative - alveolar plosive; or /e/ - /æ/, /w/ - /v/ etc.); or "practicing vowel length" (and then specifying the short/long vowel pairs to be practiced); "dividing words into syllables", "word-stress placement", or "the intonation of Wh-questions compared to yes/no questions", or even "contrastive stress and intonation in questions and answers (rising vs. falling)". Certain aim specifications were even a bit too detailed, for instance "practice phonological features of word stress, contrastive stress, finding common sounds in a group of words and making differences between sounds"; or "raising Ss' awareness of the existence of ways in which sentence meaning can be changed without changing sentence structure – by means of contrastive stress".

Even though students had problems specifying pronunciation practice aims and objectives for the whole lesson and/or for specific lesson stages – unlike the aims and objectives regarding other language teaching points, which were clearly and appropriately defined – the practice activities themselves were properly focused on selected pronunciation points.

However, another interesting problem was observed: some students did not delimit phonological teaching points clearly, that is, they listed the "pronunciation of new vocabulary items" or "learning the new words with special attention to the pronunciation of the words" as a pronunciation practice point. Some students included spelling-pronunciation translation or the so-called "spelling patterns" of English phonemes as their pronunciation practice activities, e.g. "pronunciation of individual words with sounds that have different spelling patterns in English". The consideration of this aspect of students' lesson plans pointed to the need to rely more explicitly on the students' previous training in English phonetics and phonology in this aspect of the course, to help them define more confidently what constitutes pronunciation practice

4.2.4. Pronunciation teaching points

The analysis of the pronunciation points students chose to incorporate in their lesson plans revealed, first, that they did try to comply with the instructions and to include both segmental and suprasegmental practice, and second, that their choices were, generally speaking pretty limited. Namely, they echoed Macdonald's (2002) observations that teachers often focus on the pronunciation aspects that are 'easy to teach', primarily individual sounds and sound distinctions, sometimes also on word stress, or sentence stress in terms of tonic prominence or contrastive stress, and that, if they deal with intonation at all, it is mainly the melody of questions and question tags. Our students followed a similar path of preference: the points they chose to deal with were, at the segmental level, typical consonant distinctions (/θ/-/t/, /ð/-/d/; /w/-/v/; /h/), and vowel quality (/e/-/æ/) and quantity distinctions, their choice of specific segments guided by the commonly highlighted points of difference between Serbian and English.

At the suprasegmental level, they primarily focused on word stress, differentiating stress patterns, the division of words into syllables, and rhyming words. At the sentence level, students almost invariably chose contrastive stress, while the only way in which intonation practice was included were nuclear/tonic stress placement for emphasis, and the emotional and attitudinal functions of intonation. Discourse and pragmatic functions of intonation were not found in the corpus at all, nor were activities involving units of speech larger than an utterance/ sentence. These observations, together with the fact that only five lesson plans in the corpus involved the features of connected speech such as assimilation, elision, and the weak forms of function words point to the need to focus more explicitly on the discourse and pragmatic aspects of language use, not only in this course, but in our teacher education program in general. Furthermore, it should be noted that the soico-cultural aspects of language use were not addressed by any of the lesson plans at all, although some of the lesson topics could have easily been tackled from such a perspective.

4.2.5. Type of pronunciation practice activities

The pronunciation activities chosen by our students were varied in terms of their type to a certain extent, but again, in a limited way. In this sense, our findings do fall in line with Levis' (2005) warning that even in declaratively communicatively-oriented practice the traditional forms still

prevail. Indeed, the activities found in our corpus were drill-based in many cases, and involved repetition, and imitation. They were also much more focused on perception and discrimination than on production. The use of minimal pairs for discrimination was frequently observed, and, especially at lower levels of proficiency, recognition exercises, e.g. recognising the same vowel in words, recognizing homophones in lists of words or phrases, or finding the 'odd one out' in groups of words or phrases for consonants, vowels or stress-patterns. The produce-the-difference type of practice exercises were found much less commonly in the lesson plans, while explicit comparisons with Serbian as L1 were not observed in the corpus at all. Most commonly, pronunciation practice activities were linked to listening or speaking practice, but some involved reading, or reading aloud.

Some awareness-raising activities were also observed, but this type of activity was usually found in lesson plans for higher levels of proficiency, from intermediate to advanced. This indicates that students need more training in this respect, in order to overcome the common misconception that the complexity of activities, their communicative design and cognitive foundation are reserved only for later stages of L2 learning, whereas the lower levels require mechanical, simple, drill-based and imitation-based practice activities. Finally, reflexive or pragmatically based activities were not observed in this corpus at all, while only in intonation and contrastive stress practice the targeted phonological units were placed in specific broader communicative context (a situational dialogue, a scenario with instructions, etc.).

4.2.6. Integrating pronunciation practice

The most encouraging finding of this study was the fact that a great majority of pronunciation activities analysed were, in fact, rather successfully adapted and integrated with other language points taught and practised in the lesson. In this sense, only a very small number of pronunciation practice activities were only 'add on-s' in Macdonald's (2002, p. 7) sense, with little connection to the rest of the lesson. This is indeed encouraging, indicating that a sound combination of TOEFL Methodology and pronunciation teaching training does equip future EFL teachers with the necessary skills and knowledge to successfully integrate pronunciation practice into other language points taught.

Although many students used the practice activities provided during the course, and a smaller number made the effort to find new or more varied

practice activities, the students almost without exception managed to adapt the activities, to tailor and modify them to fit their particular lesson aims and objectives and to work smoothly together with grammar, vocabulary, language use or skills work. This was done by changing the vocabulary or grammar content of the activities, by modifying the procedures to link with the preceding or following lesson activities, by adapting activity instructions where necessary, and by modifying the time-organization of the activities if necessary. In some cases, this actually meant that the adapted activity was indeed so different from the original one that it could, in fact, be considered a newly developed activity.

Although we would like to have seen a bit more creativity in developing original practice materials and resources, we can still conclude that this aspect of students' training in this course was the most successful one. The area where there is still room for improvement is indicated by the fact that none of the students opted for taking lesson materials, texts or exercises, as Macdonald (2000, p. 12) puts it, "not necessarily focused on pronunciation", and adapting them for pronunciation practice, which would be a process reverse to what they had done. Still, we do not believe that this should be interpreted as an indication of their taking the 'easy way out', or, again in Macdonald's terms "looking for 'off-the-shelf 'materials that do not require adaptation, ... [which] would seem to reflect a general attitude or approach which puts pronunciation outside the central focus of the teaching and learning" (Macdonald 2002, p. 12). Rather, we believe that this indicates that teachers need practical training and clear guidelines in every aspect of the complex task of integrating pronunciation in EFL teaching, and that this kind of practice should also be included in the course.

5. Conclusion

Our qualitative study showed that this kind of approach in pre-service EFL teacher pronunciation teaching education, which combines awareness raising with practical training, yields results, and enables future teachers to include pronunciation practice in their teaching in a meaningful and integrated way. In this sense, it can be said that the introduction of this course into the BA EFL curriculum was a huge first step towards bringing pronunciation teaching back into the classroom (Setter, 2012, p. 454). However, our results also showed that there is room for much further work, improvement and refinement. Some areas proved to be problematic for our

students, such as specifying clear pronunciation teaching aims and objectives, including suprasegmental, discourse and pragmatic aspects of pronunciation much more substantially, and being much more aware of and sensitive to social and cultural contexts of communication, so as to include broader communicative contexts in more pronunciation practice activities. This study once again pointed out the importance of making EFL teachers aware of the many complex factors that interact and govern communication, among which pronunciation is by no means the least important one. Our results suggest that integrating pronunciation into teaching is no easy task, and that future EFL teachers need to be trained in every important aspect of the process. To refer back to Macdonald once again: "unless teachers perceive a need to upgrade skills in this area, they are not likely to change what they do and how they feel about pronunciation" (Macdonald, 2002, p. 12), i.e. to integrate pronunciation "in a deliberate, planned or formal manner" (p. 13).

To move towards this goal, in the course *Pronunciation in L2 teaching* we don't teach students *what* to think about pronunciation teaching, we do not tell them whether to opt for ELF and LFC for their goals or, more conservatively, to stick to standard varieties as models; we do not tell them *which* phonological points are more or less important, what to focus on, and what is more and what less worth their teaching time and effort. Instead, we try to teach them *how* to think about pronunciation, how to evaluate their students' problems, needs, and desired goals, how to take the specific social, cultural and pragmatic aspects of their teaching context into consideration, and, finally, how to try and integrate the pronunciation points they choose into the rest of their teaching. In this sense, the goals of this course are in line with what the recent literature suggests should be done.

On the other hand, this study undoubtedly shows that one course of this kind is not enough, that it can be only the initial step that opens the door, but that more training is required. To help EFL teachers feel confident about setting their goals and putting their ideas about pronunciation teaching to practice, pronunciation teaching training should be incorporated in many other pre-service EFL teacher education courses and in-service teacher training programs.

References

Baker, A., & Murphy J. (2011). Knowledge Base of Pronunciation Teaching: Staking Out the Territory. *TESL Canada Journal / Revue TESL du Canada,* 28(2), 29-50.

Baker,W., Trofimovich, P., Flege, J. E., Mack, M., & Halter, R. (2008). Child–Adult Differences in Second-Language Phonological Learning: The Role of Cross-Language Similarity. *Language and Speech,* 51(4), 317-342.

Breitkreutz, J. A., Derwing, T. M., & Rossiter, M. J. (2001). Pronunciation Teaching Practicesin Canada. *TESL Canada Journal / Revue TESL du Canada,* 19(1), 51-61.

Bucholtz, M., & Hall, K. (2005). Identity and interaction: A sociocultural linguistic approach. *Discourse Studies*, 7(4-5), 585-614.

Burgess, J., & Spencer, S. (2000). Phonology and pronunciation in integrated language teaching and teacher education. *System* 28, 191-215.

Chela-Flores, B. (2001). Pronunciation and language learning: An integrative approach. *IRAL,* 39, 85–101.

Dauer, R. M. (2005). The Lingua Franca Core: A New Model for Pronunciation Instruction? *TESOL Quarterly*, 39(3), 543-550.

Derwing, T. M. (2003). What do ESL students say about their accents? *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 59(4), 547-566.

Derwing, T. M. (2010). Utopian goals for pronunciation teaching. In J. Levis & K. LeVelle (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 1st Pronunciation in Second Language Learning and Teaching Conference, Iowa State University, Sept. 2009* (pp. 24-37). Ames, IA: Iowa State University.

Deterding, D. (2010). ELF-based Pronunciation Teaching in China. *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 33(6), 3-15.

Elliott, R. A. (1997). On the teaching and acquisition of pronunciation within a Communicative Approach. *Hispania,* 80/1, 95-108.

Gilbert, J. B. (2010). Pronunciation as orphan: What can be done. *Speak Out!,* 43, 3-7. *As We Speak, newsletter of TESOL,* SPLIS.

Hancock, M. (2003). *English Pronunciation in Use.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hancock, M. (2007). *Pronunciation Games* (15thed.) Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Henderson, A., Tergujeff, E., Kirkova-Naskova, A., Kautzsch, A., Waniek-Klimczak, E., Levey, D., ... & Curnick, L. (2012). The English pronunciation teaching in Europe survey: Selected results. *Research in Language,* 10(1), 5-27.

Henderson, A., Tergujeff, E., Kirkova-Naskova, A., Kautzsch, A., Waniek-Klimczak, E., Levey, D., ... & Curnick, L. (2013, May). English Pronunciation Teaching in Europe Survey: Factors inside and outside the classroom. In *Proceedings of the*

Third International Conference on English Pronunciation: Issues and Practices, EPIP3 (pp. 36-40). University of Murcia.

Hewings, M (2004): *Pronunciation Practice Activities*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hismanoglu, M., & Hismanoglu S. (2010). Language teachers' preferences of pronunciation teaching techniques: traditional or modern? *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences* 2 (2010), 983–989.

Hismanoglu, M., & Hismanoglu S. (2011). Internet-based pronunciation teaching: An innovative route toward rehabilitating Turkish EFL learners' articulation problems. *European Journal of Educational Studies,* 3(1), 23-36.

Jenkings, J. (2006). Current Perspectives on Teaching World Englishes and English as a Lingua Franca. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(1), 157-181.

Jones, R. (1997). Beyond "listen and repeat": Pronunciation teaching materials and theories of second language acquisition. *System*, 25(1), 103-112.

Kang, O. (2010). ESL learners‟ attitudes toward pronunciation instruction and varieties of English. In J. Levis & K. LeVelle (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 1st Pronunciation in Second Language Learning and Teaching Conference, Iowa State University, Sept. 2009* (pp. 105-118). Ames, IA: Iowa State University.

Kelly, G. (2000). *How to Teach Pronunciation*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.

Keys, K. J. (2012). Discourse level phonology in the language curriculum: review of current thinking in teaching pronunciation in EFL courses. *Revista Linguagem & Ensino*, 3(1), 89-105.

Levis, J. M. (2005). Changing contexts and shifting paradigms in pronunciation teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39(3), 369-377.

Levis J. M., & Grant, L. (2003). Integrating Pronunciation Into ESL/EFL Classrooms. *TESOL Journal*, 12(2), 13-19.

Luchini , P. (2005). Task-Based Pronunciation Teaching: A State-of-the-art Perspective. *Asian EFL Journal,* 7(4), 191-202.

Macdonald, S. (2002). Pronunciation – views and practices of reluctant teachers. *Prospect* 17(3), 3-18.

Macdonald, S. (2015). "The tutor never asked me questions": Pronunciation and student positioning at university. *Journal of Academic Language & Learning*, 9(2), A31-A41.

Morley, J. (1991). The Pronunciation Component in Teaching English to speakers of Other Languages. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(3), 481–520.

Moyer, A. (1999). Ultimate attainment in L2 phonology: The critical factors of age, motivation, and instruction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 21, 81–108.

Nixon, C. & Tomlinson, M. (2005). *Primary Pronunciation Box. Pronunciation games and activities for young learners*. Ernst Klett Sprachen.

Nixon, C., & Tomlinson, M. (2009). *Primary Communication Box: speaking and listening activities and games for younger learners*. Ernst Klett Sprachen.

Pickering, L. (2006). Current research on intelligibility in English as a Lingua Franca. Annual *Review of Applied Linguistics,* 26, 219-233.

Piske, T., MacKay I. R. A., & Flege, J. E. (2001). Factors affecting degree of foreign accent in an L2: A review. *Journal of Phonetics,* 29, 191-215.

Seidlhofer, B. (2001). Closing a conceptual gap: The case for a description of English as a lingua franca. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 11, 133–158.

Seidlhofer, B. (2004). Research perspectives on teaching English as a lingua franca. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics,* 24, 209–239.

Setter, J. (2012). Theories and Approaches in English Pronunciation. In *25 Years of Applied Linguistics in Spain: Milestones and Challeges* (pp. 447-457). Universidad de Murcia. Retrieved from: http://www.um.es/lacell/aesla/contenido/pdf/3/setter.pdf

Setter, J., & Jenkins, J. (2005). State-of-the-Art Review Article: Pronunciation. *Language Teaching*, 38, 1–17.

Sheppard, C., Hayashi, C., & Ohmori, A. (2007). Factors accounting fro attainment in foreign language phonological competence, *ICPhS,* ID 1499.

Sifakis, N.C., & Sougari, A.-M. (2005). Pronunciation issues and EIL pedagogy in the periphery: A survey of Greek state school teachers' beliefs. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39, 467-488.

Sifakis, N. C., & Sougari, A. M. (2010). Between a Rock and a Hard Place: An Investigation of EFL Teachers' Beliefs on what Keeps them from Integrating Global English in their Classrooms. *EIL, ELF, global English: Teaching and learning*, 301-320.

Tergujeff, E. (2012) The English Pronunciation Teaching in Europe Survey: Finland. *Apples – Journal of Applied Language Studies,* 6(1), 29-45.

Timmis, I. (2002). Native speaker norms and International English: a classroom view. *ELT Journal*, 56(3), 240-250

Trofimovich, P., & Baker. W. (2006). Learning second language suprasegmentals: Effect of L2 experience on prosody and fluency characteristics of L2 speech. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28, 1-30.

***

Online *The Internet TESL Journal,* http://iteslj.org/links/ESL/Pronunciation/

Online English Club, https://www.englishclub.com/esl-worksheets/pronunciation/

Online ESL Flow, http://www.eslflow.com/pronunciationlessonplans.html

Online One-stop English, http://www.onestopenglish.com/skills/pronunciation/pronunciation-exercises/

Nina Lazarević[1]
Faculty of Philosophy
University of Niš
Serbia

ON THE ROAD TO GOOD PRACTICE – CHALLENGES OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING LICENSE EXAM IN SERBIA

Abstract
Even though "[t]raditionally the professional development of teachers had been thought of as something done by others *for* or *to* teacher" (Johnson, 2009, p. 25), many other alternative professional development structures have appeared recently – from well established workshops and seminars to "self-directed, collaborative, inquiry based learning" (Johnson, 2009, p. 25). These learning situations should bring the creation of sustainable and readily available professional support, however, there still seems to be a lagging between the theory and practice (Catroux & Deyrich, 2009; Harlan, 2000; Posteguillo & Palmer, 2000).

The research shows that novice teachers feel this mismatch the most (Cindrić, Andraka & Bilić-Štefan, 2014). Therefore, the paper examines the practice and competences of elementary school English language teachers in their teaching license exam. The focus is on several areas of performance such as the choice of appropriate and up-to-date methodology, critical analysis of teaching objectives, communicative nature of classes, and realization of integrated skill activities as tools for enhanced student learning. These areas will be analysed through the lesson plans, their realization and discussion after the classes of 35 teachers who took the license exam in October 2013 and October 2014.

Key words: in-service teacher training, professional development, teacher training, license exam

∞∞∞

[1] nina.lazarevic@filfak.ni.ac.rs

1. Introduction

The new challenges that a fast-changing world is placing before education are most readily seen in classrooms, where well-established practices should be tested, adapted, changed so that they survive the test of time. There has always been a little lag between the research and practice, but for the most part, teachers are familiar with new trends, they try to incorporate new tools into their teaching and be informed about new theory from the fields of psychology, sociology, IT, intercultural studies.

With novice teachers, the requirements are perhaps even more demanding, as these teachers have to combine both teaching and administrative work behind it and at the same time improve and develop their teaching practices. In Serbia, the law requires novice teachers to pass the state teaching license exam after a year of teaching (Book of regulations 72/09, 52/11 and 55/13) where they need to show that they are able to manage critical incidents that might happen in the classroom, prepare and carry out a lesson, and finally, that they have a sound theoretical basis in psychology and education, as well as intimate knowledge of the education law and the Constitution.

With a change of regulations, and centralization of the state exam (so that it can be taken only in Belgrade and Novi Sad, and no longer in other university centers) there has been a 'gridlock' of novice teachers waiting for their state exam, so that some of them have been waiting from four to nine years for the exam. It is this group of teachers and their performance that will be analysed in this paper, because they are in a dual position of practically being in-service teachers and still waiting for the license, at the same time amassing experience and with a workload similar to that of already licensed teachers. However, they still present the teachers who have most recently entered the teaching practice so we might analyse their practice for the presence of the latest improvements and innovations.

2. Teacher education

Research of teacher education seems to be rather recent, starting with first teacher training programs in the 1960s (Burns & Richards, 2009) and, although the practice is usually soon to follow latest theoretical findings, there is still a gap between the latest theory and its implementation in the classroom (Catroux & Deyrich, 2009; Harlan, 2000; Posteguillo & Palmer,

2000). In addition, there are not many studies available that offer a broad overview of the current practices (Burns & Richards, 2009), and the interplay of many elements that add up to a successful teaching practice – theoretical training, practice, personal philosophy of teaching, school system, curriculum constraints, mentoring, collaboration with other teachers – to mention but a few, still need to be further explored.

Two different forces have been influencing teacher education – the advancements in the field of (applied) linguistics, and inevitably IT development on one hand, and the globalization and demands for competent English language teaching. The theories of language learning have certainly played their part in methodologies and expectations about teacher competencies. In the local context, too, the need for a competent speaker with a high level of not only linguistic but communicative competence, who can negotiate different contexts and communicate with native and non-native speakers alike has been part of the curriculum for at least a decade (Book of regulations 22/2005, 51/2008).

With regars to further teacher development, a distinction can be made between teacher training and teacher development (Freeman, 2001) as these are two different types of education. While training implies externally defined content and delivery as well as external assessment, as is the case with university courses, the structure of teacher development is more narrowly focused on the teacher. A lot of learning depends on the experience and as a result, "the impacts of teacher development are usually self-assessed through reflective practices" (Freeman, 2001, p. 76). This type of teacher learning is what more experienced teachers should engage in, and "is generally viewed as an in-service strategy which can take advantage of the background and practical knowledge of experienced teachers. It is often used in the context of peer-led staff development, peer mentoring or coaching, and other selforganised activities" (Freeman, 2001, p. 76). Once a pre-service teacher has had their teacher training, they should be able to actively work on their teacher development. While the state license exam is only the first point of scrutiny into a teacher's arsenal of skills and knowledge, it might be expected to be the strongest one, given that the teacher training basis has been put into practice in the actual teaching setting.

The school setting is an important element of continuous teacher development and could greatly influence the atmosphere and nature of teaching practices. The research (Clark & Peterson 1986; Kleinsasser &

Savignon 1992; Tsui 1996; Ulichny 1996 as cited in Freeman, 2001, p. 78) has shown that

> learning to teach is not simply a matter of translating ideas encountered in teacher education settings into the classroom. In fact, the conventional notion of turning theory into practice begs the question of how the sociocultural environments of schools can mediate and transform such input as teacher-learners act on it (Freeman, 2001, p. 78).

However, not much has been done to revert the "knowledge-transmission perspective" (Freeman, 2001, p. 78), as the educational system prefers the top-down, prescriptive approach to teacher education through workshops, seminars and courses approved by the higher institutions even though such an approach is evidently in a direct collision with the teacher development that favours self-reflection and bottom-up structure.

Prior learning experiences that novice teachers have obtained "play a powerful role in shaping their views of effective teaching and learning and their teaching practices" (Crandall, 2000, p. 35). Unless some critical analysis and "conscious reflection" is applied to those experiences, some of these practices prove "resistant to change" (Crandall, 2000). The lack of conscious reflection on practices may result in teachers resorting to those teaching strategies they are most familiar with, or those witnessed in their earlier schooling.

Finally, in the greatest number of cases, teacher education continues under the mentorship of more experienced colleagues. "Research has indicated that novice teachers who are mentored in a formal manner tend to be more effective teachers in their early years, since they learn from guided practice rather than depending on trial and error alone" (Farrell, 2009, p. 184). However, it should be noted that recent studies have shown that "the mere appointment of a mentor is no guarantee that the novice teacher will be successfully socialized into teaching within the school (Farrell 2003)" (Farrell, 2009, p. 184). It is not a rare thing that even though a mentor is assigned to a novice teacher, they do not have true collaboration (Farrell, 2003). It is therefore important to work on the building of the community of practice which through the support of the school setting provides a sound basis and rich environment for novice and experience teachers alike.

3. EFL teacher education in Serbia

Teacher education in Serbia is going to be discussed in its three components. The first one is the pre-service English teacher education, the second one is in-service training of the novice teachers before the license exam, and finally, the continuous professional development of teachers.

Firstly, all university centers in Serbia have Methodology courses which are similarly organized. Usually, students acquire the theoretical basis, important theories of learning and teaching, and main methods and approaches in one semester and the lists of readings in the syllabi show that the courses are based on almost the same material (Harmer, 2005; Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Scrivener, 1998, 2005; Thornbury, 2006; Ur, 2002). After the theoretical framework has been established, students engage in two types of practice activities. The fist one is microteaching, a well-established teacher-training procedure organized so that it simplifies the complexities of the regular teaching-learning process, with all important elements, such as class size, time, task, and content, scaled down to provide optimal training conditions. The second one is actual *practicum* or *practice teaching*, with students as 'interns' in local schools. Therefore, even though there is not a complete uniformity, in terms of the form and duration, the similar subject matter and basic skills are included in all the courses at all departments.

Table 1. *Organization of TEFL courses at Serbian universities*

University	**Course work***	**Teaching practice**
Niš	Theory-based course, 5th semester	Simulated teaching, 5th semester Practicum, 6th semester
Belgrade	Basics of teaching, 3rd and 4th semesters; Further practice, 5th semester	Simulated teaching, 6th semester. Teaching practice, 7th and 8th semesters
Novi Sad	Theoretical work, 6th semester	Practicum, 7th semester
Kragujevac	Basic theoretical framework, 6th semester	Microteaching, simulated teaching, 7thsemester
Priština (Kosovska Mitrovica)	Theory based work, 7th and 8th semesters	Microteaching, teaching simulation situations, 7th and 8th semesters
Novi Pazar	Methodology of TEFL, 5th and 6th semesters	*(no information on this available from the official web site)*

*The data are based on the syllabi and curricula for the last cycle of accreditation. All information available on official sites of the faculties

Once in school, novice teachers have to follow a particular form of preparation for the license exam, which is regulated by the Book of regulations (72/09, 52/11 and 55/13).

A novice teacher collaborates with a mentor, and as a preparation for the state exam the mentor is required to:

- ✓ help the novice with preparation and realization of teaching,
- ✓ observe at least 12 classes within the first year of teaching,
- ✓ analyse teaching in order to continuously monitor the development of the novice teacher.

After a year of teaching, the mentor has to submit a report on the qualification and quality of work of the novice teacher to the principal.

Both the novice teacher and the mentor keep a journal on the work and progress: for the novice, it is a monthly plan, lesson preparations, reflection on work, reflection on students, and mentor's classes. In turn, the mentor keeps documentation on observed classes, topics, activities, suggestions for improvement, and ways in which the novice has incorporated those suggestions for improvement.

After a year in school, the novice teacher teaches a class and then discusses it with the committee, made up of the principal, a member of the school board and the school psychologist. The mentor is present, but not in the capacity of a committee member. Novice teachers have an opportunity (in case they underperformed) to redo the class and improve their performance.

At this point, after a one-year period of teaching, there is a number of competencies and abilities that the novice teacher should have acquired (Book of regulations 22/2005, 51/2008). Firstly, novice teachers should show the knowledge of the lesson planning format, different types and structures of classes, and the ability to adapt material to different students. Then, a certain amount of competence is expected in regard to selection of the appropriate teaching material and organization of extra-curricular activities. Other important competencies are building student-teacher relationship, successful communication with other teachers and parents, and the ability to work with special needs children. Finally, novice teachers should have actively worked on their ability to analyse their own work, though this is stated as the last competence on the list of requirements for the state license exam.

With all the requirements fulfilled, teachers take the license exam that consists of several parts, only one of which is the focus of this paper. Teachers need to take exams in pedagogy and/ or psychology in case they did not

already pass those exams during their studies. Then, they are tested on regulations and laws on education and teaching (teachers should show they are well acquainted with The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, The Convention on the Rights of the Child, The Law on the foundations of the education system, The Constitution, The Law on elementary school education/ high school education) as well as on their knowledge of pedagogical critical incidents. Finally, teachers are required to prepare a lesson plan and give a lesson in either elementary or high school – depending where they already teach.

Once the teachers have obtained their license, they are required to continually professionally develop, attend seminars, workshops, give support to colleagues by observing their classes and doing 'show classes', or demonstrations, for other teachers. For each of these activities teachers are awarded a certain amount of points, and during a period of five years, teachers should amass 120 points.

The continuous professional development is done through a varied selection of seminars, round tables and workshops offered mostly by official educational institutions (in case of Serbia, Zavod za unapredjenje obrazovanja i vaspitanja, Zavod za vrednovanje kvaliteta obrazovanja i vaspitanja, and faculties), professional organizations (English language teacher association ELTA, The British Council, different textbook publishers), and least frequently by teachers themselves. This top-down approach to teacher development is somewhat in a collision with the new expectations from teachers to be more proactive and engaged in action research among other things (Pešikan 2013).

Some of the current projects (Support Human Capital Development & Research – General Education & Human Capital Development - "Razvionica", Erasmus+ IPA project) aim at transferring the whole educational process of pre-service teachers to schools, where teachers in several 'practice shools' would be mentors and the only ones responsible for both development and grading of students. While this might be beneficial for the easier transition of novice teachers into practice, removing the process from the university setting might be detrimental in the long run. The potential problems that might ensue go beyond the scope of this paper, but it should be said that the universities need to have a deciding role in mentor selection, as it is their responsibility to ensure high standards in mentor selection. Also, projects like these sidestep the university competencies and scope of activity.

Finally, while there are different opportunities for professional development, there are not any data as to what is being implemented in the classroom after in-service trainings. There is a database of teachers who applied new knowledge gained in seminars to their teaching practice ("Saznali na seminru, primenili u praksi" [Learnt at a seminar, appliedin practice], ZUOV), but there are not any data on English language teachers. The research done is mostly small scale, for example, a study of reflective teaching where English language teachers who claimed they were familiar with reflective teaching practice did not know the techniques of its implementation into their work (Vidaković, 2013). It is therefore an important question how training is applied in classrooms, and where and how novice teachers can benefit the most from it.

4. Previous research

While the teacher education in general seems to have become an important issue in education research (Attardo & Brown, 2005; Bartels, 2005; Bruner, 1986; Lave, 1988), and different aspects of continuous teacher education of English language teachers have been researched, it was mostly to explore the attitudes rather than practices of in-service teachers (Freeman, 1989) or suggestions and hypothetical problem-solving strategies (Stanković, Milin & Đerić, 2015). Further, the overview of previous research of novice teachers shows it is aimed at students and pre-service education, and for the most part at students' attitudes and beliefs, showing that "the most frequent objection to the education of teachers was related to the gap between initial teacher education and the application of newly acquired skills in practice" (Cindrić, Andraka & Bilić-Štefan, 2014, p. 12) (see also Pantić, 2008).

Those studies that are aimed at English language teachers are done for the European setting (Kelly et al., 2004; Nikolov *et al*., 2007), mostly with member countries as participants, therefore leaving the Serbian context outside the data collection and analysis.

5. Research aim and methodology

The paper will present the analysis of the lesson plans and realization of classes of 39 candidates who took their English language license exam. The data were collected in October 2013 and October 2014 by observing the

classes, collecting the lesson plans and finally, having a short interview with the teachers.

All classes were realized in Belgrade elementary schools which have a long tradition of organizing license classes. Most classes were held with older students, the complete distribution of classes is given in Table 2.

Table 2. *Number of classes per grades*

Grade	**No of classes**	**Grade**	**No of classes**
Grade 1	1	Grade 5	9
Grade 2	1	Grade 6	8
Grade 3	2	Grade 7	8
Grade 4	0	Grade 8	10

During the exam classes, novice teachers were specifically observed for several aspects of their performance: lesson plan (with the focus on the set objectives and aims), realization of the activities, management of time, classroom, and possible critical episodes, and finally, for the critical reflection on their teaching. The paper discusses and analyses these elements and points to possible changes and improvements in novice teacher education and professional development.

The analysis of the data was done against a body of literature (Harmer, 2001; Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Scrivener 2005; Ur, 2002) that was used as a framework for classroom practices. These authors agree provide blueprints for lesson organization and discuss the setting of objectives and stage aims, choice and adaptation of material, and skill and grammar teaching. Scrivener (2005) in particular deals with classroom management dividing it into several segments that are used for the analysis of the teachers' performance. Classroom management is of particular importance when the teacher meets a group of students for the first time. Elements such as grouping, timing, sequencing, dealing with potential unruly behaviour can be crucial for learning in the classroom. Thorough reflection on these elements in high-stakes situation as a license exam would indeed give the teacher additional support and confidence.

The data were analyzed by applying a qualitative methodology (Patton, 2002) in the form of observation notes, lesson plan analysis and discussions, that is, short interviews.

It was expected that the candidates would use a standardized lesson plan pro forma. Also, it was expected that the previous training and development up to that point would be seen in the organization of the class – in its different aspects, and in particular those that authors foreground as the most important: aims and objectives, classroom management, material design and adaptation of activities.

Participants

There were 5 male teachers and 34 female teachers, a fact that supports the long-existing practice of having more female teachers. The teachers came from all parts of Serbia, with the exception of Vojvodina as it has its own regional committee. This particular set of teachers was in an unfortunate situation to be called novice teachers even though their actual teaching experience is quite substantial, waiting for the exam from four to nine years.

6. Results and discussion

The research data will be presented in subsequent sections, together with their analyses. The observed practices will be compared with the current literature on teaching and the requirements of the curriculum.

Lesson objectives and aims

There are many pro forma lesson plans in use, however, it transpired from the study that not all teachers see its value, in terms of guidelines to a successful lesson. The lesson plan should not be seen as a constricting, fossilized form, but as a blueprint of where learning opportunities might occur. Not only the learning opportunities evidently present in the lesson focus, but "those that may only happen if the lesson takes a specific direction or includes an optional stage" (Anderson, 2015, p. 232). This could be especially important for these teachers, who enter a new classroom, where they might have faced a range of possible scenarios taking place during the lesson. Having a detailed plan, in terms of what possible course of action could be taken if some of their assumptions about the proficiency level, learning needs or discipline of students had been proven wrong would have shown seriousness and the teaching practice directed at students' achievements and needs.

The teachers for the most part set very general objectives for their classes. They either listed new vocabulary or a revision to be done, without

stating which items in particular would be covered in the class. For grammar teaching, the teachers would state the new grammar units, for example, "*zero conditional, I'd rather and its usage, revision of the Present Simple and Past Simple Passive*) without further explanations. Therefore, it was not clear from the lesson plan which vocabulary items or particular usages of a grammar unit would be covered. This might be ascribed to the experience the teachers had gained, so that they felt confident about what to do in the classroom. However, the outcomes of the classes show that it is these vague objectives that added to insufficient practice for students and almost no productive activities where students would use the new material with minimal teacher guidance.

It is surprising to see that the teachers showed that they were guided more by the textbook than by the syllabus. A reason for this might be that they took a unit from the textbook as their "license exam task" rather than the teaching points from the syllabus for that particular class. This then resulted in the teachers' decision to cover everything mentioned in the textbook, consequently leading to insufficient time given to important points and insufficient practice for students.

As teachers are required to include functional objectives in their lesson plans, most of them set "link with everyday life, using the learned material in future work" or "development of communicative skills" as these objectives. In terms of functions, these objectives do not mean much, as they are too general and are actually aims for a year-long course, and not a particular language unit. Functional objectives are more closely connected with the outcomes of the class, which few teachers pointed out. In this respect the teachers showed they did not always make a distinction between these different objectives, which in turn, led to vaguely stated objectives.

Lesson structure

Out of all the teachers, only four started a class with a warm up. The teachers usually started right away with questions about a particular unit/ structure/ topic. A number of teachers used this initial phase of the class to make name-tags with students, however, not all used them afterwards during the class activities. Therefore, the activity did not serve its purpose, yet time was spent on it.

If the topic was vocabulary, the students were asked to read and listen to a text, answer several questions and then continue with other practice activities, such as matching, fill in the sentences, fill in the tables, finishing

sentences. Only in several instances were students asked to use the newly presented words again, or to produce their own text or sentences. Free practice was very limited in scope, regardless of the age of students and vocabulary items covered.

If the objectives were grammar based, the students would be given a sentence as an example, or they would be asked to read the explanation and the example sentence from the book, and would then proceed to do sentence completion, fill-in, question and answer exercises. The teachers avoided eliciting the rules or guiding the students to establishing the rule on their own. The practice activities that followed were structured and guided, again leaving very little space for students' free production.

Skills were mostly absent from the objectives, even when these were essential to achieving objectives. For example, in a lesson on abbreviations for text messaging, no pre-reading activities were done, and in a lesson on reading short stories a pre-task was done by the teacher herself. While students were expected to read and listen to certain pieces of text/ tapescript, these activities are never organized so that they prepare students for the skill. There was no pre-skill work other than few questions, and students were asked to simply listen to a tapescript and do the task – which was in the form of comprehension questions. While many authors describe in detail the organization of skill-based activities (Brown, 2007; Scrivener, 2005; Ur, 2002, to name but a few), the teachers, with the exception of only two, did not provide students with either pre or post-task work.

The teachers might have seen the activities as any other that focus on vocabulary or grammar drill, and therefore approach them with a 'do-check' routine. However, if communicative knowledge is the aim, then skills have to receive a more central role.

Finally, for the last section of the classes, some teachers engaged their students in production activities, however, the number of these teachers was rather small, only five. During these activities, students were given different situations and had to give advice, or students were asked to visualize a particular scene and then write down what they had imagined.

The lesson structure of choice was somewhat old fashioned PPP (presentation-practice-production) and in that respect showed that the teachers resorted to the well-known and tried organization. The usage of task-based learning or elements of any other kind of teaching (cooperative, skill-based, for example) was not observed which might be explained by the

age of students and their proficiency levels. However, even those teachers who taught to the 7th and 8th graders decided to keep the PPP structure.

In fewer than half lesson plans, in 15 of them, there were additional activities. The lack of additional activities from the rest of the plans might be explained by the fact that the teachers might have gotten into their routine, given they all had been working more than three years, believing they could keep their timing and consequently did not need any additional activities. Still, this being their 'show class' including the additional activities would have proven they have a good grasp on lesson planning and its necessary elements. Also, these might have proven useful in cases where the teachers needed extra practices, or where they had misjudged the proficiency level (Meyer, 2002).

Given that the teachers did not know the class they were about to teach, it is interesting that their lesson plans did not have any alternatives, they did not consider points where activities might be shortened if they were pressed for time, or any extra 'contingency' activities to add if the students managed to finish fast. While their experience might account for this, it is unsound to have the 'hunch' of teachers inform their practice (Anderson, 2015; Meyer 2002). It is understandable that the teachers had developed a 'feel' for organization of lessons. On the other hand, the teachers seem to more resort to this hunch and their personal experience than theory, as they were not always articulate in explaining and justifying the organization of the class and the choice of activities. In discussions after the class, the candidates said they tried to make activities fun, to have a pleasant atmosphere, with only one teacher explaining the sequence of activities with the easier-to-complex rule. The foundation in theory would have provided a stronger support, a wider choice of possibilities and would vouch for the teachers' competence.

Homework assignment

Homework assignments were given in all classes, and for the most part followed the topic and content of the lessons. A number of teachers used a workbook for homework assignments, and several offered a more creative task (to search the internet in order to find information, choose a person and write a biography, have a choice to either describe a holiday destination or write an email to a friend). For some homework assignments, students were not given enough information, or they were not provided with a context (for example, students were asked to write about a Detective of the year in 10

sentences without further explanation if it should be based on and relate to the character from the textbook or students' own imagination).

Classroom management

Timing

The teachers used a lesson format that divided the class into 3 parts: introductory, main and concluding, assigning 5 minutes to first and last parts and around 35 minutes to the main part. Out of all teachers, eleven of them had a class broken down into smaller time units. The dynamics of the class was in some instances influenced by this rough time division, as the teachers ran out of time and spent more time on task due to the lack of pre-planned timing. Even though the main part of the class had its logical smaller organizational units, it proved that teachers did not pay too much attention to the transitional activities and actual timing. This might be accounted for by the time spent teaching which was considerably longer than a year for most of them. However, it also showed that more attention should be given to time organization.

The teacher talking time for most candidates was greater in relation to student talking time, and the focus in classes was more on a teacher's explanation, than on students' active exploration or induction of rules.

Interaction

Students were cooperative and active in almost all the classes. Most classes were based on student-teacher and teacher-student interaction. The teachers engaged students mostly into pair work, with five teachers who had group activities, but only two teachers had the activity which asked for a group effort while others did not (for example, a group had to add two sentences to a poster, or a group had to jointly write a story about what students individually visualized). The teachers did not try any grouping or regrouping, and pair-work activities were done by students sitting together at a desk.

Rapport

All teachers were able to build the rapport with the students before the end of the lesson, except with one class. The teachers for the most part had a pleasant and friendly attitude to students, which was especially noticeable with those teachers who worked with younger students. Only two teachers

had problems with discipline, in the sense that they could not stop the background chatter, and the constant buzz in the classroom, or that they were not able to deal with a disruptive student. These two teachers decided not to deal with the discipline problem which inevitably led to a complete disintegration of their classes.

Using first (L1) or second language (L2) in the classroom

The teachers used translation fairly often in their classes, nine out of 39 of them, and interestingly, more in the 7th and 6th grades, than in the 1st or 3rd. They used Serbian either in the introduction to the class, or to make a grammar rule clear, or to check for understanding during the class. This was done even when it was clear that students did not have any problems with comprehension.

Using the L1 is not in itself unfavourable, and the long lasting debate about the usage of the L1 in foreign language classes has seen arguments for both sides. Stern believes that L1 should be allowed in the L2 classroom for several reasons: we always start with a language we already know, and the L1 offers a frame of reference" (Stern, 1992, p. 282-283). The initial stages of language learning might benefit from, as Sterns says, falling back on comparisons between L1 and L2. Scrivener does not 'ban' the use of the L1, however, he advocates for the situations in which students would choose to use English over using their mother tongue (Scrivener, 2005, p. 101). The case with the observed classes was not that the students used Serbian, but that the teachers resorted to it, even when there was no need for that, for example, students showed understanding, or were able to do the activity, there were illustrations, examples that provided context.

Material

Almost all teachers had prepared material in the form of word charts, posters, flashcards and handouts. For younger learners, only one teacher had realia. However, sometimes these were not used to their fullest potential, and usually when one particular material was done, the teachers did not go back to it and did not recycle it.

In very few classes a gradation of material was seen (for example, for the usage of the Passive voice, examples led to individual sentences and finally to a cloze test). The teachers mostly used traditional activities, such as different types of matching, fill-in activities and scrambled sentences. Also the teachers would ask students to listen, or listen and read/ colour/ circle the

solution, listen and then answer the comprehension questions, copying with little regard for differentiation or gradually increased level of complexity in tasks. One teacher used the activities from Desuggestopedia (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). With these activities, students mostly showed recognition of new material and its usage in controlled contexts, and there were not any activities where the students would use the new material on their own.

The teachers made little use of material already in the classroom, so, for example, two teachers who taught geographical elements of the UK did not refer to any of the maps in the classroom, and proceeded to explain the location and characteristics of the country without any demonstration. A new setting and nervousness might account for this, but on the other hand, it also shows that the teachers did not pay regard to the cognitive levels of the students and did not follow some of the basic procedures when presenting material – illustration and demonstration which significantly help recognition and retention (Scrivener, 2005; Ur, 2002).

At the pre-adolescent age, students have "a greater need to be motivated by the teacher or the materials in order to learn effectively" (Ur, 2002, p. 288). Therefore the teachers should have included much more material and relied more on the visual material both in books and the classroom. There are many ways in which these could be employed, and some of the important sources of interest for children are pictures, stories and games. Not only does this cater to different learning styles but it adds to a dynamic atmosphere. Pictures are probably the most dominant channel of input, and, if combined with stories, then the results might be even more effective (Kennedy & Jarvis, 1991; Ur, 2002). A game, if understood "as organized action that is rule-governed, involves striving towards a clear goal through performance of challenging tasks, and provides participants with a feeling of pleasurable tension" (Ur, 2002, p. 290), can be a productive language learning opportunity.

Only one teacher used a warm up activity that linked to the topic of the lesson, and in total four teachers decided to start the class with a warm up activity. As some authors would suggest (Lemov, 2010; Ur, 2002), it is of utmost importance to start lessons with the content that would build excitement and engagement, something of a "hook" for students. Engaging and fun activities help the rapport between the teacher and students, and help lower the anxiety (Krashen, 1981), especially in these situations when teachers and students are new to each other.

Learning by doing or through performing various actions, associating actions and words are all effective ways for young learners to acquire language (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Only two teachers incorporated pantomime into their classes, and only one of the teachers included an activity where students had to perform some actions (other activities, such as Simon says, for example, were not observed). The only 'movement' in the class was when students were called to the board to write or when they had to form groups.

Methods

The teachers did not refer to the well-established methods of teaching English (for example, the Direct Method, Natural Approach, Communicative Language Teaching-CLT). The most frequently stated methods were, for example, ex-cathedra, pair work, group-work, reading, dialogue-based method, discussion. The reason for this might be that the lesson plan templates used were those that are used by teachers of all other subjects. This terminology might be appropriate for some other subjects, but for EFL, which has a long tradition, more precise terminology should have been used.

In the realization of classes one teacher used Desuggestopedia techniques, while others mainly applied the Direct Method for presentations and the practice part. The use of some techniques of the TPR was observed with young learners, while other, more recent approaches such as cooperative learning, or task-based learning were not seen. The grammar points were introduced with the Grammar translation method with some of its techniques, for example, explicit explanation of the rules, reading and translating.

The usage of the communicative approach has been a professed practice of teachers (Lazarević, 2007) both in Serbia and abroad. However, this sample shows that the actual practice is quite different with more traditional approaches being employed. 'Playing it safe' and relying on well-known procedures might be one of the reasons, but is again a cause for some concern. If we want students to be successful communicators, active learners, and ultimately, life-long learners, then the approaches where students take centre stage should be applied more, especially by teachers who most recently entered practice.

Oral interview

A discussion about the class with the candidate is the last segment of the teaching part of the license exam. It is expected that the teacher would be able to summarize the class, highlighting the successful aspects and providing alternatives for certain activities. It was expected that due to the longer teaching practice these teachers would show a high level of self-awareness and critical reflection, as it is expected from more experienced teachers: that they have "a better grasp of the critical points in the content that students need to master, are better able to represent these points effectively to students, they are able to justify their classroom actions in a principled manner; and they have better self-monitoring" (Johnson, 2009, p. 31).

What interviews showed was that majority of the teachers were not able to point out problematic points in their lesson plans, nor were they able to justify certain activities. All teachers stated that they were satisfied with their classes, always allowing for possible improvements but in very general terms. They did not offer any alternatives to their activities, and, when there were certain 'critical points' in class (either regarding the time management, or classroom discipline) proved unable to provide reasons for their occurrence or alternative resolutions.

The teachers justified the lack of productive activities (Scrivener, 2005) saying they would typically do revision in the following classes. But even with the practice activities of this type, some of the important characteristics for effective practice (Ur, 2002) are missing. For example, the "volume of language", that is, the amount of language in the activity, heterogeneity, where practice is provided to different levels within the class, and finally, interest, as the teachers especially for the 8th grade, failed to include "fun tasks, attention-catching material or challenge [students'] intellect" (Ur, 2002, p. 23).

It was disconcerting to hear from the teachers in the discussion that they believed they were obliged to cover all the points mentioned in a textbook unit, which half of them stated. The teachers explained it by stating that they were given a page from the textbook to prepare a class on, but none of them stated that they discussed the teaching points with the teacher from the resident school, except to say they had a free choice of what to do with the textbook. However, since textbooks are produced for a wide and varied market, it is up to teachers to tailor the material so that it coincides with the demands of the National curriculum. Showing uncertainty about what to cover in a class after more than three years of teaching shows that the teachers

are either insecure and require very strict and clear guidance or that they believe that the layout of a book should overweight the curriculum requirements. Either way, the lack of conscious reflection and awareness in this stage of their license exam might point to a need for more developement.

The discussions showed that the teachers did not use much of theoretical knowledge when planning classes. With the exception of two teachers, the one who used Desuggestopedia activities and the one who used CLT as a guiding method for her class, the teachers not refer to methods to explain their activities, but rather relied on more immediate experiences, which, for the most part, left them with a lesson plan not thoroughly developed and problems in the classroom. Their teaching contexts are different from the one in which they took the license exam. What 'usually works' in their setting was not necessarily what would be successful in a new classroom. The theoretical knowledge was not expected to be the only guiding principle for these classes, but something to give the basis and inform the choices the teachers make in their, by now, substantial practice.

The teachers who encountered discipline problems and did not deal with them, later in the discussion said that they had not expected such behaviour from the students. They all said that it was expected from the students to be well-behaved, adding that their own students never behaved in that way. Inaction probably stemmed from this, and the wish, as the teachers said, to go through with the plan. Failing to react is never a solution that would work (Scrivener, 2005; Ur 2002), which was proven by these classes as well.

The new classroom does provide many possibilities for misbehaviour for several reasons. The new students know their discipline and behaviour will not be assessed by their regular teachers, therefore probably give themselves more freedom. Then, the teachers are not acquainted with competence level of all students, did not know the students' preferences and abilities – other than the overall competence level of the whole class. One lesson is not enough to understand and build the dynamics of a class. But this to can be to an extent envisioned and prevented by detailed planning.

7. Conclusion

All the results should be analysed and discussed against the fact that strictly speaking, none of the 39 teachers was a 'novice' teacher at the time of

taking the license exam. The 'wait-time' for some of them was as long as nine years.

The obtained results are in this respect certainly alarming for several reasons. If we firstly look at the lesson plans, we can conclude that with the exception of no more than five teachers, the rest did not include all the elements that should be present in a plan (Scrivener, 2005; Ur 2002). The plans mostly described what teachers would do, with little, or no regard to what students would be doing, or possible alternatives if certain activities go awry. This is not to profess that each lesson preparation should be as detailed, but for this particular instance, where teachers should showcase their knowledge and competence, these elements (timing, additional activities, procedures for the teacher and students, points where lesson might take a different path…) had to be included.

The plans and classes followed a page from the textbook, rather than being focused on a particular language unit, structure or a semantic set. This proved to be detrimental for the organization of the class, as most teachers had little sections of the class dedicated to different points from the textbook, with only few of them keeping students on a particular grammar or vocabulary unit(s).

The fact that almost all teachers still rely on traditional methods for both vocabulary and grammar introduction, with very little regard for skills, might show that the gap between the pre-service education, the latest research, and the teaching practice is even wider than we suspected.

If the candidates had been novice teachers in the true meaning of the term, many of these issues might have been ascribed to the lack of experience, training in progress, the one's philosophy of teaching which is still in the making, since ultimately "[T]eacher development is a life-long process of growth which may involve collaborative and/or autonomous learning" (Crandall, 2000, p. 38). As this was not the case, the teacher performance showed that teacher development should be strengthened and perhaps reorganized and more structured. Some of the observed problems could have been prevented with more detailed planning, and more importantly, with more planning concerning what students would be doing in class, rather than just what the teacher would be responsible for. The interviews confirmed that more work is still needed, with teachers actively engaged in the process and actively reflecting on their practices (Crandall, 2000).

These results, disconcerting as they might be, are not surprising if seen from the standpoint of several other studies. Freeman (1994) (as cited in

Farrell 2009) states that the somewhat difficult experiences that novice teachers might face during their first year of teaching, coupled with the weak impact of language teacher education programs might result in washing away of whatever issues and objectives dealt with during the education process, a situation confirmed through a number of studies (Farrell, 2003, 2009; Richards & Pennington, 1998; Tarone & Allwright, 2005).

7.1. Considerations for further research

If we are to improve the present state of affairs we should reevaluate all the participants in this long and important process of introducing novice teachers into actual world of teaching. There are several that transpired from the observation of these license exams, and could be analysed and re-assessed in order to improve the teaching practice.

Firstly, the fact that teachers take the license exam in a school which is not their 'resident' school is only the tip of the iceberg. While it is perhaps unwieldy and cumbersome for few Ministry representatives to assess teachers in their teaching contexts, where they have built rapport with students and certain teaching routines, there must be some middle ground that would cater for the needs and expectations for both parties.

Then, the school policies and school 'atmosphere' might do a lot for individual teachers – both in a positive manner, by encouraging good practice and in a negative manner, by not caring for innovation, effort and new tendencies that novice teachers could bring. This is not something to be verified during the license exam itself, but it is an issue that cropped up during the interviews with teachers.

If it has been observed and stated in both local and more global contexts that there definitely is a gap between formal education and the beginning of teaching, perhaps both higher education representatives and school mentors could do more to ameliorate the situation. Farrell (2009) suggests introducing courses which would span the end of formal education and the beginning of the first year of teaching and might include issues that novice teachers are bound to encounter: analyses of case studies, school profiles, analysis of teaching practices of more experienced teachers, reflective assignments, and classroom discipline among other.

While mentors are invaluable in the process of training of novice teachers, they are not in any way compensated for expertise they offer. They have the same number of classes as when they are not mentoring novices, and are not paid for the mentoring practice. Due to that, they might not see

themselves as a valuable and indispensable part of teacher education. A possible consequence might be that not enough effort is seen on both parts – mentors and teachers. In addition, teachers are rarely held accountable for their lack of initiative, lack of development, so it is easy to see how these negative practices are perpetuated.

Finally, some quality insurance practices might be introduced to help the novice teachers and prevent possible bad practices from being instilled in them. Making the participants in the teacher education process accountable for their actions might raise their awareness while at the same time show them the importance of each and every element in the process.

References

Anderson, J. (2015). Affordance, learning opportunities, and the lesson plan pro forma. *ELT Journal*, 69(3), 228-238.

Attardo, S., & Brown, S. (2005). What's the Use of Linguistics? Pre-Service English Teachers' Beliefs towards Language Use and Variation. In Bartels (Ed.), *Applied Linguistics and Language Teacher Education* (pp. 91-102). New York: Springer.

Bailey, K.M. et *al*. (1996). The language learner's autobiography: Examining the "apprenticeship of observation". In D. Freeman & J. Richards (Eds.), *Teacher learning in language teaching* (pp. 11–29). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Barduhn, S., & J. Johnson (2009). Certification and Professional Qualifications. In A. Burns & J.C. Richards (Eds.), *Guide to Second Language Teacher Education* (pp. 59-65). Cambridge: CUP.

Bartels, N. (2005). Applied Linguistics and Language Teacher Education: What We Know. In Bartels (Ed.), *Applied Linguistics and Language Teacher Education* (pp. 405-424). New York: Springer.

Book of regulations ("Службени гласник РС" бр. 22/2005 and 51/2008). Belgrade: Službeni glasnik.

Brown, H.D. (2007). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. Pearson Longman.

Cindrić, I., Andraka, M., & Bilić-Štefan, M. (2014). The Student-Teachers' Perspectives on the Significance and Acquisition of Teaching Competences. *Croatian Journal of Education*, 16 (1), 11-42.

Crandall, J. (2000). Language Teacher Education. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics,* 20, 34–55.

Catroux, M., & Deyrich, M. (2009). Investigating Gaps and Transfers in Initial EFL Teacher Education for Primary Schools. *Vienna English Working Papers – Special Issue*, 18(3), 22-25. Retrieved from: http://anglistik.univie.ac.at/views/current-issue

Darling-Hammond, L. (2006). Constructing 21st Century Teacher Education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 57(X): 1-15. Retrieved from: http://ewa.convio.net/docs/linda_darlinghammond_article.pdf

Evans, M., & Esch, E. (2013). The elusive boundaries of second language teacher professional development. *The Language Learning Journal,* 41(2), 137-141.

Farell, T.S.C. (2012). *Teacher Reflective Groups (TRGs): A Framework for Serbia*. MELT Magazine for English Language Teachers. Retrieved from: www.britishcouncil.org/serbia-elta-newsletter-2012-april.htm

Farrell, T.S.C. (2009). The Novice Teacher Experience. In A. Burns & J.C. Richards (Eds.), *The Cambridge Guide to Second Language Teacher Education* (pp. 182-189). Cambridge: CUP.

Freeman, D. (1989). Teacher Training, Development, and Decision Making: A Model of Teaching and Related Strategies for Language Teacher Education. *TESOL Quarterly,* 23, 27-45.

Harlan, K. (2000). Foreign Language Textbooks in the Classroom: Bridging the Gap Between Second Language Acquisition Theory and Pedagogy. *Honors Projects*. Paper 5. Retrieved from: http://digitalcommons.iwu.edu/hispstu_honproj/5

Johnson, K. E. (2009). Trends in Second Language Teacher Education. In A, J. Burns & C. Richards (Eds.), *Cambridge Guide to Second Language Teacher Education* (pp. 19-29). NYC: CUP.

Katz, A., & Snow, M. A. (2009). Standards and Second Language Teacher Education. In A. Burns & J.C. Richards (Eds.), *Guide to Second Language Teacher Education* (pp. 66-76). Cambridge: CUP.

Kelly, M., Grenfell, M., Allan, R., Kriza, C., & McEvoy, W. (2004). *European Profile for Language Teacher Education - A Frame of Reference.* Commission Directorate General for Education and Culture.

Knežević, A., & Scholl, M. (1996). Learning to teach together: Teaching to learn together. In D. Freeman & J. Richards (Eds.), *Teacher learning in language teaching* (pp. 79-96). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006). *Understanding Language Teaching: From Method to Postmethod*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc. Publishers.

Lange, D.L. (1990) A blueprint for a teacher development program. In J. Richards & D. Nunan (Eds.), *Second Language Teacher Education* (pp. 245-268). Cambridge: CUP.

Larsen-Freeman, D (2000). *Principles and techniques of language teaching*. Oxford: OUP.

Lazarević, N. (2007). *Correlation of target language culture and sociolinguistic competence of grammar school students.* Unpublished MA thesis.

Lemov, D. (2010). *Teach like a champion*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Meyer, H. (2002). *Didaktika razredne kvake: rasprave o didaktici, metodici i razvoju škole* [s njemačkoga preveo Vladimir Adamček]. Zagreb: Educa.

Nikolov, M., Mihaljević-Djigunović, J., Mattheoudakis, M., Lundberg, G., & Flanagan, T. (Eds.) (2007). *Teaching Modern Languages to Young Learners.* Graz: ECML.

Pantić, N. (Ed.), (2008). *Tuning Teacher Education Curricula in the Western Balkans*. Belgrade: Centre for Education Policy.

Pantić, N., & Čekić Marković, J. (Eds.), (2012). *Nastavnici u Srbiji: stavovi o profesiji i o reformama u obrazovanju*. Beograd: Centar za obrazovne politike.

Pešikan, A. (2013). Nastava. In L. W. Anderson (Ed.), *Nastava orijentisana na učenje: za nastavnike usmerene na postignuća* [translated by Ana Pešikan, Ljiljana Plazinić] (pp. 101-130). Beograd: Centar za demokratiju i pomirenje u jugoistočnoj Evropi.

Posteguillo, S., & Palmer, J. C. (2000). Reflective Teaching in EFL: Integrating Theory and Practice. *TESL-EJ*, 4(3), CF-1. Retrieved from: http://www.cc.kyoto-su.ac.jp/information/tesl-ej/ej15/cf1.html

Richards, J., & Nunan, D. (Eds.) (1990). *Second language teacher education. New York: Cambridge University Press.*

Richards, J. C., & Farrell, T. S. C. (2005). *Professional Development for Language Teachers: Strategies for Teacher Learning*. CUP.

Scrivener, J. (2005). *Learning Teaching*. Oxford: OUP.

Stanković, D., Milin, V., & Đerić , I. (2015). Unapređivanje stručnog usavršavanja nastavnika na nivou škole: uloga direktora škole. In J. Radišić, N. Buđevac & D. Stanković (Eds.), *Doprinos istraživačkih nalaza unapređenju obrazovne prakse. Zbornik radova*. (pp. 95-101). Beograd: ZUOV.

Stern, H. H. (1992). *Issues and options in language teaching.* Oxford: OUP.

Ur, P. (2002). *A Course in Language Teaching.* Cambridge: CUP.

Vidaković, M. (2013). Refleksna praksa kao vid stručnog usavršavanja nastavnika stranog jezika. In Gudurić & Stefanović, (Eds.), *Jezici i kulture u vremenu i prostoru*. Tematski zbornik II/1 (pp. 363-372). Novi Sad: Univerzitet u Novom Sadu.

Weimer, M. (2002). *Learner-centered teaching: five key changes to practice*. San Francisco: The Jossey-Bass higher and adult education series.

Wright, T. (2009). "Trainer Development": Professional Development for Language Teacher Educators. In A. Burns & J.C. Richards (Eds.), *Guide to Second Language Teacher Education*s (pp. 102-112). Cambridge: CUP.

ZUOV, Saznali na seminaru, primenili u praksi. Retrieved from: http://www.zuov.gov.rs/?s=%D0%A1%D0%90%D0%97%D0%9D%D0%90%D0%9B%D0%98+%D0%9D%D0%90+%D0%A1%D0%95%D0%9C%D0%98%D0%9D%D0%90%D0%A0%D0%A3+%D0%9F%D0%A0%D0%98%D0%9C%D0%95%D0%9D%D0%98%D0%9B%D0%98+%D0%A3+%D0%9F%D0%A0%D0%90%D0%9A%D0%A1%D0%98+&lang=sr

INDEX

Teaching languages and cultures in the Post-Method Era: Issues and Developments

Publisher
FACULTY OF PHILOSOPHY
UNIVERSITY OF NIŠ

Represented by
Goran Maksimović, PhD

ISBN 978-86-7379-398-6

Printed by Scero print

Print run 150

Niš, 2015

CIP